ANCIENT AND MODERN

HISTORY.

"In History, as in every branch of mental culture, the first elementary school-instruction is not merely an important, but an essential, condition, to a higher and more scientific knowledge. At first, indeed, it is merely a nomenclature of celebrated personages and events — a sketch of the great historical eras, divided according to chronological dates, or a geographical plan — which must be impressed on the memory, and which serves as a basis preparatory to that more vivid and comprehensive knowledge to be obtained in riper years."

FREDERICK VON SCHLEGEL.

NEW YORK:

WILLIAM H. SADLIER,

11 BARCLAY STREET.

Copyright, 1884, *by William H. Sadlier.*

PREFACE.

For Americans, and for Catholic Americans especially, an interest in general European history is both natural and essential. As Americans, we belong to a country which is peopled by contingents from every European nation; by ancestry we are all foreigners here; and our interests in history are as general as the mixture of blood in our people is varied and diverse. As Catholics, our conception of history cannot centre in the assumed superior importance of any one nation to all others, such as a narrow patriotism sometimes imagines for its own kindred and race; nor can our conception be satisfied with a knowledge of the one or two national histories to which a blood relationship alone might confine it.

History, for Catholic conception, is a history of Christian civilization, or of the ancient civilizations which preceded, as transformed and resurrected by it. This history converges in ancient times to that centre of ancient civilization which became, and has ever since remained, the focus of the Christian faith. It diverges from that centre to the nations of later time as they became subject to its influence, and have remained to the present day, unconsciously, it may be in some cases, controlled by it.

In offering this book for uses of instruction, the author is supported, then, by the sense that its topic is one of vital importance; but as for the methods in which this topic shall be presented in one short book, under the limitations of size which practical usefulness demands, there, indeed, is a broad field for variance of opinion. For the art of teaching has little to do with the knowledge it conveys. The art of teaching is also a science to whose acquisition a lifetime of experience, or the bent of natural genius, must be assistant. A good historian may be a poor instructor—may fail, and sometimes does fail, in the preparation of a text-book on the subject. Practical usefulness being, then, the condition of success and the standard of judgment, the author takes the liberty of noting the practical features of this work.

The typography makes use of three sizes of print. To the large print is assigned the direct matter of fact considered necessary for a general History Primer, and recitations confined to this print will still furnish an exact survey of the subject. The medium print is generally employed for explanatory matter, summaries, descriptions of civilizations, etc. The small print, not intended for recitation, is devoted to details which will give the work additional value for colleges and advanced classes, or to matter which will make the book more interesting to the younger learner, and which could not be otherwise supplied without undue increase of size.

The Chronologies, Synchronistic Tables, Genealogies, and Questions for Review have been given all the space and typographical clearness which their great importance demands.

A most important feature is the space devoted to Historical Geography, in connection with a series of twenty-three double-page, progressive, historical maps. This subject, at once the most neglected in historical instruction and the most fundamentally essential to any exact conceptions of the Past, has never hitherto been adequately illustrated in text-books on general history, and matter relating to it has been necessarily excluded by absence of illustration. The maps here in question have been supplied, with kind approbation of the Author, by the Publisher of Dr. Robert H. Labberton's Historical Atlas.

This Atlas is undoubtedly at once the most useful and the most comprehensive of all Historical Atlases published for student use, not excepting the valuable works of German origin. Its use of colors is more forcible and decided, and therefore clearer in its effects and contrasts, than that usually employed. Such colors, which would be inadvisable in geographical maps, are absolutely essential where the varying boundaries of successive political changes have to be clearly represented.

In illustrations, as in maps, the author has to acknowledge an unprecedented liberality on the part of the Publishers. An examination of the subjects chosen will show them to be of serious historical value—engraved photographs of the monuments of the Past in their present condition, or direct reproductions of the pictures, medals, and engravings of older periods. The portraits reproduce authenticated works made in the time of the individual portrayed.

As regards the treatment of the subject-matter, the topic of American history is excluded from the plan of the work, as the Series to which it belongs has already covered this ground. The Table of Contents presents a summary view of the nations and periods treated, and of the arrangement adopted. This arrangement must be tested by its results in use; but it is the first in which a

sequent view of the epochs of history has been presented without abandoning a treatment by nations.

It is the common opinion of teachers that history should be taught by nations rather than by epochs or philosophical divisions, in view of the difficulties which the latter method causes in the mind of the pupil. In deference to this opinion the author has planned the book, but has preserved the sequence of epochs in Book II. by breaking the histories of the states of Western and Central Continental Europe at 1500. Following the history of the Roman Empire, Germany comes first, and the Germanic epoch of the whole of Europe, which succeeded that of the West-Roman Empire, is thus presented in proper sequence. Leaving the history of Germany at 1500 for that of France down to the same time, the French ascendency over Europe in the time of the Crusades thus receives its proper place. Once more leaving the history of France at 1500 for the Renaissance civilization of Italy, which culminated at that time, the sequence is still preserved. The history of Spain, next taken up, is carried through the epoch of Charles V., for which the matter relating to Germany, France, and Italy affords a solid basis. The Hapsburg monarchy of Charles V. once more gives a footing for the later history of Germany, and that of France is then connected with a brief summary for Europe in general after the French Revolution.

The nations of Northern and Eastern Europe lie in an arch around those of the West and Centre, and are most logically treated after those from which their culture is derived. Here the order of development in civilization has been from west to east. Thus is dictated the arrangement of Book III., which places Ireland first, England second, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden third, Russia fourth, and Turkey last, as only in the 19th century becoming subject to Europeanizing influence. The arrangement of the Ancient Nations in Book I. also observes the sequence of historical development.

Thus much to an indulgent public, as far as preface is concerned. To the kind friends whose confidence inspired and made possible his task—the tribute of the final sentence of his work and the warm well wishes of

THE AUTHOR.

New York, Aug. 25, 1884.

PROGRESSIVE HISTORICAL MAPS.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

BOOK I.—ANTIQUITY—EASTERN NATIONS, GREECE AND ROME.

BOOK II.—MODERN HISTORY—WESTERN AND CENTRAL EUROPE.

BOOK III.—MODERN HISTORY—NORTHERN AND EASTERN EUROPE.

BOOK I.

ANTIQUITY.

THE EASTERN NATIONS OF ANCIENT HISTORY— GREECE AND ROME.

"The virtues of the Pagans were not sins, as Luther pretended. They were real natural virtues, which St. Augustine believed God had often rewarded by great temporal blessings."—THÉBAUD, *The Church and the Moral World*.

EGYPT.

MODERN STUDIES OF THE ANCIENT HIEROGLYPHICS.

The earliest authentic records of History, aside from those of Holy Scripture, relate to Egypt. In the times of the Greeks and Romans, by whom the Nile valley was successively subjected, authors of these nations described the country and related its history. But their accounts have been mainly supplanted by studies, made in our own 19th century, from the still earlier records of the Egyptians themselves — partly from their ruins, paintings, and sculptures, partly from the *hieroglyphics* ("sacred carvings") carved on the temples or written on rolls of papyrus.

These modern studies in Egyptian history have been promoted by the interest attaching to this country, since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, as the highway for European commerce with India. They were first excited by the Egyptian expedition of Napoleon Bonaparte in 1798.

Obelisk at On.*

* Showing a hieroglyphic inscription. On, or Heliopolis, is in the Nile Delta. Its obelisk, erected by Sesortasen I., is the oldest now standing in Egypt and earlier than B. C. 2000. It is of granite, and 68 feet high in the solid block.

Modern Egypt is a province of the Turkish Empire, but only loosely connected with it. The Khedive is a semi-independent prince, rather controlled by European holders of Egyptian bonds and of the shares in the Suez Canal than by the Sultan. The native population consists of Arabs and Kopts. The Arabs are descendants of the Mohammedan conquerors of the 7th century A. D. The Kopts are the descendants of the ancient Egyptians, as their name implies, which is a modified form of the word Egypt—(the Greek *Aiguptos* = *Koptos*). They have been long oppressed by the Turks and Arabs, who profess Mohammedanism, while the Kopts are Christians. The Koptic Church resembles the Greek Church, though not governed by it.

The Koptic language has been supplanted by the Arabic, and is no longer spoken ; but as found in the Missals and Bibles still used by the priests, it is the key to the study of the old Egyptian language, of which it is the direct descendant. Such difficulties as still exist in deciphering Egyptian hieroglyphics are not so much owing to difficulty in spelling them out, as to the fact that the modern Koptic has lost many old Egyptian words, and has much modified others.

The study of Koptic was not, however, taken up by European men of science until they could spell out the hieroglyphics, and the first steps in this direction date from Bonaparte's campaign in Egypt.

The Rosetta Stone.—There was then found in the Delta of the Nile a slab of basalt—now in the British Museum in London—known from the place of discovery as the Rosetta Stone. This slab was covered with three inscriptions—one in Greek, and two in different hieroglyphic styles. The Greek inscription showed that the stone dated from the time of the Ptolemies, the Greek kings of Egypt. Corresponding to the letters in the Greek inscription spelling the word Ptolemy and other proper names, were hieroglyphics spelling the same words. Thus was found the clue to the letters of the old Egyptian alphabet.

Later study of this writing has shown that it had three stages : first, that of picture writing of the simplest kind (like that still used by American Indians), where the picture represents the actual object—for instance a picture of a lion to represent this animal. The second stage used the picture to signify a related idea—the picture of a lion would then, for instance, represent the idea of power. The third stage was the alphabetic, in which the picture signified the first sound used in naming it ; the picture of a lion would then represent the letter L, the Egyptian word for lion being "labo."

In process of time the pictures of the alphabetic stage were more and more simplified into symbolical and abbreviated forms, on account of the toil of carving them, or just as in writing we may grow to shorten and abbreviate the forms of our own letters. For example, the picture of a sieve had been used to denote the sound H. The sieve was finally denoted by a circle with a single line across it, instead of many ⑪. The Phœnician merchants of the coast of Syria, who borrowed this alphabet, found it simpler to make the form 目. This, as adopted by the Greeks, was written ⊟, the form from which the letter H is taken. (The letter H, in Greek use, was subsequently replaced by a "breathing" mark, or aspirate sign.)

Through similar transformation, all other letters of the Phœnician alphabet were modified from Egyptian hieroglyphics and transmitted through the Greeks to later times ; all known alphabets of Europe being modified Phœnician. The Phœnician derivation of our alphabet has been always admitted, but its Egyptian origin is one of the latest results of historic study. The most important fact of Egyptian history is that we owe to it the alphabet in which our books are written.

TEMPLE RUINS OF EGYPT.

When modern travelers saw the wonderful temple ruins of Egypt entirely covered with hieroglyphic carvings ; when they saw the mummy cases (coffins) and papyrus rolls found in them, covered with hieroglyphic writing ; it was natural for them to suppose that mysterious secrets would be discovered, and untold knowledge unfolded, after this writing should be deciphered. But the result of deciphering the hieroglyphics was on the whole disappointing. Much was made known of deep interest, but the results did not meet the expectation. The temple inscriptions were found to

concern themselves largely with chronicles of the royal campaigns and victories, and with detailed catalogues of the booty. The style of

The Great Hall of Karnak, Thebes.

the inscriptions is prolix, and much space is taken up in the repetition of titles. The study and collation of inscriptions has enabled scholars to extend their knowledge of Egyptian history and character in a multitude of interesting ways, but perhaps the most interesting result of hieroglyphic study is negative. From what has been left us of Egyptian literature we find it differing from later literature by the absence of individuality or personality of style.

This uniformity and monotony of character in the Egyptian writings remind us that the greatness of this nation was collective; it did not lie in the individuals, but in the mass. The typical expression of Egyptian life and character was not in literature—it was in building. It is on the architecture of Egypt that the colossal greatness of this nation stamped itself, and to this we must look especially for our conceptions of its character. Along the Nile lie the most stupendous, and the earliest, monuments of history; in their ruins more imposing, a thousand times, than the most perfect modern structure. Notwithstanding the magnificence and number of these remains, they represent but a small portion of the ancient structures.

Description of the Ruins.*—It is not till the traveler reaches Abydus, about three hundred and fifty miles from the mouths of the Nile, that he finds an important temple ruin of the ancient period. Meantime, the fertile country has narrowed from its greatest width in the Delta to a width, above the head of the Delta, of from seven to nine miles. On either side of this strip

* The smallest print is not intended for recitation unless directed by the instructor to be so used.

of land, annually fertilized by the inundations of the river, lie barren mountains, with deserts beyond. The temple at Abydus, built about 1400 B. C. by King Sethos I., is well preserved. Here, as in all temples, the roofs and ceilings are solid blocks of stone. About fifty miles higher up the stream, at Denderah, is found a splendid temple completed by the last of the Greek sovereigns of Egypt, Cleopatra, about 50 B. C. The ruins of Thebes, most important of all, are next reached. Some of these are named after the Arab villages built around them—as the ruins of Karnak, of Luxor, of Kourneh, and of Medinet Habou. The date of these temples varies from 1600 to 1200 B. C.

Thothmes III., about 1600 B.C., built the earliest Theban temple which remains in any sort of preservation (one of those at Karnak), though there are some temple columns standing of earlier date. This king erected before a temple at On (Heliopolis), in the Delta, the two obelisks which have been recently transported to London and to New York.

Amenophis III., about 1500 B. C., erected the two colossal statues at Thebes known as the statues of "Memnon," each sixty feet in height. He also built the Theban temples whose remains are named after the Arab village of Luxor. Between Luxor and Karnak he placed an alley of sphinxes, six hundred in number, each one from 12 to 18 feet long, in solid blocks of stone.

Sethos I., about 1400 B. C., built, besides the temple of Abydus, the Theban temple of Kourneh, and began the Great Hall of Karnak. This was finished by his son, Ramses II., 1350 B. C. The roofing blocks of its central nave are each 25 feet long. The Great Hall was 340 feet by 170, and contained one hundred and thirty-four columns. The twelve largest are 75 feet high and 12 feet in diameter. On the top of the capital of a single one of the largest columns a hundred men might stand together. Ramses II. also built at Thebes the temple now known as the Ramesseum. Beside its ruins lie the fragments of a statue of Ramses in red granite, which was 75 feet high, and weighed 887 tons. The Theban temple near the Arab village of Medinet Habou was built by Ramses III. about 1270 B. C.

Above the temple ruins of Thebes lie those of Esneh (Latonpolis), Edfou, Kom Ombos, and of the Island of Philæ. All of these belong to the time of the Greek rule over Egypt, after B. C. 330, or to the Roman period, after B. C. 30. They are, notwithstanding, absolutely Egyptian in character, a most remarkable fact when we remember that other countries ruled by Greeks and Romans adopted their forms of art. The peculiar tenacity of Egyptian customs in general, which foreign influence could not shake, is illustrated by this permanence of their architectural styles. The temple at Edfou is the best preserved, and serves as a type by which other ruins may be imagined in restoration.

The Island of Philæ, five hundred and twenty-six miles from the mouths of the Nile, marks the limit of Egypt proper. Rocky formations here create a cataract in the Nile, known as the First Cataract, which impedes river navigation to the south. Above this point the character of the country begins to change. The narrow strip of fertile soil becomes still narrower, lying on one side of the river, and only two or three miles wide. From the First Cataract to the Second (about two hundred miles), this country is known as Nubia. Above the Second Cataract lies Ethiopia, stretching for three hundred miles to the Third Cataract. Egyptian temples are found along the river banks through Nubia and Ethiopia, showing that the civilization as well as the armies of Egypt controlled these countries.

The most important monuments of Nubia are the rock temples of Ipsamboul, executed under Ramses II. about 1350 B. C. The largest of these has a hewn façade 100 feet high, with four sitting figures; portraits of the king, semi-detached from the rock; each 75 feet high. The temple is cut into the rock 150 feet, with an interior height of 35 feet, the ceiling being supported by colossal human forms. On following pages, see portrait of Thothmes III., and views at Edfou and Ipsamboul.

THE PYRAMIDS AND THE OLD EMPIRE OF MEMPHIS.

The large number of ruined temples in Ethiopia and Nubia led the earlier writers of our century to seek the origins of

The Great Pyramid.

Egyptian civilization in this direction. But the same explanation accounts at once for the disappearance of temple ruins in the lower Nile valley, and for the fact that the oldest Egyptian civilization centered there. The superior fertility of the Delta, and the large expanse of cultivable ground, made this portion of the country the seat of earliest civilization, and also, in later times

the most tempting to invasion, and the most open to the destructions of foreign conquest. The proximity of the Delta to invading populations from Arabia and Syria made it peculiarly exposed to attack. On this account, the Mohammedan Arabs, in the 7th century A. D., settled and increased especially here. From their time dates the entire destruction of ancient city ruins in the lower valley. These ruins have been used as building quarries by the new settlers, and have in this manner disappeared.

Only the Pyramids, near the head of the Delta, have been able to withstand this process of destruction, and thus they are interesting, not only for themselves, but also because they represent the earliest epoch of Egyptian history and architecture—the period when Memphis, at the head of the Delta, was the capital.

The Pyramids were the tombs of the kings of Memphis—the kings of the Old Empire. The kings of the New Empire, whose capital was Thebes, were buried in rock tombs still to be seen there in the mountain-sides. The important royal names of this period

have been already mentioned in connection with the ruins of Thebes.

Over sixty pyramids are still in fair preservation. Of these, the greater pyramids of Gizeh, three in number, are the most wonderful. The largest of the three covers thirteen acres of ground— twice the area of the largest building in the world, St. Peter's at Rome—and is 480 feet high.* It contains two tomb chambers for the stone coffins of the king and queen. The king who built this pyramid was named Chufu†—a name transformed by the Greek Herodotus, who visited Egypt in the 5th century B. C. and described the pyramids, into Cheops.‡ The pyramid of Chafra (Chephren, in Herodotus) is 447 feet high; of Menkera (Mykerinus), 218 feet high. The entrances to the galleries which lead to the tomb chambers were originally closed by enormous blocks of stone.

Religion.—The sentiment which prompted the construction of these tombs was analogous to that which created the custom of embalming the mummy. Both are expressions of an ideal eternal duration, which also stamped itself on the massive and solemn forms of the Egyptian temples. The Egyptians were believers in the immortality of the soul and in rewards and punishments after death. Their moral law contained many distinctions of great refinement. Their worship of animals became, among the lower orders in the times of decay, a degrading idolatry ; but it first originated in the pictorial symbolism by which the forms of animals were used to indicate the attributes of various divinities, and so were connected with them. It probably was the expression, also, of a reverence for animal life, which strove to limit the killing of various kinds of animals for food, by making them sacred. In the submissive nature of the brute creation, accomplishing its work without repining, obedient to the natural instinct of its species, the creature of habit and routine, the Egyptian found the symbol of the life which he himself pursued.

The Egyptian mythology was polytheistic in form, its deities being personifications of the forces of nature, the Sun-god, Ra, at the head.

The Sphinx.—Near the pyramid of Chafra is the colossal rock-hewn Sphinx, 65 feet in height and 142 feet in length, including the extended paws. It consists of a lion's body with a human head, the emblem of supreme power and supreme intellect in combination, the Egyptian symbol of divinity. Between the paws is a small temple 18 feet high. On its wall an inscription records that Chafra restored the Sphinx, leaving us to assume an unknown author and an earlier date for this wonder of the world.

---

* The Strasburg Cathedral tower, the highest in Europe, is 461 feet high ; the dome of St. Peters is 429 feet high.

† Soft " ch " in Egyptian.

‡ Pronounced, as always in Greek, hard " ch."

The oldest standing obelisk, at On (Heliopolis), was erected by a king, Sesortasen I., somewhat later than the time of the great pyramids. The obelisks were probably symbols of the sun's rays, certainly dedicated to the Sun-god. Amenemha III. constructed the Labyrinth, an immense palace, for the use of congresses of the Egyptian magistrates, now utterly ruined, but seen and described by Herodotus. Amenemha III. also excavated the immense reservoir called Lake Mœris, to control and regulate the inundations of the Nile, by holding over the waters of an excessive inundation for the years of drought. The site and outlines of this reservoir, with a ruined pyramid in the center, are still visible. There is a Nile measure, for marking the height of the inundations, cut in the rock at the Second Cataract, and inscribed with the name of Amenemha III., showing that the armies of the Old Empire had already conquered Nubia.

Tombs of Beni Hassan.—For the period of the "Old Empire" the wall-paintings in the rock tombs of Beni Hassan, between Memphis and Abydus, have the deepest interest. All phases of Egyptian life and industry are here represented in still vivid colors.

The drawing of the Egyptian pictures is stamped with the formalism and rigidity of the people, but its peculiarities are partly the result of decorative principles which reject tints and shadings for the sake of strong and positive color effects ; which refuse to represent figures out of profile in order to maintain harmony with the flat surface decorated. The earliest known drawings and statues are the most life-like, and often thoroughly natural.

CHRONOLOGY OF EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

Between the Memphite Empire of the pyramids, the times of Chufu, Chafra, Menkera, Sesortasen I., and Amenemha III.,
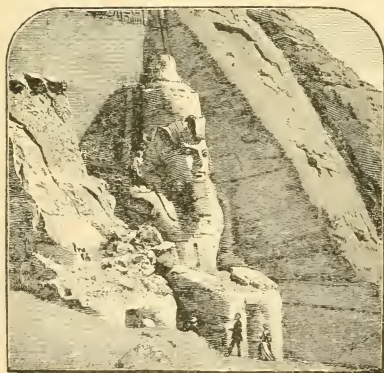
Rock Temple at Ipsamboul, with colossal statues of Ramses II.

and the Theban Empire, distinguished by the temple ruins of Karnak, Luxor, Medinet Habou, Abydus, and Ipsamboul, the times of Thothmes III., Amenophis III., S e t h o s I., Ramses II., and Ramses III., there was an intervening period known as the Middle Empire.

Owing to insufficient, or as yet unsupplied, records, the beginning and duration of the Old Empire are not yet definitely known. The year 2000 B. C. may be taken as an approximate round number for its close. It was

overthrown by a foreign conquest, by way of Suez, of wandering tribes from Arabia or Syria.

Middle Empire.—The foreign conquerors were known as Hyksos (*Shepherds*). During their ascendency the Hebrews came into Egypt. The date for Joseph is fixed approximately * at B. C. 1750. The overthrow of the Hykso power was completed under Thothmes III., whose date, about B. C. 1600, begins the time of the—

New Empire. Its period of greatest glory was under Ramses II., B. C. 1350. Besides conquests in Ethiopia, he made repeated campaigns through Syria to the upper portions of the Tigris-Euphrates valley, and possibly to Asia Minor. The Island of Cyprus was at this time under Egyptian ascendency. On the mountainside near Beyrout, in Syria, may still be seen immense reliefs of figures in Egyptian style, believed to date from these campaigns.

The son of Ramses II. was Menephtah. He is considered the Pharaoh of the Exodus, which would date, in this case, about 1314 B. C.

After Ramses III., about 1270 B. C., began the decline of the New Empire, which lasted, however, over seven hundred years longer. After 1200, it was ruled for a time by kings of an Ethiopian dynasty, and also for a time, by kings of Assyrian blood or appointment.

The final overthrow of Egyptian independence was effected by the Persian Cambyses, in B. C. 525. The institutions were not, however, changed by this conquest, nor by the succeeding conquests of the Greeks and Romans.

REVIEW OF THE LEADING DATES OF ANCIENT EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

Old Empire (Pyramid kings), before.................................B. C.	2000
Hyksos, Middle Empire, ends about............................... "	1600
New Empire, ends.............. .... "	525
Persian period, ends about...................... .... "	333
Greek period, ends about.. "	50
Roman period, ends with an Arab-Mohammedan conquest............A. D.	640

* By the computation of Brugsch and Josephus.

After the Arab Mohammedan conquest, Egypt was ruled by different Mohammedan dynasties till after A. D. 1500, when it was incorporated with the Turkish Empire, its present government.

Christianity made rapid progress in Egypt from the opening of the Christian era, and was definitely sanctioned, as in all other Roman provinces, under the Roman Emperor Constantine the Great, after A. D. 300.

The old Egyptian temples were closed under the Roman Emperor Theodosius the Great, and pagan worship was forbidden before A. D. 400.

CHARACTER AND INSTITUTIONS OF THE EGYPTIANS.

The decline of the New Empire, after B. C. 1200, concerned chiefly the power of Egypt over other nations, and the successions of foreign domina

Temple of Edfou.

tion after B. C. 525 (time of the Persian conquest), are all subordinate to the grand fact that the Egyptian institutions and character were not changed by the changes of government. The picture of the last Greek sovereign, Cleopatra, on the wall of the temple of Denderah, is still made according to the stiff, schematic style of Egyptian art. At this time (about B. C. 50), after nearly five hundred years of foreign rule, the killing of a cat, a sacred animal, by a Roman soldier, roused a popular revolt which came near destroying the Roman army, to which the people had quietly submitted before this sacrilege. In the second century after Christ the Egyptian style of sculpture even became fashionable at Rome. The name of the Roman Emperor Decius, of the third century after Christ, is inscribed on the temple of Esneh in Egyptian hieroglyphics.
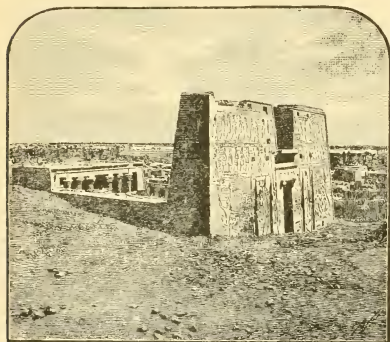
This tenacity of fixed character and institutions doubtless originated in the peculiar conditions of geography and climate. The absolute dependence of the entire people on the annual inundation of the Nile obliged them to regularity of habit in all departments of life, and to constantly recurring occupations at constantly recurring intervals. Rain is unknown in Upper Egypt, and rarely falls in the Delta. No dependence whatever is placed on this necessity of all other agriculture, which is therefore subject to such changes and variations. The Nile differs from all rivers in the world in receiv-

ing no tributaries for a distance of about 1350 miles above its mouths, through Egypt, Nubia, and Ethiopia. Its annual rise and overflow result from the melting of the snows on the lofty mountains of Central Africa, and occur at almost exactly the same dates of each succeeding year. The sediment deposited during the overflow is a rich fertilizer. Thus the sowing of seed, reaping the harvest, repairing the dykes and canals, verification of landmarks, and all other agricultural activities, were here forced into a regularity of recurrence and arrangement which the climate and conditions of other countries would not even remotely allow.

Besides the fixity and regularity of all other habits of life, determined by the controlling occupation, the Egyptians were fixed still further in accustomed grooves by an **exclusiveness** which was also forced upon them. Other nations have been modified by contact with those surrounding them, and have often wished to change their conditions to resemble others. But the Egyptians wished to repel all other nations. Their own valley supplied them with an unfailing source of riches, for which no foreign residence could offer them a substitute. Their valley was bounded by deserts from which the wandering nomads were constantly tempted to descend for pillage. Barbarians from the wilds of Southern Africa were tempted to descend the Nile. Wandering tribes from the desert Peninsula of Sinai, from Arabia, or Syria, were constantly tempted to effect an entrance by way of Suez. Thus the Egyptians were obliged to be an exclusive people. They wanted to keep other people out of their country, and never wanted to leave it themselves, unless to make their own land secure by terrifying other warlike nations. The campaigns of their greatest conquerors never really aimed to combine other countries with the Egyptian valley, but simply to teach them that they were not to enter it.

To these two elements of influence—that of constantly recurring habits of life, and the antagonism to all modifying external influence—we may add the **influence of landscape and climate.** The Egyptian lived in a valley of fertile soil, one thousand miles long, and from two to nine miles wide above the Delta, with barren mountains on either side. The monotony of climate and surroundings added an emphasis to the more important influences produced by the same grand facts.

From what has been said of the riches of Egypt and its relation to surrounding nations, we may argue the reasons for a **form of government** of the most absolute despotism. The loss of a single battle might place the entire valley at the mercy of the conqueror. There were no mountain fastnesses to prolong resistance or check invasion. The rivers of other countries offer obstacles to attack, but the line of the river being also the line of the

country, here made attack more easy. Thus the military and governmental forces were of necessity massed together—placed at the sole disposal of a single man that he might use them with instantaneous and crushing power against the foreign foe. The kings of Egypt were not hated as despots; they were worshiped as the safety of the nation. And since the form of government could not be changed without endangering the people, Egypt was generally free from seditions and would-be reformers. A despotic government, devised and accepted by the people, reacted upon them and held them to their traditional institutions from century to century.

Thus we understand the **system of caste** by which each Egyptian followed the occupation of his father, and the division of hereditary occupations, by which priests, who were the men of learning, formed one caste, the warriors another, agriculturists another. The various trades and occupations were all hereditary. There are found cases in the tomb inscriptions, where for twenty generations the son is recorded as having followed the occupation of his father. The lives of individuals were so bound down by tradition, that in the case of the king his hours of eating and drinking and of sleeping were defined by unvarying law.

EGYPTIAN CIVILIZATION.

The antiquity of Egyptian civilization, the wealth of the country, the continuity of life, and the hereditary transmission of traditional occupations, help to explain the **perfection of Egyptian science** and of the technical and mechanic arts. On the threshold of history we are astounded by the existence of a nation which surpassed in many arts of civilized life the boasted advancement of the nineteenth century. The various applications of electricity, the use of steam, photography, printing, and the modern explosive agents, are almost the sole exceptions to the general law of Egyptian superiority to, or equality with, ourselves, in material things.

The jealousy with which the priests guarded their knowledge makes the extent of their **astronomic science** uncertain, but it was certainly great. The Greek astronomers who flourished in Egypt in the 3d century B. C., were the first who announced to the world the true diameter of our earth, the approximate distances of the fixed stars, and the revolution of our planetary system round the sun. How much of this knowledge they owed to Egyptian studies is uncertain, but these were at least the basis of their own results. It was an Egyptian astronomer who computed, at a later time, for Julius Cæsar, the Julian Calendar (first corrected under Pope Gregory XVI. in the 16th century A D.).

The high perfection reached in **geometrical science** is implied in the construction of the pyramids and temples. (Euclid, the Greek geometer of the 3d century B. C., was a resident of Alexandria.) No buildings, excepting those of the Greeks and the Phœnicians, taught by Egyptian art, have ever exhibited the same accuracy and delicacy of masonry construction.

Blocks of stone over 100 feet in length were quarried in certain obelisks. An obelisk 90 feet high is still erect at Thebes. The still standing statues of Amenophis III., at Thebes, are 50 feet high in the solid block, resting on a solid pedestal 10 feet high. The roofing blocks of the Great Hall of Karnak have been mentioned. In the great pyramids, blocks 20 feet long are common. Herodotus tells of a single stone hewn into the aspect of a small temple, which was moved from the quarry at Assouan, at the First Cataract, to the Delta of the Nile. Its dimensions were 21 feet by $31\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and 18 feet high. He says that the architect engaged in moving the stone, which was destined to stand in the court of a temple, heaved so deep a sigh when it had reached the outer entrance, that the king in pity ordered the workmen to leave it standing there. This block was seen and described by an Arabian physician, Abdulatief, in

Thothmes III. Colossal Head of Red Granite, British Museum.

the 13th century after Christ. It has since disappeared.

The method by which heavy blocks were raised is in dispute, but the use of cranes and derricks appears sufficiently certain. The blocks were moved from the quarries on wooden sledges. These were drawn by man power on tramways of wood, which were greased. A picture at Beni Hassan

exhibits the moving of a colossal statue in this way, while a workman pours oil under the sledge runners.

The arts of metallurgy may be argued from the superior cutting of the blocks of stone, and they are otherwise attested. The granites habitually used in the colossal sculptures turn the best modern steel chisel. The use of steel is also argued from the colors used to distinguish different metals in the pictures at Beni Hassan. Iron clamps have been found in the pyramids. Gold and silver were worked as perfectly as now. The goldbeater's art was practised in perfection. Gold and silver wires of extreme tenuity were woven into textile fabrics.

Precious gems were counterfeited in **glass,** and artificial emeralds were made of enormous size. The diamond was used in cutting glass. The specific gravity of the British " crown " glass is the same as that made in Egypt. The well-known superiority of Venetian glass manufactures in modern times is an inheritance from antiquity. There is still in existence an Egyptian mosaic of colored glass threads, under two-thirds of an inch square, making the picture of a duck, in which the eyeball and the texture of the wing feathers can be clearly distinguished.

Pottery was made, as now, by the potter's wheel. **Leather manufacture** was carried to the highest perfection. In the tomb pictures, the leather-cutter holds the semicircular knife still used in this trade. **Paper** was made from the papyrus plant. It is from the Greek word *papyrus,* applied to this plant, that our word paper is derived. Use was made of papier maché for various utensils ; even boats of burden were made of it. Specimens of Egyptian **rope and textile fabrics** are common in the museums of Europe. The finer Egyptian linens were equal to our finest cambric. **The carpenter's art** was practised in perfection, as still existing carpentry work demonstrates. The furniture was joined, not glued, although glue was known. The gay colors and luxurious stuffings of modern upholstery are found in the articles of furniture represented in the tomb pictures. Egyptian wigs are not uncommon in the museums. One of the earliest Egyptian kings is noted for the invention of a hair pomade ; another for a treatise on medicine. Draughtsmen and a checker-board have been found at Thebes.

The perfection of the **chemical arts** is implied in the etymology of the word Chemistry. The Egyptians called their country *Chemi* (the black land). The Arabian Mohammedans coined from this word the word Chemistry—that is to say, '' the Egyptian art." The perfection of chemical art is also implied in the use of changing dyes in textile fabrics, such as are found in moire antique silk, and in the still brilliant colors of Egyptian paintings four thousand years

old. **The plaster and mortar work** has stood the same wonderful test of time, and is far superior to our own. The use of the arch principle (contrary to supposition of earlier writers of our century) was habitually made in brick structures. Many brick arches are still found in Thebes. In temple structures the arch was never used; whence the earlier belief that it was unknown.

SUMMARY.

From the modern studies in the hieroglyphic records of Egypt, we have passed to monuments of architecture, which require no study of ancient languages or of forgotten alphabets to persuade us of the genius and greatness of their founders. From the present distribution of ancient ruins, we learn to distinguish from the epoch of the still existing temples, another of still earlier date, represented by the pyramids. Memphis and Thebes were the two successive centres of Egyptian history. The massive heaviness of Egyptian architecture, the rigid aspect of its art, symbolize the fixity and unchanging aspects of Egyptian life. So far we are dealing only with Egypt studied for itself; but in approaching the technical and mechanic arts of Egyptian civilization, we approach the significance of Egypt for later history. One other people shares with her the honor of preparing for all later civilization its material basis. That people was the Chaldæo-Assyrian.

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

These questions are arranged without reference to the order of the book, to test the general knowledge of the student. It is suggested that the answers to these questions, and to those of later corresponding sections, be written down in such manner as to make an affirmative sentence, by combining the question and answer. The pupil will then have, in consecutive written form, an abridged summary of the work. The following sentences, combined from the first three questions and answers, will serve as an example:— *The Mohammedan conquest divides the old Egyptian culture from modern times. It took place about 640 A. D. The Mohammedan Arabs, and the Byzantine Greeks or East Romans, passed down the Egyptian arts, as then existing, to later times, etc., etc.*

What conquest divides the old Egyptian culture from modern times? *Ans.* The Mohammedan conquest.

Date this conquest. (Chronology, p. 11.)

What nations passed down to later times Egyptian arts as then existing ? *Ans.* The Moham-medan Arabs, and the Byzantine Greeks or East Romans.

How long had the Romans been in contact with Egypt at the time of the Arab conquest ? (Chronology, p. 11.)

When did the Greeks come in close contact with Egypt ?—by what conquest ?

What nation had carried Egyptian arts to Greece and Italy at a much earlier date ? *Ans.* The Syrian Phœnicians, as early at least as b. c. 1500.

Recapitulate the nations contributing to the general diffusion of Egyptian arts and sciences, and the periods after which they were successively in contact with Egypt ?

Mention important Egyptian arts and sciences ?

What early date may be fixed on as a time before which these arts and sciences were per-fectly developed ?   Answer implied in the following question.

What other remains belong to the epoch of the pyramids ?

Where are the pyramids ?

Why are other remains of their epoch so scanty ?

In what period did the Jews enter Egypt ?

Where are the most important remains of the New Empire?

Who conquered it ?

How long was this before the Greek conquest ?

What is the character of art in Egypt under the Greeks and Romans ?

What does this indicate and illustrate (p. 12) ?

Explain some conditions of life contributing to the tenacity and duration of Egyptian civilization (p. 13) ?

What other nation shares with Egypt the honor of preparing for later civilization its mate-rial basis ?

Rome

Great Greece

Carthage

Syracuse

Herm... **LYDIA**

Sardes

Ionia

M...

Sais

Memphis

EGYPT

Th...

BABYLON

10

The length of each side = 11 miles
The area = nearly 130 square miles
being exactly the size of the City
and County of Philadelphia.

☐ Temple of Belus

▯ Palace

☐ The hanging gardens

Euphrates River

Inner wall

Outer wall

Canal

THE FOUR GREAT POWERS

Armenia

MEDIA

Assyria

Nineveh

Ecbatana

Carchemish

Euphrates R.

Syria

Tigris R.

BABYLONIA

Chaldaea

Susiana

Persis

Ashdod

Babylon
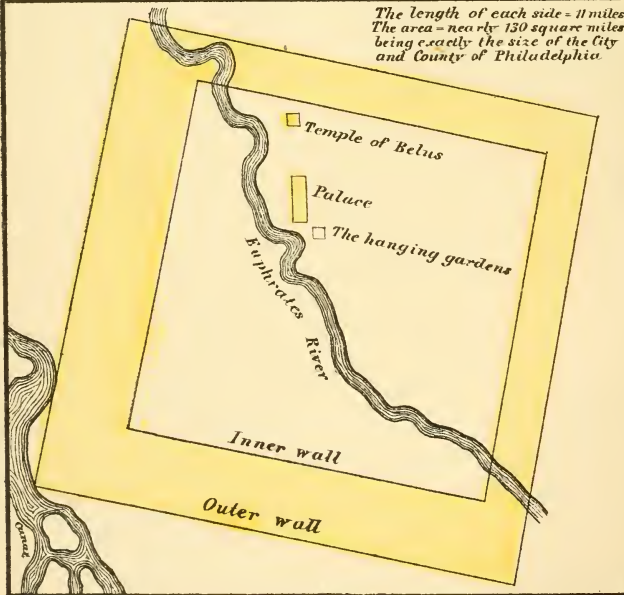
100 200 300 400 500 600 700 miles

CHALDÆA AND ASSYRIA.

POLITICAL HISTORY.

In the single valley formed by two rivers, the Euphrates and Tigris (now belonging to Turkey, but to-day an almost ruined country), we find again the natural process by which the more fertile lower river valley was the earlier seat of empire. The Prov-
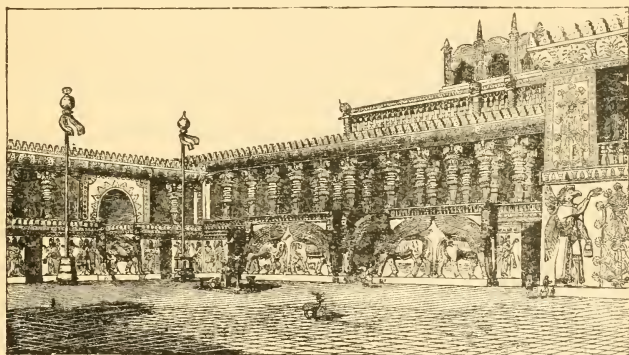
An Assyrian Palace (Restoration).

ince of Chaldæa (the lower valley), capital Babylon, was the first seat of empire. The province of Assyria, capital Nineveh, was the later military and governmental centre. About 1250 B. C. the transfer was effected, and the rise of Assyria is thus contemporary with the decline of the external power of the New Empire of Egypt.

In distinguishing the Chaldæan Empire from the Assyrian, not much more difference is implied than that between the

Empires of Memphis and of Thebes. The civilization remained essentially the same, since the one river valley was open to the same influences. It is true that the Chaldæans and Assyrians were not originally of one blood, but this made no more difference in the unity of civilization than the mixture of different nations in America to-day.

Assyrian Empire.—The most essential difference between the Chaldæan and the Assyrian Empire lies in the larger extent of the latter. The Chaldæan Empire took in the whole Tigris-Euphrates valley, and reached over Syria at times. The Assyrian Empire was much more firmly fixed in its control of Syria. It also extended over Armenia and Eastern Asia Minor to the river Halys (hălĭz). On the East of the Zagros Mountains, which lie on the east bank of the Tigris, the Assyrian Empire comprehended two important provinces between the Caspian and the Persian Gulf— viz., Media (North) and Persia (South). It extended beyond these provinces at times, but with indefinite boundaries, toward the Indus.

Media and Babylonia.—The Assyrian Empire, supplanting the Chaldæan about 1250 B. C., lasted till about 625 B. C. But the change which took place then was only one of external government, and the conditions of civilization were unaltered. The Assyrian Empire was simply divided into two parts, known as the Median and Babylonian Empires. The province of Media revolted, and founded an empire which ruled the provinces of Persia, Media, and Asia Minor to the Halys. The province of Chaldæa revolted, and ruled an empire including the Tigris-Euphrates valley and Syria. This empire is called Babylonian, after the capital of Chaldæa, only to distinguish it from the earlier Chaldæan state of about the same extent. Its second king, Nebuchadnezzar, lived about B. C. 600. This division of the Assyrian states into the Median and Babylonian Empires lasted only about seventy years, till about 555 B. C.

Persian Empire.—The province of Persia then revolted, under Cyrus, against Media; conquering rapidly this state and Babylonia. It also conquered the Lydian Empire, in Asia Minor, beyond the

Halys, and the country east of Media and Persia to the Indus, and in 525 B. C., under Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, subdued Syria, Phœnicia, and Egypt.

The Persian Empire was simply the reunited Assyrian Empire remodeled and enlarged. The character of the civilization was not revolutionized. The Persian mountaineers took the lead of Western Asia simply as governors and soldiers. Their empire lasted till 333 B. C. This date, already given for the Greek conquest of Egypt, may stand also as date for the Greek conquest of all other Persian provinces.

This last conquest effected a decided change of manners, customs and institutions in the Chaldæo-Assyrian countries, which will be noticed under Greek History. But the foregoing sketch makes apparent that, in the Tigris-Euphrates valley and dependent countries, from the dawn of history to the fall of the Persian Empire, we are dealing with the same civilization essentially. Thus we shall be able to describe it as a whole in the next section, not allowing the changes of dynasty to confuse us. The changes and gradual increase of area are important, however, and the distinctions between the empires and the provinces of the same name must be noted.

TABLE OF EXTENT OF AREAS.

Chaldean Empire.—Tigris-Euphrates valley, and weak hold of Syria.

Assyrian Empire.—Tigris-Euphrates valley, Syria, Asia Minor to the Halys, Media (the province), Persia (the province), with changing boundaries to the east of these two provinces. Asia Minor, beyond the Halys, was a vassal state (the Lydian Empire) till a century before the fall of Nineveh.

Division of Assyrian States. { Babylonian Empire.—Tigris-Euphrates valley and Syria.
Median Empire.—Province of Persia, Province of Media, and Asia Minor to the Halys.

Persian Empire.—Assyrian States reunited, with addition of the rest of Asia Minor (Lydian Empire), of Egypt, and of the country east of Media and Persia to the Indus.

Map Explanation.—The time of the "Four Great Powers" represented on the map is that of the division of the Assyrian Empire into the Empires of Media and Babylonia. The two additional great Eastern powers of this time were Lydia and Egypt.

The earlier Chaldæan Empire, in its greatest extent, corresponded to the dimensions of "Babylonia" on this map. The extent of the Assyrian Empire would be obtained by uniting the States of Babylonia and Media as here represented. The extent of the Persian Empire would be obtained by uniting all four Great Powers with the addition of the countries on the East, as far as the Indus. The extent of the Persian Empire is also indicated on the map for the Empire of Alexander the Great, which corresponded in extent to the Persian, with the addition of the Greek states.

In the use of this map, and all others, it is very desirable to make comparison with the maps of a modern geography, and to exercise the historical knowledge gained, by pointing out the same facts on a modern map.

TABLE REPRESENTING THE RELATIONS OF THE ANCIENT EASTERN EMPIRES.

Egypt.

Chaldea.—Assyria.— $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Babylonia.—}\\ \text{Media.—}\end{array}\right\}$ Persian Empire.

TABLE OF DATES FOR THE HISTORY OF THE TIGRIS-EUPHRATES VALLEY.

Chaldæan Empire,—Unknown beginning to about.................B. C.	1250
Assyrian Empire.—Ends.. "	625
Median ⎰ Babylonian ⎱ Empires.—End about. .... "	555
Persian Empire.—Ends with a Greek conquest about............... "	333

CIVILIZATION OF CHALDÆO-ASSYRIA.

Interest in Assyrian and Chaldæan history was awakened in the 19th century by the discoveries of Sir Henry Layard, an English traveler and diplomatist. It appears from his excavations that the architecture of the Chaldæans and Assyrians was exclusively of brick. Hence heaps of shapeless ruins are all that remain of their structures, as opposed to the still existing massive stone remains of ancient Egypt. In the immense mounds, scattered here and there below Babylon, may still be traced, however, the original form of the Chaldæan temples.

The temples were immense circular cones ascended by an external spiral staircase, on the summit of which the priests made their astronomic observations and offered sacrifices. The bricks of these structures are stamped with the names of the reigning kings.

The Chaldæan writing is known as cuneiform (wedge-shaped), because

the clay was marked while moist by strokes of a stick, sinking deeply at one end and leaving the mark narrower and lighter at the other. The cuneiform symbols are believed to be modifications of a pictorial alphabet. This form of writing continued in the Assyrian period. In the cellars of the Ninevite palaces have been found the ancient libraries of the kings—eight-sided bricks covered with cuneiform inscriptions. The Assyrian language was related to the Hebrew, Arab, and Phœnician, and is deciphered with considerable success by the aid of these languages.
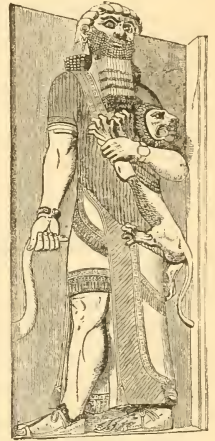
The translation of the cuneiform signs into the corresponding sounds was first made possible by inscriptions of the Persian period using the cuneiform symbols for the Persian language. In these inscriptions, certain frequently recurring combinations were presumed to be the names of kings. Guesses at translations of certain combinations as being the names of Darius and Xerxes, were proved correct by a vase (now in the Louvre at Paris), which contained a Persian and an Egyptian inscription side by side. Thus a key was obtained to the cuneiform syllabary. The reading

Assyrian Divinity.*

of Assyrian inscriptions in the cuneiform writing was first achieved in connection with a rock inscription at Bagistana in Media, dating from King Darius, and repeated in three languages, Persian, Medish, and Assyrian, with the same cuneiform symbols. The matter of the Ninevite inscriptions contains some interesting legends. They consist mainly, however, of royal chronicles of campaigns and conquests.

The sculptured stone slabs with which the brick walls of the palaces were covered are the most interesting of Assyrian remains. Numbers of these are in the British Museum, London. These reliefs furnish very vivid and spirited pictures of the lives of the Assyrian kings, their warfare, hunting excursions, sacrificial processions, etc. Immense human-headed bulls—emblems, like the Egyptian Sphinx, of combined wisdom and power—flanked the palace entrances. The ruins of Babylon and of Persepolis offer interesting examples of a later period of decorative sculpture based on the same methods. Arched city gates and arched drains have been excavated at and near Nineveh. Beautiful examples of tile work, and many ivory carvings and carved gems have also been found.

---

* Relief slab from Nimroud, in the British Museum.

The manufactures especially famed were those of textile fabrics and carpets. Many of the ornamental patterns of our own time have been derived from Babylonian carpets and other fabrics through Greek transmission. Embossing on metal was also a highly developed art. *The weights and measures* now in use are mainly traced to Assyria and Babylonia through Greek transmission. Even the English division of the pound into twenty shillings goes back to the Babylonian system. The English shilling is the equivalent of the drachma of the Greeks, which was one-twentieth of a Babylonian gold shekel. Our division of time by hours of sixty minutes and minutes of sixty seconds is also Babylonian by Greek transmission. In luxury and general civilization we can scarcely rate the Tigris-Euphrates valley lower than Egypt. The system of canals for irrigation was carried to marvelous perfection.

The government of the successive empires already mentioned was universally despotic, for reasons like those which determined the government of Egypt. The fertile valley was surrounded by warlike and poorer nations which had to be quelled and kept at bay by a strong military and despotic power. The government of the subjugated nations was not especially oppressive. They were ruled by satraps, who were expected to raise the required tribute, but the internal affairs of the subject nations were not disturbed. Rebellious populations were punished by wholesale deportations. The conquest of the kingdom of Israel by Assyria in 721 B. C., and of Judæa by Babylonia (Nebuchadnezzar) in 586 B. C., were accompanied by such transfers of population. During the Persian period the Jews were mildly treated.

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON CHALDÆO-ASSYRIA.

The system of writing questions and answers in consecutive sentences is again recommended.

What valley always remained the seat of power, both of Chaldæan and Assyrian rule?

What was the capital of Chaldæa? Of Assyria?

When did the latter province become head of an empire?

What was the difference in size between it and its predecessor?

Into what two empires was the Assyrian State finally divided?   When?

What tribe and province reunited these empires?   When?

What additions were made?

When was a decided change in the civilization of Western Asia effected? By whom?

What was the condition of art and science with the Assyrians?

Why have the buildings been so totally ruined?

How do we learn to know the lives and occupations of the Assyrians?

To what language was theirs related? In what form are the written remains?

What inscription corresponds to the Rosetta Stone as key to the cuneiform writing?

What nation united the civilizations of Egypt and Assyria, traded with them, and transmitted their arts and science to all the nations around the Mediterranean? For answer see next section.

THE PHŒNICIANS.

HISTORY AND CIVILIZATION.

If we examine the map, we shall notice that direct commerce between Egypt and Assyria was obstructed by the deserts of Arabia. Syria was the country which connected their civilizations, and which
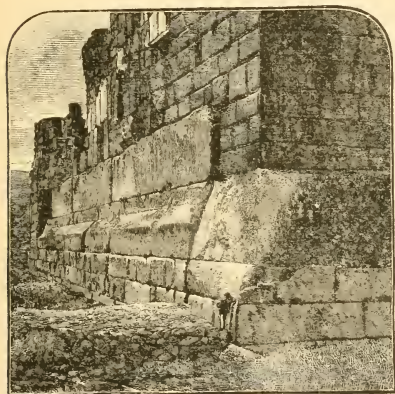
Foundations of the Acropolis at Balbek.

borrowed its own civilization from its two great neighbors. The peoples of Syria were naturally the mediators and merchants engaged in exchanging the products of the Nile valley and of the Tigris-Euphrates valley. Especially the Phœnicians of the Syrian coast were active in this exchange; and, looking out over the waters of the Mediterranean, they were tempted to engage in the transport of Egyptian and Assyrian luxuries to the then uncivilized peoples of Greece, of Italy, and still remoter countries.

The Phœnicians were experts in the manufacture of a dye— the Tyrian purple—made from a small shell-fish. Each shell-fish yielded a drop of liquid, and the dye had to be manufactured where the shell-fish were dredged. The supply of shell-fish had become exhausted on the coast of Syria. It was still plentiful on the shores of Greece. Here, then, the Phœnicians established factories and

traded with the Greeks. In Cyprus they mined for copper, from Italy they brought hides, from Spain they procured silver, from Cornwall and the Scilly Islands they brought tin. They have also left abundant traces of traffic in Ireland and in Scandinavia.

It has been held by some historians that they visited Central America. Before 600 B. C., under the direction of the Egyptian king Necho, they circumnavigated Africa. The dates of their earliest voyages must reach considerably back of B. C. 1300, for at this time they were already sailing to Ireland and Great Britain.

The great cities of Phœnicia were Aradus, Tripolis, Berytus (the modern Beyrout), Tyre, Sidon, Acca (Acre). The most important Phœnician remains in Syria are at Balbek—the foundations of its Acropolis. The three largest blocks of stone are each 64 feet long, 15 feet thick, and 15 feet high, and each one is estimated to weigh about 1,100 tons. The date of these famous foundations is uncertain, but probably earlier than 1000 B. C. They are the most stupendous existing monuments of Phœnician science under Egyptian tuition.

When the Phœnicians began their voyages the other Mediterranean nations were comparatively barbarian. Through intercourse with them these nations—Greeks and Italians first of all—obtained the basis of a civilization which they were to transform and develop in new ways.

About 850 B. C. the Phœnicians, who had already many colonies on the northern shores of Africa—in modern Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco—founded a new one, Carthage (in modern Tunis), which became the head of all the others. It acquired ascendency over part of Sicily, over Corsica, Sardinia, and the coasts of Spain. After this time the mother country rather declined, and Carthage partly took its place. The Greeks had meantime become active merchants and sailors in the Eastern Mediterranean, pushing out their older teachers. The prosperity of the greatest Phœnician city, Tyre, was crippled by the campaigns of Nebuchadnezzar at the time of the Babylonian captivity of the Jews, 586 B. C.

Chronology of Phœnicia.—Down to the year B.C. 1000, and for centuries before, the Phœnicians were the civilizing force and sole commercial power of the Mediterranean. Under this influence Greece and Italy developed, gradually assuming independent importance after that date.

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON THE PHŒNICIANS.

Why were the Phœnicians, among Eastern nations, especially devoted to traffic and commerce? *Ans.* By reason of geographical position.

What was this position?

With what European nations did they come in contact? How early?

Name some of their colonies.

Name the important cities of the mother country.

How shall we estimate the civilization of the Phœnicians? *Ans.* By knowing that it was Assyrian and Egyptian amalgamated.

What European nation was first influenced by them?

What manufacture caused the contact?

What first brought the Greeks into hostile contact with the East? (See page 28.)

When? *Ans.* About B. C. 500.

How long had a peaceful intercourse lasted before this time? *Ans.* From the earliest date of Phœnician visits to Greece.

SYNCHRONISM OF ANCIENT EASTERN HISTORY.

Pyramid kings of Egypt, before..................................B. C.	2000
Early kings of Chaldæa, before.................................... "	2000
Phœnician traffic between these countries, before................... "	2000
Joseph in Egypt, about.. "	1750
Thothmes III. (Obelisks of New York and London), New Empire.... "	1600
Amenophis III. (Ruins of Luxor, and colossal statues of " Memnon ".) "	1500
Sethos I. (Great Hall of Karnak)................................... "	1400
Ramses II. " " .... "	1350
Menephtah (the Jewish Exodus)..................................... "	1314
Phœnicians trading to Britain *.................................... "	1300
Ramses III. (Ruins of Medinet-Habou, at Thebes)................... "	1270
Rise of Assyria and decline of Egypt, after....................... "	1250
Empire of Solomon, Phœnicians build the Jewish temple, about ..... "	1000
Foundation of Carthage.. "	850
Israelite captivity (Assyrian)..................................... "	721
Division of Assyria into Median and Babylonian Empires............ "	625
Africa circumnavigated, before..................................... "	600
Jewish captivity under Nebuchadnezzar of Babylon.... .... "	586
Persian Empire unites the Median and Babylonian States............ "	555
Persian Cambyses conquers Egypt and Syria........................ "	525
Persian Empire conquered by Greeks............................... "	333

* Still earlier control of the Mediterranean is implied by this date.

Among the foregoing dates, the three fives and three threes are the most important. They may be taken as the turning points of all ancient history. Cyrus did not erect the Persian Empire in a single year, nor did Alexander the Great overturn it in a year. But B. C. 555 and B. C. 333 are as exact as any single dates would be, and they are easily memorized.

B. C. 555, taken as a central date for the rise of the Persian Empire, may recall also the conquest of Egypt, which so rapidly followed its rise, and the fall of the great Assyrian State, which shortly preceded. Before B. C. 555, the great empires of the Nile and of the Tigris-Euphra es valley had pursued their course for centuries without progress and without essential change. Different dynasties had replaced one another in either valley; the area of external conquest had been expanded, diminished, or divided; but the East was always the East. Great material prosperity, the highest perfection of mechanical art, fabulous luxury, despotic power of the chief, willing slavery of the masses, are always the elements of its history. But the expansion of Persia to the shores of Asia Minor brought the East into conflict with a new system of military organism, governmental institutions, and individual culture—that of the Greeks.

S.Illusia

Pellana

Temple of
Apollo

Eurotus

Plain of
Sparta

Alesia

SPARTA
The mountains
are col.^d purple..

Amyclae

THEBES.
The mountains
are colored purple.

Thebes

Asiirrens

Mountain of the
Sphinx

Thespius

Thespiae

Leuctra   Asopus

Eudata

Dirce

Nicopolis

ACARNANIA

Argos
Amphilochium

Actium

Artina

Leucas

Leucadia   Thuphus

Stratus

Thermum

Hydra

Trichonis P.

Echinades Is.

Cephallenia   Ithaca

Prom. Leucon

Bolus

Pleuron
Calydon
Oeniadae
Chalcis

Prom. Araxus

Pr. Arium

Pale
Sirus

AC

Prom. Chelonatas

Teichus

Elis

Cyllene

Pisa

Elis

Pisatis

Olympia

Zacynthus

Zazynthus

Triphylia

Prom. Ichthys

Hyrminius Sinus

Lepreum

Pethus

Cyparissa

Steni

Ithome

MESS

Messe

I. Sphacteria

Pylus

Coronis

Methone

Oenussas
Is.

Thria

Acharnae

Hephaestiadae

Eupyridae

Eleusis

Scambonidae

T.Aphrod

Deo

Sin. Eleusin.

Thriasia campus Is.

T.Apoll

Via sacra

Sypalettus

Colonus

Cephisus

Aegaleus

Hermus

Corydallus

Lacciadae

Academia

Eridanus

Thymoetadae

Pelleron

Echeli flur.

Oenoe

A T H E N A E

SALAMIS

Salamis

Piraeus

inf.
sup.

Agyele

Silenia

Ilissus

Marathon Pr.

Phalereus

Anaphlystus
P.Saerir

Prospaltia

Hymettus

ATHENS
and the bay of
Salamis.
Mountains purple

HELLAS and PELOPONNESUS

CORINTH and the Isthmus
Mountains purple

Corinthian gulf

Lechaeum

Corinth

Cranæum

Acrocorinth

Wall of the Isthmus

Cenchreæ

Saronic gulf

Map showing the Mediterranean region with labels including:

Tiber, Anio, Rome, Cumae, Elea, Laus, TUSCAN SEA, Achaeans, Metapontum, Tarentum, Sybaris, Crotona, Egesta, Sicani, Rhegium, Dorians, Sicali, Ionians, Catana, Leontini, Syracuse, Selinus, Agrigentum, Gela, IONIAN GULF, IONIAN SEA, HELL, Epide, Dyrrha, NORTH, Apollon, Ambracia, Cephallo, Zacyn

Legend:
- Ionians
- Dorians
- Achaeans and Aeolians

Inset: The field of TROY
Labels: Tomb of Achilles, Sigeum, Simois, Rhoetes, Scamander, Ophryvium, Rhoeteum, Tomb of Ajax, New Ilium, Troy or Ilium

AS.

50   100 miles

Danube

Odessus

Mesambria

Pontus
Euxinus

Apollonia

Thrace

Byzantium   Dascylium

Central   Eastern

Propontus

ERN GREECE   Macedonia   Western

Chalcidice   Amphipolis   Thasos   Samothrace

Cyzicus

Cambunii montes   Olynthus   Imbros

Phrygia

Dodona   AEGAEAN SEA   Troy

Thessaly   Lesbos

Sperchius   Artemisium   Cumae   R. Hermus

HELLAS   Euboea   El nthern   Phocaea   Sardes

Thermopylae   Smyrna

Lydia

Ephesus   R. Maeander

PELOPONNESUS   Corinth   Attica   Andros

Argolis   Athens   Tenos   Samos   Miletus

Saronic Gulf   Delos   Mycenos   Icaria

Cyclades   Paros   Naxos   Cos

Cape Malea   Cnidus

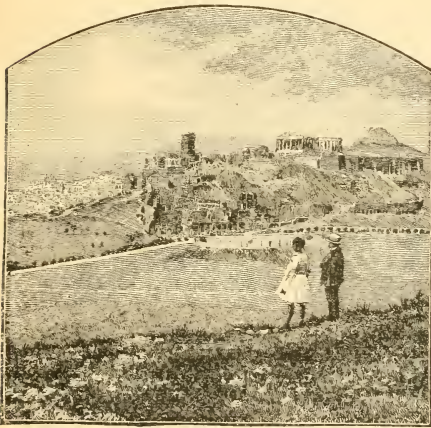Cape Taenarum   Cythera   Rhodes

Carpathus

Creta

GREECE.

THE GREEKS OF LATER AND MODERN HISTORY.

The attention of students is generally diverted from the later history of Greece by the glories of its ancient civilization, but the Greeks have, notwithstanding, always remained a highly refined and highly civilized people since the time of ancient greatness. The misfortunes of history have fallen with especial weight upon the mother country, and the relative insignificance of its power among the modern European States sometimes obscures the fact that the Greeks are very numerous outside of their peninsula, in the Turkish territories of the Eastern Mediterranean. They are much more influential in the East as individuals than the power of their state would imply, and everywhere noted for success in business and for an intelligent use of wealth. In polish and courtesy they are at least the equals of any other nation in Europe. The dependence of the Turks on their services is indicated by the fact that every mosque in Constantinople is the work of a Greek architect, and they are frequently employed in Turkish diplomatic service. But the territory of modern Greece has only enjoyed national independence from Turkey since 1829, and during the preceding four centuries it suffered more from Turkish misrule than it has in so short a time been able to retrieve.

Athenian Acropolis. (From the South.)

Before the Turkish conquest, about A. D. 1400, this territory was a

portion of the Roman Empire, called at that time the " Byzantine " or " East Roman." This name is given the Roman Empire of the East after the loss of its Western provinces, in the 5th century A. D. All countries of this portion of the empire, comprising all those afterwards included in European and Asiatic Turkey, were dominantly Greek in population and culture at the time of the Turkish conquest. They were so before they became provinces of the Roman Empire, and were, in fact, the countries from which those of the Western Mediterranean had borrowed their civilization, either before or after they had become Roman as to government.

The territory of the Greek peninsula had been, as it is now, relatively insignificant since the loss of independence by its numerous petty states in the 4th century B. C. But at this time the Greeks had become masters of the wealth and luxury of the West Asiatic countries and of Egypt. Therefore their importance as individuals increased abroad a thousandfold more than it declined at home, so that first the Eastern and then the Western Mediterranean was entirely permeated by their culture, which thus became that of the Empire of Rome. Through that medium especially it has always influenced later history. This influence of the Greeks is explained by affinities of blood and language, which allied them to the other nations of Europe. It is also explained by the fact that, being by geographical position nearest to the East, their transformation and adoption of Eastern civilization made them the civilizers of the West of Europe. The Phœnicians had done much for the Western Mediterranean in material things before Greek influence began, but after it began it gradually covered over or transformed the Phœnician elements.

DIVISIONS OF RACE AND LANGUAGE.

Europe in Pre-historic Times.—In passing from the great empires of Northeastern Africa and Southwestern Asia to the continent of Europe, it is desirable to form some conception of the relations of its different peoples as to race. In describing the early commerce of the Phœnicians with the Mediterranean nations, the latter have been spoken of as otherwise without civilization. This is true in the sense of luxuries and of many mechanical arts. But the peoples of Europe, though infinitely below the Egyptians and Assyrians in material civilization before they borrowed this civilization through Phœnician commerce, had lived a settled agricultural life, with monogamic family organism, before they migrated from Asia, and they possessed, before entering Europe, many interesting traits and institutions, which are studied by the affinities of language.

Europe had been previously peopled by a race of which the Lapps and Finns of the North are a remnant. The lake dwellings of Switzerland, now submerged, but originally built on piles in the water, are remains of this earlier time. This race was replaced by the one from which most of the present nations of Europe are descended. These were generally established over Europe before B. C. 1500. They are divided into families according to languages.

THE ARYAN RACE.

Celtic ancestors of modern. . . . . . .
- Irish.
- Welsh.
- Highland Scotch.
- French.

Germanic ancestors of modern. . . . .
- Anglo-Saxons.
- Dutch.
- Germans.
- Danes.
- Norwegians and Swedes.

Slavonic ancestors of modern. . . . . .
- Russians.
- Poles.
- Bohemians.
- Servians.
- Bulgarians.

Greek-Italic ancestors of. . . . .
- Latins.
- Samnites and other Italian tribes.
- Greeks.

(The early population of Spain was partly Iberian, partly Celtic. The Iberian element continues in the Basques of the Pyrenees, but its language has no affinities with others in Europe. The Turks and Hungarians are much later arrivals in Europe, also without affinity to its other nations.)

Besides these families settled in Europe, others remaining in Asia belonged to the same race—the Phrygians (*Trojans*) and Armenians of Asia Minor, the Persians (of the province of Persia), and the Hindoos. The entire race is some-times called the Indo-European, because its members are found both in India and Europe. It is now more generally called "Aryan," from Aria, a province of the Iranian plateau (modern Afghanistan), an early centre of the race. It is from this province that the Hindoos are thought to have passed, before 1500 B. C., down the Cabul valley into the valley of the Indus, whence they spread to the country of the Ganges. The Aryan race is also called Japhetic.

Opposed to the Aryans in temperament and forms of language are the Semites—namely, the Jews, Phœnicians, and other Syrian populations, the Arabs, and the Assyrians. The languages of these peoples are closely related. They resemble the Aryan languages in having inflections and parts of speech, but the stock of words is different.

The Egyptian language appears to contain primitive forms of both Aryan and Semitic words. It is called Hamitic.

The word Turanian is applied to all the languages of Asia which are not Semitic or Aryan. These languages, otherwise very dissimilar, resemble each other in the use of nouns for all parts of speech. They are not inflected, and belong to the most primitive and undeveloped form of language. The Chinese is an instance; the Turkish, another. The word Turanian is formed from Turan, the steppe plateau of the Turcomans, north of the Iranian plateau of Persia and Afghanistan. Here were the hereditary enemies of the ancient Aryans, and from their country is named the class of languages opposed to theirs.

The Chaldæan language contained words of all classes—Aryan, Semitic, Hamitic, and Turanian.

GREEK MYTHOLOGY AND RELIGION.

Aryan Period.—From the foregoing sections two cardinal features of
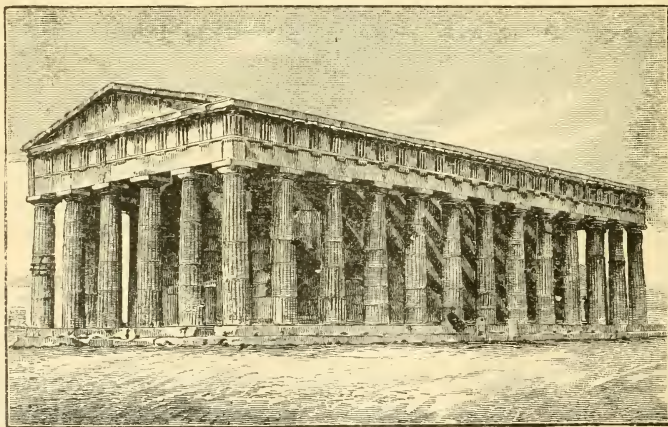
Temple of Theseus, Athens.

Greek history are explained. First, we understand how the modifications of Eastern civilization made by the Greeks were in time generally adopted by the

other Aryans of Europe, because the natural movement was one from East to West. Greece, being most eastern of the South-European countries, developed first, and controlled the rest in later ancient civilization. The rise of the Roman Empire was favorable to this extension of Greek civilization, and spread it still further.

Secondly, we understand why studies in the books of the most ancient Persians, the Zend-Avesta (written long before the time of the Persian Empire), and of the Hindoos, the Vedas, throw an interesting light on Greek mythology. From these books it appears that the ancient Aryans believed in a constant struggle between light and darkness, between the powers of good and of evil (teachings of the Zend-Avesta). They believed (Vedic hymns) that the thunderstorm was such a contest of good and evil spirits, in which the latter tried to keep away the fertilizing rain. The lightning dispelled the evil spirits of the black clouds, and allowed the rain to fall. This was the origin of the conception of Jupiter (Greek, *Zeus*). The power of light, as symbolized in the clear and open sky, was personified in Minerva (Greek, *Athene*). The triumph of the sun over the night was personified in the conception of Apollo. The dawning sun was conceived as a child with wings, the origin of the later Cupid (*Eros*).

In later Greek paganism, the Jupiter grew to be the personification of supreme power of will. The Juno was his consort. Minerva grew to be a personification of spiritual enlightenment. Apollo also became a personification of cultivation and enlightenment; of interest in the beautiful, in music, and in physical health and exercise.

Statue of Minerva.
(*Vatican Museum, Rome.*)

Many forms of Greek mythology are not to be distinguished in the older Aryan conceptions—Diana, the moon-goddess, the personification of chastity; Vulcan, the worker in metals and artificer; Mars, the god of the combat and the warrior; Neptune, the god of the sea and the rivers. Hercules, half hero, half divinity, was the personification of physical energy devoted to civilization. Mercury, originally the cloud divinity, represented the flocks of the sky, and so

became patron of flocks on earth; then, for this reason, the god of wealth and merchants in general ; the swift traveler, because the merchants were travelers, and therefore the messenger of the gods. Bacchus, the harvest divinity and god of the vine, was represented in Greek sculpture without intoxication. Venus, the goddess of love, was borrowed from the Phœnician worship of the Mother-Earth, and was represented with much nobility and modesty by the Greek sculptors.

Our estimate of Greek paganism depends entirely on the time of which we speak of it. In the Aryan period it was a childish but simple worship of natural forces. In the time of Homer, B. C. 1000, the Greeks were not shocked by the conception of deities moved by human passions and weakness. As their civilization developed in noble qualities and formed great characters, these reacted on the conceptions of mythology, idealized and purified them. A conception of a supreme being formed itself, in which the ideals of their mythology represented, at least to certain Greeks, various sides of one divine power. When

Head of the Apollo Belvedere.*
(*Vatican Museum.*)

the Greek states decayed, and life became licentious and corrupt, after 330 B. C., the more trivial aspects of the old belief made it an object of ridicule to many. Widened views of the world shook the faith of the multitude in their divinities, without bringing them nearer to true religion, and superstition was not the less dominant because skepticism largely prevailed. The Latin poets belong to a later epoch than the Greek, and came under the influence of the Greek mythology in this later period. The Latin names are generally used, however, in this chapter, as being the most familiar.

The Greek religion was not represented by a distinct priestly caste, but the knowledge and practice of its rites and observances were hereditary in certain families. The temples were State sanctuaries, which served also as the civic treasuries. They were also the museums of art, for the most important statues, pictures, and other works of art were those dedicated in them, and from century to century the store of these was constantly increasing. Of all Greek temples, that dedicated to the Athenian hero-king, Theseus, is the best preserved, and serves as a type by which other ruins may be restored in imagination. It was erected about 460 B. C.

---

* The Belvedere Apollo statue has its name from the Vatican Belvedere Garden, arranged by Pope Julius II. as a studio for sculptors, in 1506.

EARLY HISTORY.

Early Settlements.—No records exist of the migrations by which Greece was settled. The Phrygian highlands of Northwestern Asia Minor, the country about Troy, and the whole coast of Asia Minor, are found peopled, at a later day, by Greeks. Part of this population returned from Greece, but this country was also the one from which the migrations started. By way of Thrace and Macedonia, and by way of the islands of the Archipelago, the passage was an easy one. Colossal fortifications are found in the Peloponnesus and elsewhere of the pre-historic time. The early settlers are named Pelasgians by the Greek historians.

The first authentic fact of Greek history is a movement from the north central mountains of Greece (Doris), about B. C. 1100, by which the more civilized peoples of the South were subjugated. This movement is known as the Doric migration, and the Greeks, from this time on, are known as divided into the two tribes of Dorians and Ionians. A third tribe, the Æolian, simply represents the continued existence, in some parts, of the older stock, otherwise divided into Doric and Ionic. The Dorians were the hardier and rougher people. Their most important and influential settlements were Argos and the province of Argolis; Sparta, and the province of Laconia, all in Peloponnesus.

The Ionic Greeks were those of the eastern shores of Greece, of the islands of the Archipelago, and the shore of Asia Minor (Ionia proper). The province of Attica, capital Athens, was the leading Ionic state of Greece proper. On the shore of Asia Minor, Miletus, Ephesus, Smyrna, and Phocœa were important Ionic towns. The Ionians, being the maritime Greeks, as distinguished from the hardier Dorian mountaineers, were more vivacious and subtle. Open, by temper and position, to the influence of Asiatic civilization, they were also more refined.

Siege of Troy.—The disturbances of the Doric migrations led to a general colonial movement towards the shores of Asia Minor,

whence the ancestors of the Greeks had come. The siege of Troy was doubtless an actual historic event of this colonial movement. It is not necessary, however, to suppose that the poems of Homer founded on this siege—the Iliad and the Odyssey—are historic accounts. They idealize and celebrate the period of colonial conquest, making the siege of Troy a theme for depicting the heroic exploits and warlike valor of the time.

Homer is supposed to have lived about 1000 B. C. His place of birth is disputed. He was certainly an Ionic Greek. The poems attributed to him are the first and greatest works of Greek literature. The "Iliad" describes an episode of the siege of Troy—the quarrel of the heroes Agamemnon and Achilles. The "Odyssey" describes the wanderings of Ulysses, the wisest of the Greeks, returning from the siege.

GEOGRAPHY OF GREECE AND ITS COLONIES.

The Peloponnesian province of Laconia, conquered and ruled by the Doric Spartans, is bordered on the west by Messenia. Sparta, in the 8th and 7th centuries B. C., subjugated this province.

Jupiter Temple at Olympia.
(*Restoration.*)

Above Messenia lies Elis. Its capital, Olympia, was the seat of the famous gymnastic games held every four years after B. C. 776. This year is called the first Olympiad, and the Greeks reckoned time by this era. Great importance was attached to this gymnastic festival, because the military protection of each independent Greek state was confided to the personal valor of the richer and more highly born citizens. Gymnastics were, therefore, an essential part of state education.

In connection with these bodily exercises, the art of sculpture became a natural expression of Greek life. At Olympia might be seen, in later antiquity, over three thousand statues of athletes. Here was the temple which

contained the famous colossal Jupiter by Phidias, the greatest Greek sculptor (5th century B. C.). Like other important temple statues, it was made of ivory and gold—ivory for the flesh, gold for the drapery. This statue still existed in the 5th century after Christ.

The province of Achaia (Northern Peloponnesus) was not an important state until after the overthrow of Greek freedom (B. C. 330), when the Achaian league of cities became prominent.

Sicyon and Corinth were important Doric states. The latter, being an important centre of Mediterranean commerce, was famed for great wealth.

The province of Argolis brings us back once more to the northern border of Laconia. Argos was the leading city, heading the most important state of Greece down to B. C. 777. Here was the colossal gold and ivory Juno by Polyclitus (5th century B. C.), of which the Ludovisi Juno in Rome is a copy. Mycenæ and Tirynth, strongholds of the Pelasgian period, have their immense walls still standing. At Nemea and on the Isthmus of Corinth gymnastic games were held.

Arcadia, the central province of the Peloponnesus, was also the least important. It was inhabited mainly by shepherds, furnishing the adjective " Arcadian " to later poets.

Attica.—Beyond the Isthmus of Corinth lay first the little state of Megaris, then the Peninsula of Attica.

Juno of the Ludovisi Villa, Rome.

Opposite the Piræus, the seaport of Athens, lies the island of Salamis, where the Persian fleet was defeated in B. C. 480. On the opposite side of Attica is the field of Marathon, where the Persian army was defeated in B. C. 490. The island of Eubœa stretches above this coast, with the important cities of Eretria and Chalcis.

Bœotia.—Above Attica is the low and marshy province of Bœotia. Its inhabitants were proverbial for a dull and heavy temperament. But Platæa, on its southern border, was a quick-witted and public-spirited community. Thebes was the important city of Bœotia. Leuctra and Chœronea were sites of important battles in the 4th century B. C.

Phocis.—Next to the west, along the Corinthian Gulf, lies Phocis, with the famed Apollo Sanctuary of Delphi, where the Pythian games were cele-brated. Here was the leading Oracle of the Greeks. A priestess seated on a tripod placed over a cleft in the earth, from which vapors rose casting her into trance, gave disjointed and fragmentary answers to the questions which were put to her by the priests on behalf of those consulting the oracle. These answers, when reduced to writing, were generally enigmatic, containing a double meaning. But the advice of the Delphic priests had also great weight, and for centuries their influence was exerted for the good of Greece.

Locris and Doris.—On either side of Phocis were the two provinces of Locris. On the northwestern side of Phocis is Doris.

Northern and Western Provinces.—From the northern Locris we pass into Thessaly, along the sea shore, by the pass of Thermopylæ, where three hundred Spartans died for the liberties of Greece, resisting the strength of the entire Persian Empire, B. C. 480. The large province of Thes-saly was never important in Greek history. Here is the battlefield of Pharsalia, where Pompey was defeated by Julius Cæsar. The western provinces of Epirus, Acarnania and Ætolia, are also unimportant. On the northeast prom-ontory of Acarnania, off Actium, the Roman Antony was defeated by Augustus.

This rugged and barren western side of Greece looks over to the almost equally unimportant eastern side of Italy. The leading states of the two countries were turned away from each other, and thus, as well as by position further west, Italy was destined to later development than Greece.

The mountain chain which divides Greece from Macedonia terminates on the east in Mount Olympus, the fabled home of the gods.

Climate.—From these mountains to the southern capes of the Pelo-ponnesus the distance is about 350 miles ; but between these limits are comprised all the changes of climate and production found otherwise be-tween the climate of North Germany and that of extreme Southern Italy. The mountain chains which separate the various provinces destined Greece to be the home of a series of independent states. Its variety of independent and individual life is in marked contrast to the monotony of the Eastern civiliza-tions. The deeply indented coasts and multitude of surrounding islands made navigation a necessary art. A spirit of enterprise was early developed, which, in the increase of population, led to the establishment of almost countless colonies beyond the limits of the mother country.

The Colonies.—Besides the colonial cities along the shore of Asia Minor, of which Smyrna still exists, and the important islands along this coast of Lesbos, Chios, Samos, and Rhodes, there were settlements on the promontories

of Chalcidice, jutting out from Macedonia. Especially important here were Olynthus and Potidæa. On the Bosphorus was situated Byzantium (Constantinople). On the Black Sea, Odessa, Sinope, and Trebizond still remain from the multitude of cities which lined these coasts. In Crete and Rhodes entirely, in Cyprus partially, the earlier Phœnician settlements gave way to Greek.

On the African coast of Cyrene, west of Egypt, were important Greek colonies. The whole coast of Southern Italy was lined with them to such an extent that it was called Magna Grecia (Great Greece). Naples was the most important. From Sybaris our word "sybarite" is derived. Crotona was the home of Pythagoras, the philosopher of the 6th century. On the island of Sicily, where the Phœnicians gradually encroached on the western part, the eastern half belonged to the Greeks. Syracuse was the most important city, the home of Archimedes, Greek geometrician and mechanician of the 3d century B. C. The eastern coast of Spain and the southern coast of France had several colonies. Marseilles was the leading Greek colony of this part of the Mediterranean. From this port it is thought that the Greek navigator Pytheas reached Iceland in the 4th century B. C. It is certain that he sailed far to the north of Great Britain.

All the colonies above mentioned were established before 555 B. C. Greece at this time controlled the commerce of the Eastern Mediterranean, and disputed with Carthage that of the West.

SPARTA AND ITS INFLUENCE IN GREECE.

The great law-giver of the Spartans was Lycurgus, 9th century B. C. His peculiar institutions are best understood by noting that this tribe lived in the midst of the earlier population of Laconia, which they held in subjection, and from which they had taken the fertile lands of the Eurotas valley. Large numbers of the conquered population had sunk to the condition of helots, or slaves. They were treated with great severity, and none of them had political rights.

The Spartans were the landed aristocracy. No intermarriage with other Greeks was allowed to destroy the purity of their blood. Each individual Spartan was a nobleman. But to maintain this ascendency of conquest, of government, of birth, and of possessions, each Spartan was bound to submit himself to the strictest military

discipline.   He was a warrior for life.   Taken from the mother's
care at the age of seven, he was thenceforward subject to the disci-
pline of the camp.   The men messed together at all times, like
soldiers.   Their fare was meagre and plain.   The gymnastic exer-

Early Greek Warrior.*

cises were obligatory, even on the
women. The discipline, endurance,
and bravery of these men were be-
yond description. They entered bat-
tle as if on parade, and remained
victors or dead on the field. The
self-confidence of the Spartans was
supreme, but it did not lead them
into a career of conquest, or to
dream of general dominion. Their
discipline could only be preserved
by isolation. Spartans were there-
fore not allowed to travel or to carry
on commerce. Frequent battles
with the same state were avoided,
lest their enemies might learn vic-
tory from frequent defeats.   Wars which would entail too long an
absence from home were avoided.   Even music was controlled by
law, and care was taken that no languishing and tender melodies
should effeminate the people.

Government.—Royal ambition was not allowed to carry the
state out of its accustomed grooves.   Hence the peculiar and other-
wise unknown institution of a double monarchy.   One king was to
check and cross the plans of the other if he attempted political
innovations.   The mutual jealousy of the two kings kept them busy,
and prevented them from carrying out plans for individual aggran-
dizement.   But monarchy was the form of government, because,
the army and state being inseparable, permanent generals were

---

* From a small bronze statuette in Berlin, found at Dodona, in Epirus. A spear is to be
imagined as held in the right hand.

required. The kings were also controlled by an elective committee of five state officers called Ephors.

Influence on other States.—The military power of the Spartans, their wariness, caution, and conservative self-restraint, made them finally the arbiters of the Greek states, after the decline of Argos, B. C. 777. Their mediation and interference regulated the relations of the other civic communities. The Spartan rigidity, narrowness, and exclusiveness were peculiar to themselves, but their example sustained, among the other Greek states, the ideal of a government in which the wealthier citizens bore its burdens, were its protectors and defenders, subject to military discipline, fighting in the ranks as private soldiers, and training their bodies from youth, by constant physical exercise, to the public service. Education was therefore universally controlled by the state. The idea of citizenship, of political rights, was associated with that of personal military service, and connected with hereditary birth. Large numbers of slaves were found in all Greek communities, but outside of Sparta they were humanely treated. The dimensions of the Greek states were, from a modern standpoint, absurdly small—generally consisting only of a single city, with the surrounding territory. The methods and ideals of Greek self-government were inconsistent with large dimensions, because the citizens managed their own affairs in personal concourse. Government by deputy—" representative government " —was unknown. But the small scale of the Greek states was favorable to the development and training of individual character.

ATHENS AND ITS INFLUENCE IN GREECE.

Hereditary monarchy, the form of government in the time of Homer, was gradually abandoned in the Greek states, with the peculiar exception noted of Sparta. The last important Greek king was Pheidon, of Argos, B. C. 777.

Aristocratic republics then became the rule. With the increase of commerce, and the rise to wealth of non-landholding and

unprivileged inhabitants of the republics, this rule of the old aris-
tocracies was often found oppressive. This feeling became general
in the 6th century B. C. Down to this time the foundation of col-
onies had been the vent and outlet of such discontent, but the
coasts open to this enterprise had all been occupied. Resort was
now had, sometimes, to concessions of political rights to hitherto
unprivileged members of a community.

The Greek Tyrants.—In other cases, some member of the
aristocracy put himself at the head of a revolt of the lower orders,
and founded a "Tyranny." This meant simply a one-man power,
which represented the popular side against the aristocracies. But
the Tyrants were always bitterly hated by the order which they
betrayed. An odious significance was gradually attached to the
term, from the arbitrary acts and cruelties into which the Tyrants
were forced in order to keep their power. Especially famed and
odious were Polycrates, Tyrant of Samos (6th century), and Diony-
sius, Tyrant of Syracuse (4th century).

In Athens both expedients above mentioned were resorted to.
Hence, in the 6th century B. C., the Reforms of Solon and the
" Tyranny " of Pisístratus.

Solon, known as one of the wisest of the Greeks, was a member of
the privileged class, but sought to still the dissensions with which his
country was distracted by concessions to the democratic spirit. He
based the voting privilege and the obligations of state service, which
were inseparable in Greek conception, on the possession of property
instead of on descent from the already privileged citizens. But the
newly admitted citizens now became also hereditary transmitters
of the citizenship. A wealthy non-resident of Attica could not be-
come an Athenian citizen, or the father of citizens, by moving
there.

The people were divided into four classes, according to amount
of property. All could vote for officers of state, but eligibility to
the higher offices was confined to the higher classes. The reforms
of Solon also attempted to alleviate the economic distress which was

one cause of trouble. But this distress kept the poorer population dissatisfied with Solon's measures, while his own order was dissatisfied with the amount of concession.

Pisistratus.—Of the three parties in the state—reactionists, moderates (Solon's party), and radicals—the latter gained the leadership under Pisistratus, one of the privileged class, who put himself at the head of the democracy, and became "Tyrant" in B. C. 560. He ruled with wisdom and glory, and did not disturb the legislation of Solon, who thus was the founder of the democratic constitution of Athens. But the odium attaching to a one-man power, which the personality of Pisistratus had conquered, ruined the government of his sons, who succeeded him after B. C. 527. His son Hipparchus was slain, and his son Hippias was expelled and took refuge with the Persians, B. C. 510.

The reforms of Clisthenes now increased the democratic tendencies of Solon's constitution. Among his institutions was the device of Ostracism, so named from *ostrakon*, the oyster-shell, on which the vote was written when the measure was made use of. Ostracism was banishment without other penalty and without disgrace. Whenever a name was proposed for ostracism, six thousand votes cast in favor of the measure required the person named to leave Athens for ten years. It was a device (showing the small scale of Greek politics), by which the power of a single man to overthrow the state and unduly control it was to be restrained. It was applied against men of unquestioned patriotism when their policy was antagonistic to the will of six thousand citizens. It was also a device to forestall the re-establishment of a " Tyranny."

The Spartans viewed with disfavor the democratic tendencies of the Athenians. as tending to sap the conservative spirit and traditional institutions of Greece. The spread of democratic tendencies would endanger Spartan ascendency in Greek politics, and threaten their own power in Laconia. Unsuccessful in overt attempts to cripple Athenian democracy, they constantly maintained relations with the reactionary party in Athens. Thus Athens and Sparta, as the heads of democratic and aristocratic tendencies in Greece, stood to each other in a permanently hostile attitude. The Athenians disliked the narrowness and lack of refinement in the Spartan ; the Spartans disliked the levity and fickleness of a people constantly engaged in tinkering their constitution and advocating liberties which the Spartans could not themselves bestow

without self-destruction. Behind this opposition of policy was a difference of fundamental character—that of the Doric and the Ionic Greek—the contest between an old land-holding and a new mercantile spirit, between the spirit of Doric solidity and conservative indifference to luxuries and the Ionic taste for beauty and artistic refinements. For centuries the Doric spirit had dominated and controlled the Ionic—the latter was now to take its turn. At this moment, B. C. 500, the outbreak of the Persian Wars apparently reconciled and broke down these oppositions of policy and taste in a common resistance to the foreign foe.

THE WARS WITH PERSIA—IONIC REVOLT, 500 B. C.

The Lydian Empire.—Between the Greek cities which lined the coast of Asia Minor and the river Halys, stretched, in earlier antiquity than the time we have reached, the Empire of Lydia.

Greek Vase.
(*Combat of Greeks and Persians.*)

This empire (capital Sardes) grew out of the smaller province of the same name, formed by the valleys of the Hermus and the Cayster. (At the mouths of these rivers lie Smyrna and Ephesus.) It was a vassal state of Assyria after 1224 B. C., and exercised an important influence on the Greeks in earlier antiquity, as a channel by which Assyrian civilization acted on them. But it was also a buffer, protecting the Asiatic Greeks from direct contact with the great powers of the Tigris-Euphrates valley. **In the decline of Assyrian power**, about 150 years before the fall of Nineveh,* Lydia became independent. The Medes attempted to conquer it, but made peace, 610 B. C., by a treaty which was observed till the overthrow of the Median Empire by Persia. The

---

* Name the date.

great wealth of Lydia was gold. The fabled wealth of King Midas,* and the actual wealth of King Crœsus, are equally famed.

Crœsus was king of Lydia when Cyrus the Great of Persia began his career of conquest. Crœsus had brought the Greek cities of the Asiatic coast into a species of dependence, but his relations with them were friendly. On a sudden the Lydian Empire of Crœsus was overwhelmed by Cyrus, and the barrier between the crushing power of the great Asian empire and the Greeks was broken down.

The Greek cities of the Asiatic coast were forced to accept Tyrants (of Greek blood), who obeyed the Persian satraps, and kept their own despotisms in existence by Persian protection. The liberty and power of the greatest and richest Greek colonial cities, surpassing in wealth those of the mother country, were at the mercy of Asiatics. The king of Persia could not be ignorant of the smoldering discontent and uncertain obedience of the Ionic cities. Meantime, Cyrus died in 529, after conquering Babylon in 538. His son Cambyses, 529–522, had added Phœnicia and Egypt to the empire.

The third king of Persia, Darius, first turned attention to the conquest of the lower Indus valley, and then directed his energies to the West. Until the power of the mother country was humbled, the Greeks of Asia Minor could not be regarded as securely conquered. Thrace and Macedonia,† which lay between the boundary of the Persian Empire on the Hellespont and Bosphorus, and the states of Greece, must be first annexed. This was the object of the Scythian expedition of Darius, 508 B. C.

Darius entered Thrace with an army of 800,000 men, and then turned north to the Danube to secure this frontier. The country of the wandering and barbaric Scythians beyond the

---

* The fable relates that Midas, king of Phrygia (a province of the Lydian Empire), requested of Dionysus (Bacchus) that all he touched might turn to gold. The favor was granted, but because his food and drink were turned to gold he was starving. Midas was obliged to beg that the granted favor might be revoked.

† Map, p. 28.

Danube was entered, in order to teach these peoples to respect the power of Persia and forestall predatory incursions on the new provinces. A century before, the Scythians had ravaged Western Asia, contributing greatly to the dissolution of the Assyrian State. This campaign was intended also to take vengeance for this invasion. Darius crossed the Danube, just above its delta, on a bridge of boats constructed for him by the Asiatic Greeks, who had been forced to join the expedition with 600 ships.

The Athenian Miltiades, who ruled a state of his own on the Thracian Chersonesus (the promontory bordering the Hellespont), proposed to destroy the bridge during the absence of the Persian army in the wilds of Scythia, and by thus causing the destruction of Darius to secure the liberties of the Asiatic Greeks. This plan was crossed and defeated by the Greek satrap of Miletus, Histiæus. Miltiades made his escape to Athens.

Histiæus was rewarded, on the safe return of Darius, by the governorship of Myrcinus, at the mouth of the Strymon, the extreme frontier of the Persians in Europe. The son-in-law of Histiæus, named Aristagoras, was made governor of Miletus. There were rich gold mines in the vicinity of Myrcinus, and the power of Histiæus grew rapidly. It threatened to assume a position of independence, which would make Myrcinus rather a barrier between the Persians and the European Greeks than a stepping-stone to further conquest. Histiæus was therefore summoned to the Persian Court at Susa, and was detained there in a sort of honorable captivity. He then sent messages to his brother-in-law, Aristagoras, to incite a revolt of the Ionic Greeks.

Aristagoras himself was disposed to this step, because he had failed in an attack on the Island of Naxos, owing to the jealousy of the Persian satrap of Asia Minor. Aristagoras seized the Tyrants of the Greek cities who were with his armament, delivered them up to the people, and proclaimed democracy among the Asiatic Greeks, 500 B. C. He then immediately sailed over to Greece, to secure help against the Persians. Sparta had no ships, and had never risked so

distant and doubtful an undertaking, nor did the troubles of Ionians give her much concern. She refused assistance. The Athenians gave twenty ships and the Eretrians of Euboea gave five.

An expedition of the Ionic Greeks, with the allies thus sent over, marched on Sardes, took, and burned it. On their retreat to the coast they were defeated by the Persians. The Athenians and Eretrians sailed home. The revolt of the Ionians continued, and was now utterly crushed by Persia (by B. C. 494). The next step was to take revenge on Athens for its defiance of the "Great King" and the burning of Sardes.

PERSIAN WARS—500–480 B. C.

The first expedition of the Persians moved by way of Thrace, in 492, attended by a large fleet. In rounding Mount Athos (peninsula of Chalcidice) the fleet was nearly destroyed by a terrible storm, and the land forces, also much annoyed by the Thracians, turned back on account of this disaster.

In 490 a second expedition of about 200,000 men, with 600 ships, sailed from the Bay of Issus, at the angle where the coasts of Syria and Asia Minor join each other, by way of the islands of the Archipelago, into the strait between
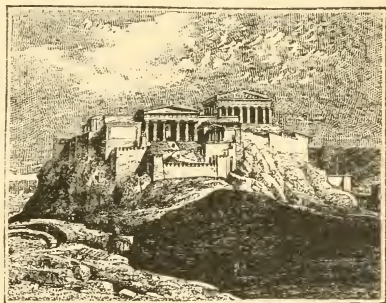
Acropolis at Athens. (Restoration.)
(*From the West.*)

Attica and Euboea. Eretria was destroyed, and its inhabitants were enslaved. The Persians then landed, for the march on Athens, on the plains of Marathon. Messengers had been dispatched from Athens for the aid of Sparta, which was promised but delayed. The Athenian army of 10,000 heavy armed infantry, with 1,000 Plataeans, was posted on the heights protecting the road to Athens. They were com-

manded by ten generals, heading respective divisions of the army, and each taking turn for a day in command of the whole.

Among these generals was Miltiades (page 46). For several days the armies watched each other, the Persians wishing to tempt the Greeks down into the plain, where the immense superiority of the Persian numbers might easily overwhelm them, and also because their best forces were cavalry, which could not be used on broken and hilly ground. On the day which gave Miltiades the command, he marshaled his army at dawn for descent into the plain.

While Eastern armies placed their great dependence on light cavalry and archers, the Greeks used the phalanx—a compact mass of heavy armed infantry. Each warrior was armed with a heavy spear and protected by a long buckler.

The phalanx was drawn up ten deep, thus giving their army something over a thousand front only. The Greek tactics depended on the momentum of the phalanx, with its forest of projecting spears, and on the discipline by which the ranks were kept solid, for any break of the line made its array useless. A slow and cautious advance was therefore generally made, in order to be sure of keeping the ranks of the phalanx perfect till its impact against the opposing force. On this occasion, contrary to use, the Greek line insensibly quickened its pace as it descended the slope, the rear ranks pushing the front ones forward. Whether this quickened step was pre-arranged, or an effect of the sloping hill-side, is unknown. A running charge of the phalanx was unheard of, but this one did not break its ranks, and its momentum was irresistible.

The Persian array was swept down like grass, and the battle was instantly won, over an immensely superior force, by the confusion and terror resulting. A large part of the Persian force made its escape to the ships, and these set sail for a direct attack on Athens. But the quick march of the Greek army back to the opposite coast forestalled a surprise, and the Persians did not venture a second landing.

The battle of Marathon was not such a case of discipline conquering numbers that it lay in the power of the Persians, by adopting Greek tactics, or by perfecting their discipline, to retrieve defeat. The system of the Eastern world could not develop the individual training and discipline on which the Greek tactics depended. It was, moreover, impossible to infuse into an Eastern army the moral courage and patriotic enthusiasm which inspired the victors of Marathon. The Persian despotism was not especially odious to the peoples united by it (excepting to Egypt), but the contingents of various nations of which a Persian army was composed were not bound together by the inner cohesion of common nationality and of absolute devotion to a common cause. As long as the Eastern civilizations had lasted, the plan of depending on superior numbers and physical force had served its end, because among all Eastern nations the same system essentially prevailed. Now, for the first time in history, it became apparent that Europe, which had so lately been dependent on the Asiatics in matters of civilization, had risen above and outstripped its teachers. The victory of Marathon was a triumph of moral over physical nature, of intelligence over matter, of European self-government over Asiatic despotism.

A new Persian armament against the Athenians was delayed by the death of Darius, B. C. 486, but was continued by his son and successor, Xerxes. Xerxes marched on Greece, in B. C. 480, by way of Thrace and Macedonia, with about 1,000,000 men, and attended by a fleet of 3,000 sail. It was against this army that 300 Spartans under Leonidas, with some auxiliary contingents, successfully defended the Pass of Thermopylæ for two days, until, having information that an army of Persians was crossing, by a treacherously exposed mountain defile, to the rear of the pass, they refused to save themselves by flight, and continued fighting till the last man had fallen. The Persian armies marched through Bœotia into Attica, and burned Athens. Her citizens had taken refuge on shipboard.

The Athenian fleet had been constantly increased and constantly drilled, since the battle of Marathon, by the foresight of Themistocles (p. 65). It amounted to one half of the entire Greek fleet, which had altogether about 600 ships. After three naval battles off Eubœa, in which the Persians lost heavily without being beaten, the Greek ships drew into the narrow sound between

the Island of Salamis and Athens. Here they were surrounded by the Persian fleet, and a battle was fought, which Xerxes and his army watched from the shore. The superior handling of the Greek galleys, whose oarsmen had been carefully drilled to naval manœuvres, gave them the victory.

Although the Persian fleet was still numerous and the land army undefeated, Xerxes was so disheartened that he returned to Asia, leaving 300,000 men to effect the conquest of Greece.

This army was defeated by the Greeks, under command of the Spartan Pausanias, at Platæa, in the following year, B. C. 479. On the same day, a decisive victory over the Persians in Asia Minor was won on the promontory of Mycale, opposite Samos.

In their expeditions against the Greeks, the Persians depended mainly for their fleets on the Phœnicians. An alliance with the Phœnicians of the West had combined all the forces of Carthage against the Sicilian Greeks. An immense Carthaginian army was defeated at Himera, in Sicily, on the day of the battle of Salamis.

ATHENIAN ASCENDENCY, 480–430 B. C.

The result of the victories over the Persians was an expansion of Greek character and Greek life which makes the 5th century B. C. the glorious age of literature and art. The Athenians had been the main object of attack, and had exhibited the most devotion to the cause of Greece in general. Marathon and Salamis, two of three greatest victories, had been won by their valor. In the third victory, at Platæa, they had played a most important part. They now became the head of an aggressive war on the Persians, which was concluded with success, B. C. 460. Naval armaments being essential in this war, and foreign to the genius of Sparta, this state was more in the background.

The cities of the shores and islands of the Ægean were combined by the Athenian Aristides into the Confederacy of Delos, so called from the island of the Archipelago in which the treasury

of the confederacy was first established. In place of the contributions of men and ships supplied at first by the different states, contributions of money were afterwards made, with which Athens undertook the protection of the confederacy.

Ruins of the Parthenon.

The treasury was soon moved to Athens, and the taxes were raised without reference to actual expenses. Finally they were regarded as a tribute to that city. Under the direction of the famous statesman and orator, Pericles, (after the death of Aristides, 468), the Athenian democracy was the arbiter, judge, and director of the whole confederacy. With the wealth of which Athens was now mistress, Pericles beautified the city with the buildings and statues which have made Athenian art the synonym for classic perfection.

The sculptor Phidias was the ruling mind in these artistic creations. Under his direction was erected on the Acropolis the Parthenon, most famous of Greek temples of the Doric style, about 440 B. C. For the colossal gold and ivory Minerva within this temple, six hundred thousand dollars worth of gold was employed. The entrance gates of the Acropolis (Prophylæa) were no less famous. The temple of the Erechtheium, also on the Acropolis, was built in the Ionic order after the Prophylæa were finished, after 430 B. C. (p. 53). The ruins of these buildings are still the wonder and admiration of the world, while the gable sculptures of the Parthenon, now in the British Museum at London, rank as the most perfect works of sculpture (the Elgin Marbles).

In literature, the 5th century generally boasts the most distinguished names (excepting Homer), or the pre-eminence of having prepared the greatness of those who came later. Herodotus was a Greek of Asia Minor, whose history of the Persian wars is interwoven with interesting accounts of the Eastern nations and of his own travels. He is called the " father of history." Thucydides was an Athenian who wrote the history of the Peloponnesian war, the great contest between Athens and Sparta (to be summarized in the next chapter). Xenophon wrote the account of the expedition of the 10,000 Greeks into Persia, known as the " Anabasis " (summarized in the next chapter). These authors show that combination of unaffected simplicity with supreme art which distinguishes all productions of the Greeks.

In philosophy, Socrates the Athenian developed, by conversational analysis, without himself leaving literary works, a system elaborated by Plato (4th century), also an Athenian. The dialogues of Plato touch the highest level of purely human moral philosophy. Aristotle (4th century) was the father of science and of scientific method.

The dramatic authors of Athens wrote for a stage before which the entire people assembled for edification and instruction as well as amusement. The tragedies of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides exhibit the religious ideals of the Greeks in their greatest period. The comedies of Aristophanes conceal, under an external cover of wit and license, the severity of a censor and a moralist.*

The worth of Greek literature may be valued by its later influence. The Latin authors and poets afterward drew their ideals and inspiration, and much of their matter, from Greek sources. The Italian Revival of Letters, or Renaissance, in the 15th and 16th centuries A. D., from which the later modern learning is derived, is based on the learning of the Greek and Roman authors.

PELOPONNESIAN WAR, 430–400 B. C.

The civic constitutions of Greece were not adapted to expansion or foreign dominance like that of Rome. The career of democracy on which Athens was fully launched in the times of Pericles was not long compatible with a dominance over the states combined in the Confederacy of Delos. The fickleness of the Athenian multitude increased with the increasing number of citizens. Deliberations carried on in public concourse lost their moderation when the control of the voting body escaped the power of the orator's voice.

---

* For a characteristic type of the Greek theatre, see illustration at page 90.

The loudest lunged became the leaders of the people. The organism of the Greek states, having no representative system, and no Roman ideal of giving rights of the victors to the vanquished, could not extend its control over its fellows without ruling them by force and arbitrary power.

The rule of a foreign democracy proved more galling to the Greek states of the Ægean than the rule of native "Tyrants." As the memory of the Persian wars faded away, they grew restive under the taxation for Athenian works of art.

Conservative Sparta viewed with more and more distaste the ascendency and democratic influence of Athens. A tension between these states, dating from the time of Clisthenes (page 43), developed into a struggle in which many of the states in the Confederacy of Delos became an assistance to the Spartans, and gave them courage to enter on the war.

Ruins of the Erectheium.

The formal pretext for this strife between Athens and Sparta was a quarrel between Corinth and her island colony, Zacynthus (west of the Peloponnesus).

The Peloponnesian war lasted nearly thirty years, from 431 to 404 B. C. Pericles died soon after it began. Sparta having an undoubted ascendency in the land army, and Athens having an undoubted ascendency in the fleet, each party raided and distressed the other without decisive results for some years. All the states of Greece, and most of the colonies as far as Sicily, took sides, according to their democratic or aristocratic tendencies. In each state a
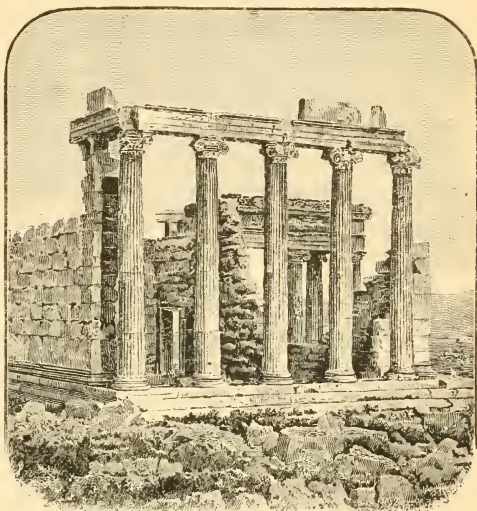
democratic and aristocratic party struggled to control its policy, and as one party or the other triumphed the state changed sides. The war differed from those waged from time immemorial among the independent states of Greece by becoming a *social struggle*, in which parties were more than patriotism, and to which the animosities of rich and poor, of privileged and unprivileged, added unheard-of bitterness. Mercenary soldiers began to be used, a thing hitherto unknown in Greek warfare, and equally unusual cruelties were committed. The first ten years of war ended without decisive results. A treaty was made by which each party gave up its conquests.

The Sicilian Expedition.—In 415 the Athenians, still unshaken in confidence, apparently unshaken in power, were led by Alcibiades to an expedition against the Sicilian Syracuse, with intention to incorporate the Sicilian Greeks in general in the Athenian Empire. Alcibiades was disgraced with the fickle multitude, on a charge of sacrilege, before Syracuse was attacked, and was obliged to take refuge in Sparta, which he incited to war on his native city after the Sicilian expedition had failed. This began the third period of the war, in which Alcibiades at last became again for a time the commander of his countrymen.

A final defeat of the Athenians at Ægos Potamos, on the Hellespont, placed Athens at the mercy of the Spartan general, Lysander. She was deprived of all her dependencies and subject states. Her walls were torn down, and an aristocratic party was placed in power under Spartan protection. Although the internal government was soon afterwards again made democratic, the power acquired after the Persian wars was not regained. But Athens remained, in the world of intellect and of letters, the seat of a more glorious empire than the fate of arms can bestow or take away. ·

Sparta had apparently triumphed, but she had conquered with the arms of her enemy—that is, by becoming a naval power, and this was to undermine the fabric of her old Doric conservatism. She had accepted the money and assistance of the Persians on the shore

of Asia Minor, and thus lost the esteem of patriotic Greeks. Her kings had become involved in the intrigues of the East, and in the pursuit of criminal ambitions. The cities of the Ægean had been compelled, in general, to accept Spartan governors, and their rule was as odious to one party in these cities as Athenian demo- cratic rule had been to the other. Thus the Peloponnesian war marks the decline in strength of the Greek political constitu- tions, both Doric and Ionic. But the influence of the Greeks as individuals, and as representatives of European civilization, was increasing.

The Anabasis.—Exactly at the close of the Peloponnesian war occurred an event which gave the Greeks a new sense of their superiority to the East. In 405 died Artaxerxes I. of Persia. The succession of his son, Artaxerxes II., was contested by his younger brother Cyrus, son of another and more favored wife, and firstborn after his father had become king. On this ground, Cyrus (called the Minor to distinguish him from Cyrus the Great, founder of the Persian monarchy) laid claim to the throne. As governor of Asia Minor, Cyrus had assisted Sparta to her triumph in the Peloponnesian war, in order to raise, by her permission, an army of Greek mercenaries, with whose assistance he in- tended to conquer the Persian throne.

Cyrus marched with 10,000 heavy armed Greeks from Sardes on Babylon. Arrived near that city, at Cunaxa, the Greek phalanx won an easy victory over an immense army of Persians, 401 B. C.; but in the moment of victory Cyrus lost his life in a charge of cavalry. The Ten Thousand were led back by Xeno- phon in safety through the mountains of Armenia to the shore of the Black Sea, and thence home. His history of this memorable expedition is called the " Anabasis " (the going up, or march up, to Babylon).

The project of Cyrus shows the respect in which the Greeks were beginning to be held by the older Eastern nations, and the march of the Ten Thousand laid bare the weakness of the Persian Empire to friend and foe. One resource only was left the Persians—the power of gold to excite dissensions among the Greek states, and thus divert their energies from turning against Persia.

CONTESTS OF GREEK STATES TILL THE MACEDONIAN ASCENDENCY, B. C. 400-350.

Corinthian War.—War was declared by Persia on Sparta in retaliation for the assistance given Cyrus Minor. The campaigns of

Athenian Silver Coin,
with Head of Minerva.

Reverse, with Owl
sacred to Minerva.

the Spartan king Agesilaus in Asia Minor were so successful that Persia was obliged to stir up strife in Greece. This led to the Corinthian war, in which Corinth, Argos, Athens, Thebes, and Thessaly, assisted by Persian money, combined against the Spartans.

The result of this war was to preserve and strengthen Spartan ascendency, but the Greek cities of Asia Minor were sacrificed by her to the Persians for this end. The peace was even arranged at the Persian Court, 387 B. C.

Olynthian War.—The only state which refused to accept the peace and the supremacy of Sparta, thereby made obligatory, was Olynthus (on Chalcidice) and the confederacy of cities which it headed. This led to war with Sparta, in which the powerful Olynthian Confederacy was crushed, 383–379, and the way made easy for the later rise of Macedonia, hitherto held in check by this Confederacy.

A Spartan army, marching through Bœotia against Olynthus, was invited by the aristocratic party of Thebes to seize the citadel and support a Theban oligarchy, 383.

Theban Ascendency.—This led to the struggle of Thebes, 378–362, headed by Epaminondas, in which the power of Sparta was broken by the battles of Leuctra, 371, and Mantinea, 362. She was even stripped of her century-long rule of Messenia, and the city of Megalopolis was founded in Arcadia to cripple any restoration of power. These remarkable victories over the hereditary masters of Greek land warfare were effected by the new tactics of Epaminondas —also pursued by Napoleon Bonaparte—the method of breaking the enemy's line by concentration of force on one point. To this end the phalanx was given the form of a wedge. Epaminondas died on the battlefield of Mantinea. Philip of Macedon was his pupil, and developed his system into the famous Macedonian phalanx.

THE MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY; FINALLY ESTABLISHED B. C. 338.

The inhabitants of Macedonia belonged to the stock of which the Greek race were members, but down to the time of their king Philip had been a hardy peasantry, without refinement or civilization. Under this ruler the Macedonian power was extended over Thrace, and acquired great importance by the subjugation of the important Greek colonies reaching from the Bosphorus to the Peninsula of Chalcidice. While wealth was secured by their tributes and the control of their important commercial interests, the power of Macedonia was consolidated by strong organism, and supported by the most highly perfected military system yet developed.

The Macedonian phalanx was given a spear twenty-one feet in length, and its depth was increased to sixteen files. The front rank was protected by five projecting spears, the others were held up, slanting forward. Thirty-two thousand men thus arranged would make a front of only two thousand men, and the momentum of a phalanx thus constituted was irresistible in warfare as then known.

Above all, the Macedonian power was wielded by a shrewd and

politic prince against the divided councils and weakened force of the jarring republics of Greece. The intervention of Philip in Greek politics was invited by certain states against their rivals, and resulted in the overthrow of all.

A period of intrigues and warfare, which began shortly after the death of Epaminondas, and which lasted about twenty years, proved that the moral forces and patriotic vigor of Greek life were exhausted, that the ambition of Thebes was unequal to the task which her victories over Sparta had tempted her to undertake. In these intrigues and quarrels Philip was first a mediator and participator, then a gradually ascendant power. Foremost in a league against Philip was Athens, headed by Demosthenes, and joined with Thebes; but the defeat of Chæronéa, in Bœotia, B. C. 338, decided the fate of Greece and subjected her states to the Macedonian supremacy.

MACEDONIAN CONQUEST OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE, B. C. 333.

Amalgamation of the Greek and Eastern Civilization.— Philip was a partisan of Greek culture and education, and did not abuse his victory. The gradual decay of the Persian Empire offered a new field for Greek enterprise, a new mission for Greek civilization. Under Macedonian leadership and adoption it was about to begin a new career—that of foreign triumph and diffusion.

Coin with Head of Alexander.

The project of conquering the East, which Philip contemplated as a means of uniting the energies of Greece in foreign enterprise, and so leading its states to forget their subjugation, was interrupted by his death, B. C. 336. The project descended to his son Alexander the Great.

After quelling the revolts which the accession of a young and

21

ALEXANDRIA

Mediterranean Sea

Macedonia

Rome
Capua

Carthage

Crete

Rhodes

Ammonium

EGYPT

The Lighthouse

Lochias

Small Harbor

Pharus

Large Harbor

Present shore

Jews Quarter

Museum

Macandrum

Soma

Gymnasium

Deuterium

Academia

Amphitheatre

BRUCHIUM

Panium

RHACOTIS

Canal to the Nile

Serapium

Wall

Canal to the Lake

Lake Mareotis
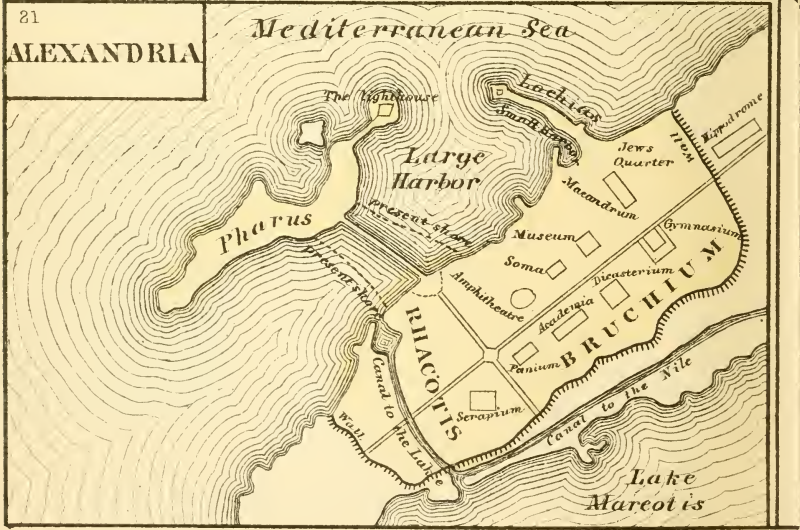
Progressive Map
HELLENIC ASCENDENCY
300 B.C.
The Empire of Alexander the great and its divisions

Sogdiana

Cappadocia

Bactria

(Afghanistan)

Atropatene

THE

Arbela

Issus

Euphrates R.

Tigris

Babylonia

SELEUCIDAE

Tyre

Damascus

Jerusalem

Seleucia

Babylon

Susa

Persepolis

Susiana

Alexandria

Persis

Carmania

Gedrosia

Arachosia

Indus

Patalene

Empire of Nearchus

Delta of the Indus
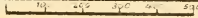
untried prince (he was but twenty), naturally excited in an empire so lately brought together, Alexander entered Asia Minor with an army of but thirty-five thousand men. He won his first victory over the Persian forces in a brilliant cavalry action on the Granicus (Northwest Asia Minor, B. C. 334). Not till he reached the town of Issus, on the coast of Northern Syria, did the Persians again offer dangerous resistance.

In the battle of Issus, B. C. 333, the Persian king, Darius, escaped with difficulty: his army was totally defeated. Alexander
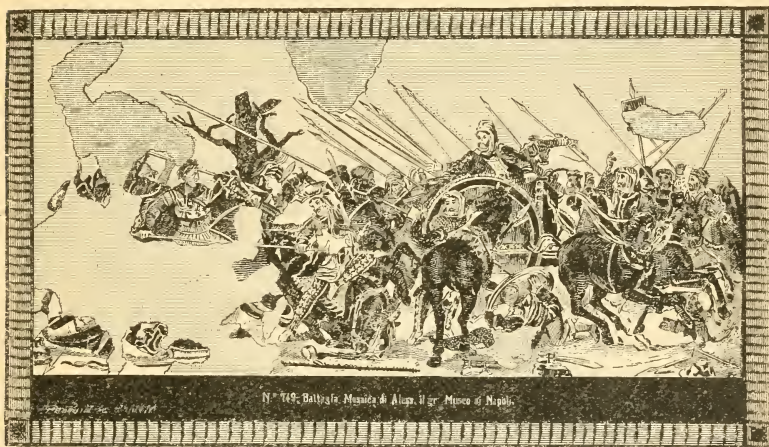
Battle of Issus.   Ancient mosaic picture in Naples Museum, from Pompeii.*

did not march on Babylon and Persepolis, but turned down the coast of Syria, in order, by conquering the entire coast line of the empire, to prevent expeditions against the Greek states, or alliances with them, after he should march into the interior of Asia. After a desperate resistance by the city of Tyre to his besieging army, Syria was won, and Egypt was next conquered without striking a blow, B. C. 332. Here the Persian despotism had always been odious

---

* The horse in the foreground is being held ready for the escape of the king, but Darius is too much agitated by the fate of a friend, transfixed by the spear of Alexander, to care for his own safety at the moment here represented.

—the Greeks were welcomed as liberators. The site of Alexandria was fixed, and this still important city was then founded.

From Egypt Alexander marched by way of Syria, on the countries of the Euphrates and Tigris. He met the Persian army at Arbela, B. C. 331 (beyond the site of Nineveh), and totally defeated it. Darius fled for his life, and was murdered by a satrap during the pursuit of the Greeks.

The battle of Arbela decided the fate of Persia. Where so many nations were bound already by a foreign rule, the change of masters was at least indifferent to them if not actively desired, and the rule of Alexander was mild and benevolent. The march of the Macedonians was now continued toward the Indus, with a turn to the north which added the upper valleys of the Oxus and Jaxartes to their conquests.

Beyond the Indus Alexander entered the country of the Punjaub (B. C. 327), and defeated the Indian prince, Porus, who opposed him with elephants. But on the banks of the Hyphásis the wearied soldiers refused to advance further. Alexander then descended the Indus, dispatched a fleet to return by way of the Persian Gulf, and himself led the bulk of the army back by land. The most terrible privations were suffered on this march.

In Babylon, Alexander, having himself married the daughter of Darius, effected the marriage of ten thousand of his officers and soldiers with Persians, as symbol and beginning of the amalgamation between Greece and Asia which he proposed, and which was effected in the centuries following his death (B. C. 323).

THE GREEK STATES OF THE EAST WHICH REPLACED THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

Alexander had chosen no successor and left no children, except an infant born after his death. But the division of his empire resulting from this absence of a single successor rather facilitated than impeded the expansion of

Greek civilization, by dispersing different centres of Greek military rule and Greek culture. The final division of the Greek Eastern states among the generals of Alexander and their successors was established by the battle of Ipsus in Asia Minor, 301 B. C.

Ptolemy already held Egypt. After him are named the Greek rulers of Egypt till the time of Roman conquest, B. C. 30. Alexandria, the capital, became the most important centre of Greek science and learning, and the seat of the famed library finally destroyed by the Mohammedan Arabs, in the 7th century A. D. The wealth of Egypt was centred in Alexandria—a Greek city—but the Egyptians were ruled with wisdom and tolerance. A new period of Egyptian architecture began, which attests a prosperity unknown since B. C. 1200.

Seleucus and his descendants, the Seleucidæ, ruled Syria, Asia Minor, and the countries of the Euphrates and Tigris. Antioch in Syria was a Greek city and capital of this empire.

The city of Pergamus, in Asia Minor, and surrounding territory, was ruled by the Attalids. Pergamus was an important centre of literature and learning. Our word parchment is hence named.

The farther countries of the Persian Empire next the Indus, for a short time ruled by the Seleucidæ, were then ruled by Greek dynasties loosely connected with the West, and gradually faded (3d century B. C.) into the Par-
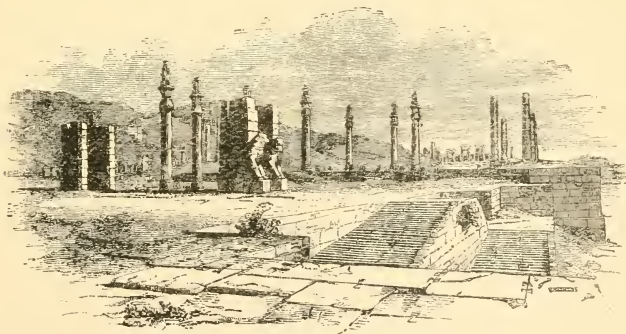
Ruins of Persepolis.

thian Empire, which also conquered the Euphrates-Tigris valley before B. C 100. The province of Parthia is southeast of the Caspian.

Macedonia was ruled by a dynasty which exercised an ascendency over the states of Greece without directly annexing them. The Ætolian and

Achæan leagues were confederations which claimed and exercised independent powers.

If the spirit of liberty had still existed, actual freedom was possible and not denied. But the most important centre of Greece was the recruiting ground on the promontory of Tænarum (Southern Peloponnesus). Greece itself was depopulated by the drain for mercenary service in the armies of the Greek Eastern States, and by the attractions of the Greek Eastern courts and luxury. Athens, however, continued to hold its own as a seat cf philosophy and of learning. Corinth remained an important centre of Mediterranean commerce.

The Island of Rhodes acquired control of the corn trade between Egypt and the other countries of the Eastern Mediterranean, and thus rose to great wealth and power. The Greek cities of Sicily, of Southern Italy, of South France, of Africa (Cyrene), of the Black Sea, were important places in the " Alexandrine " time.

All states and cities mentioned (except those beyond the Euphrates) were ultimately incorporated in the Empire of Rome. (See Chronology, p. 63, for the dates.)

SUMMARY OF GREEK HISTORY.

From the origins of the Greek race, as indicated by the comparative study of languages, we have passed to the mythology and the ideals of Greek paganism in general, whose origins are also studied by these analogies of speech. From the mythical period we pass to the colonial. The poems of Homer unite the two, and belong to both.

From the colonial period we pass to the internal revolutions of the Greek constitutions, when this outlet of population was no longer possible, and when the coasts open to this enterprise had all been occupied. Two different ideals are incorporated, and headed, one by the aristocratic monarchy-republic of Doric Sparta, and one by the democratic Ionian republic of Athens.

In the Persian wars the latter takes the lead, and afterwards develops the Athenian ideal of literature and art. In the Peloponnesian war Sparta regains the mastery by sacrificing its traditional conservatism. Each system in turn proves itself unable to solidify an external permanent empire. Greek military tactics are developed by Thebes which destroy the power of Sparta, and in the hands of a Macedonian king consolidate the energies of Greece on the mastery of the Eastern world.

CHRONOLOGY OF GREEK HISTORY.

Aryan period, before.................................... ....B. C.		1500
Doric migration, about..	"	1100
Ionian (and other) settlements in Asia Minor, before and after........	"	1000
(The poems of Homer represent this time.)		
Institutions of the Spartan Lycurgus, after........................	"	850
First Olympiad...	"	776
Marseilles founded..	"	600
(Average dates of colonies nearer home—Italian, Sicilian, etc.—		
before this time.)		
Institutions of the Athenian Solon, about........................	"	590
Tyranny of the Athenian Pisistratus, after......	"	560
His sons, Hipparchus and Hippias, after 527; Hippias till...........	"	510
Ionic revolt...	"	500
Marathon...	"	490
Thermopylæ and Salamis..	"	480
Athenian ascendency, till.......................................	"	430
Broken during the—		
Peloponnesian war (431–404), till................................	"	400
March of the Ten Thousand to Babylon (401), about................	"	400
Corinthian war results, duration seven years (394–387), central date...	"	390
Olynthian war results, duration three years, central date	"	380
Struggle of Thebes and Sparta results, duration sixteen years (378–		
362), central date..............	"	370
Macedonian intervention of Philip, begins about................ ...	"	350
Battle of Chæronea........	"	338
Alexander the Great gains the Battle of Issus	"	333
Greece and Macedonia Roman provinces (146), after...............	"	150
Asia Minor Greek after Alexander, Roman (133) after...............	"	130
Syria Greek after Alexander, Roman (63) after.....................	"	60
Egypt Greek after Alexander, Roman after.......................	"	30

(*Approximate round numbers are generally preferred in foregoing table as easiest to memorize.*)

SYNCHRONISM OF GREEK AND EASTERN HISTORY.

B. C.	EGYPT.	CHALDÆO-ASSYRIA.	PHŒNICIA AND SYRIA.	GREECE.	ITALY.	W. MEDITERRANEAN.
19th Cent.	Old Empire before B. C. 2000.	Chaldæan period before B. C. 2000.	Commerce bef. B. C. 2000.			
18th Cent.						
17th Cent.	New Emp. after 1600.					
16th Cent.						
15th Cent.						
14th Cent.						
13th Cent.	New Empire declines after 1200.	Assyrian power rises before 1200.	Commerce reaches Gt. Brit-ain before 1200.	Mythical period be-fore 1200.		
12th Cent.				Doric migration.		
11th Cent.			Solomon, about 1000.	Ionic settlements.		
10th Cent.						
9th Cent.						Phœnician Carthage founded about 850.
8th Cent.			Kingdom of Israel under Assyria after 721.		Rome found-ed, 750.	
7th Cent.		In 625 overthrown and divided into Emps. of Media and Babylonia.				Greek colonies.
6th Cent.	Conquered by Persia, 525.	Persian conquest—Me-dia 558, Babylonia 538.	Judæa under Babylonia, 586, Persian Conquest, 525.			Greek colonies.
5th Cent.				Victories over Persia.		
4th Cent.	Greek conquest, 333.	Greek conquest, 333.	Greek conquest, 333.	Conquest of Persian Empire, 333.	Roman con-qu't is begun.	W. Mediterranean Ro-man after 200.
3d Cent.	Greek.	Greek.	Greek.		Italy Roman.	
2d Cent.	Greek.	Parthian.	Greek.	A Roman province about 150 B. C.	Roman.	Roman.
1st Cent.	Roman conquest, 30.	Parthian.	Roman, 63.	Roman.	Roman.	Roman.

TABLE OF DISTINGUISHED GREEKS, ARRANGED IN THE ORDER OF TIME ACCORDING TO VOCATION.

STATESMEN AND GENERALS.

Lycurgus.
9th Century B. C.
Lawgiver of Sparta. Authenticated facts of his life are unknown. His institutions, see p. 39.

Pheidon.
8th Century B. C.
King of Argos, and last representative of absolute monarchy in Greece. The first to coin money in Greece, and possibly inventor of the art. Some ancient accounts give precedence to the Lydians, but all unite in ascribing the first coinage to the 8th century B. C. Before this time rings or stamped ingots of the precious metals were used. Pheidon's dominion reached from the Isthmus of Corinth to Cape Malea. His date marks the final greatness and subsequent decline of Argos.

Solon.
6th Century B. C.
Founder of Athenian democracy. His laws were copied by Rome. Refused the supreme power when offered; traveled and studied in Egypt, whence his law against idleness, and other laws, were derived. Is said to have known the Lydian king, Crœsus.

Pisistratus.
6th Century B. C.
"Tyrant" of Athens. Rearranged and established the text of the Homeric poems. Laid the foundations of the Olympian Jupiter temple at Athens, erected by Hadrian, the Roman Emperor, seven hundred years later ; ruins still standing. The friend and relative of Solon. Though often antagonized by the latter, he cherished his institutions.

Polycrates.
6th Century B. C.
"Tyrant" of Samos, famed for his great possessions and his cruelty; ally and friend of Amasis, last king but one of Egypt ; was decoyed to the mainland of Asia Minor and put to death shortly before the Ionic revolt. "The Ring of Polycrates," by Schiller, translated by Bulwer-Lytton, is a famous poem.

Clisthenes.
Close of the 6th Century B. C.
Statesman and reformer in Athens after the expulsion of Hippias in 510 B. C. : probably deviser of "Ostracism."

Miltiades.
5th Century B. C.
Time of the Persian Wars.
An Athenian, but also "Tyrant" of the Thracian Chersonese. Having proposed to destroy the bridge of boats over the Danube, at the time of the Scythian expedition of Darius, he fled to Athens and became the hero of Marathon. He then persuaded his countrymen to give him command of a fleet, but used it for private ends in an attack on the island of Paros. The attack failed, Miltiades was severely wounded, and on his return was prosecuted and imprisoned for deceiving the people. He died in prison.

Themistocles.
5th Century B. C.
Time of the Persian Wars.
Creator of the Athenian fleet by which the fortunes of the day of Salamis were determined. A man of immense fertility of resource and self-confidence. His confidence brought on him the charge of boasting ; his success brought on him the charge of ambition. Involved in party contentions, the savior of his country was made to feel the "ingratitude of republics," and forced to leave Athens, then driven from Greece. He obtained protection of the Persian king, but took poison in 449 B. C. rather than serve against his country as he was summoned to do,

Aristides.
5th Century B. C.
Time of the Persian Wars
and after.

Had opposed the plans of Themistocles for creating the Athenian fleet and was ostracized for that reason, and also because the Athenians were tired of hearing him called "The Just," but was recalled at the time of Salamis. He was distinguished as a general at Platæa, and was a prominent commander and leading statesman till his death in 468.

Cimon.
5th Century B. C.
Middle Period.

The son of Miltiades. Was a successful general and leading man at Athens in the time intervening between the greatest power of Aristides and that of Pericles, which followed. He brought the reputed bones of the ancient hero Theseus to Athens, and built the temple of Theseus, still standing, the most perfectly preserved of the Greek temples. (Illustration, p. 32.)

Pericles.
5th Century B. C.
Middle Period.

The most famous statesman of the Greeks, and as an orator doubtless as great as Demosthenes. The undying fame of Pericles is his devotion to art and literature amid the cares of state. His democracy destroyed itself, and his Parthenon is immortal.

Alcibiades.
5th Century B. C.
Time of the Peloponnesian War.

A brilliant, versatile, daringly brave, and consummately gifted man. His gifts were his ruin. His ambition was, however, but the climax of that Athenian self-glorification which trusted that the times of Pericles would last when the man himself was dead. He was the projector of the Sicilian expedition (B. C. 415), which politically ruined Athens.

Statue of Aristides.
(*From Herculaneum, Naples Museum.*)

Epaminondas.
4th Century B. C.

Regenerator of Thebes and conqueror of Sparta. In military tactics the teacher of the Macedonian Philip.

Demosthenes.
4th Century B. C.

Whose name is a synonym for greatness in oratory. As with most successful orators of all times, his speeches were carefully prepared, but delivered as though extempore. The *Philippics* of Demosthenes were delivered to induce the Athenians to assist the towns of Chalcidice before Philip, by conquering them, should cast down the last rampart which divided him from Greece.

Philip of Macedon.
4th Century B. C.

Made a great state of his native country, and brought it within the circle of Greek culture. He could not destroy the liberties of Greece, as has been said; for the spirit of liberty was dead, and Demosthenes could not awake it. He rather solved the problem of finding a new mission abroad for Greece in decay at home.

Alexander the Great.
4th Century B. C.

Conqueror of the Persian Empire. The pupil of Aristotle combined the enthusiasm of a poet with the bravery of a warrior and the sense of a statesman. His fame as a conqueror should not eclipse the glory of his statesmanship.

POETS, PHILOSOPHERS, AND MEN OF SCIENCE.

Homer.
Epic poet; the greatest of all time. Wrote the Iliad and the Odyssey about B. C. 1000. An Ionic Greek of Asia Minor.

Hesiod.
Didactic poet. Works—"Theogonia," a history in verse of the origin of the gods and creation of the world, and "Works and Days." A Bœotian; lived about B. C. 850.

Sappho.
Amatory poetess of Lesbos, B. C. 600.

Alcæus.
Wrote warlike and patriotic odes; native of Lesbos; about 600 B. C.

Anacreon.
Lyric poet of Teos (Ionia) about the middle of the 6th century B. C.

Æsop.
Born in Phrygia; flourished about 600 B. C. A slave. Although undoubtedly the author of animal fables noted in antiquity, the fables now known as Æsop's are not considered his.

Thales.
6th Century B. C.
Philosopher. An Ionic Greek of Asia Minor.

Pythagoras.
6th Century B. C.
Philosopher; born at Samos; traveled in Egypt; settled at Crotona in Italy. An astronomer and geometrician of great knowledge. He taught that numbers are the basis of all things, the harmony (music) of the spheres, and the immortality of the soul.

Pindar.
Flourished before and after 500 B. C.
Wrote odes to the victors in the Olympian, Nemean, Isthmian, and Pythian games. A native of Bœotia, and one of the most esteemed Greek poets.

Æschylus.
5th Century B. C.
Early Period.
Fought as an Athenian warrior at Marathon, Salamis, and Platæa. The first and most sublime of the Tragic Poets. Seven tragedies only preserved, among them "The Persians," "Prometheus Chained."

Sophocles.
5th Century B. C.
Middle Period.
The ideal of finished perfection in Greek dramatic art: danced as a boy of eighteen in the chorus which celebrated the victory of Salamis. The greatest of his tragedies are the three on the fates of the House of Œdipus.

Euripides.
4th Cent. B. C. Later Period.
Born on the day of Salamis.
His tragedies are philosophical, moral, and didactic rather than religious or ideal. He was the favorite poet of later times, therefore more of his pieces have been preserved than of his two earlier contemporaries together. "Medea" and "Alcestis" are his greatest works.

Aristophanes.
5th Century B. C.
Closing Period.
The poet who scourged in his comedies the demagogues and ranters of the Peloponnesian war. His comedy of the "Clouds" shows the old Greek standpoint of conservative objection to speculation in religion. Socrates, as teacher of novelties, is ridiculed in this play.

Socrates.
5th Century B. C.
Closing Period.
Died 399.
Was, like all the leading men of his time, valiant as a warrior in the ranks. His inquiring mind and taste for dialectics led him to develop a system of doubt as to the traditional beliefs, and to advocate the substitution of morality for mythology. Involved in the odium which the fate of Athens in the Peloponnesian war brought on the radical and progressive party, he was condemned to death by the reactionary government set up by Sparta when the war was over. He left no books; his teachings were written down by Xenophon and Plato.

Plato.
4th Cent. B.C., 428–347.
The father of ideal philosophy, and author of the " Dialogues," in which Socrates appears as teacher. From Plato's place of teaching, in the groves of Academos, comes our word academy.

Isocrates.
4th Cent. B. C. 1st half.
The greatest teacher of Athenian rhetoric and oratory. His constitution did not allow him to enter public life.

Aristotle.
4th Cent. B.C., 384–322.
Contemporary and teacher of Alexander the Great; the first to establish the natural sciences on a sure foundation. Only in the latest times has human knowledge passed the limits reached by Aristotle. Born at Stagira in Chalcidice; taught at Athens, whence he was banished after Alexander's death.

Epicurus.
342–270 B. C.
Settled at Athens; taught that pleasure is the sovereign good, but his doctrine, as taught by himself, conceived that pleasure could not exist without reason and prudence.

Euclid.
About 300 B. C.
Flourished at Alexandria. " His Elements of Geometry have been translated into most languages, and have held their ground for 2000 years as the basis of geometrical instruction."

Aristarchus.
3d Century B. C.
Greek astronomer of Alexandria; born at Samos. The first astronomer who discovered the revolution of the planetary system about the sun. He had also a conception of the enormously remote distances of the fixed stars. Ptolemy, an Alexandrine astronomer and geographer of the 2d century A. D. (Roman Imperial Period), abandoned the system of Aristarchus, and made the earth the centre of the solar system, perhaps out of reverence for the authority of Aristotle. The doctrine of Ptolemy was again reversed by Copernicus, 16th century A. D.

Eratosthenes.
3d Century B. C.
Greek astronomer and geographer of Alexandria; called the Surveyor of the World; measured the diameter and circumference of the earth within a few miles of the present computation.

Hipparchus.
3d Century B. C.
Greek astronomer of Alexandria; made a catalogue of the fixed stars, and was the father of mathematical astronomy. He discovered the Precession of the Equinoxes.

Archimedes.
3d Century B. C.
Of Syracuse. The most celebrated mathematician and mechanician among the ancients. The combination of pulleys for raising heavy weights, the endless screw, a sphere to represent the motions of the heavenly bodies, a musical organ worked by hydraulic action, were invented by him. During the defence of Syracuse, besieged by the Roman Marcellus, he is said to have fired the Roman fleet by burning-glasses connected with a series of reflecting mirrors. The story of the burning-glasses has been much doubted by moderns, but appears credible in view of the experiment of the modern *savant* Buffon, who ignited wood at a distance of 150 feet by a combination of plane mirrors.

HISTORIANS.

Herodotus.
5th Century B. C.
Middle Period.
Of Halicarnassus, in Asia Minor. Wrote the history of the Persian wars, interwoven with accounts of his own travels. The most simple and perhaps the most interesting of all historians; certainly the first whose works have been handed down.

Thucydides.
5th Century B. C.
Closing Period.
Of Athens. Wrote in banishment the history of the Peloponnesian war, in which he had been at first a general. His work is distinguished as the most philosophical of the ancient histories.

Xenophon.
Before and after 400 B. C.
An Athenian. Wrote the " Anabasis " of the Ten Thousand Greeks and " Memorabilia " of Socrates; also continued the history of the Peloponnesian war where abandoned by Thucydides, and carried Greek history down to the battle of Mantinea. Xenophon lived after the Anabasis in banishment at Sparta, whose institutions he much admired.

Polybius.
2d Century B. C.
A Greek hostage in Rome. Became the friend of Scipio Minor, whom he accompanied in the third Punic war, 146 B. C. He wrote a general history of Greece and Rome during, and just before, his own times.

SCULPTORS.

Phidias.
5th Century B. C.
Of Athens; time of Pericles; created the ideals of Jupiter and Minerva in sculpture. Under his direction were executed the gable sculptures of the Parthenon, the " Elgin Marbles," now in the British Museum at London. He was the greatest of all sculptors. His style was simple and grand.

Praxiteles and Scopas.
Flourished in the 4th century B. C., Middle Period. They are the representatives of the beautiful and lovely as opposed to the majestic and commanding. The types of Venus, Bacchus, Cupid, and the Faun were created by them. The Niobe group in Florence dates from Scopas; the " Marble Faun" of the Capitol in Rome, from Praxiteles. These works, however, are copies.

Lysippus.
Was the contemporary of Alexander, and he alone was allowed to make his portrait. From him dates, in copy, the immense Hercules now in the Naples Museum.

SCULPTURE AFTER ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

Temple of the " Wingless " Victory at Athens. Ionic Order.

The names of this period are obscured by the multitude of works. All the statues of the Italian and other European museums, except the portraits of distinguished Romans, are Greek in subject and design, though generally made in the times of the Roman Empire.

Especially famed, of the time after Alexander, are the Laocoon group and the Belvedere Apollo of the Vatican Museum.

ARCHITECTURE.

The simple and heavy Doric style was dominant before the Peloponnesian war (examples, pp. 32, 51). The Ionic, more graceful and elegant, was most flourishing from

430 to 330 B. C. (examples, pp. 53, 69.) The Corinthian order, representing the more elaborate tastes of the later luxury and wealth, belongs to the time after Alexander, and so passed to the Romans, who used it much more than the Doric or Ionic (example, p. 126). The Greek archi tectural orders and ornamental forms were dominant throughout the times of the Roman Em pire in all provinces but Egypt. As revived in Italy about 1500 A. D., they became the common property of modern times. The preference shown in modern architecture for Corinthian forms is thus a result of Roman and of Italian influence.

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON GREEK HISTORY.

The division by lessons is made with deference to the individual teacher, but it is believed that few classes could lengthen these review lessons with advantage.

Some of these questions are designedly made rather difficult. Some of them are designedly repeated. Exercise on them may be deferred till after a review of the entire Greek his tory, if desired. A complete mastery of them will probably furnish matter for the number of lessons indicated. The method is again suggested of directing the pupil to write down each question and answer in a consecutive sentence. By this method the pupil will have a written summary of the period, and will be saved the confusion, in preparing the recitation, of refer ring to different pages of the book whenever special points may have escaped the memory. This method, even if not absolutely required by the teacher, will also be found by the pupil the readiest way to prepare recitations on the questions.

Example, taken from the opening questions:—*The most important century of Greek history is the 5th century* B. C. *It opens with the events of the Persian wars, and closes with the Pelopon nesian war and the Expedition of the Ten Thousand*, etc., etc.

FIRST LESSON FOR REVIEW OF GREEK HISTORY.

What century is the most important in Greek history?
What events open this century? What events close it?
What great names in literature belong to it? (P. 67.)
What names distinguished in war and statesmanship belong to it? (Pp. 65, 66.)
How long after 400 did Greek independence last? (P. 58.)
What war before 400 began the decline? How was the decline apparent? (Pp. 54, 55.)
How did Athens become obnoxious to the Confederacy of Delos, which she founded? (P. 53.)
What states were embraced in the Confederacy? (P. 50.)
Why did the triumph of Sparta over Athens contribute to her own decay? (P. 54.)
What state overthrew the ascendency of Sparta in the 4th century?
How long after did Macedonian intervention in Greek affairs begin?
Date the battle of Chæronea. Why is it important?
What countries were included in the Persian Empire conquered by Alexander? (P. 21.)
What Greek states rose in the East after his campaigns? (P. 61.) What became of them?

SECOND LESSON FOR REVIEW OF GREEK HISTORY.

When does Greek written history begin? (P. 35.)
What famous Doric state was founded soon after 1100?
What was the time of Lycurgus? (Chronology, p. 63.)

Why were Spartan institutions so rigid? (P. 39.)

What influence had Sparta on the Greek states after 777 B. C.? (P. 41.)

What had prevented discontent in the early times of the Greek states? (P. 42.)

Why did popular discontent become general in the 6th century?

What were the different ways of coping with this discontent?

Were both adopted in Athens? To what tribe did the Athenians belong? (P. 35.)

How did Ionic character differ from Doric?

Who was the father of Athenian democracy? (P. 42.) Who preserved his laws?

What statesman, before 500, devised ostracism? Why was this device adopted?

What was the general size of a Greek state? (P. 41.)

What were the extreme dimensions of the country? (P. 38.)

What provinces were unimportant within these dimensions?

How do Greek government and character differ from the Eastern? (P. 38.)

Why could not the Greek states establish permanent empires of large size? (Pp. 52, 53.)

THIRD LESSON FOR REVIEW OF GREEK HISTORY.

In what departments have the Greeks excelled and controlled later periods of history? (Pp. 51, 52.)

When did Greece begin to make its civilization cosmopolitan? (P. 58.)

What architectural order corresponds to the time of Alexander? (P. 71.)

What order corresponds especially to the time of, and after, the Peloponnesian war?

What architectural order was dominant before the Peloponnesian war?

Name all countries in which Greek civilization was established by colonies? (Pp. 38, 39.)

How early were these colonies generally diffused in foreign countries? (P. 63.)

In what period did their influence still continue? (P. 62.)

In what countries was Greek culture diffused after Alexander? (P. 61 and map.)

How long had the New Empire of Egypt existed in the time of Homer? (Pp. 63, 64.)

What nation connected the Eastern world with Greece at this time?

FOURTH LESSON FOR REVIEW OF GREEK HISTORY.

In what century was the New Empire of Egypt overthrown? (P. 64.)

What contemporary events happened in Greece in this century? (P. 63.)

How long had the Assyrian Empire been overthrown at the time of the Ionic revolt? (Pp. 63, 64.)

Against whom did the Ionians revolt? (Pp. 45, 46, 47.)

How long had the Persian Empire then existed? (P. 27.)

From what two Empires was the Persian Empire founded? (P. 20.)

What countries did it add besides? Name the extent of the two preceding empires?

How long had they lasted when united by Persia? (Pp. 20, 64.)

What empire preceded them? (P. 20.)

What difference between Greek and Eastern civilization is implied in the battle of Marathon? (P. 49.) Why could not the East remodel its discipline?

What varieties of climate are embraced in the limits of Greece? (P. 38.)

What provinces of Greece are relatively unimportant in Greek history? (P. 38.)

What states are most important ?

What is their size as compared with the whole country ?

What is the size of the whole country as compared with the Persian Empire ?

FIFTH LESSON FOR REVIEW OF GREEK HISTORY.

In what countries did Greek culture exist after Alexander ?   (*Include the colonies.*)

Who were the great authors of Greece ?   Name their works ?

Were there great authors in Egypt ?

What was the extent of Greek astronomic science ?   (P. 68.)

What was the condition of sculpture ?   Of architecture ?   (P. 51.)

What forms of art were adopted by the Romans ?   (Pp. 69, 70.)

What literature was adopted by the Romans ?   (P. 52.)

When were this art and literature revived ?   (Pp. 52, 71.)

In what century of Greek history was Rome founded ?   (P. 65.)

In what century lived Lycurgus ?   Solon ?   Pericles ?

What Greek state declined in the century Rome was founded ?   (See " Pheidon," p. 65)

Who was its last great king ?   What state replaced Argos as leader in Greece ?

Why did Athens replace Sparta as leader in Greece after the Persian wars ?   (P. 50.)

When Greek independence was overthrown, how long had Egypt ceased to exist as an independent power ?   (Compare pp. 27, 63 ; or consult Synchronism, p. 64.)

How long had Assyria ceased to exist when Greek independence was overthrown ?

SIXTH LESSON FOR REVIEW OF GREEK HISTORY.

How long after the Doric migration did Egypt continue an independent power ?

How long after the Doric migration did Assyria continue an independent power ?

When was Carthage founded ?   (P. 27, and Synchronism, p. 64.)

What power established itself in Western Sicily ?   (P. 39.)

What power controlled the eastern half ?   (P. 39.)

What battle was fought in Sicily at the time of the Persian wars ?   (P. 50.)

Did the rivalry between Greeks and Phœnicians in Sicily continue after Alexander ? *Ans.* Yes.

When were the Greeks in Sicily nearly expelled by Carthage ?   *Ans.* In B. C. 275.

What power preserved the Greeks in Sicily ?   *Ans.* The Roman.

What power sustained the Greeks in France (Marseilles) at this time ?   *Ans.* The Roman.

What power preserved Greek culture in the Western Mediterranean after B. C. 275 ?   *Ans.* The Roman.

What power sustained and revived the decaying Greek culture of the East in the time just preceding the Christian era ?   *Ans.* The Roman.

What period of history continued and developed the influence of Greek civilization for all later time ?   *Ans.* The Roman Imperial Period.

When did Greek independence end ?   (Synchronism, p. 65.)

When did Roman area begin rapidly to extend ?   (Synchronism, p. 65.)

23
LATIUM
during the regal period.

Etruria
Moria
• Tarquinii
Ciminian Forest
Tiber R.
Cel

Lacus Sabatinus
Cures
Mountains of the
Sabini
• Camerio
and Aequi
Liris R.
• Veii
Anio R.
• Nomentum
• Fidenae
Anio R.
Collatia
Tibur
Rome
• Gabii
Hernici
Latini
• Alba Longa
• Ferentinum
The Mount
Trerus or Sacco
Aricia
Corioli • • Lanuvium
• Pomptia
Suessa •
Rutuli
Volscian range

Anxur or
• Terracina
Circeii
• Amyclae

The Vicinity of Rome map:

Veii •
Allia R.
• Fidenae
Anio R.
Tibur
• Collatia
• Gabii
Ager Romanus
Rome
Ferentina
• Lacus Regillus
• Praeneste
• Tusculum
Tiber R. Fossae Cluiliae
Borillae
• Algidum
• Ostia
• Laurentum
Albanum
• Alba longa
Alban Mt. and Lake
Aricia
• Lavinium
• Corioli
• Ardea

24
The Vicinity
of
ROME.

The Pomptine marshes

or Gauls

Padus

Athesis

Melpum

Ancient boundary of Italy formed by the Apennines

Umbria

Arnus

ETRUSCIA

Elburia

Alsia

Corsica

Elba

Clusium

Ciminian forest

SABINES

Anio

Rome

Verus Lia

Latium

Samnites

Campania

Cumae

Vulturnus

22

ITALY

during the regal period.

The part which is colored, is 12 times enlarged on Map. 23

Apulia

Calabria

Iapygia

Tarentum

Lucania

Sybaris

Bruttium

Rhegium

Messana

Eryx

Motre

Sicilia

Carthage

Agrigentum

Syracuse

ROME

TILL THE OPENING OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

EARLY NATIONS OF ITALY.

In the middle of the 8th century B. C., when the city of Rome was founded, the Assyrian Empire was at the height of power. It had still a century and a quarter of existence to run. Egypt did not lose its independence
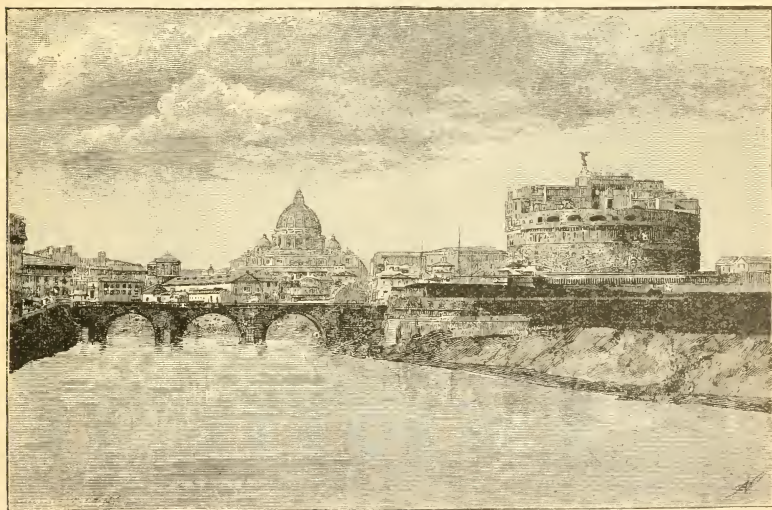
View on the Tiber. St. Peter's in the distance, Hadrian's tomb (Papal Castle of St. Angelo) on the right.

till two centuries and a quarter later than the middle of the 8th century. The Phœnicians, who for so long a time united the civilizations of these countries and bore them to other nations, had already, in the main, abandoned the eastern

half of the Mediterranean to the Greeks, in order to extend their power in its western portion. One hundred years before the foundation of Rome the city of Carthage had been founded by them. This city, uniting under its control the earlier Phœnician colonies of the African coast, extended its influence in fol- lowing centuries to the shores of Spain, where Gades (Cadiz) was an ancient Phœnician settlement, over Corsica and Sardinia, the Balearic Isles, and over the western portion of Sicily (while the Greeks held the rest of the island).

The influence of Phœnician and Greek intercourse had already developed powerful and civilized nations in Italy at the time of the foundation of Rome. These nations overshadowed in importance, for four centuries fol- lowing this time, the small Latin tribe settled to the south of the lower Tiber.

" Italy " did not at this time, nor did it till the times of Cæsar, B. C. 50, include the territory above the peninsula proper—*i. e.*, the territory of the valley of the Padus. This belonged to Gaul (Cisalpine Gaul), and was inhab- ited by Celts allied to those in France. (The Ligurians along the shore of the Gulf of Genoa, and the Venéti in the district named after them Venetia, at the head of the Adriatic, were remains of non-Aryan populations of small impor- tance for later Italian history.)

The Apennines, which form, below the Padus valley, the backbone of the peninsula, send out a series of short transverse spurs to the east, cutting up this side of Italy into a relatively barren and rugged country. But from these mountains flow to the west the rivers watering the fertile plain of Etru- ria, lying between the Arno and the Tiber. The inhabitants of this country, the Etruscans, were a powerful and highly civilized people. The Etruscan antiquities of the Vatican are deeply interesting. With them, as with other ancient nations, the habit of placing articles of use or of value in tombs, as offer- ings to the dead or as memorials, has resulted in filling the modern museums with remains of great value for historic study. The language of this people is so far undeciphered, and probably non-Aryan.

The rest of Italy, as far as the fringe of Greek colonies reaching around the southern coasts, was inhabited by the Italic portion of the Greco-Italic stock.

The small territory of Latium reached from the mouth of the Tiber to the promontory of Terracina. Around the Latins were grouped (besides the Etruscans on the north) the Sabines, Æquians, Hernicans, and Volscians. The mountain region reaching from these settlements to the Adriatic, and as far as Ancona on the north (*i. e.*, to the southern limit of the Gallic population) was held by the Umbrians. West and south of the tribes grouped around the Latins were the Samnites, who controlled the rich plain of Campania from the mountains of Samnium, and became the dominant nation of the South above

the Greek colonies, as the Etruscans were the dominant nation of the North below the Celts.

Both Samnites and Etruscans possessed a civilization based upon their early commerce with the Phœnicians, but now overlaid and influenced by the rising superiority of the Greeks, whose towns, reaching all around the southern coasts, gave to this portion of Italy the name of Magna Grecia.

Etruscan Tomb at Veii.

In matters of civilization the Latin tribe was dependent on these other nations, especially on the Etruscans, and was much more backward than they. But when this Latin tribe grew to be the ruling nation of Italy, its language supplanted the other related Italic dialects and the language of the Etruscans. Italy was thus welded into a common nation, whose general civilization had existed before its conquerors were an important people, and then became their property also.
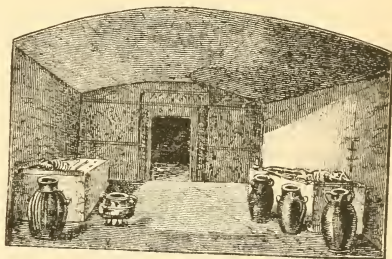
The history of Rome antedating the time of the Christian era (after which it continues in the West for 500 years and in the East over 1400 years) has three natural divisions—the time when Rome controlled the small territory of Latium, the time of the conquest of Italy, and the time of the development of Roman rule over the Mediterranean.

We may simplify this threefold division into a double one—the time of internal development and the time of external expansion. These two periods are best divided by the date 333 B. C., only ten years removed from 343, the beginning of the Samnite wars, which, lasting fifty years, resulted in the conquest of Italy. An important synchronism between Greek and Roman history is established by memorizing this date.

Map Study.—Carthage ; map at p. 73. Cadiz ; modern map. Corsica, Sardinia ; p. 73. Balearic Isles; map for western part of Rome's dominions. Map at p. 73 for the Padus. Liguria, Veneti; p. 86. Maps at p. 73 for Apennines, Etruria, Arno (Arnus), Tiber, Latium, Terracina, Sabini, Æqui, Hernici, Volscian range. Map at p. 86 for the Adriatic, Ancona, Umbria, Samnium, Campania. Greek colonies, p. 29. Localities are arranged in the order of reference.

PERIOD OF THE ROMAN KINGS, B. C. 750–510.

Tradition derived the settlers of Latium from Trojans led by Æneas, who fled from the Greeks after the capture of Troy. This tradition reveals at least a sense of Latin relationship to the Greco-Italic stock settled in Asia Minor, and it is not impossible that a colony from the region of Troy may have made its way to Italy by sea.

The site of Rome, fourteen miles from the mouth of the Tiber, was determined by the fact that here was, and still is, the head of river navigation, and also the point of frontier commerce and contact between Etruscans, Sabines, and Latins. Rome was therefore a frontier trading post of connection with, and also a military post against, the two bordering nations of the North and West.

From 750 to 510 B. C., that is, for 240 years, Rome was governed by a monarchy. The ancient records of this period were destroyed in the burning of Rome by the Gauls in 390 B. C., and 150 years after this date the records since used were compiled. Therefore the details of the regal period are partly mythical.

The traditions of later times name the brothers Romulus and Remus as founders of the seven-hilled city. (These seven hills are named the Capitoline, Palatine, Aventine, Cœlian, Æsquiline, Viminal, and Quirinal.)

The right of intermarriage was begged of the neighboring Sabines and denied. The companions of Romulus then carried off wives for themselves by violence—" the Rape of the Sabines." This led to a war with the town of Cures. The women placed themselves between the two armies when about to join battle. A treaty was made by which the Sabines of Cures settled at Rome, forming the second tribe, the Tities, so named after their king Titus Tatius. From the original Roman tribe of the Ramnes an advisory senate of 100 members had been named, to whom 100 of the second tribe were added.

Numa Pompilius was the second king, and the lawgiver of the new community. He appointed four Vestal virgins, who were

to preserve the sacred fire of Vesta, the goddess of the hearth and of the family. Four augurs were appointed to inquire the will of the gods. Four priests, headed by the Pontifex Maximus, were to have in charge the calendar of the state and the religious observances.

The Roman paganism sprang, like the Greek, from the Nature worship of the early Aryans, but this assumed with the Romans a more practical and utilitarian—a less poetic—cast than with the Greeks. Certain spirits were worshiped as guardian deities of the household possessions (the Lares and Penates). Another spirit was revered as guardian of the landmarks of the farm (Terminus). Innumerable guardian deities were conceived for various classes of objects and for various mental abstractions—Peace, Concord, Terror, Fear, etc. Above these conceptions ranked others, afterwards brought into analogy with the Greek (which themselves became known by the Latin names), such as Jupiter, Mars, Juno, etc. The Romans were excessively superstitious, and paid great attention to the science of divination in affairs of state.

Tullus Hostilius was third king. He made Rome the head of the Latin confederation of towns, thirty in number, in place of Alba Longa.

This event is dated about 650 B. C., and is connected with the story of three Roman brothers, the Horatii, whose combat with three brothers of Alba, the Curiatii, was to decide the contest between the cities. One of the Horatii survived; the five others fell, giving the victory to Rome. At this time the inhabitants of Alba were transferred to Rome. The leading Alban families formed the third tribe, the Luceres, now added to the original Roman tribe of the Ramnes and the Sabine settlers, the Tities, with a corresponding addition of another 100 members to the senate.

These three tribes formed the body of patricians, a word meaning " born of a father,"—that is, of a father who was citizen of the state, with full political rights. The Roman citizenship was thus derived from the junction of three ancient clanships. Besides the patricians, other settlers multiplied who were not given the citizenship ; some known as clients, dependents and followers of the patricians, or as the plebs, *i. e.*, the multitude, meaning the unprivileged multitude.

A fourth king, Ancus Martius, to whom is attributed the first bridge across the Tiber and the founding of the port of Ostia,

was followed by the fifth king, **Tarquinius Priscus**. To him is attributed the still existing Cloaca Maxima, an immense arched sewer for draining the marshy ground around the Palatine Hill.

The use of the arch was borrowed from Etruria. Tarquinius Priscus is said to have been a rich Etruscan who settled in Rome and was made guardian of the children of Ancus Martius, but effected his own election by the people. Various regal insignia, borrowed from Etruscan use, are attributed to this king —the golden diadem, the purple embroidered robe (toga picta), the ivory chair (sella curulis), and the fasces, a bundle of rods bound round an axe, the emblem of executive power. These were borne by lictors.

To Servius Tullius, the sixth king, are attributed the earliest city walls, of which some remains are still to be seen.

After him is named the "Servian" constitution (about 550 B. C.). This was essentially a reform like that of Solon at Athens, about the same time, which extended the duties of military service to the plebs by making property instead of birth the condition of service. The people were divided into five classes, according to the value of their farms, and within these classes into "centuries," each "century" casting one vote in the assembly of the "centuries." The wealthiest class was allotted such a number of centuries that its vote outnumbered all the other classes added together, thus keeping the balance of power with the large property holders. It is not certain what political rights, beyond that of voting an aggressive war, were accorded the assembly of "centuries" in the royal period.

During the republic, soon after instituted, this assembly voted at the elections of state officers and on the acceptance or rejection of the laws, decided peace or war, and was the court of final judicial appeal.

The three patrician tribes were originally divided into ten curiæ each, and the curiæ were again subdivided into gentes, or families. Thus the assembly of the curiæ was an assembly of patricians alone. The assembly of the centuries was one of the whole people, in which the heavy property owners had a controlling voice. But the Servian constitution had made a local division of thirty tribes for purposes of enrollment and census. Hence a third assembly, that of the "tribes," which consisted, however, of plebeians alone, because the patricians had already their own independent concourse. The "comitia curiata" then consisted of patricians, the "comitia centuriata" of patricians and plebeians together, and the "comitia tributa" of plebeians.

Cloaca Maxima (the great sewer) at Rome.

The "comitia centuriata" became the important public assembly.

The seventh king of Rome, **Tarquinius Superbus**, was the last. By arbitrary actions he alienated the people, who expelled him, B. C. 510, and organized a republic.

Doubts are expressed by historians as to the number of kings and details of their reigns, owing to the uncertainty of the records explained, but no doubt prevails about the essential facts relating to government and organism in the royal period.

Map Study.—Troy; p. 29. Site of Rome; see section maps of Italy during regal period. Seven Hills; see section map for "Map of the Roman Empire." Cures, Alba Longa, Ostia; see section maps, p. 73.

In the section map for "Latium during the regal period" the color is extended over Southern Etruria, from the presumption that the three last kings, of Etruscan origin, were rather conquerors than emigrants. It is more than possible that the patriotism of the later tradition has forgotten or passed over an actual Etruscan ascendency over Rome at this time.

SYNCHRONISM OF THE ROYAL PERIOD.

The powerful nations of Italy in the Roman royal period are the Gauls of the Padus valley; the Etruscans, between Tiber and Arno; the Samnites, of South Central Italy and Campania; and the Greeks of the southern coasts and of Sicily.	Romulus, about 750 B. C. . . .	100 years after the founding of Carthage. 100 years after Lycurgus. 250 years after Homer. 350 years after Doric migration. 550 years after the Phœnicians had reached Ireland and Britain. 1250 years after close of Old Empire of Egypt. 1250 years after known beginnings of Chaldæa.
	Tullus Hostilius, about 650 B. C.	25 years before fall of Assyria and rise of Babylonia and Media. 50 years before Nebuchadnezzar of Babylon.
	Servius Tullius, about 550 B. C..	Cyrus founder of the Persian Empire about 550 B. C.
	Tarquinius Superbus, expelled 510 B. C.	Hippias expelled from Athens, 510 B. C.
	Roman republic follows, confined to Latium.	Ionic revolt and Persian wars follow.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC, FROM 500 TO 350 B. C.

The constitution of the republic gave the power of the kings to two yearly elected consuls. The shortness of term, and the check of one consul on the other, deprived the office of much real power. The quæstors (treasurers and paymasters) were only for a short time appointed by the consuls, then by the senate, at last by the people. In case of urgent necessity, a dictator might be appointed with absolute power for six months.

The real power of the state was the hereditary senate—already, under Tarquinius Priscus, doubled by the addition to the original number of an equal number of plebeian families, and now again, after the expulsion of the kings, filled up with new plebeian blood. But intermarriage with the patricians was forbidden, and while the plebeians might vote, they could not be elected to state offices. Besides the social discontent thus caused there was also economic discontent. A plebeian might be rich, and often was ; but the bulk of the plebeians were poor, and their condition generally, at the opening of the republic, became rapidly worse. The burdens of military service fell on them unequally, as no pay was given the army. A rich man could serve and hire labor on his lands while absent, the poor man could not. The taxes, as always in history, weighed most heavily on those least able to bear them.

Inequality was also felt in the distribution of conquered lands. These were mainly treated as public domain, to be rented out to the highest bidder. It became usual, after so renting these lands, to leave them in the hands of those who obtained them without collecting the dues of the state ; for the same body, the senate, which controlled payment of dues, distributed the lands, and was tempted to favor its own order. In this injustice the rich plebeian shared with the patrician families. Thus, while the poor grew poorer, the rich became richer. The laws of debt allowed the creditor to enslave, sell, or even kill his debtor.

When, in 495 B. C., an unfortunate debtor, who had been a captain, escaped from his prison and appeared, appealing for protection, in the Forum, the populace demanded relief of the senate. An attack by the Volscians, a neighboring tribe, was announced, and one of the consuls promised a reduction of debts. The people, having taken up arms and conquered the Volscians, were then refused assistance. In the following year the same deception was

practised. The plebeians now threatened secession from the commonwealth, abandoned the city, and would not return until they were accorded popular magistrates, called Tribunes of the People.

These annually elected tribunes might interpose their veto on any project or measure considered prejudicial to the plebs, or block the wheels of government if their rights were denied them. Armed with this weapon, the plebeians began an agitation for social and political equality, which resulted in the acquisition of the right of intermarriage, and in the gradual acquisition of the privilege to serve in the various offices of state. This struggle lasted seriously for a century and a half, till about B. C. 350. It ended entirely by B. C. 300, with the complete triumph of the plebeians. The old patricians continued to form an aristocracy of birth, though no longer one of privilege.

For the protection of the plebeians by written laws, a commission was sent to Athens about 450, which returned with the Laws of the Twelve Tables, so called from the tablets of brass on which they were engraved, and which were set up before the senate-house.

During the early republican period, B. C. 500 to 350, Rome, allied with the Hernicans, forced the Sabines, Æquians, and Volscians to recognize its ascendency, and to accept a league with the city on its own terms.

How comparatively small was the Roman territory, may be argued from the war with Veii, an Etruscan city only twelve miles beyond the Tiber, which lasted nearly a century, ending with the conquest of the city in 396.

The Etruscan power was thus weakened on the south, when the Gauls attacked it on the north, and forced their way into Etruria. The Etruscans appealed to their recent enemy for help. The Romans sent an embassy, which took part in an attack on the Gauls. The latter demanded reparation. When this was refused, they marched on Rome, and defeated its army on the Allia, a small tributary of the Tiber.

The Gauls then entered the city, burned it, slaughtered the

inhabitants who had not fled, and besieged the garrison in the Capitol for seven months, B. C. 390. The cackling of geese kept in the Capitol awakened a brave soldier and saved the fortress from a night surprise. The Gauls finally withdrew on payment of 1,000 pounds of gold. The slight effect of the Gallic invasion on the later fortunes of Rome is attributed to the fact that the Italian nations in general suffered about equally.

Map Study.—Veii, the Allia ; see maps at p. 73.

To the early days of the republic belong the stories of Horatius Cocles and Mucius Scævola, of Coriolanus, and of Cincinnatus.

In 507 Lars Porsena, king of the Etruscan Clusium, had attacked Rome with the whole force of Etruria. Tradition relates that Horatius Cocles defended, single handed, the bridge over the Tiber, while it was being broken down behind him to prevent the passage of the king's army, and then saved his own life by swimming the Tiber in full armor.

Mucius Scævola, penetrating to the tent of Lars Porsena, slew his secretary, whom he mistook for the king. Being then seized by the guards, he held his hand in a basin of glowing coals, to prove his still undaunted courage, and moved Lars Porsena to retreat by the assurance that a hundred young Romans had sworn to accomplish the deed if he should fail.

Coriolanus was a young patrician who proposed, during a famine in 491, to withhold the corn bought up in Sicily and Etruria by the senate for the people, unless they would abandon their newly granted tribunes. For this he was summoned by the tribunes before the assembly of the tribes, and condemned to death. Coriolanus made his escape to the Volscians, headed their army against his native city, and ravaged the farms of the plebeians. His mother came, with a band of matrons, when he was five miles from the gates, and besought him to spare Rome. He yielded to her entreaties, and sacrificed his own life to the rage of the Volscians.

Roman wearing the Toga.
(*Bronze Statue from Pompeii,*
Naples Museum.)

Cincinnatus was made dictator in 458 B. C., because the Æquians had defeated a large Roman army. The embassy of the senate found him at the plow, and his wife was obliged to fetch his toga from the house before he could receive them. He rescued the endangered army, defeated the Æquians, and in sixteen days, resigning his office of dictator, returned quietly to his farm.

Quintus Curtius is said to have ridden into a chasm in the Forum to appease, by this living sacrifice, the anger of the gods, which the newly opened gulf portended.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE EARLY REPUBLIC.

Among the offices to which the plebs demanded and gradually acquired eligibility be-sides those of consul and dictator, were those of prætors (administrators of justice), of quæstors (treasurers and paymasters), and of censors, the officers who had charge of public morals, of the enrollment of citizens, and of nominations for vacancies in the senate.

The ædiles were officers of the market and of police, elected by the assembly of the plebs.

Curule ædiles, in charge of the public games, were created at first for the patricians, and then also made open to the plebs.

Down to 450 the patricians held their ground so firmly as to constantly attempt the over-throw of the tribunate. After 450 the period of concession, but with constant resistance, began. The struggle was complicated by several causes. Not only had the tribunes power to block the wheels of government against the patrician party, but one tribune might block the action of another. Thus, in the quarrels caused by financial distress and monopoly of domain land, the rich plebeians sided with the patricians, and the power of one plebeian trib-une might be turned against another. The patricians had also their party among the plebs—viz., the clients, their dependents. As the patricians yielded up one office after another, they created new offices for themselves, by which a portion of power given the old office was taken away, and the new office became a new object of struggle. Thus the curule ædiles, censorship, and prætorship were successively created and successively won from the patricians.

The struggle was again complicated by the existence of the different assemblies, and the conflict between them. At first the comitia curiata, patrician assembly, had the privilege of passing judgment on laws made by the assembly of centuries (comitia centuriata). But the laws of the comitia tributa were declared binding after 450. The patricians then took part in this assembly, which was afterwards practically the same as the comitia centuriata, and the Publilian Law, 339, compelled the assembly of the patrician curiæ to legalize all laws of the comitia centuriata and tributa.

ORGANISM OF THE ROMAN STATE IN 350 B. C.

From the foregoing chapter it is plain that, in 350 B. C. (the time when the Mace-donian power began to interfere among the Greek states, which so shortly after lost their independence) the Roman power was still confined to a small portion of Italy. And this date is four hundred years after the foundation of Rome. On the other hand, within the three hundred years next following, the territory of Rome extended itself, first over Italy and

then over all the countries bordering the Mediterranean—*i. e.*, over North Africa, Spain, France, Greece, Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt.

In 350 B. C. the territory controlled by Rome was about 125 miles long by 60 broad. It reached from the Tiber to the Liris—from the coast to the crest of the Apennines. The cities of the Latins were connected with Rome by a league, which gave the latter precedence and direction, but allowed the former many of the privileges of Roman citizens, and gave them their share of lands conquered from the Sabines, Æquians, and Volscians.
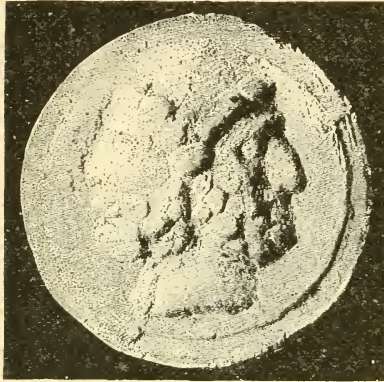
Roman Coin, 4th Century, with Head of Janus.*

The territory was made secure by a system of soldier colonies. Each conquest had been confirmed and consolidated by the establishment of such colonies. Allotments of land were systematically made on and near each advance of frontier to soldier farmers, whose interest bound them to its protection, On the other hand, conquered tribes were not ruled as slaves. According to the loyalty or importance of different places, they were allowed more or less of Roman privileges. Among individuals of a single locality there was also a gradation of privilege, reaching up to full citizenship.

The strength of the Roman rule rested on the absence of exclusiveness. The Romans made it a principle not to ask, after victory won, severer terms than those demanded before battle was given. They did not provoke the spirit of desperation. This spirit of moderation in victory had much to do with their success. Its policy is in interesting contrast to the arbitrary and grasping attitude of the Greek states toward their fellows as they successively, after the Persian wars, attempted to establish ascendencies.

The same spirit of politic compromise, mingled with tenacity, is apparent in the class disputes within the commonwealth. Above the differences of interest and of classes, the Roman character was distinguished by most important resemblances. The organism of the family was of the strictest kind. The father had absolute power over the children, even power of life and death, such was the respect for the principle of authority. He was obeyed by the children through life. (The Greek was known by an individual name, the Roman was known by his family name.) Just as the individual was subordinate to the family, the family was subordinate to the state. All tendency to individual self-assertion was repressed. Only at his funeral was the citizen allowed to be glorified. Then the effigies of his ancestors were borne in procession to the Forum, and the orator of the occasion rehearsed their deeds and virtues in turn, concluding with those of the deceased.

---

* The type here represented weighed one pound, was of copper, and was cast, not stamped. Its use illustrates the simple habits and backward civilization of Rome at this period. Janus, according to old traditions king of the aborigines of Rome, was originally the Sun-god of the Latins, and hence is represented with two faces—the rising and setting sun. Beginnings were sacred to him (January). Hence entrances and doors (janua) were decorated with his image.

The system of public defence was one in which the state was protected by its citizens without compensation. Especially in the organism of the army was the wonderful capacity for discipline apparent. At the time we have reached, the phalanx had been abandoned by the Romans. The Roman legion fought in open order, each man separated from his fellow by suf- ficient space to allow the use of the sword, and the spear was reduced, for most of the army, to a heavy javelin, of which each soldier carried two, for thrust or throw at the opening of the combat, after which the sword was used.

The military array in open order was in a series of ranks, five or six in succession, arranged like the alternate squares of a checker-board. The front rank was composed of the vigorous young men, the second of the sturdy and fully grown; in the third were the tried veterans, behind them the recruits, or less able soldiers. These rear ranks opened combat by advancing through the open spaces of the three front ranks as skirmishers. After expending their strength and their missiles, they retired in the same way. The arrangement of the three main ranks allowed each in turn to retire through the intervals of the one behind it, without dis- order. At the critical or decisive moment the veterans took their turn. These alone were still armed with the heavy spear of the phalanx. Closing their ranks, and supported by those behind them, they then advanced for the final struggle. For light troops and light cavalry the Romans relied on their allies. The legion consisted of from 4,000 to 5,000 men.

Such was the spirit of discipline that, during the Samnite wars of the following period, a young general was sentenced to death by his superior for offering battle in his absence, against orders, and gaining a victory. With difficulty could the petition of the senate and the people save his life.

In hard fought battles, where defeat was imminent, there were known cases in which a leading officer, with certain religious ceremonies, offered the sacrifice of his life for his country, and then casting himself alone into the ranks of the enemy, spread confusion and panic by the desperate valor of his death. Two victories of the Samnite wars were won by this devotion.

Officers of state, without class exclusion, were elected by the concourse of the people at the close of the period ending about 350, and laws were made by this assembly; but the sov- ereign and directing body of the state, in foreign affairs, was the senate, and the internal struggle of the classes must not cause us to forget its importance.

The senate was at once an executive and consulting body—executive in the sense that its directions and orders went into immediate effect, without control of an independent executive. It not only made general regulations, but gave orders in individual and special cases. Its members (300) held office for life. Its numbers were kept full by nomination of the censors, and their selection was generally made from those who had filled a state office.

No parallel institution has ever been known in history. The union of ministerial and de- bating functions in the English Parliament is a parallel to a certain degree. But whereas the House of Lords is an assembly of birth, and the House of Commons an assembly of popular election, the Roman senate was neither. Neither has any state in history a parallel to the existence of a popular government without monarchy which continued to maintain unchanged an aristocracy of blood. For we remember that, although plebeians sat in the senate and gained admission to every office of state, the patricians still continued as an aristocracy of birth.

To this singular union of conservative and progressive tendencies, of the spirit of compro- mise with the sternest discipline, above all to a conception of conquest which, so far from stripping the vanquished of their freedom, incorporated them in the system of the victors and made them members of it, the Roman state owed the triumphs of its later times. To the Greek belonged the genius of art and of culture; to the Roman, the genius of politics and of law.

CONQUEST AND CONSOLIDATION OF ITALY, B. C. 350–270.

The Samnite Wars.—Just ten years before the date which has been fixed in Greek history as the turning point of Alexander's conquests in the East (battle of Issus, 333), began the " Samnite wars," which, though known under this name, were no less wars with the Etruscans. They lasted fifty years, and ended in 290 with the conquest of all Etruscan and Samnite territory, together with the connecting eastern portions of Italy.

The Roman territory then reached up to Cisalpine Gaul on the north, and down to the Greek colonies on the south. These last were conquered ten years later (280), and the whole of " Italy," as conceived before the times of Cæsar, was subject to Roman power. The same process of consolidation, by soldier colonies, by military roads, by concession of political rights and Roman citizenship in various grades, which had secured Latium, was applied to Italy in general.

At the opening of these wars the Samnites covered and controlled more territory than the Latins. Of kindred blood, they were not lacking in determination and warlike bravery, but they were less compactly organized, and there were feuds between the hardy Samnites of the mountains and their Grecianized and more effeminate brethren in the rich plains of Campania. These feuds led to the first intervention of the Romans beyond the Liris. The powerful city of Capua, in its conflict with the mountain tribes, first begged assistance from Rome. This was refused, and the Capuans then submitted themselves to Rome as subjects. Rome now ordered the mountain Samnites to vacate the territory of Capua, which they refused.

The first Samnite war resulted, and lasted two years (343-341). The Samnites were beaten in the battles of Mt. Gaurus, near Cumæ, and Suessula. The treaty of peace secured Capua to the Romans, but surrendered another important town, Teanum.

The Latin cities, not satisfied with their share of booty, demanded an equal share in the Roman government. This was refused, and led to the Latin war (340–338). Rome was saved by her soldier colonies (battles of Mt. Vesuvius and Trifanum). The Latin league with Rome was dissolved, and separate arrangements and treaties were made with each separate Latin city, gener-

ITALY.

from the beginning of the Samnite wars
to the beginning of the Punic wars.

—— Roman Military Roads

• Maritime fortresses, or burgess colonies

• Road-fortresses, or Latin colonies

The part which is colored is 20
times enlarged on Map 26.

ISTRIA

L I B U R N I A

THE ADRIATIC SEA

THE TUSC

CALABRIA

LUCANIA

BRUTTII

Buxentum
Paestum

SEA

Tarentum

Via Tymris
o Theatre
Acropolis

Aufidenae

Larinum

Teanum

Bovianum

Calor R.

Beneventum

Caudine Pass

Saticula

Telesia
Caiatia
Capua
Volturnus R.

Clanius R.

Cumae
Neapolis
Mt. Gaurus
Puteoli
Herculaneum
Vesuvius
Pompei

Surrentum

Salernum

Liris R.

Liternum

Capreae

Nuceria

Teana

The Principal
Theatre of War
during the
Samnite War
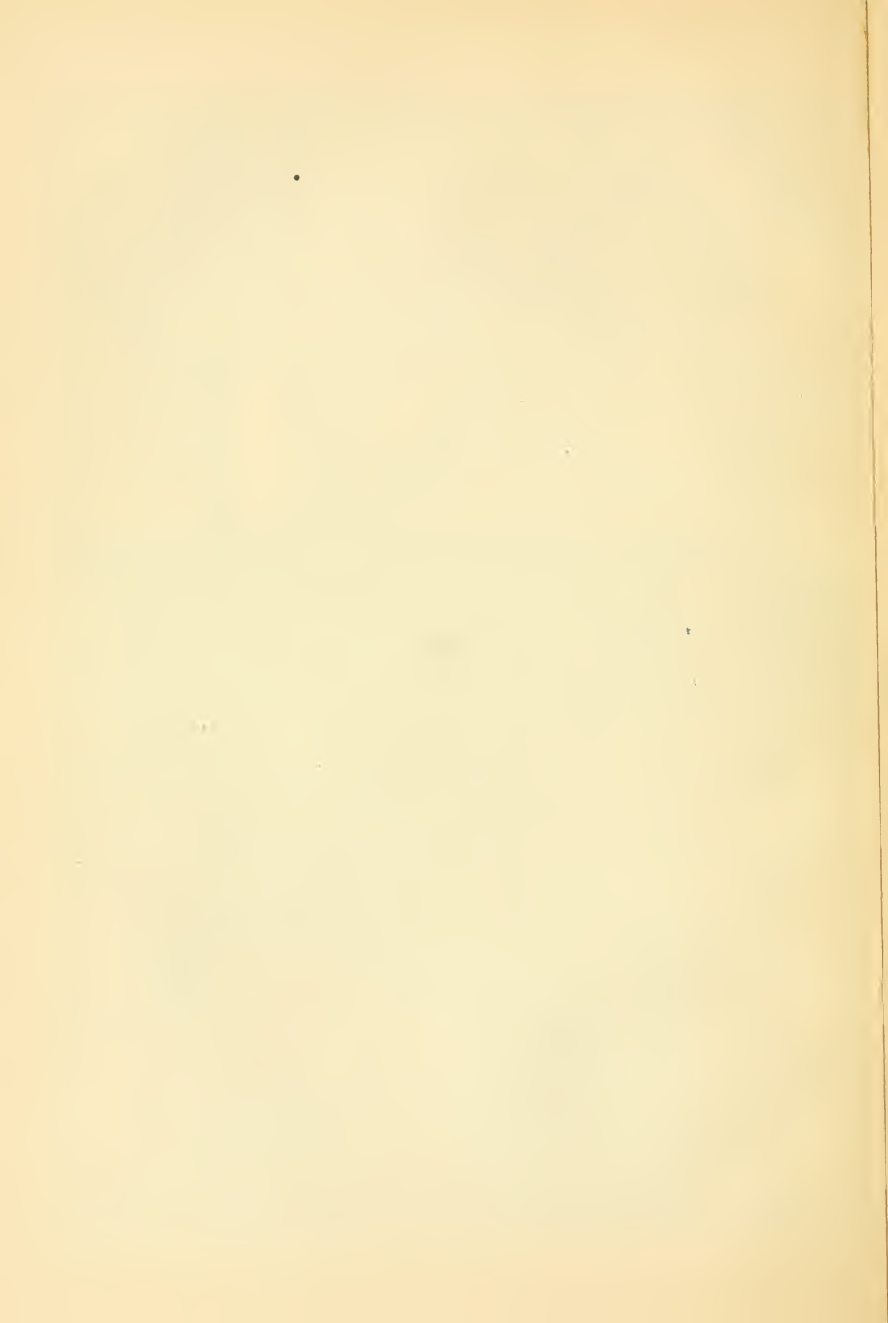
ally according them the Roman citizenship without suffrage, which was also given the Campanian cities. The city of Antium had to give up her ships of war, and their prows (rostra) were placed in the Roman Forum, whence the word rostrum.

The expansion of Roman power in Campania led to the second Samnite war (326–304), in which the Etruscans, the minor Italic tribes, and the Gauls combined with the Samnites. After the surprise and surrender of a Roman army in the Caudine Pass, the senate rejected the peace made by their consuls, whom they delivered up to the Samnites. The Etruscans were beaten on the Vadimonian Lake, and the Samnites at Longula (north of Antium).

The conquered peoples were obliged to surrender territory for Roman settlers, but were admitted to a league giving them Roman privileges.

During this war the Appian Way was built through Latium and Campania. But when the Romans began to build military roads, with fortresses, between Samnium and Etruria, the third Samnite war (298–290) began. All the Italian peoples joined with the Gauls against Rome. The Roman victory of Sentinum, in Umbria, was decisive. The settlement of Venusia with 20,000 soldier colonists (290) sealed this victory. The Samnites made peace on the old conditions.

Roman Conquest of the Greek States of Italy.—The Lucanians of South Italy had been accorded dominion over the smaller Greek cities, but these preferred the rule of Rome, to which they appealed. The Lucanians began to negotiate a new war against Rome. The Senonian Gauls first rose, but were almost annihilated, and the Roman colony of Sena Gallica, above Ancona, was founded on their territory. The Etruscans were next once more defeated, and became dependent on Rome under mild conditions, 283.

Greek Temples at Pæstum, on the coast below Naples.

The Greek colony of Thurii, which had appealed to Rome, was freed from the Lucanians, 282, and most of the Greek colonies of the South were willingly incorporated under Roman rule. But the

Greeks of Tarentum now took up arms, and summoned Phyrrhus, the king of Epirus, to their assistance (280–275).

Phyrrhus had become king of Epirus in 306, but was expelled, and then passed several years at the Macedonian Greek courts of Syria and Egypt. He fought with distinction at the battle of Ipsus, in 301, after which the final settlement of the Alexandrine states was made. Being one of the greatest warriors of ancient times, a claimant to the Macedonian throne, and intimate with the leading men immediately succeeding the times of Alexander, great interest attaches to his campaigns in Italy. They brought about the first contact of the Romans with the Macedonian Greeks.

A Roman fleet of ten ships, dispatched for the protection of Thurii, had cast anchor in the harbor of Tarentum. This was in violation of a treaty, made twenty years before, by which Roman ships were forbidden to cruise around Southern Italy. A mob attacked the vessels without warning, seized several of them, and sold the crews into slavery. A Roman embassy, sent to demand satisfaction, was insulted by the populace. This led to a Roman invasion of the territory of Tarentum, which accordingly summoned the Macedonian, Phyrrhus, to the conquest of all Italy.

Phyrrhus landed in Italy with a phalanx of 25,000 Greeks and 20 elephants. These last threw the Romans into disorder, and caused their defeat at Heraclea. But the senate refused to treat for peace, although a general revolt in Southern Italy ensued. In 279 Phyrrhus defeated the Romans at Asculum with such difficulty that he cried, " Another victory like this, and we are lost." Phyrrhus now crossed to Sicily, at the call of Syracuse, which he relieved from siege by the Carthaginians. (These were in temporary alliance with Rome.) With equal celerity the Greek Sicilian cities accepted, and then expelled, the governors of Phyrrhus, who had imported the style and methods of the Eastern satraps. Phyrrhus once more landed in Italy at the call of Tarentum, and was defeated by the Romans at Beneventum (275). By the use of pitch torches the elephants were frightened, and threw the phalanx into disorder. Phyrrhus abandoned Italy, of which Rome now remained mistress.

CHRONOLOGY OF ROMAN CONQUEST OF ITALY BEYOND LATIUM.

First Samnite war, B. C. 343–341.... ⎫ All Italy, from the Apennines bordering
Latin war, B. C. 340–338........... ⎪   the Padus valley (Cisalpine Gaul), to
Second Samnite war, B. C. 326–304... ⎬   the Greek colonies of the southern
Third Samnite war, B. C. 298–290.... ⎭   coasts, becomes Roman.

War with Phyrrhus, B. C. 280–275... ⎰ The Greek colonies of the southern
                                     ⎱   coasts become Roman.

THE SAME CHRONOLOGY SIMPLIFIED.

The territorial expansion of Rome beyond Latium began in the time
    of Alexander the Great ; central date.........................B. C. 333
Conquest of Central Italy effected by the year..................... " 290
Conquest of Southern Italy effected by the year.................... " 275

According to the above dates, the Roman consolidation of Italy was effected
in the early part of the 3d century B. C.

CONQUEST OF THE WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN,
B. C. 270–200.

The Punic Wars.—At the moment when the events just de-
scribed had carried the Roman power down through the tongue of
land which looked over from the town of Rhegium across the Straits
of Messina to Sicily, this island had reached a critical point of
history.

In the general falling off of patriotic and civic virtues which the
Greeks experienced in the Alexandrine period, the Greek colonies
of Sicily had gradually been yielding to Carthaginian aggressions,
until, at the time we have reached, only the town and territory of
Syracuse continued to hold out. The campaign of Phyrrhus in
Sicily had made a temporary headway against the Phœnician con-
quest, which his abandonment of the island again allowed to
expand.

Phœnician troops were always mercenaries, and the Greeks had used no other soldiers since Alexander. (The final failure of Phyrrhus in Italy was the failure of such a Greek mercenary force against Roman citizen soldiers.) Among the mercenaries employed in Sicily, both by Greeks and Phœnicians, were bands of Campanians called Mamertines (men of Mars), who just at this time seized on the town of Messana
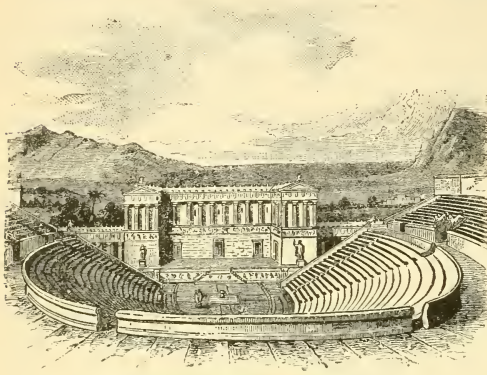
Greek Theatre at Egesta, in Sicily.
(*Restoration from the Ruins.*)

for their own profit. Besieged by Syracuse, they offered the town to the Romans in return for an alliance.

The senate was loath to deal with such disreputable men, but the will of the people ordered the Roman occupation. Meantime another band of the Mamertines delivered up the town to Carthage. The Phœnician garrison was now expelled by the Roman army. This was the beginning of the Punic— *i. e.,* Phœnician wars.

The contest about the town of Messana depended on the fact that its position made it the key to Sicily, and the struggle arose at this point also because here, and for the first time, Roman power extending one way, and Carthaginian power extending the other, came in contact. The bitter struggle between Rome and Carthage was really, however, one between two systems.

As far as the Carthaginians had made themselves masters in the Western Mediterranean it was as commercial monopolists, converting into plantation slaves the subjugated populations, waging war with mercenary soldiers, who were very cruelly treated, and only caring to extort wealth for themselves. Their attitude made them odious, but as long as their power was unquestioned successful revolt was impossible. The development of a strong power in Italy was a thorn in the side of Carthage, because the subjugated peoples in Africa

and Spain were now tempted to throw off the yoke of oppression by appealing to Rome. This produced a state of tension and caused the Punic wars, the contest about Messana being the spark which lit the conflagration.

Narrative of the First Punic War.—Hiero of Syracuse made an alliance with Rome, which was really defending the cause of Greek civilization in Sicily as well as its own existence. The great difficulty of the Romans in the first Punic war lay in their lack of fleets and marine experience. In maritime warfare the galleys were used as rams, and were provided with beaks projecting under water. Success depended, therefore, on the expert manœuvering of the galleys, so as to strike the enemy's ship in the side. The Romans not only constructed ships, but invented a system of bridges furnished with hooks and worked by tackle, which were let down on the Phœnician vessels when they made their customary manœuvre. By these bridges the Phœnician galleys were boarded. Thus the superiority of the Romans as land warriors was brought into play. The struggle, however, was long and desperate, as implied by the dates for the duration of the war (264-241). It was prolonged by the landing of a Roman army in Africa, which, at first successful, was finally defeated and almost destroyed. The Carthaginians gained this victory with a mercenary army of Greeks led by a Spartan, and by using the terrible war elephants (common in Macedonian warfare since Alexander's campaign to India). The Roman general, Regulus, was taken prisoner. After Phœnician disasters in Sicily, he was sent by Carthage with an embassy to offer a peace, which Rome refused. Regulus returned to Carthage as he had promised, and was put to death. (The death of Regulus is not mentioned by Polybius, a contemporary author, and has been doubted by some in consequence.)

The final Roman victory was won at sea off the Ægatian Isles, Northwest Sicily. This led to the peace by which Rome gained its first province—viz., Sicily. Syracuse remained an allied Greek kingdom.

Between the first and second Punic wars there were wars with the Gauls in North Italy, which gave the Romans control of the valley of the Padus by the colonies of Placentia (Piacenza) and Cremona (after 222). Carthage was occupied with a revolt of her own mercenaries, and Rome acquired also Sardinia and Corsica.
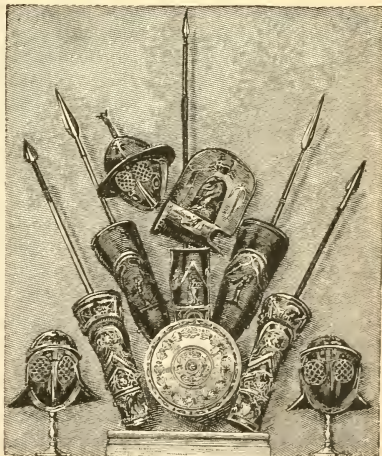
Roman Armor from Pompeii.
(*Naples Museum.*)

Second Punic War.—The conquest of Sicily had made the overthrow of Rome by Carthage more than ever a matter of existence for the latter. Therefore in 237 Hamilcar Barca, the greatest Phœnician general of the First Punic War, crossed over into Spain to find and develop new resources for Carthage. His son-in-law, Hasdrubal, who succeeded him, made a treaty with Rome not to pass the Ebro. On the death of Hasdrubal, Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar Barca, was elected general. As a boy he had sworn to his father eternal hatred of the Romans, and now determined to attack them in Italy, first besieging Saguntum, their ally. This act led the Romans to declare war. Their available force, according to Polybius, was 700,000 foot, 70,000 horse, of which force 273,000 men were Roman citizens. The available force of Hannibal was 90,000 foot and 12,000 horse.

Narrative of the Second Punic War.—In the spring of 218, the Carthaginians marched with 50,000 men, 9,000 horse, and many elephants, by way of Southern France and the Little St. Bernard Pass, over the Alps into Italy. The Gauls of the Padus valley joined them.

The consul, P. Cornelius Scipio, was routed on the left bank of the Padus, at the river Ticinus. The second consul, Tiberius Sempronius Longus, who brought Scipio a second army from Sicily, was routed on the Trebia, another tributary of the Padus.

After the winter, which caused the death of the elephants, Hannibal crossed the Western Apennines, marched up the valley of the Arno, and destroyed the entire army of the consul Flaminius on Lake Trasimenus. He then moved on Southern Italy, changing by the way the arms and tactics of his soldiers to the Roman. The consul, Q. Fabius Maximus (from whom is named the " Fabian " policy), constantly refused battle, and moved by the heights while Hannibal marched through Southern Italy by the plains.

In 216 the consul, C. Terentius Varro, with 86,000 men, lost the battle of Cannæ and 70,000 of his army. Varro escaped, with seventy horsemen, to Venusia. The senate summoned him to Rome, went in procession to the gates to meet him, thanked him " for not despairing of the republic," then called under arms even the criminals, slaves, and imprisoned debtors. It was the popular party which had appointed the defeated generals; it now yielded place to the patrician aristocratic leadership, and this unity saved Rome.

Hannibal was exhausted with victories. He received no reinforcements of importance from Carthage, and none from Spain, where the Roman generals had beaten his brother Hasdrubal on the Ebro, and then transferred the war to the Bætis (Guadalquiver). Hannibal had made alliances with Syracuse (after the death of Hiero) and with the Macedonian king Philip. The latter was driven out of Illyria and held in check by the Ætolian league, allies of the Romans. Syracuse, besieged two years, 214–212, by Marcellus, was then taken and plundered. (Death of Archimedes, p. 68.) The transportation of Greek works of art to Rome began at this time.

Since 216 Hannibal had occupied Capua, and in 212 he took Tarentum. To relieve the former city from siege he marched to within five miles of Rome, but the army about Capua

HANNIBAL'S ROUTE
from the Rhone to the
Apennines,
enlarged from Map 29

32

Lugdunum
Vienne
Isère
Rhone
Araussio
Orange
Durance
Aquae Sextiae
Massilia
Latin names are underlined.

Montmeillan
Saorgez
Little St. Bernard
Dorca baba
Seez

Turin
Po R.

Vercellae
Ivrea
Ticinum
Ticinus R.
Placentia
Trebia

Lucca
Pisa
Corsica
Elba

Hispania Citerior
Numantia
Durius
Hispania Ulterior
Tagus
Anas
Baetis
Hispalis
Carthago nova

Baleario Isl.

Liguria
Gallia Cisalpina
Rome
Tarentum

Sardinia
Carales

Sicilia
Syracuse

MAURETANIA
Malaha

Cirta
Maha

Africa
Utica

NUMIDIA

35

The Western part of the
ROMAN DOMINION
at the close of the
Punic Wars.

Plan of CARTHAGO

The Necropolis

The new town or Megara

Scipio's Wall

The Aquaduct

Amphitheatre

The City

Forum

Byrsa the Citadel

War harbor

Merchants Harbor

Scipio's dike

Plan of SYRACUSE

Thapsus

Leon

Trogylium

Labdalum

Euryalus

Epipolae

Anapus R.

Neapolis

Trtcha Achradina

Small Harbor Ortygia

Dascon

Large Harbor

Plemmyrium

The Western part of the ROMAN DOMINION a Century after the close of the Punic wars.

Illyrian

Gallia transalpina

Gallia Cisalpina

Provincia

HISPANIA CITERIOR

Gallia Narbonensis

Durius

Ebro

Lusitania

HISPANIA ULTERIOR

Narbo

Rome

Tagus

Toletum

Balearic Id.

Sardinia

Corsica

Tarentum

Anas

Baetis

Corduba

Munda

Baetica

Carthago nova

Sicily

Syracuse

MAURETANIA

Malucha

Numidia

Cista

R.

Africa

Thapsus

Bagradas R.

Byzacena

could not be lured away. Both cities were retaken by Rome. After 211 Hannibal was con-
fined to Southern Italy, still waiting for the expected reinforcements. Jealousy ruined him
at Carthage ; his dependence was on Spain. Here, after defeats of the Roman army, which
drove it back to the Ebro in 211, the young Publius Scipio, who had saved his father's life at
the Ticinus, was made general. In 209 he attacked Hasdrubal at Bæcula in Andalusia, gaining
a doubtful victory, for Hasdrubal followed his brother's path into Italy, and appeared there
with 60,000 men. Hasdrubal was opposed on the Metaurus (above Sena Gallica) by a large
Roman army, and dispatched messengers to Hannibal. These were captured by the Romans.
The consul, C. Claudius Nero, holding Hannibal in check near Canusium, secretly marched
with 7,000 picked men to the North. Hasdrubal was forced to give battle, and was defeated.
He committed suicide, and his army was destroyed, 207.

When Hannibal received news of this defeat (his brother's head was thrown into his camp
by the Romans to announce it) he drew back into Apulia, where he held his ground for four
years longer, till 203.

Meantime Scipio had defeated a new Carthaginian army in Spain, which now came generally
into Roman power. In 205 he obtained with difficulty permission to make war in Africa. In 204
he landed near Utica. In the next year, after some Roman successes, Hannibal was recalled to
Africa, which he had not seen for thirty-four years. (At nineteen he went to Spain, at twenty-
six he began the war which he had waged single-handed till he was forty-two.)

The decisive battle was fought at Zama in 202. Scipio placed
his ranks one behind the other, instead of in the usual alternate
arrangement, so that the elephants might pass through without
breaking his lines. After desperate and undetermined conflict of
the foot, the battle was decided by the Roman and allied African
cavalry.

Carthage made peace in 201; agreed to pay 10,000 talents
within fifty years (about $15,000,000) ; gave up all her elephants
and all her ships of war but ten ; and abandoned all Spanish,
Mediterranean, and African possessions excepting the territory
immediately subject to the town of Carthage. She also agreed to
wage no war without consent of Rome. Thus the latter power be-
came mistress of the Western Mediterranean. Fifty years later the
Romans resolved on the utter destruction of their ancient enemy,
now reduced to the rank of a rich mercantile city without political
power.

The Third Punic War is perhaps the only important one
undertaken by Rome where motives of self-preservation cannot be
directly traced. Hereditary animosity and commercial jealousy were
the motives here. Conditions of dependence so odious were required

of Carthage that she resisted with the fury of despair. The city
was entirely destroyed in 146 B. C.

The Roman general of the Third Punic War was Scipio Minor,
so named to distinguish him from Scipio Major, or Scipio Africa-
nus, hero of the Second Punic War.

Map Study.—Rhegium, Messana ; p. 73. Placentia, Cremona ; p. 86. Ebro, map at p. 92.
Saguntum ; see on a modern map of Spain Murviedro, north of Valencia. Hannibal's route
over the Alps, the Ticinus, and Trebia ; see map at p. 92. For other localities of his cam-
paigns ; map at p. 86. Ætolian League, p. 94. Zama is south of Carthage.

For general result of the Punic wars, see map of the western part of the Roman dominion a
century after their close, p. 92.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE PUNIC WARS.

First Punic War..B. C. 264–241
Second Punic War..   "   218–201
Third Punic War. ....   "   150–146

The First and Second Punic Wars made the essential changes in territorial
power. Each lasted about twenty years. A space of about twenty years inter-
vened between them. The dates might be thus simplified :

First Punic War...B. C. 260–240
Second Punic War..   "   220–200
Third Punic War...   "   150

CHRONOLOGY OF ROMAN ADVANCE IN THE WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN.

Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica ; after.......................................B. C. 240
Cisalpine Gaul (North Italy) ; after....................................   "   220
Spain and North Africa ; after...   "   200
Transalpine Gaul (South France) ; after................................   "   120

According to these dates, the shores and islands of the Western Mediter-
ranean were Romanized in the 3d and 2d centuries B. C.

CONQUEST OF THE EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN, B. C. 200–30.

War with Macedonia naturally resulted from her alliance
with Hannibal in the Second Punic War. after this war was closed.
By the defeat at Cynoscephalæ in Thessaly (B. C. 197) the Mace-

Rome

ITALY

Adriatic Sea

Illyricum

Dyrrhachium

Macedonia

Apollonia

Epirus

Brundusium

Pella

Philip

Pydna

Demetrius

Tuscan Sea

Gnoscephalae

Pharsalia

Naulochus

Actium

Actiq

Thermopylae

Chalcis

Sicily

Achaeans

Corinthus

ACHAEA

Sparta

WESTERN ASIA
in the Times of
Mithradates

38

Don R.

Wolga R.
Rha R.

Empire

of

Mithradates

Danube R.

Pontus Euxinus

Sinope

Amisus
Amasia
Zela

Trapezus

Artaxata

Tigranocerta

Bithynia

Halys R.

Empire of Tigranes

Parthia

Roman province
of Asia

Tigris R.

Euphrates

R.

Judaea

Part of Cyrenaica

37

The Eastern half of the
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
during the two centuries preceding the birth of Christ

Black Sea

Thrace

Byzantium

Pontus

Bithynia

Zela

Galatia

The empire of Pergamus after 190 B.C.

Pergamus
Pergamus

Fessinus

Magnesia

Smyrna

Rhodes

o *Rhodes*

Cyprus

The principal theatre
of War in the first
Mithridatic war

Boeotia

Euboea

Elatea

Cephissus R.

Orchomenos

Chaeronea

Lake Copais

Chalcis

Aulis

Eretria

Coronea

Coelesyria

donian state was humbled, and agreed to wage no war without consulting Rome. The Roman general Flaminius proclaimed the freedom of the Greeks at the Isthmian games, and confined the Ætolian league (p. 61), which had sided with Rome against Macedonia, to its previous limits.

Meantime **Hannibal** had set himself to regulate the finances and reform the constitution of Carthage with such success that the Romans had demanded, in 195, his surrender. He fled to Antiochus III. of Syria (Seleucid Empire, p. 61), whom he urged to fight Rome.

Antiochus was also urged into war by the discontented Ætolian league. He invaded Greece and was defeated (191) at Thermopylæ, but his decisive overthrow occurred the following year at Magnesia, in Asia Minor, 190. This victory practically gave the control of the Eastern civilized world to the power which had just conquered the Western Mediterranean. But Rome was satisfied to cripple the Seleucid Empire, and gave the greater part of Asia Minor to its ally Pergamus. Hannibal's surrender was a condition of the peace. He fled to King Prusias of Bithynia (Northern Asia Minor), and took poison in 183, as his surrender had been again demanded by the Roman ambassadors.

A second uprising of Macedonia, allied with the Greeks in general, was put down by the victory of Pydna, in Macedonia, 168; after which the Macedonian power was crippled by division into four aristocratic republics paying tribute to Rome.

The Greeks were no longer worthy of their freedom, nor had they even the comprehension of their own feebleness as opposed to the new power in the West, which they continued to tease with their quarrels and futile jealousy. A third Macedonian war, attended by a revolt of the Corinthian populace and the anti-Roman party in Greece, resulted in the incorporation of Greece and Macedonia as Roman provinces, 146 B. C. Corinth was destroyed, and its art treasures were taken to Rome.

It was here that the Roman general Mummius gave orders that any soldier breaking a statue through carelessness in transport would have to replace it at his own expense. This

story reminds us of the glories of Greek art still continuing in the time of Greek decay, and of the newly beginning Roman culture, which did not comprehend that anything besides money was necessary to replace a Greek statue.

The kingdom of Pergamus (p. 61), comprehending (since the victory of Magnesia) most of Asia Minor, was deeded to its ally Rome by the will of the last Attalid in 133 B. C.

Only one power nearer than Parthia (p. 61) which could dare to cope with Rome was now left, and this did not exert itself till 88 B. C. The Pontic Empire of Mithridates, a half Greek, half Asiatic king, stretched around all the shores of the Black Sea on the East, comprehending the important Greek cities of the Crimea, and became the centre of opposition to Roman rule.

Three Mithridatic wars were waged; the last was ended, B. C. 64, by Pompey the Great. It resulted in the incorporation of most remaining portions of Asia Minor and of Syria under Roman rule. The latter province was not at this time directly annexed, but was converted into vassal states under various arrangements; so that in Judæa, for instance, was installed under Roman protection and direction the family of which King Herod was a member.

The Greek Ptolemies of Egypt were also, by this time, practically dependent on Roman policy and direction, which thus embraced all shores bordering on the Mediterranean.

Map Study.—Map for the Eastern Mediterranean at p. 94—Macedonia, Cynoscephalæ, Ætolian League, Magnesia, Empire of Pergamus (after 190 B. C.) Bithynia, Pydna Pontic kingdom of Mithridates and Judæa; see section map. Seleucid Empire (before Magnesia and the Parthians); p. 58. Parthian Empire; section map, p. 94. Ptolemies in Egypt; p. 58.

CHRONOLOGY OF ROMAN ADVANCE IN THE EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN.

Macedonia humbled at Cynoscephalæ................. .... B. C. 197
Seleucidæ, humbled at Magnesia, surrender their possessions in Asia
     Minor to Pergamus, ally of Rome............................. "   190
Macedonia tributary after Pydna................................. "   168
Greece and Macedonia annexed............... .... "   146
Pergamus, including most important portions of Asia Minor, inherited "   133
Syria dependent on Rome after third Mithridatic war........ ...... "   64
    Egypt is really in Roman dependence after this time.

SAME CHRONOLOGY SIMPLIFIED.

Greece and Macedonia Romanized ; after....... .... B. C. 150

Asia Minor Romanized ; after........................ .. .. " 133

Syria Romanized ; after.. .. .. " 64

Egypt a Roman province ; after.................................. " 30

According to these dates, the shores and islands of the Eastern Mediter-
ranean were Romanized in the 2d and 1st centuries B. C.

POLITICAL HISTORY OF ROME AS AFFECTED BY TERRITORIAL CONQUESTS.

Condition of Rome about 133 B. C.—Some phases of Roman discipline, character, and policy tending to explain the territorial expansion related in the three preceding sections have been mentioned. It will have been noticed that the native populations of the Mediter-
ranean countries were already under foreign conquerors before they came under Roman rule. The West was under a foreign Phœ-
nician despotism, and the East was under foreign Greek despotisms. On the whole, the condition of these subject populations was decidedly benefited by the change of rulers, although the development of a Ro-
man political equality for the foreign coun-
tries was not undertaken till the times of the Empire (after 30 B. C.). The full develop-
ment of Roman political equality in Italy was in process during the period of the for-
eign conquests of the republic just narrated, and was not fully accomplished till shortly before the time of the Empire.

Thus, analogous to the struggle of the patricians and plebeians, resulting in class equality among Romans about 350 B. C., was

A Roman Aqueduct, erected 145 B. C.

a second contest after that date, resulting in the class equality of all Italians before 30 B. C., and a third development, resulting in the national equality of all conquered nations with the con-
querors, after 30 B. C.

This second period now concerns us. Its turning point is the year 133 B. C., the time of the Gracchi. This year, already noted as that of the inheritance of much of Asia Minor from Pergamus, is also memorable for the conquest of the town of Numantia, in farther Central Spain, by which that country was finally and securely fixed under Roman rule.

With the time of the Gracchi began the Civil wars of Rome, which, lasting a century, terminated with the accession of the first Roman emperor, Augustus, in 31 B. C.

To understand the internal troubles and dissensions in the Roman state after the territorial expansion began, we must remember what was the government of an ancient republic. In Italy, as in Greece, such a government was controlled, or largely influenced, by public concourse of the citizens, without intermediate representation as in modern states. The breakdown of the Athenian democracy and of the civic governments of Greece in general before the time of Philip, was mainly a physical result of the overgrowth of the public concourse, and of its consequent disorders and unwieldiness. In Greece the struggle between progress and conservatism, democracy and aristocracy—*i. e.*, between the ideal of an unlimited and a limited concourse—was never settled. In this struggle both sides (Sparta and Athens) became exhausted, and military despotism stepped in with Philip of Macedon.

On the other hand, in the state which was to become the leading state of Italy and of the Old World, the struggle terminated in the complete success of the democracy (plebeians) under restraint of the senate and a continued aristocracy of birth.

But after the Samnite wars, when Roman colonies of citizen soldiers existed in all parts of Italy, and when the gift of full Roman citizenship with suffrage had been partially bestowed on the conquered Italians, a curious antagonism sprang up between the methods of an ancient republic and the progressive tendency to political equality. In theory, every full citizen had a vote in the public concourse; in fact, the full citizens, because scattered over all parts of Italy, could not vote in the concourse. In the city of Rome itself, increasing population made the meetings of the concourse more and more disorderly and unwieldy. Increasing population meant also increasing poverty of a rabble open to corruption. The disorders of the state which resulted in civil war terminating in the empire are, then, partly explained by the progressive tendencies to political equality in conflict with the method of civic government by concourse.

A second element of change was introduced after the conquest of Sicily—the provincial system. All conquered countries outside of Italy became provinces governed by a Roman official—a pro-consul, prætor, or pro-prætor. These provinces paid tribute to Rome, and this tribute was partly used to support and pay the Roman legions stationed in the provinces. This tribute was raised by contract. A contractor, called a publican, farmed the tax—*i. e.*, paid to the senate a certain sum for the privilege of raising the tax from the province. The publican generally raised the tax with oppression and beyond the just due. The publican and sinner are often mentioned together in the New Testament. The financial oppression of the provinces continued till overthrown by the empire, whose mission to raise the provinces to equality has been noted.

The tax-farming system resulted in the growth at Rome of a class of tax-farming bankers of enormous riches unjustly acquired. The fabulous luxury and corruption of the later days of the republic are thus explained. These wealthy men increased their riches by entering into manufactures of various kinds on a colossal scale by means of slaves, and they used their riches for political ends in the corruption of the Roman populace. They also corrupted the senate and the courts in the lawsuits brought against them for oppression in the provinces.

One form of corruption, at last, not even reprobated, was the exhibition to the populace of the bloody combats of trained gladiators with each other or with wild beasts. Such gladiator shows were unknown to Greece, where gymnastic training was used as a means of education. They were also unknown at Rome in the virtuous days of the republic, and were first introduced from Capua after the Samnite wars.

The Plantation System.—The money of the Roman banking party, raised by provincial oppression and manufacturing monopoly, was also employed in the purchase of large estates.

The small agricultural farms of Italy were bought up and turned into grazing farms, where the immense herds of cattle were tended by slaves, or else the small farms were aggregated into plantations worked by chain-gangs of slaves. This system was borrowed from the Carthaginian slave plantations of Africa after the Punic wars. The great slave market was on the island of Delos, where 10,000 slaves were once sold to Roman capitalists in a single day.

The Roman army had been composed for centuries of farmer-citizens. To break up the small farms was to destroy the free farming class, now replaced by slaves. Thus the Roman legions became gradually composed of mercenaries instead of unpaid citizens fighting for patriotic motives. But the legions of mercenaries could be turned against each other. The banking monopolist party, in its scramble for the spoils of the provincials, split into factions. These factions hired armies against each other, thus causing the civil wars.

At the moment when these crying evils of the state began to be apparent, two brothers, Tiberius Sempronius and Caius Sempronius Gracchus, endeavored to reform the fast-rotting republic. Their measures were intended to raise the farmer class by new distributions of domain land, or by colonies in the provinces. Tiberius Gracchus lost the favor of

Temple of " Virile Fortune." The only building in Modern Rome dating from the Republic.

the senate by his attempt at public division of the domain lands; Caius Gracchus lost even the favor of the popular party by a proposal to make full citizens of all Italians. Both brothers lost their lives in successive tumults.

TIMES OF MARIUS, SULLA, AND POMPEY.

The growing corruption of the state became apparent in the Jugurthine war, 111–106 B. C. Micipsa, king of the North African province of Numidia, which was under Roman protection, left two sons and a nephew, among whom his inheritance was divided. The nephew, Jugurtha, having served with a Numidian contingent against Numantia, where he learned to know the corruption of the Romans, believed that it would be an easy matter to supplant the sons of Micipsa, and usurp the government of all Numidia. Successive Roman armies were defeated by corruption or lax discipline, but Jugurtha finally died in prison at Rome.

In the Jugurthine war two officers had made themselves a name

—Marius, a man of low origin and of the popular party, the commander who restored Roman discipline; and Sulla, his lieutenant, of the aristocratic party, whose craft and energy secured the person of Jugurtha and ended the war.
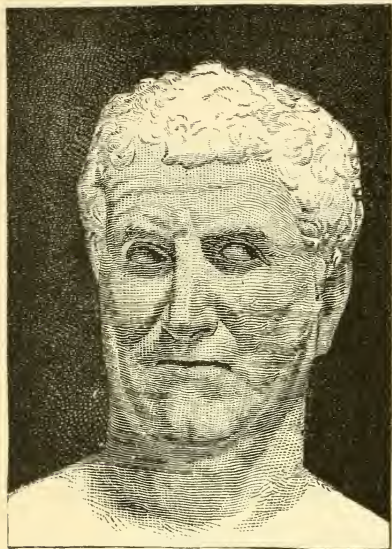
Sulla. From an ancient bust in the Torlonia Museum at Rome.

Barbarians from Northeastern Europe, called Cimbri and Teutons by contemporary authors, probably mixed Celts and Germans, meantime invaded Southern (Roman) France, 113–101. At Aráusio (Orange) the Romans found, 105, a second Cannæ. Marius was summoned to restore discipline and success. He defeated the barbarians at Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix), 102. They then invaded Italy. He beat them again at Vercellæ (North Italy), 101, after which they disappeared. Marius became the leading man at Rome, and head of the popular party—offending, by his rough manners and person, as well as by his democratic principles, the aristocracy.

Since the time of Caius Gracchus successive proposals to make full citizens of the Italian confederates had failed, and these began, in 90 B. C., the "Social war," after renewed denial of political equality. With their demands the popular party at Rome now sympathized, wishing to use them as allies against the power of the aristocrats. The war ended, after some apparent Roman successes, with a law admitting the Italians in general to the Roman citizenship, 88 B. C.

In the same year began the first Mithridatic war, with the

news that Mithridates, king of Pontus, had caused the murder in Asia Minor of 80,000 Romans, and had raised a revolt of the entire province. Sulla was given command for this war by the senate, but Marius was made commander by vote of the public concourse. Sulla, then in camp near Capua, led his army on Rome. For the first time in its history the legions appeared within the city with their arms. A battle was fought within the walls, and the Marian party was defeated. Marius fled for his life, while Sulla marched on the East.

In the absence of Sulla, who defeated the forces of Mithridates, 87–84 B. C., and compelled him to make satisfaction, the popular party had recalled Marius. A fearful massacre of the senatorial and aristocratic party was carried out by his mercenaries. Marius died before the return of Sulla, after which Italy was wasted and depopulated by a civil war of the two parties. Sulla triumphed, restored the aristocratic constitution, and by his terrible proscriptions (sentences of outlawry, death, and confiscation) cowed the opposition into silence. He then resigned his powers as dictator, dying a simple citizen in 78 B. C.

Julius Cæsar at this time was about twenty-four years old (born 102 *). Two men, afterwards famous in association with him, Pompey and Crassus, had been the lieutenants and partisans of the Sullan reaction, whereas Cæsar was related by marriage to Marius, and belonged to the popular party, although of patrician birth.

Pompey became the leading man at Rome after Sulla's death. His abilities as a soldier were very distinguished, but as a politician he lacked principles, and therefore a fixed conduct, wishing only to keep himself in the good graces of a dominant party.

The gladiator Spartacus raised, in 73 B. C., a slave rebellion in Italy, which counted an army of 120,000 men. It was crushed by Pompey and Crassus.

---

* Mommsen.

Meantime, amid other disorders of the Roman state, that of **the pirates**, whose headquarters were on Crete and the coast of Cilicia (Asia Minor), assumed gigantic proportions. They mastered numerous towns, and counted a fleet of 1,000 ships.

In 67, Pompey was sent against the pirates with extraordinary dictatorial powers, and crushed them in a three months war.

A second war with Mithridates had been already concluded before the death of Sulla, 83–81. **The third war** now began on account of the will of Nicomedes of Bithynia (Northern Asia Minor), who deeded his state to Rome. Mith-

Pompey. From an ancient bust in the Torlonia Museum at Rome.

ridates undertook to expel the Romans from Bithynia. The war, lasting 74–64, was concluded with results noted on p. 96. Here again Pompey had been the final victor. Before his return from the East, took place, in 63, the conspiracy of Catiline.

Catiline was a profligate Roman noble who espoused the popular party in order, by raising himself to power, to repeat, on the other side, the proscriptions and confiscations of Sulla. Defeated as candidate for the consulship, he resolved to employ force. His plans were detected, and he fled from Rome to an army raised in Etruria. He was defeated and slain near Pistoria. In exposing

and defeating the plans of Catiline, the orator and lawyer Cicero, of the senatorial party, made himself famous.

In 61, Pompey returned from the East. His commands against the pirates and against Mithridates had been secured by affiliations with the popular party, although he began public life as partisan of the aristocracy, and had not openly abandoned them. He now expected favor from both parties, and failed with both, because he belonged to neither. The senate refused to sanction his arrangements in the East ; the public concourse refused his soldiers the proposed allotment of lands. This led Pompey to a coalition with Cæsar, who had returned, in 60, from the government of Spain, whither he went in 61. A third member in this coalition was Crassus, whose enormous wealth was a needed assistance. Cæsar was made consul, and carried through, in 59, the laws for satisfying the soldiers of Pompey, and for legitimizing his arrangements in the East.

At the close of Cæsar's consulship he obtained, in 58, the governorship of Cisalpine and Transalpine Gaul, with four legions, for a term of five years.

Map Study.—See map at p. 92 for Numidia, Numantia, Aurasio, Aquæ Sextiæ, Vercellæ. Pontic Empire of Mithridates ; p. 94. Cilicia, in Asia Minor ; see map for the Roman Empire. Bithynia; p. 94. Pistoria ; north of Florence. Cisalpine and Transalpine Gaul ; p. 92.

CHRONOLOGY.

Jugurthine War, 111–106 ; about................B. C. 110		
Cimbric War, 113–101 ; about........................... " 100	{	Julius Cæsar born.
Social War, 90–88 ; about............ .... " 90	{	Times of Marius.
First Mithridatic War, 88–84 ; about....... .... " 85	{	Times of Sulla.
Second Mithridatic War, 83–81...........................		

Sulla dies ; in.................................. ....B. C. 78 ⎫
War of the Gladiators ; Spartacus; 73–71 ; ends.......... "   71 ⎪
War with the Pirates..... .... "   67 ⎪
Third Mithridatic War, 74–64 ; ends..................... "   64 ⎬ Times
Conspiracy of Catiline (Cicero)........ .... "   63 ⎪ of
Cæsar governor of Spain ; Pompey returns from the East... "   61 ⎪ Pompey.
Cæsar consul .... "   59 ⎪
Cæsar governor of Gaul .... "   58 ⎭

CHRONOLOGY SIMPLIFIED.

Jugurthine War... ....B. C. 110 ⎫ Marius.
Cimbric War........ .... "   100 ⎬
Social War.. "   90 ⎫ Sulla.
Sulla dies ; about .... "   80 ⎬
Gladiator's War ; about........................... "   70 ⎫ Pompey.
Pompey returns from the East and Cæsar consul ; about... "   60 ⎬

TIMES OF JULIUS CÆSAR.

In 58 B. C. only Southern Gaul was in the actual possession of the Romans, but there was no natural boundary to limit the spread of their influence and civilization to the centre and the north. At this moment the Helvetians, inhabitants of Switzerland, overcrowded at home, were contemplating migration in mass toward the West into Gaul. Cæsar opposed them in the pass between the Jura and the Lake of Geneva. They then crossed the Jura, but were beaten and dispersed by battles fought in the districts corresponding to modern Franche-Comté and modern Burgundy.

The Sequani, Gauls of the former province, then begged Cæsar to expel from their territory a horde of Germans whom they had summoned to fight against the Gauls of Burgundy, the Ædui, and who had then settled themselves, to the number of 120,000, on their lands. Cæsar defeated this band, commanded by Ariovistus, in Southern Alsace, and forced them over the Rhine. The Gauls now began to dread the loss of their independence at the hands of the Romans.

The Belgi, between Seine, Marne, and Rhine, made a league, which German tribes on the left Rhine bank joined. Cæsar regarded the assembling of troops as conspiracy against Rome, and invaded their territory in 57. The Belgi attacked his camp, were defeated and then subdued in detail.

In 56 Cæsar subdued the coast tribes between the Seine and the Loire, and those between the Loire and the Pyrenees.

In 55 he defeated German tribes who had pushed over the Rhine, then threw a bridge over this river, probably between Bonn and Coblenz, and made a campaign of eighteen days in Germany. In the same year

Julius Cæsar. From an ancient bust in the Torlonia Museum at Rome.

he made a short expedition to Britain. These last campaigns were intended to secure the possession of Gaul itself by an exhibition of Roman power.

Pompey and Crassus, in 55, were consuls at Rome, and Cæsar's proconsulship in Gaul was extended five years in addition to the first term. Crassus and Pompey were given, at the close of their consulship for this year, respectively the provinces of Syria and Spain, each for five years.

Crassus marched beyond the Euphrates against the Parthians, and found his own destruction, with his entire army of seven legions, in the deserts of Mesopotamia, 53. Pompey, against the law which forbade the proconsul to govern his province while remaining in Rome, continued there, watching with jealousy the success of Cæsar. Gladiator bands, in the interest of the popular and the senatorial parties, gave battle to each other in the streets of the city. The republican constitution was in its death agony. The elections of consuls went by default for two years on account of the tumults.

Pompey had done nothing to preserve order, but being made sole consul in 52 by senatorial influence, sided once more with that party. Since the times of Marius and Sulla the army had been the controlling power of the state. Under Sulla the aristocracy had been bolstered up by

it. Under Pompey, military influence vacillated towards either party, till his jealousy of Cæsar drove him to side at last with the aristocracy and the cause of reaction.

Meantime Cæsar had made new campaigns in Britain and Germany, and in Gaul had suppressed insurrections in 54, 53, and 52, especially that of Vercingétorix, chief of the Arvérni (Auvergne).

The whole of Gaul had thus become a Roman province when in 49 Pompey and the senatorial party were awaiting the conclusion of Cæsar's term, the 1st of March, to supplant him and work his ruin. The latter, again a candidate for the consulship, was required to dismiss his army before the election. He offered to do this if Pompey would do the same and retire to his government of Spain, as required by law.

The refusal of Pompey to accept this proposal revealed his ambition to attain supreme power. A small river running into the Adriatic, between the Apennines and the plain of the Po, was the southern boundary of Cisalpine Gaul. Cæsar crossed this Rubicon without hesitating, and marched on Rome with a single legion. (A legion, at this time, consisted of 6,100 men.) Pompey, with two legions (recalled from Cæsar's command), of which he felt insecure, abandoned Italy, crossing into Greece.

Cæsar, master of all Italy in sixty days, then sailed for Spain to conquer the troops stationed there before attacking their general. The army in Spain surrendered and generally took sides with Cæsar, but the officers hastened to join Pompey. Cæsar then returned by way of Gaul to Italy, and crossed from Brundusium (Brindisi) to Greece. His army was 25,000 foot and 1,000 horse; his rival's army was 45,000 foot and 7,000 horse.

On the battle-field of Pharsalia, in Thessaly, Cæsar won a decisive victory, 48 B. C. Pompey sailed to Egypt, and was here murdered by the guardians of the young king, who was engaged in war with his sister Cleopatra.

Cæsar followed by way of Thrace and Asia Minor, thence sailed for Egypt with 4,000 men, and received the news of his rival's death on landing at Alexandria. He summoned Cleopatra and her brother

to accept his arbitration in their dispute, and favored the cause of the former. On this account he was besieged by the army of the king for five months in Alexandria, but finally received troops from Asia, with which he defeated the young Ptolemy, who was drowned in the Nile. He then made the kingdom over to Cleopatra and her younger brother.

Pharnaces, son of Mithridates, was next conquered in Northern Asia Minor. The news of the victory was sent to Rome in three words: "I came, I saw, I conquered"—*Veni, Vidi, Vici.*

Cæsar returned to Italy, was made consul for five years and dictator for a year by the senate. A revolt of the Pompeian party called him to Africa. It was put down by the victory of Thapsus, 47. Fifty thousand Pompeian soldiers fell in this battle. In 46, Cæsar was obliged to combat the Pompeians in Spain. The battle of Munda, 45, made him master of the Roman world.

The next year of his life was occupied with that reorganism of the Roman state by which he was really the founder of the Empire.

The policy of protecting the provincials began with him, and was the basis of the prosperity and duration of Imperial Rome. But the phantom of the old republic had still power over the minds of men, and it caused the assassination of Cæsar in B. C. 44.

Motive of the Assassination.—He was accused of wishing the title and insignia of a king, but it is not likely that so great a man cared by what title his power was designated. The aristocracy killed Cæsar, not because he wished to be called a king, but because he admitted Gauls and Spaniards to the Roman senate. The provincials were his loudest mourners, and the Jews of Rome, whom he had protected, refused to be driven from his bier. The great symbolic act of his dictatorship was the rebuilding of a Phœnician Carthage and a Greek Corinth, leveled in the dust by Roman monopolists a century before. His will gave the Roman citizenship to the inhabitants of Sicily.

Map Study.—See modern map for Switzerland, Jura Mountains, Lake of Geneva, province of Franche-Comté, duchy of Burgundy, province of Alsace, the Rhine, the Seine, the Marne, the Loire, the Pyrenees, Bonn, Coblentz, Auvergne. See map of the Roman Empire for Mesopotamia and the Parthian Empire. The Rubicon enters the Adriatic between Ariminium and Ravenna ; map at p. 86. See map at p. 94 for Brundusium, Pharsalia. See map at p. 92 for Thapsus, in Africa; Munda, in Spain.

CHRONOLOGY.

FROM THE DEATH OF CÆSAR TO THE ACCESSION OF AUGUSTUS.

The senate ratified the acts of Cæsar and pardoned his murderers. These, however, felt themselves insecure at Rome, and left the city. Marc Antony, the friend of Cæsar, and his colleague in the consulship, was for the moment the centre of popular devotion, and strove to be his successor. This place was contested by Octavian, the grand-nephew of Cæsar and his heir, but nineteen years of age. The rivalry grew into a civil war, then ended in compromise, by which the provinces of the West were divided between the rivals and a third member of the coalition, Lepidus.

Brutus and Cassius, heads of the conspiracy which slew Cæsar, were meantime raising troops in Greece, Macedonia, Asia Minor, and Syria. Their army was assembled near Philippi, in Macedonia. In two desperate battles, fought here within two

weeks, November, 42 B. C., Octavian and Antony triumphed. Brutus and Cassius committed suicide.

A new division of the Roman world was now made, by which Lepidus received Africa, Octavian the rest of the West, and Antony the East. In the society of Cleopatra the latter dissipated the treasures of his provinces, alienated confidence at Rome by assigning Eastern provinces to her children, and estranged Octavian, whose sister was his wife, by divorcing her. Meantime Octavian, by politic management and successful wars, had become sole master of the West Roman world, and once more the forces of East and West were turned against each other by Roman rivals.

The naval battle of Actium, on the Ambracian Gulf, B. C. 31, begins the history of the Empire. While the struggle was still doubtful, Cleopatra sailed from the scene of action followed by Antony. Both found death by suicide in Egypt, which became a Roman province, B. C. 30.

Map Study.—See map at p. 94 for Philippi and Actium.

CHRONOLOGY.

Philippi. ....B. C. 42
Actium.. .... " 31

THE EMPIRE OF AUGUSTUS.

Octavian assumed the name of Augustus, and became the first Emperor. The general of the army was called Imperator; by this title the Roman rulers now became known. In this one office were concentrated the various powers distributed, in the republic, to many officials. The powers of consul, tribune, censor, pontifex maximus, were united in it. The senate remained an important administrative and advising body. To its charge were also confided the provinces where legions were not required. Under the especial care of the Emperor were the provinces requiring military rule or defence.

The strength of the Imperial system lay partly in its open recognition of the fact that the army had become the controlling power in the Roman

state, and in placing the responsibility on the person who also controlled this power. Above all, it owed its strength to the fact that it came into existence as the representative of the progressive and liberal party, and of the policy of raising provincials to Roman equality. To carry out this policy was the task of the later empire. In spite of crimes and odious personal character in many cases, the Emperors were generally faithful to this trust.

During the reign of Augustus the Danube and Rhine were securely fixed as boundaries of the northern provinces. From the crook in the Danube at Regensburg (Ratisbon), however, the Roman line afterward lay north of this river, following in general the line of the Main to the Rhine.

Augustus.   Ancient Portrait-statue in the Vatican, at Rome.

Britain was acquired later, as were also provinces (Dacia) beyond the lower Danube, but the Empire did not pursue a policy of conquest or of territorial increase. The additions under Augustus were made to acquire and strengthen the necessary frontiers.

Map Study.—See map of modern Germany for the Rhine, the Danube, Regensburg or Ratisbon, the Main. See map of the Roman Empire for Britain, Dacia, and other Roman provinces.

TABLE OF ROMAN COUNTRIES IN REVERSE ORDER OF ACQUISITION.

(Not including Britain and Dacia, acquired after the Christian Era.)

Territories between the Alps and the Danube, in modern Austria and

Bavaria ; after	B. C.	9
Egypt ; after	"	30
Gaul ; after	"	50
Syria ; after	"	64
Asia Minor (important part); after	"	133
Macedonia and Greece ; after	"	146
Africa and Spain; after	"	200
Sicily ; after	"	240

TABLE OF ROMAN HISTORY BY CENTURIES.

CENTURY.	CIVILIZATION.	INTERNAL DEVEL-OPMENT.	AREA.	GOVERNMENT.	DATE. B. C.
8th				Kings.	
					700
7th	Etruscan influence on Civilization.		Latium.	Kings.	
					600
6th		Servian Con-stitution.	Latium.	Kings.	
					500
5th		Struggle of the Pa-tricians and Ple-beians.	Latium.	Republic.	
					400
4th			Latium.	Republic.	
					300
3d	Greek culture spreads over the West.	Rise of Italian allies to full Roman priv-ilege.	Italy.	Republic.	
					200
2d	Roman organism ex-tends to the East.		Western Med-iterranean. Eastern Med-iterranean.	Republic.	
					100
1st		Provincials rise to Roman privileges.	Syria. Gaul. Egypt. S. Austria and Bavaria.	Empire.	

ROMAN CHRONOLOGY OF ALL PERIODS BEFORE CHRIST.

City founded.. ....B. C. 750

Alba Longa conquered by Tullus Hostilius........................,........... "   650

Constitution of Servius Tullius................................. .....   "   550
Expulsion of the kings...   "   510

The Plebeians are conceded Popular Tribunes.... ....   "   495
Laws of the Twelve Tables......................................   "   451

Burning of Rome by the Gauls...................................   "   390
Samnite wars begin....................................... ....   "   343
Plebeians attain absolute political equality..................... ....   "   300

Samnite wars end ; conquest of Central Italy........................   "   290
War with Phyrrhus ends with the conquest of South Italy...........   "   275
Punic Wars begin..   "   263
Second Punic War ends..   "   201

Greece and Macedonia Roman provinces...........................   "   146
Pergamus deeded to Rome; Gracchic troubles......................   "   133
Jugurthine War begins............................. ....   "   111
Cimbric War ends...   "   101

Social War ends..   "   88
Third Mithridatic War ends......................................   "   64
Cæsar's conquest of Gaul completed...............................   "   50
Battle of Actium...   "   31

ROMAN LITERATURE AND ART.

Roman literature was an offshoot from the Greek, modified by the practical tendencies and peculiar genius of the adopters. Not till after the conquest of the Greek colonies of Southern Italy (war with Phyrrhus, B. C. 275) does Latin literature boast the names of any authors.

Plautus, dramatic author, flourished about B. C. 200.

Terence, dramatic author, flourished about B. C. 150.

The comedies of these writers are more or less original adaptations from the Greek, especially of Menander (Athenian dramatist of the Alexandrine time).

Cato the Censor, called Cato Major, died B. C. 149. His work, "De Re Rustica," is an interesting commentary on the agricul-

Horace.
(*From an Ancient Medal.*)

tural and domestic life of the Romans of the old school, fast decaying in his time.

The practical and political sense of the Romans made them especially distinguished in the field of history.

Sallust, about 50 B. C., wrote the history of the Jugurthine War and of Catiline's conspiracy.

Cæsar wrote commentaries on the Gallic and the civil wars.

Livy, in the times of Augustus, wrote a history of Rome in 145 books. Ten books covering the time down to 293, and fifteen books covering the time from 218 to 167, are preserved.

Cicero, about 50 B. C., in his orations and in his philosophical works (drawn from Greek sources) is a perfect master of Latin expression and construction.

Virgil, born near Mantua, flourished in the times of Augustus. He wrote the "Eclogues"—pastoral poems; the "Georgics," an agricultural poem; and the "Æneid," the celebrated Latin epic relating the fortunes of Æneas after his escape from the siege of Troy, his visit to Queen Dido of Carthage, and settlement in Latium. His works are all more or less dependent on Greek models and originals.

Horace, of Venusia, like Virgil, was a friend of Mæcénas, the famous patron of letters and intimate of Augustus. His works consist of odes, satires, and epistles.

Ovid, born at Sulmo, in the Sabine country, was a friend of Horace and favorite of Augustus till, for unknown reasons, he was banished to the shores of the Black Sea (Tomi, at the mouth of the Danube). The " Metamorphoses," mythological in subject, are his leading work.

Our conception of Roman civilization is derived from its literature and art. The generally Greek character of both in the time of the Empire is best understood by remembering that the first civilizing influences to which Rome was subjected came from the Samnites and Etruscans, who were both under Greek influence ; that the conquest of the Greek colonies of South Italy and Sicily heightened this influence, which became overpowering after the conquest, in the East, of Macedonia and Greece, of Grecianized Asia Minor, Grecianized Syria, and the important Greek Egyptian capital, Alexandria.
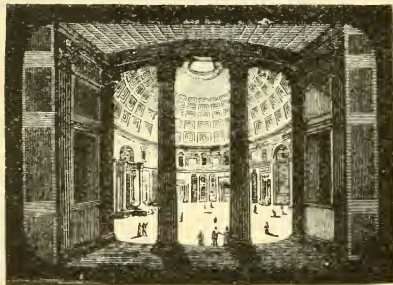
The Pantheon at Rome.*

The peculiar original force of the Roman was in law, in politics, and in organism. The Roman reorganized the East, already Grecianized by Alexander, and in organizing the West spread over it the Greek influences to which he was himself subject.

The Roman art has a distinct form of its own in portrait sculpture, which was intentionally avoided by the idealizing Greeks. In architecture the arch and dome, borrowed from the Etruscans, were developed in buildings of colossal and imposing massiveness, whose ornamental forms were, however, always Greek.

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON ROMAN HISTORY.

Without reference to the order of the book. (See suggestions as to use of questions at p. 69.)

FIRST LESSON FOR REVIEW.

What were the boundaries of the Roman Empire in the time of Augustus ? (See map for the Roman Empire.)

What countries were included in the Roman Empire in his time ? (P. 110.)

What countries were added later? (P. 110.)

* Built in the reign of Augustus as portion of the Baths of Agrippa, but after erection dedicated as a temple of the gods of the conquered nations.

Did the Empire pursue a policy of conquest?

What additions were made by Tiberius to the Empire in the time of Augustus? *Ans.* South Germany. (P. 110, 2d paragraph.)

What territory did Rome gain by conquests of Cæsar? (P. 106.)

What, by conquests of Pompey? (P. 96.)

In what year closed the Third Mithridatic War? (P. 96.)

Who was Roman general in the First Mithridatic War? (P. 101.)

Who was the rival general nominated in public concourse?

When did Marius and Sulla first become prominent?

What distinguished man was born in the year of the battle of Aquæ Sextiæ? (P. 101.)

What significance for Roman history has the Jugurthine War? (P. 99.)

Date it approximately? (P. 104.) How did this corruption come about? (Pp. 98, 99.)

What was the system of government in an ancient republic? (P. 98.)

Why did government by concourse fail in the Greek states? (Pp. 53, 98.)

What policy secured the Roman state from parallel disaster? (P. 84.)

But what influence on government by concourse had the policy of extending the Roman rights to conquered peoples? (P. 98.)

When did the number of Roman citizens begin to augment rapidly? *Ans.* After the Samnite Wars?

SECOND LESSON FOR REVIEW.

When did the Samnite Wars begin? (P. 86.)

When did they end?

What central date of Greek history falls within their extreme dates? (P. 86.)

What additions of territory did they secure? (P. 86.)

What was the extent of Roman territory before the Samnite Wars? (P. 81.)

What fact exhibits the small area of the Roman state in the 5th century B. C.? (P. 81.)

What addition of territory was next secured after the Samnite Wars? (P. 87.)

When was Sicily acquired? (P. 91.)

What increase of the state came next?

What was the extent of Roman power about 200 B. C.? (P. 94.)

Give, in the order of time, dates of acquisition of territory in the Eastern Mediterranean? (P. 97.)

What period was destined to give Roman rights to the provinces? (P. 97.)

Who admitted Gauls and Spaniards to the Roman senate? (P. 107.)

After what war were Roman rights given to all Italian freemen? (P. 100.)

How long before the Samnite Wars did the monarchy give way to the republic?

What political contest began as soon as monarchy was overthrown? (P. 81.)

When did this contest end? (P. 81)

How does the date of beginning territorial expansion relate to the date for the end of this contest? (Pp. 81, 86.)

THIRD LESSON FOR REVIEW.

What Macedonian kings were reigning in the time of the Samnite Wars? (Pp. 57, 58.)

How far distant is the date for the battle of Chæronea from the date for the beginning of the Samnite Wars?

Who was expelled from Athens when the last Roman king was driven from his throne in B. C. 510? (P. 43.)

How long had the Roman republic existed when the Ionic revolt began? (P. 44.)

What Roman king first enrolled the plebeians in the service of the state? (P. 78.)

In what century?

In what century lived Solon? (P. 42.)

When did Alba Longa yield to Rome the precedence in Latium? (P. 77.)

How long was this after the time of Nebuchadnezzar? (P. 20.)

How long before Cyrus? (P. 20.)

How long after the foundation of Rome?

How long before this foundation ended the old empire of Egypt? the empire of Chaldæa?

How long before Rome was Carthage founded?

How long after Rome's foundation did Carthage continue mistress of the Western Mediterranean? (P. 93.)

What was the character of Phœnician rule? (P. 90.)

Why did the rise of Rome menace the existence of Carthage? (P. 90.)

FOURTH LESSON FOR REVIEW.

What civilized nations were there in Italy before Rome was founded? (P. 75.)

What was the character of this civilization?

When did the Greek colonies of South Italy become Roman?

After what date did the Grecianized countries of the Eastern Mediterranean become Roman?

At what time does a Roman literature begin to appear? (P. 113.)

Whence did it draw much material and inspiration?

What was the character of the Roman art? (P. 114.)

What was the peculiar genius of the Roman as opposed to that of the Greek? (Pp. 85, 114.)

How long did Roman rule continue in the West after the Christian era? (P. 75.)

How long in the East?

ROME

The white spot is enlarged on 44
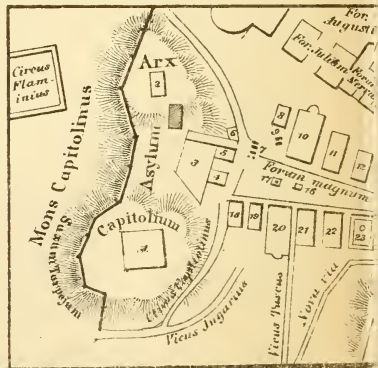
Progressive Map
THE ROMAN ASCENDENCY
during the first Century A.D.

The Roman Empire is colored
yellow

Nicopolis

Padovia

Armenia

Assyria

Mesopotamia

Antioch

Tigris R.

Euphrates R.

Seleucia

Ctesiphon

Jerusalem

The Parthian Empire

Indus R.

42

The capitoline hill and the fora
during the first century A.D.
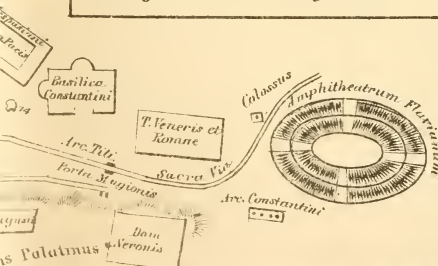
Explanation of the numbers on Map 42

1	Temple of Jupiter	14 Aedes Penatium
2	" Juno	15 Aedes Julii
3	Aerarium	16 Domitian's horse
4	Temple of Saturn	17 The column of Phocas
5	" Concord	18 T. of Vespasian
6	Tullianum	19 Graecostasis
7	The arch of Severus	20 Julia's basilica
8	The Senate Hall	21 Aedes Castoris
9	Temple of Janus	22 T. of Minerva
10	Fabian basilica	23 Aedes Vestae
11	Porcian basilica	24 Regia
12	Temple of felicity	25 Fabian's gate
13	" " Faustina	

Basilica Constantini

T. Veneris et Romae

Arc. Titi.

Porta Mugionis

Colossus

Amphitheatrum Flavianum

Sacra Via

Arc. Constantini

Dom Neronis

Palatinus

BOOK II.

MODERN HISTORY.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE AFTER THE CHRISTIAN
ERA, AND THE CONTINENTAL STATES OF
WESTERN EUROPE DOWN TO THE PRESENT
TIME.

THE

ROMAN EMPIRE

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

The birth of our Saviour, during the reign of Augustus, in the Roman province of Syria, divides the ancient from the modern world. In the narrower use of the word "modern" it relates, however, to the period after 1500 A. D., when the modern states of Europe had come to have in general the boundaries and divisions of the present time. The progress of the Christian faith, although bitterly opposed by pagan Rome, was especially rapid and general within the limits of the Empire, in whose boundaries were combined all the countries of the civilized world. The facilities of intercourse established by the inner peace of the Empire, and the use of Latin and Greek as languages of general intercourse assisted this progress. But the first three centuries of Christianity were a period of spiritual transformation marked in written history mainly by the persecutions which it provoked. Some notice of the early Fathers of the Church is reserved for a future section. The political history of the Roman state under Augustus and his successors is continued in the next.

EMPERORS OF THE FIRST CENTURY.

Augustus...... ....B. C. 37—A. D. 14
Tiberius..... ....A. D. 14— " 37
Caligula... " 37— " 41
Claudius..................... .... " 41— " 54

Augustus was a man of deep character and subtle nature, cruel in the attainment and humane in the exercise of power. " He
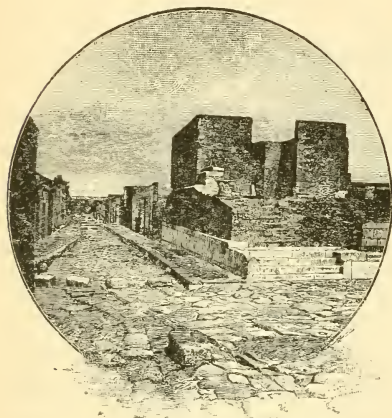
studiously veiled his supremacy under the old republican forms, kept the people amused, carried on wars only to defend existing frontiers, promoted agriculture, literature, and the arts, and made immense improvements in the city of Rome." His period was that of Livy the historian, and of the poets Virgil, Horace, and Ovid, already mentioned.

Of his four immediate successors—Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero—his-

A Street in Pompeii.

tory relates little that is edifying. Their united reigns reach from A. D. 14 to A. D. 68. The character of Claudius alone, in its apparent weakness, contrasts favorably with the cruelties of the others. This emperor was distinguished also by his zeal for public works. Tiberius is represented by the Roman historians as a sanguinary tyrant, but it is certain that he was well regarded by the provinces for strict and just administration. To the infamy of Nero's private character is added the odium attaching to his persecution of the Christians—the first general persecution.

During the persecution under Nero, St. Paul was arrested and brought before his tribunal. His eloquence saved him from the " fury of the

lions," but he was sent to prison.   St. Peter was still, however, at liberty, and wont to celebrate the divine mysteries in the house of a Christian named Pudens. This has been regarded as the first church in Rome. The conversion by St. Peter of a woman of Nero's household aroused the anger of the tyrant, and he was thrown into prison. Both St. Peter and St. Paul were now condemned to capital punishment. St. Peter was crucified head downward and buried on the spot now covered by the palace of the Vatican and the church of St. Peter. On the same day St. Paul was beheaded a short distance from the site of the later Basilica, "St. Paul's outside the walls" (p. 137). The pontificate of St. Peter lasted thirty-three years, of which twenty-five were spent at Rome. The following Popes, until the beginning of the 4th century, were, like him, nearly all martyrs. (*Abbé Darras is the authority followed.*)

In 68, Nero was driven from the throne and took his own life, to escape the conspirators who were pursuing him. A year of confusion followed in which three emperors, chosen by the soldiers, quickly succeeded one another—**Galba, Otho, Vitellius**.

Vespasian, 69—79, also elected by the legions, re-established order. In his reign was erected the wonderful amphitheatre, still standing, partially ruined, in Rome, known as the Colosseum. It covers five acres of ground and seated 80,000 spectators.

Titus. From an ancient bust in the Naples Museum.

In the time of Nero the Jews of Palestine had revolted against the Roman rule. Vespasian had been the general appointed to subdue them. This task was transferred, after his accession, to his son Titus. Jerusalem was besieged and destroyed. This destruction is commemorated by the

6

Arch of Titus, still standing in Rome. A sculptured relief on the side of the arch represents the Roman soldiers bearing off the seven-branched candlestick taken from the Jewish temple.

Titus succeeded his father. His reign was short, but well conducted. Its leading event was the destruction, by volcanic eruptions from Vesuvius, of the towns of **Herculaneum** and **Pompeii**. The former town, destroyed by lava, has offered great difficulties to excavation. Pompeii, covered only with ashes, whose removal is still in progress, affords a perfect picture of the domestic life of antiquity ; of its private dwellings, their furniture, utensils, and decorative wall paintings. All objects from Pompeii are kept in the museum of Naples.

Domitian, brother of Titus, succeeded him. His character was cruel and gloomy, but the officials were noted under his strict government for incorruptibility. The conquest of Britain, begun under Claudius, was completed in his reign. Three columns of a temple built by Domitian are still standing on the Roman Forum. To the reign of Domitian and the period following belongs the historian Tacitus. The naturalist Pliny belongs to the times of Vespasian and Titus; the philosopher Seneca to the reign of Nero. The emperor was assassinated by his own wife, who headed a conspiracy against him.

The Senate then elected Nerva, who reigned two years and adopted Trajan as his successor. Ruins of part of the Forum built by Nerva are still standing.

EMPERORS OF THE SECOND CENTURY.

Trajan............ ....A. D. 98—A. D. 117
Hadrian..... .. .. "   117— "   138
Antoninus Pius............. .... "   138— "   161
Marcus Aurelius............................. ... . "   161— "   180
Commodus .... "   180— "   192
Pertinax, Didius Julianus.............................. "   192— "   193

The system of adoption, begun by Nerva, gave four excellent

rulers to the empire—Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius. Their reigns lasted together eighty-two years—the Golden Age of the empire.

Trajan added to the Roman territory a province beyond the Danube—Dacia; part of Southern Hungary and Roumania. The

The Column of Trajan and Ruins of his Basilica, or Business Exchange.

modern Roumanians boast of their descent from the soldier colonists of this emperor. The Column of Trajan still stands in Rome to commemorate his Dacian victories. Trajan also made conquests in the Tigris-Euphrates valley (from the Parthians) of Mesopotamia and Babylonia. These were abandoned by Hadrian.

The reign of Hadrian was one of constant travel and personal administrative care in all parts of the empire. The ruins of his fortified wall in Britain, built to protect the Roman British from the inroads of the barbarian Picts and Scots of the Highlands, are still to be seen. The gigantic tomb of Hadrian has become a Papal fortress—the Castle of St. Angelo (p. 75).

Antoninus Pius enjoyed a long and peaceful reign. He was a ruler of mild character and great ability.

Marcus Aurelius, 161–180, a man of philosophic taste and benevolent disposition, succeeded him. In his time the wars with German tribes beyond the Danube, in modern Bohemia and Moravia, began to assume an alarming aspect.

Under Commodus, the son and successor of Marcus Aurelius, these wars continued. Commodus was obliged to purchase a dishonorable peace. He was at once cruel and incapable.

EMPERORS OF THE THIRD CENTURY.

From the time of the assassination of Commodus dates an entire century of more or less disorder and military license. Since the foundation of

the empire the emperor had been the commander of the army. The system of government was one which made the commander of the army also ruler of the state. During the constant barbarian attacks on the frontiers, which continued all through the 3d century, able generals were an absolute necessity. By a stern law of self-preservation, an incapable general had to be displaced. But an emperor could only be overthrown by violence, and since there was no power in the state above that of the commanding general, the soldiers became, in the 3d century, the judges and creators of the emperors. Often they were overthrown by conspiracies of discontent caused by strict discipline; at other times they were overthrown for incompetence. In ninety-five years following the death of Commodus there were twenty-seven emperors. Only the leading names among these need be mentioned.

Septimius Severus was a stern and successful ruler. His triumphal arch still stands in the Roman Forum. In his time lived the most famous lights of legal science—Papinian, Paulus, and Ulpian.

Caracalla was son and successor of this emperor. The ruins of his famous baths are an astounding evidence of the perfection of material civilization under the empire. The character of Caracalla was bad, and his edict giving the rights of citizenship to all freemen of the empire is attributed to mercenary motives—to the design of increasing the revenue by increasing the number of taxable persons. It was, notwithstanding, the final and crowning step of the process by which the Roman empire carried political equality and equal rights to all the nations it had conquered. After the short reign of Macrinus comes the name of Heliogabalus, the most infamous in personal character of all the emperors. His cousin, Alexander Severus, was a mild and worthy ruler.

A time of terrible confusion followed the death of Alexander Severus. Barbarian attacks and a succession of emperors, often assassinated by the soldiers, continue until Aurelian, 270–275. Meantime the reign of Decius, about 250, is distinguished by the most terrible Christian persecution yet experienced. Its persistence and atrocity are a testimony to the constantly increasing numbers of the Christians.

The reign of Aurelian is distinguished by his expedition against Palmyra, the famous city and state of Queen Zenobia, lying east of Damascus, in an oasis of the Syrian desert. Zenobia was carried prisoner to Rome. Palmyra was destroyed. Its ruins are still highly remarkable. Another series of short reigns, with violent ends in general, intervenes before Diocletian, 284–305.

With Diocletian begins a change of system which stopped the violence and disorders of the century preceding. His expedient was the multiplication of contemporaneous emperors, dividing the government. This was a means of confronting the barbarian attacks on different frontiers, at one and the same time, with generals in supreme command. It also diminished the chances of successful conspiracies, which could not well be carried out in far distant places at the same time.

Roman Ruins, Balbek, Syria.

Under this emperor took place the tenth general persecution, but this was finally stopped by imperial order. Notwithstanding the hostility of Diocletian to Christianity, a contemporary Pope, Eutychian, was his relation. One emperor of the 3d century, Philip, had been a Christian, although not publicly avowed. Alexander Severus had so far favored Christianity as to keep the statue of Christ in his palace.

GENERAL REVIEW OF THE EMPIRE DURING THE FIRST THREE CENTURIES AFTER CHRIST.

Map Study, p. 116.—The Roman provinces were: Syria; Asia Minor; Thrace; Macedonia; Dacia; Greece; Eastern and Central Europe south of the Danube, including the parts of modern Austria and Germany south of that river; Switzerland and Germany east of the Rhine; Britain; France; Belgium; Spain; North Africa; Egypt; and Italy. These designations of provinces are for the countries in general, without reference to the Roman local divisions. For instance, "Syria" implies Judæa, etc. The dates of the book for the acquisi-

tion of these provinces, as given in earlier sections, are fixed for the beginnings of the actual ascendency, which was sometimes earlier than the legal acquisition.

The boundaries were : On the south—the African Desert of Sahara ; on the west—the Atlantic Ocean ; on the east—the Arabian Desert, the mountains of Armenia ; on the north— the Black Sea, the Carpathians, the Danube, and the Rhine.

By the political union of all these countries a homogeneous civilization was diffused around the Mediterranean basin. The boundaries of civilization corresponded in general with the boundaries of the Roman empire. The empire was not only a change of government from the earlier republican form, it was a change of policy in the treatment of the provincials. It was the substitution of the power of a single ruler for life, whose mission was the suppression of extortion and the preservation of public order, for the power of a constantly changing body of extortionate officials whose short terms of office were an incentive to corruption and oppression. But a system which is beneficial on the whole, may often be administered by bad men. The characters of many emperors are disfigured in their private lives by horrible crimes. They do not, however, appear like the despots of Eastern nations, who often systematically crush their subjects and rob them of their property.

The word Roman, used of the times of the empire, does not indicate distinction of nationality. The Roman building in Syria may have been made by a Gaul, or the Roman building in France by a Syrian, just as a Roman building in Rome may have been made by an architect from Asia Minor. The word Roman, referring to the times of the empire, means a person of whatever nation having the protection of Roman law, whose country was defended by soldiers having Roman pay and directed by a general who received orders from the emperor ; or it refers to objects having a common style and character, wherever found within the borders of the empire.

This cosmopolitan character of the Roman empire is indicated in the birthplaces of the emperors. Constantine the Great, soon to be mentioned, was born at York, in England ; Diocletian was a Dalmatian ; Probus and Aurelian were Illyrians ; Macrinus was a Moor ; Maximin, a Thracian ; Philip, an Arab ; Heliogabalus and Alexander Severus were Syrians ; Caracalla and Septimius Severus were African Phœnicians ; Marcus Aurelius was a Spaniard ; Antoninus Pius was a Gaul : Hadrian and Trajan were Spaniards ; Nerva was a Cretan ; Domitian, Titus, and Vespasian were Italian, but not of Roman blood—leaving, as distinctively Roman emperors by blood, only the first five. So, for instance, the Apostle St. Paul from Tarsus, in Asia Minor, was a citizen of Rome. The Latin poet Ennius, the father of Latin literature, was a Greek ; the Latin poet Plautus was an African ; the Latin poet Terence was a Spaniard. Mæcenas, the patron of Latin literature of the Augustan age, was an Etruscan ; the poet Martial and the philosopher Seneca were Spaniards. In the 1st century A. D., soon after the time of Cicero, the leading school of Latin eloquence at Rome was taught by Spaniards. In the 2d century A. D., the most famous Latin writers were from France and Africa. The leading school of Roman jurisprudence was Beyrout, in Syria. Papinian and Ulpian, among the most famous of the Roman lawyers of the empire, were Syrian Phœnicians.

The liberal tendency of Roman political development had shown itself in the old republic, when the plebeians, mostly emigrants to Rome, were admitted gradually to the rights of the original settlers (patricians). The process accomplished in the original republic, was then repeated on a larger scale for all Italy. The wonderful permanence of Roman conquests in Italy is known to have been secured by admitting the conquered populations to full or limited rights of Roman citizenship. The process went on under the empire until the edict of Caracalla making all freemen citizens. All nationalities had meantime been allowed represen-

tation in the senate except native Egyptians. Caracalla also removed this last restriction. There was still a development of this tendency left for the Christian Roman time—namely, the manumission of the slaves.

It will naturally be understood that these cosmopolite tendencies met with constant opposition on the part of certain Romans. This was especially the case in the early days of the empire—the times of Augustus, Tiberius, Claudius, Caligula, and Nero—when the aristocratic party of native Romans saw themselves supplanted by the provincials. This aristocratic party of resistance to equal rights naturally found sympathizing support from men of letters, who were shocked by the relative barbarism of the new provincial Roman citizens. The emperors represented the policy of enfranchisement for the provinces, and were bitterly attacked by the historians of the time. Their characters were blackened in many cases unjustly. The undeniably atrocious cruelties practised by some of the early emperors were generally provoked by the assassin policy of the reactionary party, which murdered Cæsar, the father of the provinces, and continued to threaten his successors with his fate.

Civilization of the Empire.—By what has been said of the political greatness of pagan Rome, we are not to underrate the undeniable corruption of civilization in the period of the empire. This was admitted by the time itself. But the noblest spirits among the pagans—for instance, the Emperor Marcus Aurelius—were least inclined to the teaching of Christ, by which alone morality could be redeemed. All learned Christian writers admit the nobility of spirit and high conception of duty often found in pagan authors, but it is also agreed that the best period of antiquity lies far back of the empire, in the time of the Greek republics before Alexander, or of the Roman republic before 200 B. C. The pagan cultivation of the empire was only an afterglow, without lasting warmth or brightness. This being understood, it is important, before passing to events which introduced a new period of history, to rate at its full worth the Imperial material civilization. For this, by various channels, has become the property of modern times.

The countries of the empire were relatively weak in pure and vigorous art, and the literature shows less and less spontaneous power. But in luxuries, comforts, and inventions the time will compare favorably with our own.

Facilities for Travel.—Vessels sailed from Messina to Alexandria in six and a half days; steamers now require six days for this distance. Travel on land was not conducted with the celerity of steam, but it was more expeditious than it has ever been since until 1830. In many countries the state of roads and bridges was better than it has ever been since—viz., in Greece, countries of later European Turkey, Asia Minor, Syria, North Africa, Spain. In England, France, Italy, and South Germany, roads and bridges were better than they have ever been since until 1800.

Baths.—Hundreds of cities were then more bountifully supplied with water than modern London, the present metropolis of the world. The city of Rome, in our own time, is the most plentifully supplied with water of any in Europe, and it depends on three only of its ancient fourteen aqueducts (p. 97). All provincial cities of importance boasted splendid public baths. Those built by Caracalla accommodated sixteen thousand bathers, and contained also, like several other similar structures in Rome, lecture-rooms, libraries, gymnasiums, art museums, public club rooms, etc., all free of charge. There were at least five other bath structures little inferior to those of Caracalla.

Arts and Sciences.—Houses in Rome were built six stories high. Hackney coaches were used. The masonry work, plaster, cement, brick, and paints of the Roman time were far superior to our own. The arts of sculpture and of architecture existed in much higher perfection

than with us. Astronomers and geographers taught the rotundity of the earth. Its motion round the sun had also been discovered in Alexandria, the diameter of the earth had been measured there, and the distances of the fixed stars had been approximately indicated in the 3d century B. C. (p. 68), but this knowledge was gradually lost in the time of the empire. The study of medicine was cultivated, and an anatomist of the 2d century A. D. pointed out some of the more minute differences between the structure of the ape and the human being.

The prosperity of some countries was far greater than now—for instance of Syria, North Africa, Egypt, and Spain. Spain supported forty millions of people ; it now supports eight millions. In the comforts and luxuries of living the period of the empire was not surpassed, if it was equaled, by our own. We were also outdone in the matter of colossal fortunes and the extravagant displays of wealth.

Social and Moral Corruption.—A disgraceful stain on the time was its pleasure in the shows of the gladiators. These were frowned upon by many of the emperors, but in vain. Christianity alone could combat with the decay of Paganism, and the shows of the arena were abolished by a Christian monk. Social and moral corruption were then compatible, as they are now, with enormous material prosperity, with a high development of science, and with many wonderful inventions. (In 406 the monk Telemachus forced his way into the arena and threw himself between the contending gladiators. He was instantly killed, but the horror of the populace at his martyrdom led to the abolition of the games.)

DISTRIBUTION OF RACES IN THE TIMES OF THE EMPIRE.

Europe and the Mediterranean countries were mainly peopled at the beginning of the Christian Era by the races of our own time, but their distribution was not entirely the same as now. The race from which Bohemians, Poles, and Russians are descended (the Slavonic race, p. 31) was then, as now, located in Eastern Europe ; but the Laps and Finns were pushed down much farther in the North-east, and the Germans were spread farther to the East than at present. Bohemia had not yet been occupied by the Bohemian Slavonians ; the Hungarians had not yet come into Europe. The Turks were also unknown to Europe.

The countries comprised in modern Turkey made up the eastern half of the Roman Empire, and, as has been explained in Greek History, had been conquered by Macedonian Greeks under Alexander the Great. The population here was mixed—Thracians, between Macedonia and the Hellespont ; Greeks on both sides of the Ægean and around the Black Sea; Armenians, Galatians, and other minor native populations in Asia Minor, were all Grecianized in culture and mixed with Greek blood. The Syrians, Phœnicians, and Hebrews in Syria were Grecianized and mixed with Greeks. The native population in Egypt was not mixed, but the rich and populous capital Alexandria was Greek (with a large Hebrew colony). The populations mentioned, as far as within the Roman boundaries, all come under the explanations previously given of the Roman civilization and Roman citizenship.

The German tribes, uncivilized by Rome (there were Romanized Germans, south of the Danube and west of the Rhine), pressed against the Rhine and Danube. The inhabitants of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark were Germanic and barbarian.

France and Belgium were mainly peopled by the race which still remains there, i. e., by Romanized Gauls or Celts. The Romanized British belonged to the same Celtic stock, and so also the Irish and Highland Scotch tribes ; both the latter beyond Roman rule. Spain was peopled by Romanized Celto-Iberians (p. 31). In modern Spain the Iberian blood is

thought to appear only in and near the Pyrenees (the Basques). There was also Phœnician blood (from Syria by way of Carthage) on the coasts of Southern and Eastern Spain.

In France and Spain there had settled a large number of Italian and Roman colonists. This holds also of Northern Africa, where there were also Romanized Berbers or Moors ; Romanized Libyans and Romanized Phœnicians, the latter originally from Syria.

These details of race are rather perplexing, and they may be used for reference rather than study. It is important mainly to understand that within the limits of the empire Latin and Greek supplanted the earlier dialects and languages. In spoken use Latin was general for the West and Greek was general for the East, but both languages were understood by all men of letters and by educated persons. All races within the limits of the empire were amalgamated by commercial intercourse, by intermarriage, and by community of Greek civilization. As far as Europe was concerned, it may be divided into two parts, civilized and uncivilized. The Rhine and Danube form the dividing line. The uncivilized division is divided again into Germanic (West) and Slavonic (East). *For foregoing matter compare a map of modern Europe with map at p. 116.*

FATHERS OF THE CHURCH DURING THE FIRST THREE CENTURIES.

St. Ignatius, Bishop of Antioch, suffered martyrdom under Trajan.

St. Polycarp, Bishop of Smyrna, suffered martyrdom under Marcus Aurelius. He was a disciple of St. John the Evangelist.

St. Irenæus, Bishop of Lyons, was disciple of St. Polycarp and author of a celebrated Treatise against Heresies. The chief source from which St. Irenæus draws his proofs is tradition, of which he shows the existence, the character and sacred authority in the Church. The argument of tradition had a peculiar force under the pen of a writer who counted between the Apostles and himself no other intermediary than the famous Bishop of Smyrna.

St. Justin was born at Neapolis, in Palestine, of a family of pagan colonists established by Vespasian. Originally a pagan philosopher, he was converted during the last years of the reign of Hadrian. He was the first to open a Catholic school, where he moulded the minds of his pupils in the faith. His first publication, entitled " Exhortation to the Greeks," was written to dissipate the prejudices of the pagans against Christianity. This work was a prelude to his first " Apology," which is supposed to have influenced Antoninus Pius to his toleration of the Christians. His second " Apology," addressed to Marcus Aurelius, was soon followed by martyrdom.

Clement of Alexandria flourished at the close of the 2d century. A convert from pagan philosophy, he became a fervent neophyte ; later, a zealous priest and indefatigable apostle. In the three books of the " Pedagogue " and in the eight " Stromata," the two most important of his works still extant, he constantly places religion at the summit of science by proving the excellence of its dogmas and their harmony with sound reason.

Tertullian was born at Carthage, 160. He studied all the sciences, and succeeded in all of them. Although a pagan by birth and prejudices, he could not resist the profound impression made on his soul by the invincible constancy of the martyrs. He embraced the faith of Jesus Christ, became a priest, and soon after addressed to the magistrates of the Roman empire the most eloquent " Apology " which had yet been written. The " African Bossuet,"

nothing would be wanting to his glory if he had always made humility the safeguard of his genius.

Origen was for a time the intimate and instructor of Alexander Severus. His great work was a version of the Scriptures, collating and placing side by side the various texts. In his Commentaries some erroneous doctrines are found ; but his virtue, his love of poverty, his
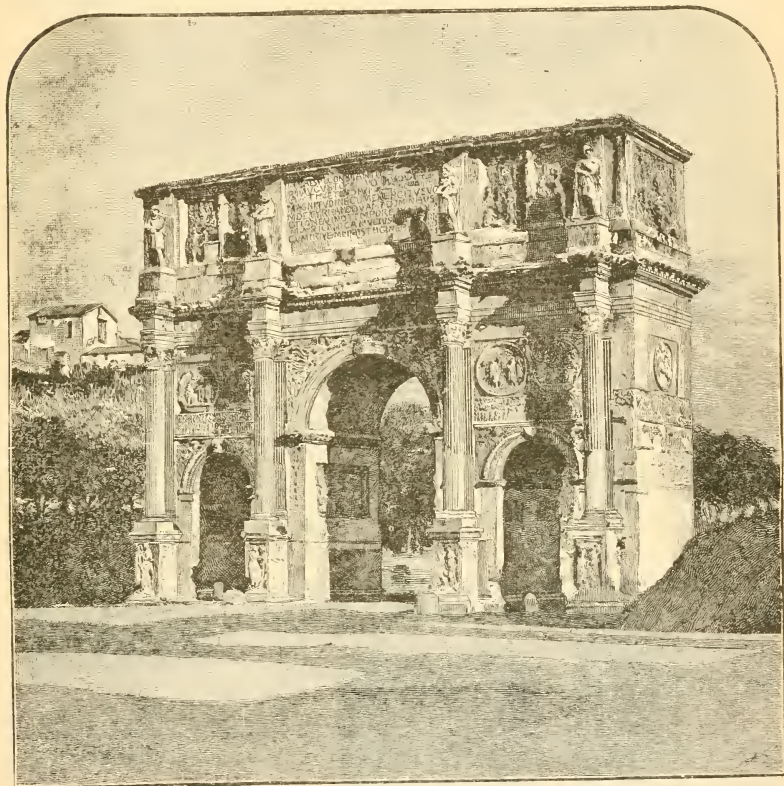
The Arch of Constantine at Rome.

humility, the courage with which he confessed the faith, his immense labors, can never be doubted by any one. Most of his life was spent at Alexandria. His period is the first half of the 3d century.

St. Cyprian was Bishop of Carthage in the 3d century. He suffered martyrdom under the Emperor Valerian, 258.

St. Laurence, archdeacon of Rome, died in the same persecution (the eighth). He was roasted on a large gridiron, which thus becomes his emblem in Christian art.

St. Sebastian, a captain of the Prætorian guards, was martyred by Diocletian. He is represented by the Christian artists as transfixed with arrows. This was his martyrdom.

St. Anthony lived to witness the triumph of the Church under Constantine. He was born in Egypt of noble and wealthy parentage, but became an anchorite of the desert. *The foregoing section is condensed from Abbé Darras' " History of the Church."*

EMPERORS OF THE FOURTH CENTURY.

The Roman Empire in its Christian Period.—In 306 began the reign of Constantine the Great, at first with coadjutors, with whom conflicts soon broke out. The victory at the Milvian Bridge, near Rome, over his rival Maxentius, in 312, was followed by an edict granting toleration and State recognition to the Christians.

" Shortly before this battle, as Constantine was marching at the head of his troops, a brilliant cross of light formed itself in the midst of the sky, in the direction of the sun. On

this miraculous cross appeared in letters of fire these words: " In hoc signo vinces." The apparition of this prodigy, which was seen by the whole army, deeply moved Constantine, who long years afterwards related it to Eusebius, Bishop of Cæsarea. All that day he was preoccupied with this marvellous vision. The night following the same cross appeared to him anew. The next day, at the side of the Roman eagles, a banner of a

Roman Coin of the 4th Century, with the Christian Monogram, Ch. R.

form hitherto unknown was remarked. It was a long staff of gilded wood, bearing near the top a transverse beam, forming a cross. from the arms of which floated a banner of cloth of gold and jewels. Above it sparkled a crown of gold and precious stones, in the midst of which

was the monogram of Christ, formed of the two Greek initials of this name. This monogram and the image of the cross were also placed on the casques of the soldiers. Such was the famous "Labarum," and in this manner the cross, reserved until then as an infamous gibbet for the vilest criminals, after three centuries of outrages, incredulity and persecutions, triumphed over the world and became the standard of the Roman legions."— (ABBÉ DARRAS.)

The co-regent and remaining rival of Constantine, Licinius, ruler in the East, continued to oppress the Christians. A war was the consequence, by which Licinius was overthrown, and in 324 Constantine became sole ruler of the Roman world.

In 325 was held the famous Church Council of Nice (or Nicæa), by which the heresy of Arius, denying the divinity of Christ, was condemned.

In 330 the seat of government was removed from Rome to Constantinople, whose older name of Byzantium was changed to honor the emperor.

This removal of the capital was prompted by reasons connected with the defence of the Eastern frontiers. After 226 A. D., the new Persian Empire of the Sassanids replaced the Parthians in the Tigris-Euphrates valley. (For the Parthians, see p. 61.) Ever since the rise of this new Persian empire, which made itself strong by copying the arts and military science of the Romans, the emperors had been involved in constant wars on the Euphrates. By placing the capital at Constantinople the seat of government was moved as far as possible toward the East, without being farther removed from the camps of the Danube and Rhine frontier than before. In the century before Constantine, the most vigorous and numerous of all German tribes, the Goths, had moved down from Scandinavia and were threatening the lower Danube, and this was an additional reason for centering the forces of government at Constantinople.

It is manifest that these military considerations would not suggest a removal of the spiritual supremacy of the Roman Popes from its first home, nor did Constantine attempt this. On the contrary, he made the See of Rome more powerful than before.

Constantine, **dying in 337**, was followed by his three sons,

Constantinus, Constantius, and Constans. Their reigns lasted from 337 to 361.

Julian the Apostate, 361–363, represented the expiring effort of Paganism to retrieve itself, but even the effort of an absolute emperor made not the slightest impression.

Theodosius the Great, 379–395, closed the Pagan temples and made their worship illegal. Those events of his reign, and of that of his predecessor Valens, which belong to the German invasions, are related in the German history.

The century of Constantine the Great is one of the most important in the history of Christianity. For no sooner was the conversion of the empire in general accomplished than that of the German tribes (foremost the Goths) began. A Gothic bishop was present at the Council of Nice in 325. The translation of the Bible by the German (Gothic) Bishop Ulfilas, praised for its fidelity by St. Jerome, is the oldest literary monument of Germanic language (4th century). He omitted the Books of the Kings, lest their warlike spirit should influence the savage minds of the Gothic warriors. Hand in hand with the Christianizing process went on the Romanizing, that is, the civilizing process. But the Arian heresy was also spread far and wide among the Romanized Germans by its apostles.

In 395 Theodosius the Great died. His sons, Arcadius and Honorius, divided the empire between them. Arcadius took the Eastern division, Honorius the Western. This division was not intended to be permanent. It was made for convenience of government in times when military commanders with imperial powers were absolutely needed in more than one place. Such divisions were first made by Diocletian ; they had been habitual since. But this one is emphasized by history because, almost immediately after, the Western division of the empire was overrun by the German tribes.

The 5th century is the time of the German invasions and of the overthrow of Roman temporal authority in the West. The account of these events of the 5th century will be given in connection with the German tribes which took part in them.

Byzantine or East-Rome.—The temporal empire of Rome in Eastern Europe continued a thousand years beyond the 5th century, till 1453, when the last of the Roman emperors fell, fighting bravely in the breach of the city walls over which the Turks were pouring to the sack of Constantinople. A glance at a modern map of Europe will exhibit the approximate correspondence of area between modern Turkey and the provinces of the Roman Empire after the 5th century A. D. (Compare map at p. 140.) This Roman Empire of the East is known, however, in gen-

Mosaic Portrait of Justinian, at Ravenna.

eral usage as the Byzantine Empire. Byzantium was the older name of the city, re-named by Constantine, Constantinople ; hence this adjective.

After the Emperor Justinian (6th century), famous for his great codification of the Roman Law, the *Corpus Juris*, which is still the great authority for legal students ; the written history of Eastern Rome is studied only by specialists. But the unwritten history of that slow process by which the civilization of the old world, partially buried in the West under the ruins of

The Church of St. Sophia at Constantinople. Built by Justinian. A Turkish Mosque since 1453.

the German invasions, filtered back into Europe by Italian com-

merce, is not to be estimated from the pages of books. At the moment when this process was completed, the Turks drove the surviving representatives of ancient culture into Italy, 1453, where they assisted in the Revival of Learning, and aided the culture of the Renaissance.

The Byzantine world exercised an important influence on North-eastern Europe. Its most important corps of soldiery was recruited from the Northmen of Scandinavia. The Northmen who in the 9th century founded the state which grew into the modern Russia, were therefore in more or less intimate relation with Constantinople, though often also at war with its emperors, and in the 11th century they adopted the Byzantine Greek Christianity. After 1453 the Russians regarded themselves as the heirs of East-Rome, and have waged many wars with the Turks in consequence.

FATHERS OF THE CHURCH IN THE FOURTH AND FIFTH CENTURIES.

The accession of Pope St. Sylvester I., took place one year after the edict of Constantine recognizing Christianity. His epoch is also that of Lactantius, Athanasius, and Eusebius of Cæsarea.

Lactantius professed rhetoric at Nicomedia, in Asia Minor, and was summoned by Constantine to preside over the education of his eldest son. He has been called the Christian Cicero. His most celebrated work is that on the death of the Christian persecutors.

Eusebius, Bishop of Cæsarea, was an indefatigable historian, and rendered an eminent service in preserving to history, by his "Chronicle," the precious monuments of the primitive Church. His conduct in the great question of Arianism was not exempt from reproach. The teaching of Arius, a priest of Alexandria, tended to deny the divinity of Christ. His great opponent was St. Athanasius. This heresy was the cause of the Council of Nice, 325, from which dates the Nicene Creed.

St. Athanasius was made Bishop of Alexandria in 326. For nearly half a century he sustained with unshaken fidelity, through all changes of outward fortune, the part he had chosen of champion of the Catholic doctrine.

St. Gregory of Nazianzus was born 316. He became Bishop of Constantinople in the time of Theodosius, and was renowned for his eloquence. He closed his long career of saint, doctor, bishop, and hermit in 398. At Athens, whither St. Gregory had resorted for study, he had met St. Basil, from that time his fast friend.

St. Basil, 317-379, was born at Cæsarea in Cappadocia, of which place he became Bishop. His Greek style is so pure that Erasmus did not hesitate to compare it to that of the old Greek orators, even to Demosthenes himself.

St. Cyril, native and Bishop of Jerusalem, belongs to the same century. His "Catechet-

icals" are a monument of inestimable worth, on account of the clearness and order with which the Christian doctrine is explained and defended.

St. Hilary, Bishop of Poitiers (Poy-tĕ-ā), was the brightest ornament of the Church of Gaul in the 4th century. A second champion, worthy of St. Hilary, was St. Martin of Tours.

St. Ambrose was made Bishop of Milan in 374. In consequence of a tumult at Thessalonica, the Emperor Theodosius sent an order for a general massacre. St. Ambrose went to the emperor, remonstrated with him on his barbarity, and prevailed on him to promise that the command should be revoked. The mandate was, however, carried into execution, and seven hundred persons were slaughtered in cold blood. Shortly afterward, when Theodosius was about to enter the great church of Milan, Ambrose met him at the porch and forbade him to appear in the holy place. The emperor pleaded the example of David. "You have imitated David in his crime, imitate him in his repentance," was the reply, and Theodosius was excluded from the church for eight months, and then was compelled not only to perform penance, but to sign an edict that an interval of thirty days should pass before any sentence of death or of confiscation should be executed. The numerous works of St. Ambrose on the Sacred Scriptures and against heresies, his books on morals, and his letters, all abound in a wonderful unction and sweetness of style. In his writings we find the first mention of the word Mass in relation to the Holy Sacrifice of the altar. The Church still sings several hymns of his composition. Tradition attributes to St. Ambrose the Te Deum, the solemn anthem of thanksgiving adopted by the whole Church.

St. Augustine was born in the year 354 in the little city of Tagástě, in the Roman province of Numidia (the present Algeria). His mother, St. Monica, brought him up in the fear of God, but the ardent disposition of the youth led him into the path of pleasures, which he joined to an unquenchable thirst for knowledge. At the age of twenty-eight years Augustine had mastered the whole circle of human science then taught, and gained the unbounded applause of all his masters. He was then a celebrated professor of rhetoric at Carthage. He went from here to Italy and obtained the chair of rhetoric in the city of Milan. Under the influence of St. Ambrose, Augustine was converted. He returned to Africa in 388, was consecrated Bishop of Hippo in 395. In his immortal work, the "City of God," he shows the kingdom of truth rising upon the ruins of empires, and displays the plan of Providence in the institution of the Church and in its development through all time. St. Augustine died in 430, as the flames, kindled by the barbarian Vandals, devoured his episcopal city of Hippo.

St. Jerome was born about 331, of a noble and wealthy family in the Roman province Dalmatia. He spent part of his youth in traveling through Gaul and Asia. At Rome he was baptized, then visited Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, to form himself to the religious life by the example of the monks and saintly hermits whom he met there. St. Jerome brought to the service of the truth more learning than any other
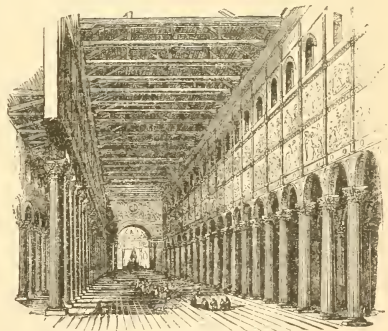
"St. Paul's outside the Walls," at Rome.
4th Century.*

---

* Partly destroyed by fire in 1822, and since reconstructed.

father of the Latin Church. His immense labors on the Scriptures are equaled only by his incredible mortification, his love of retreat and poverty, and his burning charity, which moved the great St. Augustine to compare him to St. Paul. His style is energetic, rich in figures and in lofty and concise thoughts. His great work was the translation of the sacred writings known as the "Vulgate." St. Jerome died in Palestine in 420 at the age of eighty.

St. John Chrysostom of Antioch was made Patriarch of Constantinople in 398. He achieved a reputation which ranks amid the most illustrious and best merited of the Christian Fathers. *The foregoing section is condensed from Abbé Darras' "History of the Church."*

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

FIRST LESSON IN REVIEW.

In what century was overthrown the Roman power in Western Europe?

By whom? (P. 134.)

When were these Germans generally Christianized? (P. 134.)

But what heresy was also prevalent among them?

By what council was this heresy condemned? (P. 133.)

Who was then emperor?

When was he baptized? *Ans.* On his death-bed.

But when did he officially recognize the Christian Faith?

What emperor preceded him?

When was the last Christian persecution? (P. 126.)

By what emperor was Pagan worship forbidden and Christianity recognized as state religion? (P. 134.)

Who were the sons of Theodosius the Great?

When did they succeed him?

Why is the year 395 A. D. a memorable date?

What is the connecting link between the Germanic period in Western Europe, beginning in the 5th century, and the Roman period preceding? *Ans.* The Roman Church.

What great Fathers of the Church belong to both periods?

What was the nature of the division of the empire made by Arcadius and Honorius? (P. 134.)

How long after the 4th century lasted the Roman Empire of the East?

By what name is it generally known?

Why?

What is the importance of this empire for the West? (P. 135.)

What influence had it on modern learning?

What emperor caused the compilation of the *Corpus Juris?*

SECOND LESSON IN REVIEW.

What countries, on a modern map, belonged to the Byzantine Empire?

When did its capital fall? (P. 135.)

How old was Columbus in 1453? *Ans.* Seventeen years old.

Name the important emperors of the 4th century.

Of the 3d century ?

What is the character of the 3rd century?

What policy preserved the state from dissolution at its close ?

Name the emperors of the 2nd century.

Name the emperors of the 1st century.

Were these emperors generally of Roman blood ?   (P. 127.)

What do you mean by " Roman " in the times of the empire ?   (P. 127.)

What countries were included in the empire ?   (P. 126.)

What languages were general ?   (P. 130.)

What peoples were included within the Imperial borders ?   (P. 129.)

What peoples lay beyond the Danube and the Rhine ?

In whose reign did they begin to be formidable ?   (P. 124.)

In what century did they contribute to the disorders of the empire ?   (P. 125.)

In what century were many of them Christianized ?   (P. 134.)

What other process accompanied the religious change ?   (P. 134.)

By whom was the Roman power of the West overthrown ?

In what century ?

What history therefore naturally follows that of the Roman Empire ?   *Ans.* The history of the Germans and of Germany.

GERMANY

TILL A. D. 1500, INCLUDING THE GERMANIC STATES IN WESTERN EUROPE BEFORE CHARLEMAGNE.

EARLY HISTORY TILL A. D. 410.

Language and Character.—The earliest written document in a Germanic language is the translation of the Bible by the Visigothic Bishop Ulfilas (p. 134). For our knowledge of earlier times we are dependent on the accounts of the Romans, upon the comparison of languages, and on a survival (especially in Iceland) of the Scandinavian form of Germanic Heathenism to a later age than that in which the peoples of Germany itself became Christians.

The comparison of languages proves that all the great races of Europe excepting Finns and Laps, Hungarians, Turks, and Basques belong to a common family, the Aryan (p. 31).

The Germanic branch of this family included, besides the tribes of Germany, the Anglo-Saxons, who settled in England in the 5th century A. D. (they came from the peninsula of Jutland and the provinces of Sleswick-Holstein); also the Dutch, Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians. The three latter are also known as Northmen, or Normans.

Our first written accounts of the manners and customs of the Germans are found in the Latin historian Tacitus (time of Domitian and Trajan). He took pleasure in holding up the simple lives of an uncivilized people as a reproach to the corruption of the Romans. According to Tacitus the Germans were of powerful build, with blonde hair; brave in war, faithful in peace; chaste in their morals, but given to drunkenness. They practised agriculture, but without being thoroughly fixed as to locality of settlement and personal ownership of the land. They governed themselves as free men, but gave unswerving allegiance to their chosen military chief. Women were treated as the equals of men, and their judgment was held in esteem. A deeper insight

Anglo Saxons

Saxons

Longoba

Elbe

Thuringians

Danube

Merovingian

Empire

Rhine

Paris seine R.

Armorica

Ostro-gothic Empire

Milan

Verona

Padua

Aquileia

Burgun
-dian
Empire

Pavia

Empire

Genoa

Ravenna

Garonne R.

Tolosa

Rome

Naples

Suevic Empire

Toletum

Visigothic

Corduba

Hispalis

Carthage

Empire of the Vandals

EUROPE and WESTERN-ASIA
about 500 A.D.

Huns

Persian Empire

Ctesiphon

Constantinople

Antiochia

ek **Empire**

s

Hunter, lith. Philada.

into early Germanic nature is offered by its Heathen mythology, which was mystical, fantastic, imaginative, gloomy, and contemplative.

Cimbri and Teutons.—One hundred and thirteen years before Christ, a horde of barbarians swept over Southern France and North Italy, till they were exterminated by the Roman general, Marius (page 100). They were called the Cimbri and Teutons ; the latter, at least, were doubtless Germans.

Fifty years later, a band led by a chieftain named Ariovistus, and preparing to invade France from Switzerland, was headed off by Julius Cæsar (p. 104).

The campaigns of Cæsar in Gaul, which at this time secured that province for the empire, 58–51 B. C., carried the Romans to the Rhine and subjected certain German tribes along the west Rhine bank. Tiberius, serving as general under Augustus, pushed the Roman power over South Germany to the Danube.

Roman Germany.—Thus within the regular limits of the empire, had been included, from the opening of the 1st century A. D., Austria proper— that is, German Austria—the Tyrol, the South Danube territory of modern Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Baden. Beyond the line of the Danube where it bends to the south, at Regensburg (Ratisbon), the Roman line continued to the Rhine north of the River Main.

Meantime, from the Lower Rhine, Roman troops, by various expeditions, had pushed eastward to the Elbe. But this territory was lost by the fatal defeat of Varus in the Teutoburger Forest, near Lippé Detmold, in Northwest Germany, 9 A. D. Augustus cried out, in despair at this defeat : " Varus, Varus, give me back my legions."

The German Chieftain Hermann, the hero of the victory, lives to this day in the memory of his nation. A commemorative statue was erected on the site of the battle a few years ago. After this defeat no further attempt was made to advance the Roman boundaries in Germany beyond the limits indicated.

In 1869 was discovered near the site of this battle a richly decorated Roman silver table service, supposed to have been lost in this defeat. It is now in the Berlin Museum.

Until the time of Commodus, 180 A. D., the German tribes made no serious attempts against the frontier, although there were occasional wars with individual tribes. During the time between Augustus and Commodus the Roman military camps served a most important purpose. They were also trading posts and the points from which the Roman merchants made their way over Germany. It was Roman policy, as far as possible, to settle its soldiers as farmer-colonists at the different military posts ; and so the legions were agents in disseminating the arts of civilization. Many Germans were enrolled as Ro-

man soldiers. Some came to seek service from beyond the frontier and returned to teach their kinsmen the use of Roman arms and Roman discipline. (Cæsar had won his victory over Pompey at Pharsalia with his German Batavian cavalry.) The Rhine and Danube frontier included, as we have seen, Romanized Germanic provinces, and these naturally furnished large contingents of German blood to the legions.

German Soldier in Roman Pay.
(*From Reliefs on the Column of Trajan.*)

After the reign of Commodus a great migration of the Goths towards Southern Europe unsettled and disturbed the other German tribes. These were crowded against the frontier, and lacking room, began to war upon it. The 3d century was a terrible time of conflict. But necessity forced Rome to turn one tribe against another. An entire tribe might thus be enrolled at once in Roman service, for military discipline was already becoming familiar to the Germans.

In the time of Probus, about 275 A. D., the territory outside the Danube line was lost (Hesse-Darmstadt, Baden, part of Wurtemberg). Still, through the 4th century, the main frontier was successfully defended.

It was in the reign of Valens, 376 A. D., that the first formidable break occurred. Just as the Goths had disturbed and unsettled the locations of German tribes in the 3d century, so in their turn the Goths were now disturbed, but this time by an Asiatic race.

The Huns appeared in 376 A. D. north of the Black Sea, crowding the Goths against the lower Danube. The Huns (Mongolians) were disgusting in appearance and habits, of squat stature, thorough barbarians, but admirable horsemen. The Goths first

encountered by them (the East-Goths or Ostrogoths) were forced into their army. The West-Goths or Visigoths (Christians, but professing Arianism) besought permission from their Roman brethren to cross the Danube. It was accorded.

About 200,000 warriors, with women and children, entered Roman territory. They were ill treated by officials appointed to care for them, revolted, and marching on Adrianople, defeated the Emperor Valens, who was killed in the battle, A. D. 378. His successor was the Theodosius the Great, already known to us. He enrolled the West-Goths in the Roman army and settled them as soldier-colonists south of the Danube.

After the death of Theodosius, during a quarrel between his sons, Arcadius and Honorius, this army of Goths was marched into Italy. It was commanded by Alaric, who sacked Rome in 410. Alaric died in the following year.

His people diverted the river Busento from its bed, dug a grave in it, and after burial turned the stream back to its course, that the tomb might never be disturbed.

His successor was his nephew Athaulf, who concluded a treaty with Honorius.

Map Study.—See on a modern map of Germany the various rivers indicated, and the territories noted as Roman, and compare with the outline of the empire, at p. 116. See modern maps for Hesse Darmstadt, Baden, Wurtemberg, Adrianople.

GERMANIC STATES IN WESTERN EUROPE.

Honorius gave his sister Galla Placidia in marriage to Athaulf, and as her dowry the lands of Northeast Spain (Catalonia=Gothalunia). To this was soon added Southwest France and nearly the whole of Spain. Thus was founded, 412–415 A. D., the state of the West-Goths, the first Germanic kingdom on Roman territory. Like all its followers, except the Anglo-Saxon states in England, it was Christian and partially Romanized.

The theory on which the West-Goth state was founded is best understood by recalling the Roman habit of paying off soldiers in lands, and of settling them as colonists in large bodies. It had long been customary to incorporate whole bodies of German troops into

the Roman armies, and the West-Goths, having already once settled in the Eastern Empire, simply changed to the Western. Moreover, divisions of the empire under separate rulers, for military purposes, were customary since Diocletian (pp. 126, 134). What distinguishes this particular settlement is that it was permanent, and created a new state, and that other states followed it. We shall understand better why Honorius fixed the West-Goths as Roman soldiers in France and Spain by recurring to an event which happened four years before Alaric's sack of Rome.

On the Christmas-night of 406 a horde of German tribes had pushed across the Rhine. The frontier was broken, and its military guards were scattered. Pushed on by the swarm of Huns and East-Goths moving into Central Europe, German tribes had, since that year, been pillaging and marauding all over France and Spain. Hono-
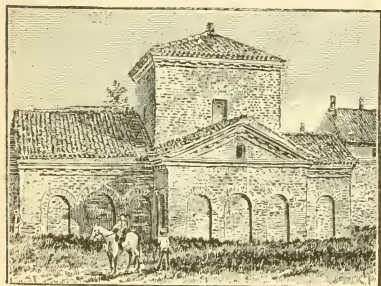
Tomb of Galla Placidia, at Ravenna.

rius made the West-Goths a home that they might reduce these tribes to order and restore security to the country.

Among the tribes which crossed the Rhine in 406 A. D. were the **(German) Burgundians**, who settled themselves just after 415 A. D. in the valley of the Rhone and Soane. Burgundy is named after them.

The (German) Franks were another tribe. They remained for the time being in the territory of modern Belgium. France is named after them.

The (German) Sueves, who left their name in Suabia, had passed into Spain before the West-Goths founded their state, and were then driven by the Goths up into the northwest corner of that country. Finally they were incorporated in the West-Goth state.

The (German) Vandals had also passed into Spain. Andalusia is named aftter them. In A. D. 429 they moved over into Africa, conquering the Roman province there. Their leader, Gen-

seric, settling himself at Carthage, began to harry Sicily and Italy.

The (German) Angles and (German) Saxons, living in Sleswick-Holstein, on the shores of the Baltic and North Seas, were invited into England, in 449, to protect the Roman Britons from the Picts and Scots of Scotland. The Roman garrisons had been withdrawn early in the century for service on the Continent.

The only German state not Christian at the time of settlement (or directly after, like the Franks), was this one. The Anglo-Saxons were not converted till after A. D. 600, and meantime exterminated the British Christians, or drove them into Wales.

In 451 A. D., two years after the Angles and Saxons first landed in England, the army of the Huns had reached France, led by Attila, "the Scourge of God." Attila was met at Chalons-sur-Marne by a united army of Franks, Romans, West-Goths, and Burgundians—Christians fighting against heathen, Romans and Romanized fighting against barbarism. The Huns were defeated. The encounter was so terrible that the spirits of the dead were said, in popular tradition, to have continued for three days fighting above the battle-field.

This is the subject of an immense wall-picture by Kaulbach in the Berlin Museum.

The Huns drew off from France. They next invaded Italy, A. D. 452. Attila their leader was directing his army against the walls of Rome, when Pope Leo I., attended by his prelates, rode out to meet him and warned him to desist. Tradition relates that the Pope was aided by a supernatural apparition. Raphael has so represented the event in his famous wall-picture in the Vatican. After this the Huns withdrew from Italy, and were gradually dispersed and lost sight of. The city of Venice was founded in this year, 452, by fugitives from Padua, who fled to the swamps and lagunes of the Adriatic in their dread of Attila.

In the very centre of the Invasions of the 5th century stands the pontificate of St. Leo I. the Great. "The decisions of the great Pope were sought for by all the bishops of the world at a time when the torrent of invasion pouring over every point of the Roman frontier added daily increasing

difficuties to the Papal administration. He has left us an imperishable monument of apostolic eloquence in sixty-nine discourses. To these labors we must add the great deeds of his glorious pontificate—Rome saved; once from the invasion of the Hun Attila and again from murder and flames threatened by the Vandal Genseric."

The Empire loses Italy.—Meantime Honorius, in 425, had been succeeded by Valentinian III. (425–455), an emperor who makes no figure in the events of the time. The leaders of the Barbarian troops were more noted than the emperors of the West, whom they protected. Ricimer, one of these captains, nominated the insignificant successors of Valentinian. After Ricimer's death in 472 his post of commander fell to Orestes, who made his own son, Romulus Augustulus, emperor of the West in 475.

The German troops, under their leader Odoacer, now demanded a third of the lands of Italy. When this was refused they slew Orestes, and Odoacer made himself king of Italy, 476. Romulus Augustulus returned to private life. Odoacer professed allegiance to the Eastern emperor, but was practically independent of him. This date, 476, is generally fixed as the year of the downfall of the Western Empire.

The Ostro-Gothic Empire in Italy. — Odoacer's rule had

Tomb of Theodoric the Great, at Ravenna.

lasted fourteen years, when the Emperor of East-Rome, Zeno, commissioned the East-Goths (now separated from the Huns) to reconquer Italy, 490. They did so under Theodoric the Great, who ruled Italy wisely and humanely till 526. The tomb of Theodoric the Great is an important monument of Ravenna.

The East-Goths held Italy for over fifty years. They were expelled, 553, by the generals

of Justinian (p. 135), who also reconquered for East-Rome the province of Africa from the Vandals, 534.

The Byzantine generals held Italy for fifteen years, and they were then expelled by the (German) Longobards.

The Longobards occupied in 568, under Alboin, the whole of the Peninsula, excepting the territory about Ravenna, Genoa, the city of Rome, and parts of Southern Italy.

> **The Longobard or Lombard Germans** (after them Lombardy is named) were thorough barbarians when they conquered Italy. They were made doubly odious to the native population by their adherence to the Arian heresy, which led them to persecute the orthodox Catholics. The Lombards made drinking-cups of the skulls of their enemies. Alboin had married the daughter of a barbarian chief, whom he had slain, and forced her to drink from the skull of her own father at a banquet. In revenge she procured his assassination.

The Exarchate of Ravenna.—The territories mentioned as not conquered by the Lombards were called the Exarchate of Ravenna, because ruled by an exarch, or governor, whose capital was here.   They were a portion of the East-Roman Empire until the 8th century, when the Exarchate became the foundation of the temporal power of the Pope. The territorial rights which the Eastern emperor had hitherto exercised over the city of Rome and other portions of Italy not held by the Lombards, were lost as a result of the Iconoclastic edicts of the Eastern emperors.

The Iconoclastic, or image-breaking movement, was an attempt by the Eastern emperors to forbid

Church of San Apollinare, 6th century, at Ravenna.

the use of images and pictures in the churches.   This interference with affairs of the Church was resisted by the Popes, and led to the severance of their temporal connection with the East-Roman Empire. The political power of an absolute sovereign was exerted to such an extent in this dispute over the bishops of the Eastern Church, that the beginnings were thus made of the Greek Schism, which dates from Photius, Patriarch of Constantinople, in the 9th century.   Although the Iconoclastic movement was abandoned in the

Eastern Empire, the policy of temporal interference with the Church was continued by its emperors. Thus were raised to the Patriarchate of Constantinople the unworthy and corrupt political agents, by whom the Greek Schism was inaugurated.

The Popes were thus left without a temporal protection, even in name, and they had long suffered from the encroachments of the Lombards, who now conquered the Exarchate of Ravenna and prepared to besiege Rome. In this extremity Pope Stephen III. turned, A. D. 754, for protection to the (German) Franks, whose rise to power may now be logically described.

Map Study.—Visigothic Empire, p. 140. Burgundian Empire, p. 140. See map of modern France for course of the Rhone and Saone ; compare the smaller dimensions of the *Duchy* of Burgundy. Suevic Empire, p. 140. Suabia is a name applied to a portion of South Germany, parts of Bavaria and Wurtemberg. Vandal Empire, p. 140. Andalusia, modern map, Anglo-Saxons in England, p. 140. Sleswick-Holstein, modern map. Chalons-sur-Marne, Venice, Padua; modern map.

The Italian kingdom of Odoacer, founded in 476, was overthrown by the Ostrogoths before 500. Ostrogothic Empire, p. 140. Lombard kingdom in Italy after 568.

The Empire of East-Rome is entered on map for Europe about 500 A. D. as the " Greek Empire." These terms are used synonymously with " Byzantine."

See location of the Lombards before invasion of Italy. On same map, Ravenna, Genoa.

RISE OF THE (GERMAN) FRANKS.

The Franks permanently crossed the Rhine after 406 A. D., (p. 144), first settling in Belgium. Toward the latter part of the 5th century, Clovis, originally a petty chief of the Franks of Tournay, made himself head of the whole tribe (481).

In 486, by the battle of Soissons (swoy-song*), he overthrew the Roman power, which till that time had continued to hold out in Northern France.

The battle of Tolbiac (west of Cologne) reduced to subjection the (German) Allemanni **in 497**. From them is derived the French word for Germany—Allemagne.

In 507 the Frankish territory received an enormous addition, the whole of West-Gothic France (excepting territory bordering the

---

* The French nasal " n " has been indicated here by a final " g," as there is no other way of denoting this sound in English. But to pronounce the " g " is to pronounce French badly. Better rely on the pronunciation as given by a French scholar.

Mediterranean called Septimania), won by the battle of Vouglé (vou-le-a), near Poitiers.

About thirty years later the Burgundian state was incorporated in the Frankish, and by the same time the rule of the Franks had been pushed eastward over Central Germany to the mountains of Bohemia. Besides this eastern boundary, the territory was bounded here by the Alps on the south and by the Thuringian forest on the north (locality of the later Saxon duchies).

Clovis.*

By A. D. 550 the Frankish state had about all the territory which it held in A. D. 750. The rapid success of its arms in France is explained by the fact that the Franks were orthodox Catholics. The Catholic Gallo-Roman native population hated its Arian rulers, the West-Goths and Burgundians, and popular sympathy secured the triumph of Clovis and his successors.

The 6th and 7th centuries were times of dense ignorance and bloody crimes among the Franks, but the Church was doing its best to master this unruly material. Interesting indications of the barbarism of Frankish culture in this period are the jewels. Side by side, in the same gold mounting, are found precious antique gems and bits of colored glass.

The missionary work of the Church with the German tribes was carried out under the auspices of the Order of St. Benedict, founded early in the 6th century. Its members were the disseminators at once of Christianity and of the arts and knowledge of the older civilization.

St. Benedict was a native of Nursia, in Southern Italy. The monastery of Monte Cassino, founded in his lifetime, is still the famous centre of his Order.

Pope St. Gregory the Great sent his famous mission to the Anglo-Saxons in England at the end of the 6th century (in 597). For further accounts of Church missions at this time, see Irish history.

---

* Tombstone formerly in the Abbey of St. Genevieve at Paris.

FOUNDATION OF THE FRANK CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTY.

In the opening of the 8th century the Mohammedan Arabs had entered Spain by way of the straits of Gibraltar. (Gibraltar is a corruption of Jebel-el-Tarik—"The Hill of Tarik.") In the 7th century they had already overthrown the East-Roman power in Syria, Egypt, and North Africa (see history of the Arabs and Turks). Tarik landed in Spain, 711, and the West-Goth Empire of Spain was overthrown in one battle.

Southern France was soon reached. The hosts of Islam were preparing to annihilate Christendom, The Arabs of Spain were to march over France and the Arabs of the East were to attack Constantinople.

But Charles Martel, that is, Charles the Hammer, met the Spanish Arabs at Poitiers and utterly defeated them, 732. The son of Charles Martel was Pepin.

Pepin, like his father, had been Mayor of the Palace, that is to say, Prime Minister. But he was minister of a king of a decrepid dynasty, physically and intellectually unfit to rule, and, with the approval of Pope Zachary, Pepin was made king of the Franks, 752.

Two years later Pope Stephen III., pressed by the Lombards, turned for protection to the heir of Clovis and the son of the preserver of Christendom. Pepin entered Italy, rescued the Roman Pontiff from his distress, humbled the Lombards, and expelling them from the Exarchate of Ravenna, gave it over to the Pope (p. 148).

This was the beginning of the States of the Church. Pepin was founder of the Carlovingian dynasty. The son of Pepin was Charlemagne, who succeeded his father in 768.

GERMANIC STATES IN ORDER OF FOUNDATION.

FIFTH CENTURY.

West-Goth state.........415....... { Roman provinces of South-West France and Spain.

Burgundian state.. { About the same } Roman provinces of S. E. France.
Suevic state...... {   time.   } Roman province N. W. Spain.

Vandal state............429.........Roman province of North Africa.

Anglo-Saxon states.......449.........Roman province of Britain.

Frankish state...........486.........Roman province of North France.

East-Goth state..........490.........Roman province of Italy and Illyria.

SIXTH CENTURY.

Lombard state ....568.........Roman province of Italy.

This table shows that all Germanic states, except the Lombard, were founded in the 5th century.

GERMANIC STATES IN ORDER OF OVERTHROW OR ABSORPTION.

West-Goth French territory.........To the Franks...............A. D. 507

Burgundian territory...............To the Franks...............   "   533

Vandal territory...................To East-Rome ....   "   534

East-Goth Italy................. { To East-Rome ....   "   553
                                 { To the Lombards............   "   568

Sueve territory....................To West-Goth Spain.........   "   585

West-Goth Spain...................To the Arabs ....   "   711

Lombard Italy.....................To the Franks...............   "   774

It appears from this table that the Germanic states, not conquered by the Arabs or by East-Rome, were all absorbed by the Franks except the Anglo-Saxon states in England.

Two Germanic states were overthrown by East-Rome, the Vandals and East-Goths. But the East-Goth state, conquered by Justinian, was soon yielded to the Lombards, except the Exarchate of Ravenna, which afterward became Church territory, as related, and North Africa, conquered by East-Rome from the Vandals, was yielded about a hundred years later to the Arabs.

REVIEW OF GERMAN HISTORY, 400–800 A. D.

From the foregoing tables it appears that the various streams of German history may be conceived as centering A. D. 800 in the Franks, England excepted. The confusion of tribes

and of events between Alaric and Charlemagne makes the early history of the Germans difficult as to detail. But the essential facts are broad and simple.

First.—Throughout Western Europe the more or less effete and worn-out populations of the Roman period (effete especially in the upper classes, which naturally were most agitated and shaken by the storm) were brought in contact with the new blood, vigorous natures, and strong wills of the German tribes. A period of barbarism followed the invasions, but its vigor partially made up for its lack of refinement.

Second.—The partial overthrow of Roman temporal power was not accomplished in defiance or contempt of Roman authority. The habits of soldier-settlement and territorial divisions of supreme imperial authority (p. 126), combined with the continued and unshaken power of the emperors of the East (map, p. 140), allowed the greatest changes to be made without a contemptuous overthrow of the Roman system. Alaric, Athaulf, Odoacer, Theodoric, Clovis—all acknowledged allegiance to the temporal authority of the emperors, whose main seat of government had been at Constantinople before any change occurred, and still continued there.

Third.—Although the personal efforts and individual labors of the Roman missionaries exceed the power of words and almost exceed the power of imagination, one cannot but be struck by the willingness of the German tribes to adopt Christianity, and by the rapidity of their conversion. In the confusion of the invasions the Arian heresy was adopted by entire tribes, but this heresy disappeared under the ascendency of the Franks.

A question which cannot be definitely answered relates to the proportion of German inhabitants, numerically speaking, settled over Western Europe in the time of the German states. Since it is a natural tendency to assume that a Germanic state was entirely peopled by Germans, we shall do well to note the following points :

First.—In Spain, France, and Italy the native population was neither exterminated nor persecuted (contrast England), but it suffered much in numbers and in quality from the confusion and disorder of the times.

Second.—The proportion of the lands taken in possession by Germans was from one-third to two-thirds, but as this implies control and ownership simply, it follows that a small number of Germans might cover a large expanse of territory. Two hundred thousand West-Goth warriors, with women and children, would not very sensibly affect the blood of the French and Spanish population which they ruled, and with which they gradually mixed and intermarried. The Salic Franks of Belgium, when spread over France, would not very sensibly affect the blood of the country by mixture and intermarriage.

It cannot be denied that an absolutely large, though not relatively large, element of German population was transferred to France, Spain, and Italy. Nor can it be denied that it long furnished the ruling and military caste. The infusion of German words into French, Italian, and Spanish is small. This is significant at least for the rapid amalgamation of the German element.

Beginnings of the Feudal System.—The fidelity of the Germans to a chosen military chief in the early times of the invasions has been mentioned (p. 140). This chief might be head either of an entire tribe or of a band of followers only, and it is probable that much of the confusion of tribal names (there were very many not mentioned in this book) results from the habit of naming each band of followers under a separate chief, without reference to blood relationship. In some cases it was customary for the immediate followers of the chief to sacrifice their own lives at his death. The chief shared with them his possessions, they lived on his bounty and depended on his fortunes.

The relation of personal fidelity between followers and chieftain was naturally weakened when, after settlement in the newly conquered countries, they ceased to be attached to his person. They were separated from the chief by the gifts of land which he made them. They held these lands, not as absolute property (in theory everything belonged to the chief), but on condition of military service as before. Only being now locally separated from the chief, they tended to become locally independent.

It was also natural that the father should pass his estate to the son, and the principle of hereditary inheritance of the lands loaned by the chief, in return for military service, gradually became general. (The Germans call the feudal system the "lend system" or "loan system.") Thus there was in the Middle Age a theory of absolute dependence of the followers on the chief; of absolute ownership on the part of the chief of the lands of the estate. But the practice depended on circumstances, on locality, alliances, good will, strength or weakness. Above all, the fact of hereditary transmission of the loaned estate involved contradictions with the theory of absolute dependence on the feudal sovereign. This is why the Middle Age is such a chaos when we descend to details.

The followers became the barons, the chief became the king.—The relations were always in contention and always undergoing individual variations of countless color and circumstance. But the theory of fidelity, which, as regards kings and barons, was often only a theory, was carried down by the barons to their dependents. And here it was really a bond both of theory and of fact, because local association gave it strength. So also the system of considering all property as loaned was extended to the dependents of the baron, who held land under him, and from these dependents even to the serfs of the soil.

The relations of the dependents and serfs to the barons were not as harsh as may be imagined. Complaints of the lower orders against the feudal system were not general until the lords were divorced from their estates and called to the courts of the kings in modern times. Then the want of humanizing personal contact between master and servant and the demand for money to make display at court, changed the relations to one of mercenary interest and speculation. But the chivalry of the Middle Age did not live to make money.

There was no absolutely controlling royal power possible under the feudal system. Disputes between barons and knights were settled by personal conflict—the right of private war. This system of legalized petty warfare was fatal to commercial interests. But, on the other hand, fighting was not generally done for pay. The poor and lowly were not involved, as now, in the quarrels of the great, and the risks of war fell on those who waged it.

In the development of the feudal system the history of France and Germany offers a remarkable contrast. The great "fiefs" or loaned estates became hereditary in France, in the century of Charlemagne (under Charles the Bald, about 877). On the other hand, the great fiefs did not become altogether hereditary in Germany until after 1254 (close of the Hohenstaufen period). But at this time, in France, the power of the modern monarchy had already begun to replace the isolated independence of feudal baronies. Therefore, the history of France presents a clearer unity of development in the latter Middle Age, while the history of Germany is more connected and clear in its early period.

For this reason, and also because the theory of the empire created by Charlemagne continued to exercise most important influence on Germany, and soon failed to exert any influence at all on France, the history of Germany after Charlemagne is continued in this book till 1500, before taking up Medieval France.

The Crusades, in which all Christendom took part, are reserved for treatment in connection with France, which took the largest share in them.

THE ROMAN-GERMANIC EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

Charlemagne, 768–814, was crowned at Rome in 800 A. D., as Emperor of the West, by Pope St. Leo III.　This revival of the

A Coin of Charlemagne.

Western Empire was based on the severance by the Popes of their temporal relations to the Eastern Emperors and on the desertion of the West by these Emperors.　It was based also on the fact that Charlemagne was master of nearly as large an area, excepting Africa, as the Roman Empire of the West formerly contained.　He had conquered Spain to the Ebro, and he ruled over Italy (replacing the Lombards).　To the Frankish territory in France and South Germany (p. 149) he added Austria proper and all North Germany to the Elbe.

Map Explanation.—A map of modern Germany must be compared with map for the Empire of Charlemagne.　Beyond the Elbe there were then no Germans, because their migrations toward the west had given place to Slavonic tribes, as far as the Elbe, and in Bohemia.　The later course of events pushed back the Slavonic race in the north to its present border—the western line of Prussian Poland.

The whole of North Germany, to the Elbe, was peopled by Saxons, and was then called Saxony.　The name was afterwards confined to much narrower limits.

The most · important event of Charlemagne's career was his conquest and conversion of the Saxons. But his whole life was one of noble toil and arduous effort.

The Germanic settlement of Austria (proper) was made possible by the conquest and dispersal of the descendants of the Huns.　These had been settled in Hungary and were called Avars.

Military Costume.　Ninth Century.　From Ancient MS., Paris Library.

Administration.—Over his immense territories the energetic administration of the Frankish emperor kept in force the uniform system of laws which he had framed.　His zeal for learning sought out and protected its professors.　Among these the name of the English scholar Alcuin (Alquin) is especially distinguished.　Embassies from East-Rome, and

The Empire of
CHARLEMAGNE
and its division
in 843.

Empire of Charlemagne red
Byzantine Empire yellow
Caliphate of Bagdad green
Caliphate of Cordova Light green

100   200   300   400   500 Eng. M.

lavonians

rs

Bulgaria

Danube

Constantinople
or Byzantium

Byzantine   *Empire*

Black Sea

Halys R.

Caspian Sea

PERSIA

Tigris R.   Artemita.
                Bagdad
                Ctesiphon
Euphrates R.   Kufa
Kerbela

MESOPOTAMIA

Cyprus

Crete

Damascus

SYRIA

ARABIA

Pelusium.
Cairo
Alexandria   Memphis

Nile R.

Medina

Mecca

Bagdad

from the Arabian caliph Haroun al Raschid, paid honor to his greatness. "He cherished with the greatest fervor and devotion the principles of the Christian religion. Hence it was that he built the beautiful basilica at Aix-la-Chapelle, which he adorned with gold and silver, and with rails and doors of solid brass....... When he discovered that there were Christians living in poverty in Syria, Egypt, and Africa, at Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Carthage, he had compassion on their wants and used to send money over sea to them. He cherished the Church of St. Peter the Apostle at Rome above all other sacred and holy places, and heaped its treasury with a vast wealth of gold, silver and precious stones. He sent great and countless gifts to the Popes."— *Eginhard's (contemporary) Life* (*published in Harper's Half-hour Series*).

Louis the Pious, 814–840, succeeded his father Charlemagne. But only the hand of the great Emperor himself could wield the sceptre of such a territorial empire in such an age. Nor was it necessary that this territorial empire should continue. The Saxons had been brought within the pale of Christian civilization, the Mohammedans had been pushed back in Spain, Central and Western Europe had been united by similar laws ; but the national characters were too different, the age too violent, and the empire too large for permanent rule by a single sovereign. Charlemagne's work was in no sense lost because his territories were divided by the sons of Louis the Pious in the Treaty of Verdun.

By the treaty of Verdun, 843, the theory of the common empire was retained, and thus Lothair, the eldest son, was given with the title of emperor the central division, as containing the two capitals of Aix-la-Chapelle and Rome. This division comprised Italy and the territory corresponding to modern Switzerland, Savoy, Alsace, Lorraine (named from Lothair Lotharingia, whence Lorraine), Belgium, and Holland. Above the border of Italy this territory has ever since been the debatable ground between France and Germany. The existence of these two latter countries as separated territories is dated from 843, Charles the Bald taking France, Louis the German retaining Germany, which he had already ruled for ten years as his father's deputy.

Lothair died in 855. After the death of a son, Lothair II., 870, his inheritance in Northern Europe was divided between his uncles, while Italy passed to a younger son of Lothair II.—Louis II.—with title of emperor. (Treaty of Meersen, a town on the Meuse.) Louis II. died, 875, without heirs. **The Imperial title** was then held in succession by the two surviving brothers of the first Lothair—viz., Louis the German (died 876), and Charles the Bald (died 877). Louis the German was succeeded by sons named in the Table. One of these, **Charles the Fat,** reunited for one year, 888, the territories of Charlemagne, and was then deposed for incompetency. For Italy had been overrun by the Saracens, France by the Normans, Germany by the Slavonians, and against these enemies nothing had been accomplished. **A final division** of Charlemagne's territories was then made, in which France and Germany retained mainly the dimensions of the Treaty of Verdun, but the portion of Lothair was broken up into subordinate governments—Lorraine, Upper and Lower Burgundy, and Italy—all more or less loosely connected with the Imperial rule, which passed in title to the sovereigns of Germany under Otto the Great. There was meantime no recognized emperor. The German sovereigns began to assert the most important place in European history after the opening of the 10th century. The German line of Charlemagne ended here in 911, but continued to linger in France till 987. The French Carlovingians descend from Charles the Bald.

Map Study.—See map for the Empire of Charlemagne for Verdun and the divisions of its treaty. Compare this map with a modern map of Europe especially for the territories of Lothair named above.

CARLOVINGIAN RULERS OF GERMANY.

Pepin	A. D.	768†
Charlemagne	"	814†
Louis the Pious, son of the foregoing	"	840†
Louis the German, son of the foregoing	"	876†
Karlmann,	"	880†
Louis the Younger, } sons of the foregoing	"	882†
Charles the Fat, deposed	"	888
Arnulf, nephew of the foregoing	"	899†
Louis the Child, son of the foregoing	"	911†

The first three sovereigns named ruled Germany as one portion of the entire Frankish state. A cross indicates the year of death.

TENTH CENTURY.

Conrad of Franconia was elected king by the German princes in 911, and was succeeded in 918 by **Henry I. the Fowler,** the first of the celebrated Saxon line.

With his son, Otto I. the Great, 936–973, the empire of

Cumbria

Anglia

Frisia

Sax

Brittany

Normandia

Flandria

Lotharingia
inf.

Fran

Seine R.
Rouen
Laon
Paris

Kreuzab

Francia

Mag

Worms

Champagne

Weinsh

Loire R.
Orleans

Duchy of
Burgundy

Alemania

Tours

Constant

Aquitania

Arles

Burgundian or
Arelatian Kingdom

Mediolanum

Milan Lodi

Asturia

Leon

Leon

Castile

Vasconia

Garonne R.

Tolosa

Alessandri

Tuscia

Genoa

Canes

Pampeluna

Toulouse

Pisa

Barcellona

Toledo

Barcellona

Corsica

Caliphate of Cordova

Cordova

Sardinia

Baleoric Islands

The Empire of the Morabites

The Empire of
OTTO THE GREAT
divided into Duchies
962 A.D.

The German Empire	col.	blue
Byzantine Empire	"	yellow
Mohammedan States	"	green

57

Hamburg

Havelberg

Magdeburg

Brandenburg
Osterland

Merseburg
Thuringia   Meissen

Praga

Bohemia

Pomerania

Prussia

Polonia
Posen

Russia

Pissau

Augsburg

Austria

Carinthia

Verona
Leynano

Venice

Bologna
Ravenna
Faenzu
Forli

Ancona

Romania

Spoleta

Rome
Tusculum

Ariminium

Beneventum

Langobardia

Calabria

Sicily

Hungaria

Bosnia

Servia

Cumania

Bulgaria

Byzantine

Empire

Constantinople or
Byzantium

Charlemagne, although now lacking in territorial extent the French provinces, was otherwise continued and even increased. Italy was an important portion of it.

Map Explanation.—(For the following matter a map of modern France should be compared with that for Otto the Great.) From the area of modern France we must separate at this time the whole valley of the Rhone and Saone, including the modern French provinces of Provence, Dauphiné, Savoy, Burgundy, and Franche-Comté. These territories of the old Burgundian state, then divided into Upper and Lower Burgundy, were not included in France, and a little later than the time of Otto I. (in 1632) they were included in the Empire. Alsace, Lorraine, Switzerland, and the Netherlands, all belonged to this Germanic empire. Italy was also included in it. Its sovereignty was acknowledged by Denmark, Poland, Bohemia, and somewhat later by Hungary.

Coronation.—Otto the Great was crowned at Rome by the Pope, as Charlemagne had been, and from his time the German sovereigns established a sort of prescriptive right to the Imperial title. In theory any magnate or sovereign of Europe might be crowned " Emperor of the West "; in fact, it was always a German sovereign who gained this distinction. When there was no hereditary heir, the German sovereign was elected by the German princes. In either case, after consecration by the Pope, he was Emperor of Christendom in theory, and of a large part of it in fact.

There were three lines of German emperors—the Saxon, Franconian, and Hohenstaufen, under whom this ideal of the empire, as conceived by Charlemagne and restored by Otto I., was upheld, in general with dignity and success, until the middle of the 13th century.

The Germanic character of this " Holy Roman Empire," as it is called, is best comprehended by remembering that Charlemagne himself was a German Frank, habitually speaking German ; that he had proposed the compilation of a German grammar, and had made a collection of the German folk-songs. His residences of Ingelheim (west of Mayence) and of Aix-la-Chapelle were both on German soil. By the female line, the Saxon House was descended from him.

The succeeding Saxon emperors were Otto II., Otto III., and Henry II.

Hungary was occupied, in the 9th century, by the ancestors of the modern Hungarians, then wandering nomads from Asia. Place had been made for them here by Charlemagne's dispersal of the Avars. The Hungarians were the scourge of Germany till the decisive victories won by Henry I. near Merseburg in Saxony, and by Otto the Great on the Lechfeld near Augsburg. They became converts to Christianity under the famous Pope Sylvester II. soon after 1000. This Pope had been, under the name of Gerbert, the tutor of Otto III.

The **Slavonian Bohemians and Poles** were Christianized generally in the time of Otto the Great, and largely in consequence of his exertions. He spared no efforts to exalt the Church and to advance the Catholic faith. It was this sovereign, also, who secured the conversion of the Danish king Harold.

From the Danes Henry I. had already conquered and Germanized the province of Sleswick.

Cathedral of Speyer, begun by Conrad II.

From the Slavonians beyond the Elbe Henry I. took the Duchy of Brandenburg, the territory about Berlin, and colonized it with Germans. All the Ottos were distinguished by efforts to introduce the Byzantine civilization into Germany.

Map Study.—For Merseburg, the Lechfeld, Brandenburg—see map for Otto the Great. See modern map for Sleswick. Speyer, Worms and Mayence are on the Rhine.

ELEVENTH CENTURY.

The last Saxon Emperor, Henry II., was canonized by the Church. The fine cathedral at Bamberg, in modern Bavaria, was erected by him. The great cathedrals of Speyer, Worms, and May-

ence, the finest in Europe of their time, also represent the glories of the Germanic empire in this period.

The succeeding line of German emperors is called the Franconian.

In early German history **Saxony**, meaning the country of the Saxons, comprised all North Germany as far as the Slavonians beyond the Elbe. **Franconia** was the name of Central Germany, lying between Saxony on the north, and Suabia and Bavaria on the south. It was bounded on the northeast by the Thuringian forest, on the southeast by Bavaria, on the west by Lotharingia or Lorraine.

Cathedral of Worms, 11th Century.

Under Conrad II. was added to the empire, 1032, the Burgundian kingdom, whose extent has been outlined, p. 157.

Under Henry III., a powerful and active sovereign, Hungary also acknowledged the imperial authority. It was during this reign that the poems of the Nibelungen, the great work of German medieval literature, began to take the shape in which they have been handed down. They are based on the adventures and myths of the times of the German invasions. No individual author is known.

The glories of the Holy Roman Empire were at their height when France was still a chaos of warring baronies, and England a comparatively barbarian country.

It was in the reign of Henry IV., 1056–1106, that the first downward step was taken. His tutor, when a young man, had been the monk Hildebrand, with whom, as the celebrated Pope Gregory VII., the emperor came in conflict. The right of nominating bishops was claimed by the German sovereign and denied by the Pope—the famous struggle about " Investitures." With Henry IV.

it was a question of power, of influence, and of money. With
Gregory VII. it was a question of principle. Henry was excom-
municated. Unable to maintain his influence under this punish-
ment, he knelt for three days in the snow, clothed in penitential
garb, before the gates of the castle of Canossa, in the Northern Apen-
nines, until absolution was accorded him, 1077. He did not, how-
ever, yield in good faith, and his son Henry V. also continued to
antagonize the papal authority on this point.

The **great importance attaching to this controversy** rested on the danger
which threatened the Church if its dignities were bestowed as political and temporal prefer-
ments, and on the immense power and territories of the Germanic Empire in which this usur-
pation was attempted.

The **opposition of Imperial authority to the Papal,** under the two last Franco-
nians, ultimately led to the downfall of the emperors. The results of the struggle were imme-
diately apparent in the access of power which the determined attitude of Gregory VII. secured for
the Church. Under Gregory's immediate successors began the period of the Crusades, in
which the Popes were politically the arbiters and directors of the destinies of Europe.

The **First Crusade** was undertaken in 1096, ten years before the death of Henry IV. ; but
the share of Germany in the movement was much less than that of France, and the influence
of the Crusades on after history is most apparent in this latter country. For this reason the
Crusades in general are summarized under French history.

TWELFTH CENTURY.

At the death of Henry V. without heirs, in 1125, the Hohen-
staufen family. owning immense territories in Suabia, had counted
on securing the imperial crown. Frederick of Hohenstaufen had
married the sister of Henry V., but his ambition was blocked by
the election of Lothair of Saxony, with the assistance and coalition
of Henry the Proud, Duke of Bavaria, who was given in marriage
Lothair's daughter and heiress. Thus were united in one family
the two large Duchies of Saxony (p. 159) and Bavaria.

The first Hohenstaufen emperor, Conrad III., the son of
Frederick of Hohenstaufen, secured election as emperor in 1137,
and finding his authority endangered by so powerful a vassal, de-
clared the union of two duchies under one head illegal. and outlawed
Henry the Proud. This duke died a year later, leaving an infant son
named Henry the Lion. The civil war begun by Henry the Proud

after outlawry, was continued in behalf of the son by his uncle, Welf of Bavaria. At the battle of Weinsberg, 1140, were first heard the battle-cries of Welf (Velf) and Waiblingen (Vaiblingen).

"After the battle the long-besieged city of Weinsberg was obliged to yield. The emperor, irritated by its long resistance, had resolved to destroy it with fire and sword. He, however, permitted the females of the city previously to retire and to carry with them their dearest jewels. And behold, when the day dawned and the gates were opened, the women advanced in long rows, and the married bore each upon her back her husband, and the others each their dearest relative. This affecting scene so moved the emperor, that he not only spared the men, but also the whole city."—(*Kohlrausch, History of Germany.*)

Guelphs and Ghibellines.—Waiblingen was a castle of the Hohenstaufens, and Welf the family name of their antagonists. Hence the designations used in Italy of " Guelphs," and " Ghibellines," applied to the Anti-Imperial or Papal and the Imperial parties (but finally used in the Italian civic quarrels of later centuries when this sense of the terms had utterly disappeared).

The Italians were growing weary of the constant pouring of German armies into Italy to assert the territorial rights of the emperors. Each new coronation at Rome—and the emperor at this time was always crowned there—was the signal for the disorderly march through Italy of a German host. The towns of Lombardy which were most exposed in locality to the Imperial exactions, resolved to assert their freedom, and the Roman Pontiffs favored their aspirations for liberty. The father of Italian independence of Germany was Pope Alexander III.

The revolt of the Lombard towns took place under the great Frederick I. (Barbarossa), 1152–1190, the second Hohenstaufen emperor. He made six campaigns in Italy, meeting decisive defeat in the battle of Legnano. Compelled to acknowledge himself worsted, he knelt to kiss the foot of Pope Alexander III. before the Church of St. Mark's in Venice. The stone on which Barbarossa knelt is still shown.

Henry the Lion (p. 160), at first his friend and ally, then his opponent, was therefore deprived of his possessions, with the exception in " Saxony " of Luneburg and Brunswick—the foundation

of the later state of Hanover. Thus Henry the Lion was the an-
cestor of the Guelphs of Hanover, the line to which the reigning
English sovereign belongs.

Barbarossa was an efficient sovereign and brave knight, but
his reign marks the time when the emperors lost their power in
Italy. He died on the Third Crusade, 1190. It was long a German
tradition that their greatest emperor was not really dead—that he
was slumbering with his knights in a mountain cave, and that he
would one day return to restore the glories and power of the past.

Henry VI., his son, apparently sustained the Italian prestige of
the emperors by marriage with the Norman heiress of Naples and
Sicily.

Map Study.—For union of " Saxony " and Bavaria see these provinces on map for Otto
the Great. Weinsberg, Legnano, Venice—same map. See map of " Europe in 1713 " for
Brunswick-Luneberg. See map of " Europe during the 12th Century " for Norman kingdom
of Naples and Sicily. Suabia, same map.

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

Frederick II., 1208–1250, thus inherited the whole of South
Italy, as personal territory, beside Suabia. But the policy of antag-
onism to Italian independence, and to the Popes as representatives
of this ideal, ended in the downfall of the Hohenstaufens soon after
the end of the reign which had witnessed such large addition to
their family power. Frederick II. died in 1250. His son Conrad
IV. died in 1254, leaving an infant heir, Conradin.

Charles of Anjou (Ong-jou), brother of the French king
Louis IX., was called into Italy by Pope Clement IV., to combat
the Hohenstaufen regent of Sicily, Manfred. With the defeat and
death of Manfred, 1266, and of the youthful Conradin in 1268,
ended at once the House of Hohenstaufen and the glories of the
Holy Roman Empire.

Since its foundation by Charlemagne in 800 it had lasted 450 years. Although
shorn of its greatness, the " Empire " continued to exist in theory till 1806, when it was abol-
ished by Buonaparte, who, however, once more conceived himself as heir of Charlemagne in

his own title of emperor. The history of Germany after 1254 is determined by the continued union in one prince of two different offices, namely, that of German sovereign and of emperor of Christendom. The struggle against this sovereign as an emperor so weakened his power as a king in later history, that Germany did not achieve its national unity until the 19th century.

RULERS OF GERMANY FROM 911 TO 1254.

Conrad I., the Franconian............. ....A. D. 918†

SAXON LINE.

Henry I.. '' 936†
Otto I., son of foregoing................................. '' 973†
Otto II.,   ''   .... '' 983†
Otto III.,   ''   .. .. '' 1002†

Henry II., grand-nephew of foregoing.. .... '' 1024†

Tenth Century.

FRANCONIAN LINE.

Conrad II................................... .... '' 1039†
Henry III., son of foregoing .... '' 1056†
Henry IV.,   ''   .... '' 1106†
Henry V.,   ''   .... '' 1125†

Lothair the Saxon.. '' 1137†

Eleventh Century.

HOHENSTAUFEN LINE.

Conrad III.. '' 1152†
Frederick I. (Barbarossa), grandson of foregoing............. '' 1190†
Henry VI.,   } sons of foregoing.................... '' 1197†
Philip of Suabia, }   '' 1208†
Frederick II., son of Henry VI............................ '' 1250†
Conrad IV., son of foregoing... .... '' 1254†
Otto IV., rival emperor.

Twelfth Century.

Thirteenth Century.

Thirteenth Century Continued.—Between 1254 and 1272 no emperor was elected. Richard of Cornwall, brother of Edward I. of England, and a Castilian prince, were both suitors for the title. This shows that there was no legal connection between German royalty and the title of emperor, which it so invariably secured.

The fall of the Hohenstaufens was followed by an immediate development in Germany of the feudal independence for which the great nobles had so long been aspiring, and the history of the country becomes broken and chaotic through this development of feudalism at the moment when France was developing unity and national power. After 1272 the princes took

care to select an emperor who, from smallness of his estates or other reasons, was not considered a dangerous enemy to their feudal independence. Thus, instead of a direct territorial authority over Italy and the whole of Germany, with some sort of influence over Hungary, Bohemia, Poland, and Burgundy, the Imperial office did not even convey a sovereignty over Germany. It became an engine for the personal aggrandizement of the individual prince, whose family heirs might become (and often did become) themselves feudal opponents of another emperor.

Rudolf of Hapsburg.*

Rudolf of Hapsburg, a man of character but with relatively small possessions, was thus elected emperor in 1273. He owned territories in Switzerland adjacent to the Castle of Hapsburg, with some possessions in what is now Southern Baden and in Alsace. Ottocar of Bohemia, also ruler of German Austria (Austria proper is the territory of which Vienna is the immediate capital), contested the election. Rudolf worsted him, and confiscated German Austria for his own family possessions.

Map Study.—See Western Europe about 1400, p. 200.

Thus the House of Hapsburg became the House of Austria, with possessions including Carinthia, Styria, and Carniola, to which the Tyrol was afterward added. But Hungary and Bohemia, the largest part of the modern Austrian Empire, were not acquired till after 1500. For original Hapsburg territory in Switzerland, Baden, and Alsace, see map for Europe about 1400. For addition of Austria, see the same map. Carinthia, Styria, Carniola, the Tyrol; the same.

When Rudolf was crowned no sceptre was at hand. He removed the difficulty by snatching up a crucifix, saying, "A symbol by which the world was redeemed may well supply the place of a sceptre." He was distinguished by indifference to personal appearances, and did not hesitate to wear an inferior cloak, and to repair, with his own hand, his doublet. This was made a subject of merriment by Ottocar of Bohemia, who was compelled, after his defeats, to sue for pardon of the emperor attired in this very costume.

* Portrait-statue above the portal of Strassburg Cathedral.

FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

The story of William Tell belongs to the time of Albert of Austria, the son of Rudolf. The feat of shooting an apple from a child's head is related, in a Danish chronicle, of a freebooter living some time before William Tell. But it is quite certain, at least, that a revolt of the Swiss cantons, Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden, against the Hapsburgs, was caused by the oppressions of the bailiff Gessler.

The later Swiss confederation dates its existence from this time. Lucerne soon after joined the three cantons named, making the "Four Forest Cantons." Before 1352, Zurich, Glarus, Zug, and Berne had joined the league.

In 1386 the Hapsburgs, endeavoring to recover some of their Swiss territory, were defeated at Sempach, mainly by the heroic self-sacrifice of Arnold von Winkelried, who clasped the enemies' spears in his arms, and thus, by offering up his life, opened a gap in their ranks for his comrades.

Map Study.—For the Swiss cantons named, see modern map of Switzerland. For Sempach, see map of Europe about 1400.

Henry VII. of Luxemburg is the emperor celebrated by the contemporary Italian poet Dante. Although a prince of small possessions, he strove to live up to his title. The marriage of his son John with the Princess Elizabeth, heiress of Bohemia, founded the important House of Luxemburg-Bohemia.

Charles IV. of this line established the "Golden Bull," by which the right of choosing the emperor was legally fixed where custom had devolved it—on seven electoral princes. This mode of election was made necessary by the tumultuary elective meetings of earlier times. At the election of Lothair the Saxon, for instance, sixty thousand knights and barons entitled to vote had been present.

The seven electors were the King of Bohemia, the Princes of Brandenburg, of Saxony, and of the Palatinate, and the Archbishops of Mayence, Treves, and Cologne. The jurisdiction of the princes was made independent of appeal to the emperor. Thus was formally established the territorial independence of the feudal German states. In all ways the reign of Charles IV. marks the recog-

nition of the now purely titular character of the Imperial office, his activity as a sovereign being almost entirely confined to his own Bohemian kingdom. Here he created, at Prague, the first German university.

Map Study.—" Europe about 1400," the seven Electorates are underscored. The Palatinate included territory on the Rhine, at the mouth of the Neckar (Heidelberg), and on the opposite West-Rhine bank. The Upper Palatinate corresponds to the northern part of modern Bavaria. Large territories on the Rhine and Moselle belonged to the Archbishoprics of Mayence, Treves, and Cologne.

MAP EXPLANATION.

Dauphiné.—Charles IV. abandoned, in 1347, the Imperial rights of supremacy over Southeastern France—the " Burgundy " of map for Europe during the 12th century. These rights were granted to the French crown-prince John, who had inherited at this time the over-lordship of Dauphiné, and thus united it with the French crown. The title of " Dauphin," corresponding to that of the " Prince of Wales," and given to the oldest son of the King of France, was derived from the acquisition of this province. Compare map for Europe about 1400.

Luxemburg-Bohemia.—See map for Europe about 1400 for Luxemburg (colored blue, the territory above Lorraine). With the Bohemian territories are included Silesia and Brandenburg.

Union of Hungary with Luxemburg-Bohemia.—Sigismund, son of Charles IV., married Maria, heiress of Hungary, and was crowned king in 1387. Hence the union of Hungary and Bohemia (so important for later history of Austria). Shakespeare has been derided by English critics for ignorance of history in providing " Bohemia " with sea-ports—observe the map.

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

As emperor after 1410, Sigismund conferred on the House of Hohenzollern the territory of Brandenburg, where this family was established in 1417. The original home of the Hohenzollerns was a small territory, still owned by them, in the southwest corner of Wurtemberg. The family gained the title of Counts of Nurnberg under Henry VI., with possession of the neighboring territories of Anspach and Baireuth, in modern Bavaria. With the acquisition of Brandenburg (capital Berlin) begins the rise of the modern kingdom of Prussia, still ruled by the Hohenzollerns. Their territory of Brandenburg has always remained the central province and heart of this kingdom. The name " Prussia " is derived from an outlying province acquired at a later date.

After Sigismund, the Imperial title reverted to the Hapsburgs. The reign of Frederick III. lasted nearly half a century. His own Austrian dominions were small, his character and life quite narrow, and the exercise of the sovereign rights over Germany, implied in his title, were almost absolutely in abeyance. But this emperor was father of a

Maximilian I.
(*From an old Wood-cut.*)

famous son, who gave a fresh impulse to the pretensions and also to the power of the emperors.

This son was Maximilian I., a knightly and energetic character. He succeeded his father in 1493.

His grandson and successor, the Emperor Charles V., is the most important sovereign—in character, possessions, and influence—of the 16th century. But the dimensions and history of his empire presuppose a knowledge of Italy, of France, and of Spain, as well as of Germany. For this reason the history of each of these other countries is carried down to the year 1500, before entering on the 16th century and the period of Charles V. The most important part of Maximilian's reign also belongs to the 16th century.

German Knight of Maximilian's Time.
(*From an old Wood-cut.*)

ADDITIONAL FEATURES OF GERMAN MEDIEVAL HISTORY.
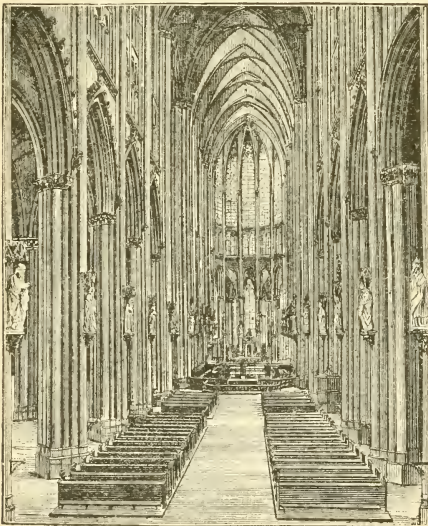
Cologne Cathedral. Interior.

Teutonic Knights and first settlement of Prussia. —This province, which, united at a later date with the territory of Brandenburg, transferred its name to the whole territory of the Hohenzollerns, lies in the extreme northeastern corner of modern Germany, on the Vistula and its tributaries. (Map for "Europe about 1400.") It was inhabited until the 13th century exclusively by barbarian Slavonians.

Pope Innocent III. created the first bishop of Prussia soon after 1200. He was supported and assisted by the Teutonic Knights, a crusading order headed by Hermann von Salza, who colonized and Germanized the province.

The Mongols.—In the reign of Frederick II. the Mongols, having conquered under Dschingis (Gingis) Khan nearly the whole of Asia, invaded Europe. They defeated a German army

in 1241 at Liegnitz (Leegnitz) in Silesia, but retired before a continued show of firm resistance. They continued to occupy Russia, as related under this heading.

The Hansa.—After the middle of the 14th century the most important power of North Germany was the league of the Hansa towns, which controlled the commerce of Northern Europe, and even waged successful war as an independent power on Denmark. Among the most important cities of this league were Lübeck, Wismar (Vismar), Rostock, Stralsund, Bremen, Hamburg, Cologne, Dantzic, Koenigsberg, Wisby, Riga, Reval and Dorpat.

The Cathedrals.—We are not to suppose, from the chronicles of the Imperial title and the weakness of German sovereigns in the later Middle Age, that the period after the Hohenstaufens was insignificant in Germany. It is the time of the rise and greatness of the Free Cities. They have written their own history, here and all over Europe, on the Gothic cathedrals, which belong to this period and represent its greatness. The Gothic Style, borrowed from France, developed in Germany after the middle of the 13th century and lasted till after 1500.

The early Christian churches borrowed their forms from the

Cologne Cathedral, begun 1248. View of the Choir.

Roman Basilica (Business Exchange) and from the Roman Baptisteries or Baths. Basilica types are represented at pp. 123, 137, 147. The Baptistery was a dome structure; types at pp. 114, 135.

After 1000 the Romanesque Style; types at pp. 158, 159; developed by combining the dome with the basilica form of the cross. The dome was placed over the junction of nave and transept, and the buildings were vaulted over with arched ceilings of brick or stone.

The Gothic developed from the Romanesque by increasing all dimensions and especially the height. The pointed or Gothic arch was first introduced to attain greater stability of the heavy ceilings at such immense altitudes. Combined with these immense dimensions was a lightness of construction which required the support of the exterior Gothic buttress; types at pp. 168, 169, 189, and in many later illustrations.

8

CHRONOLOGY OF GERMAN MEDIEVAL HISTORY.

4th Century.—Christianity begins to spread among the German tribes.

5th Century.—German Invasions.
               Overthrow of the West-Roman Empire in 476.

6th Century.—Spread of the Franks and Lombards in France and Italy.

7th Century.—Anglo-Saxons christianized.

8th Century.—Poitiers, 732.
               Mayors of the Palace overshadow the Merovingian kings,
                 and found the Carlovingian line under Pepin, 752.

9th Century.—The Empire of Charlemagne.
               Treaty of Verdun, 843.

10th Century.—Saxon Emperors after 918.
               Otto the Great revives the Imperial ideal of Charlemagne.

11th Century.—Franconian Emperors after 1024.
               Contest of Henry IV. and Gregory VII. about Investitures.

12th Century.—Hohenstaufens after 1137.
               Lombard towns throw off the yoke of the German Emperors.
               The Hohenstaufen Henry VI., acquires Naples and Sicily.

13th Century.—Fall of the Hohenstaufens and decline of the " Empire."
               Rudolf of Hapsburg.

14th Century.—The House of Luxemburg-Bohemia founded.
               Southeastern France abandoned, 1347.
               The Golden Bull, 1356.

15th Century.—The Hohenzollerns established in Brandenburg, 1417.
               Imperial title continues in the Hapsburg line after 1439.

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON GERMAN HISTORY BEFORE 1500.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

What people reached into Germany as far as the Elbe in the early Middle Age ? (P. 154.) Why ?

Who occupied Hungary before the time of Charlemagne ? (P. 154.)

Who subdued the Avars ?

Who made possible the German settlement of Austria proper ?

What important possessions of modern Austria did not belong to this State before 1500 ?— *Ans.*, Bohemia and Hungary.

What were the relations of Bohemia, Poland and Hungary to the Empire in the time of the Saxon emperors? (P. 157.)

What emperor begins the line of Hapsburg in Austria proper ? (P. 164.)

What provinces were included with this duchy ? (P. 154.)

With what duchy was Bohemia united in the 14th century ? (P. 165.)

What part of the possessions of Luxemburg-Bohemia, passed to the House of Hohenzollern ? (p. 166). When ?

What century saw the Hohenzollerns established in North Germany ?

What century saw the Hapsburgs established in Austria?

When was the Province of Prussia Germanized ? (P. 168.)

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

Why did the German princes favor the election of weak sovereigns after 1272 ? (P. 164.)

Who formally established the later electoral method? (P. 165.)

Where were the great possessions of the Hohenstaufens ? (P. 160.)

When did their power end ?

What Hohenstaufen was monarch of Naples and Sicily ?

How did he inherit Naples and Sicily ?

Who was called into Italy to combat the heirs of Frederick II. ?

In whose reign did the emperors lose in the main their territorial powers over Italy ? (P. 162.)

By whose reign was the system of a weak sovereignty in Germany established ? (P. 164.)

How did the reigning prince recompense himself for the weakness of sovereign power? (P. 164.)

What House held the Imperial title after Frederick III. till 1806 ? *Ans.* The Hapsburgs. (After 1740 the Hapsburg blood passed by the female line through the Empress Maria Theresa, who married a Duke of Lorraine. But it is still usual to speak of the present Austrian line as that of the Hapsburgs.)

Was there any necessary connection between the Imperial title and the House of Austria ? *Ans.* No.

Was there any necessary connection between the Imperial title and the Sovereignty of Germany ? (P. 157.)

What did the title mean ? (P. 157.)

With whom did it originate ? (P. 154.)

THIRD REVIEW LESSON.

What territories did Charlemagne rule?

Which did he conquer? (P. 154.)

Which did he inherit? (Pp. 148, 149.)

Who was the father of Charlemagne?

Who made Charlemagne emperor? When?

On what basis or theory?

How long had the Western Empire been in abeyance? (P. 146.)

What assistance was rendered the Pope by Pepin? (P. 150.)

Whose duty was it to protect the Pope from the Lombards? *Ans.* The duty of the Emperor of East-Rome.

What was the Exarchate of Ravenna? (P. 147.)

To what empire did it belong?

How did the schism of the Greek Church begin? (P. 147.) When?

What were the resulting relations of the Popes to the Eastern Empire? (P. 148.)

When did the Lombards settle in Italy? (P. 147.)

Whose power did they replace?

What German power was overthrown in Italy by Justinian's generals? (P. 146.)

How long did East-Rome hold all Italy? (P. 147.)

How long did it hold the Exarchate? *Ans.* Until shortly before 754. (P. 148.)

Who drove the Lombards out of the Exarchate? (P. 148.)

Who subdued the Lombards throughout Italy? (P. 154.)

When did the East-Goths enter Italy?

Whose rule did they replace?

Who became ruler of Italy in 476? (P. 146.)

How long after the death of Theodosius the Great? (P. 134.)

How long after Rome was sacked by Alaric? (P. 143.)

FOURTH REVIEW LESSON.

Who was Alaric's successor? (P. 143.)

Who founded the Visigothic State? (P. 143.) *Ans.* After Athaulf had led the Visigoths to the settlements assigned by Honorius, and had married Galla Placidia, he was assassinated in 415. He was succeeded by Wallia, who is generally called the founder of the Visigothic state.

Who overthrew Visigothic power in France? (P. 148.)

Who overthrew it in Spain? (P. 150.)

When did the Franks cross the Rhine? (P. 144.)

With what companions?

What Germanic state was founded in North Africa? (P. 144.)

When established? (P. 144.) When overthrown? (P. 147.)

What replaced it? (P. 147.)

Who overthrew the East-Roman power in North Africa? (P. 150.)

Who prevented the Mohammedans from conquering France? (P. 150.) When?

Who was the father of Pepin? (P. 150.)

When did Clovis begin his reign?

Give the successive additions to the Frankish state before 550. (Pp. 148, 149.)

FIFTH REVIEW LESSON.

How long before later additions were made? (P. 154.)

What additions were made by Charlemagne?

When was Charlemagne's empire divided?

From what time date the beginnings of modern France and Germany? (P. 155.)

What territorial power had Lothair in 843?

What territorial power had the Saxon emperors? (P. 157.)

When was Italy practically lost to the emperors? (P. 161.)

When was Germany lost to the emperors as a united state? (P. 164.)

When was Germany the strongest state in Europe? *Ans.* In the 10th, 11th, and 12th centuries.

What history unites the Roman Empire with later periods? *Ans.* The preceding Germanic history of all Western Europe from the 5th to the 10th century.

How long a time between Alaric and Charlemagne? And between Charlemagne and Barbarossa? Between Barbarossa and Rudolf of Hapsburg? Between Frederick II. and Frederick III.?

Who was the successor of Frederick III.?

Who was the successor of Maximilian I.? (P. 167.)

What different countries are involved in a knowledge of the period of Charles the Fifth? (P. 167.)

GENEALOGY CONNECTING THE GERMAN AND FRENCH CARLOVINGIANS.

FOR REFERENCE IN USING TABLES AT PAGES 156 AND 178.

Charlemagne.
†814.

Louis the Pious.
†840.

Lothair.
†855.

Louis the German.
†876.

Charles the Bald.
†877.

Lothair II.
†870.

Louis II.
†875.

Karlmann.
†880.

Louis the Younger.
†882.

Charles the Fat.
Deposed, 888.

Louis II.
†879.

Arnulf.
†899.

Louis the Child.
†911.
(Extinct.)

Louis III.
†882.

Karlmann.
†884.

Charles the Simple
†929.

Louis IV.
†954.

Lothair.
†986.

Louis V.
†987.
(Extinct.)
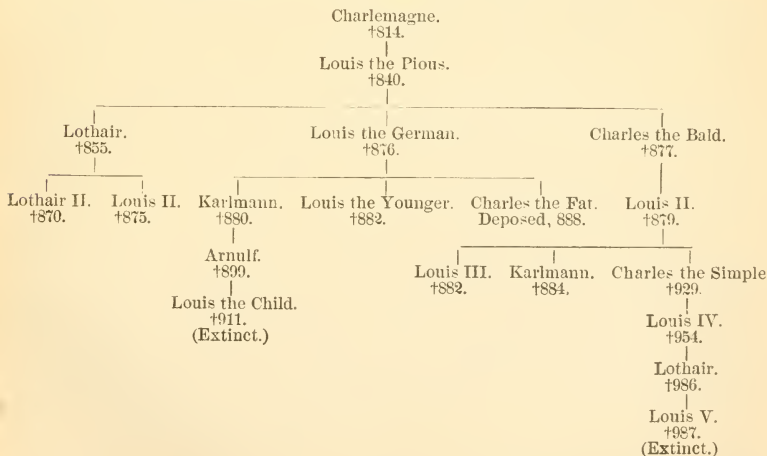
F R A N C E,

TILL A. D. 1500.

FRANCE IN ITS CELTIC, ROMAN, AND GERMAN PERIODS.

Celtic Period.—There is a marked distinction of character between the Germanic peoples and those of the Celtic race, to which the French, Irish, Welsh (Ancient Britons), and Highland Scotch, belong.   In opposition to the sometimes melancholy, generally contemplative and mystic, German nature, the spirit of the Celtic race was, and is, distinguished by light-hearted gaiety, by the cultivation of social graces, and by a more impulsive and spirited temper.   The mind of the German is deep and profound, the mind of the Frenchman is logical and clear.   A peculiarly valuable trait of the Celtic race is the nobility and chivalry of spirit which softens by mutual politeness the contrasts of rank, and bridges over by social tact the inequalities of condition. Notwithstanding this difference of traits, the Celts are a branch of the one original Aryan family from Asia, which also peopled Europe with Germans and Slavonians, Greeks and Italians (p. 31).

In common with these other peoples, the French Celts, as settled in Europe before the time of written record, already possessed a moral and social family organism, were acquainted with husbandry, and could by no means be considered a barbarous nation.   It was also the good fortune of the French Celts, unlike the Germans, to have begun their intercourse with Southern Europe at a time when its ancient civilization was still vigorous.   An important influence on French civilization was exercised by the Greek settlement of Marseilles, about 600 B. C.   At a much earlier date Phœnician commerce had brought from Syria and from Carthage the luxuries and some of the knowledge of the East.   The famous monuments found in Celtic countries—immense blocks of stone, erect, like those at Stonehenge in England, and forming temple inclosures, or sup-

ported on other large stones as monumental tombs, called " cromleachs " or " dolmens," argue a mechanical science well known to the Phœnicians, and probably acquired from them. The caste of the Celtic priests called Druids is thought to have derived its teaching from Phœnician religion.

Besides the early influence of Phœnicians and Greeks on Gaul (the ancient name of France, but including all territory west of the Rhine), we must notice the long establishment of the Gauls in Italy —Cisalpine Gaul. They controlled the fertile plains of North Italy for centuries. Gallic Italy was not

Dolmen near Poitiers, 13 feet long, 3 feet thick.

definitely conquered by Rome till after the Punic Wars. As mercenary soldiers, the Gauls had invaded Southern Italy on many occasions, notably in 390 B. C. (p. 81), and they invaded Greece in 290 B. C. This last invading force, after leaving Greece traversed Macedonia and Thrace to the Black Sea, sailed across it, and settled Galatia in Asia Minor.

Map Study.—The arrangement of reference follows the order of the book.

Marseilles (Massilia), p. 92. Cisalpine Gaul (Gallia Cisalpina), p. 86 and p. 92. Galatia, p. 58 and p. 94.

The Roman Period.—In recalling the rapid conquest of Gaul by Roman civilization after the campaigns of Julius Cæsar, we must remember that its southern coast country—Gallia Narbonensis—had then been already Roman for three-quarters of a century.

From the earlier Celtic period we pass then to the Roman period, which lasted from 58 B. C. until the states of the West-Goths, Burgundians, and Franks (after which latter tribe France is named)—a period of five hundred years. For our knowledge of this time, the sections devoted to the Roman Empire and its civilization. must be consulted. In common with other provinces of the empire, Gaul underwent the moral transformation which the spread of Christianity carried with it. The large number of converts already existing there in the 2d century is notorious.

Map Study.—Gallia Narbonensis, p. 92. See on a modern map Narbonne. Roman Gaul, p. 116.

The Frankish period of history, which begins with the German inva-

sions of the 5th century (Clovis, 481–514), has been already summarized in relating the history of the early Germanic states. It lasted five hundred years. A reputed ancestor of the German Frank Clovis was named Merovæus—hence
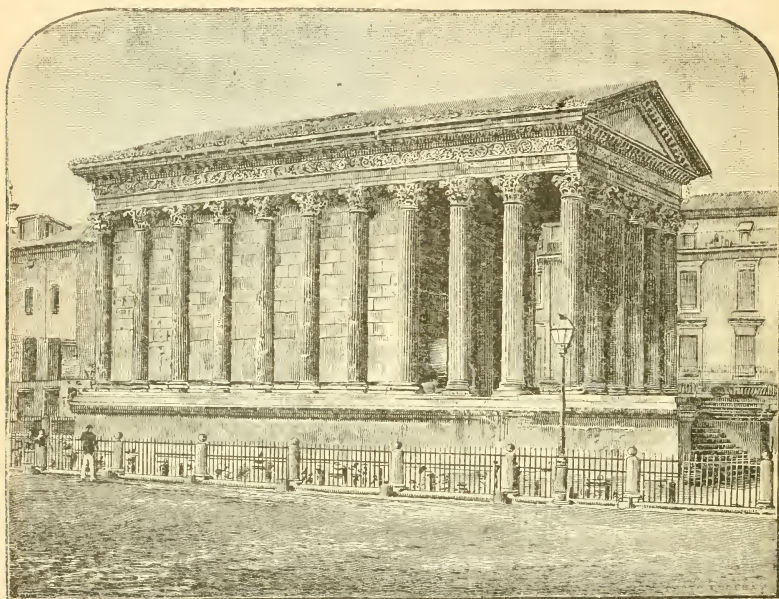
Roman Temple at Nismes, called the "Maison Carrée."

his dynasty is called the Merovingian. In emphasizing the Germanic nature and origin of Frankish history, we must not forget that the process of Romanizing the Franks and other Germans in France, of transforming them from barbarian converts to intellectual and spiritual subjects of Rome, was largely the work and mission of the native Gallo-Roman population. (See also the share of the Irish missionaries in this work under Irish history.) The absence of animosity of race, of the spirit of extermination, in the German invasions, has been noticed already, and it helps to explain the assimilation of the conquerors by the conquered. On the other hand, the Merovingian period was one of ignorance and violence, for the native population as well as for the Franks. While one part rose higher the other fell lower, till the general level was between the earlier condition of either. The decline of the Merovingian dynasty brought the Mayors of the Palace to the throne, with Pepin, 752 (p. 150).

Map Study.—Merovingian France, p. 140. But remember that this map shows the extent about 500 A. D.; therefore notice the additions made in 507 and before 550, described at pp. 148, 149. To appreciate the final extent of Frankish Merovingian rule, subtract from the territory of Charlemagne, at p. 154, North Germany, Austria, Italy, and Northeast Spain.

The Frank Carlovingian period of French history includes Germany and Italy. The quarrels of the sons of Louis the Pious show, however, a tendency to national separation, which distinctly begins after the Treaty of Verdun, 843. This is the period from which the history of France as a separate country must begin.

Although the Frankish Carlovingian line continued to linger till 987, its later kings had no influence and made no mark. Their names are included in the dynastic lists mainly because to omit them would be to create confusion as to the order of number of the French sovereigns in later times. Without reference, then, to the titular sovereigns after 843, the 9th century in France has three important features—the dissolution of the territorial empire of Charlemagne, the absolute triumph of the feudal system over the monarchy, and the distress and disorder occasioned by the forays of the Northmen. England and Ireland at the same time suffered in the same way. Germany was being devastated by the Hungarians, and the coasts of Italy were ravaged by the Mohammedan Arabs. The 9th century is the darkest of European history.

The Northmen of Denmark and Scandinavia were the last to trouble Europe by pagan cruelty and violence. In contrast with the earlier Germanic invasions their ravages were made by sea, and being more desultory were far more destructive. Every navigable river was entered by their boats, and from the farthest limit which could be reached by water they struck inland on plundering excursions, to burn and destroy what they could not remove. The animosity of these northern pagans had been especially aroused by Charlemagne's conquests of their kindred in Saxony, and a sentiment of revenge inspired their terrible raids. The Northmen ravages in France continued from the close of Charlemagne's reign in 814 for an entire century, till 911. The necessity of combating with them at every point and the incapacity of the later Carlovingian rulers transferred all duties of defence and powers of government to the local fiefs. The great fiefs were made hereditary by Charles the Bald in 877.

The hereditary fiefs were simply independent kingdoms, without real subordination to any other civil power. As opposed to this power of the Great Barons the later Carlovingian kings had not even the revenues of a fief to preserve their dignity and pay their expenses. They had at last only the town of Laon, east of Paris, for royal domain

CARLOVINGIAN RULERS OF FRANCE TO THE 10th CENTURY.

Pepin..................... ....A. D.	752–768
Charlemagne, son of the foregoing................ "	768–814
Louis the Pious, " " .... "	814–840
Charles the Bold, " " .... "	843–877
Louis II., " " .... "	877–879
Louis III., " " .... "	879–882
Karlmann, brother of the " .... "	882–884
Charles the Fat, 2d cousin of the foregoing.... ... "	884–888
Charles the Simple, son of Louis II........ ..... "	888–(929)

TENTH CENTURY.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE 10th CENTURY.

Charles the Simple........ ....A. D.	(888)–929
Louis IV., son of the foregoing .... "	929–954
Lothair, " " .... "	954–986
Louis V., " " .... "	986–987
Hugh Capet.................................... "	987–996
Robert.. "	996–(1033)

Charles the Simple.
(*Ancient M.S.*)

In 911 a band of Northmen under Rollo, by treaty with Charles the Simple, settled the territory since called **Normandy**, in the lower valley of the Seine. This province was granted them as a means of preventing the desultory landings of their pirate countrymen. It was now their interest to protect the coasts.

Northman barbarism at the time of settlement is illustrated by the story of Rollo's homage to Charles the Simple. When summoned to kiss the king's foot he ordered an attendant to perform the ceremony. This was effected with such rudeness as to throw the king on his back, amid the boisterous laughter

of Rollo's followers. But these Northmen (Normans) became Christian converts, and rapidly assimilated the French language, laws, and civilization.

Although now relieved from foreign invasion, the lack of a central royal authority left France a prey to the feuds and conflicts of lawless Barons. The right of private war was absolute (p. 153) and the worst side of the Feudal System made itself apparent.

Capetian Dynasty.—In 987 the Carlovingian line became extinct. The Duke of Paris, Hugh Capet, founded then the dynasty from which all the later kings of France have sprung. For the time being the only apparent change in the character of French monarchy was, that the king had at least as much territory as some of his so-called vassals.

This Territory was the Isle de France (with the Orleanais: Orl-e-anai), the province of which Paris is the capital. The development of modern France consisted in the gradual consolidation around this territory of other feudal provinces, which successively yielded their feudal and provincial independence to the authority of the royal power.

Map Study.—Normandy (Normannia), p. 156; Isle de France and the Orleanais—their extent at p. 156. For the provinces themselves see a modern map of France.

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON THE 10th CENTURY.

Explain the Feudal System and its origin. (Pp. 152, 153.)

In what country was the local independence of feudal territories held in check until the middle of the 13th century? (Pp. 153, 163.)

Who founded the Holy Roman Empire? (P. 154.)

In what country was its system continued?

How long after the settlement of Normandy began the Saxon line of emperors? (P. 156.)

Who was the greatest Saxon emperor? (P. 157.)

What was his century?

Does his reign fill the earlier, later, or middle portion? (P. 163.)

What countries acknowledged his sovereignty? (P. 157.)

In what century were the beginnings of Christianity in Denmark? (P. 158.) Poland and Bohemia? (P. 158.)

What English king died one year after the beginning of the 10th century ? *Ans.*, Alfred the Great.

Who was Pope in the year 1000 ? (P. 158.)

Of what German emperor had he as a monk been tutor ?

Of what French king had he also been the tutor ? *Ans.* Of King Robert.

ELEVENTH CENTURY.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE 11TH CENTURY.

Robert.............. .... A. D. (996)–1033
Henry I., son of the foregoing................ "   1033–1060
Philip I.,   "   "   .... "   1060–1108

The Truce of God.—The confusion and disorder of this period in France, and also the efforts of the Church to improve it, are

Knights Tilting at a Mannikin. Fifteenth Century MS. at Brussels.

apparent in the institution of the ·· Truce of God."   By a series ˚of provincial Church Councils a suspension of arms was ordered during each week from Wednesday night to Monday morning.

Chivalry.—A more effectual and permanent influence was exerted, in the efforts of the Church to turn the warlike instincts of Feudalism in the right direction, by the institutions of chivalry. These proposed the devotion of the warrior to the service of the Church, of the poor and of the oppressed. The conditions of chivalric education, by which the knight was bound to undergo a species of novitiate and to maintain an unsullied honor, humanized and softened the manners of the age. The elemental institutions of the Feudal Period were Germanic (p. 152), but the development of chivalry was peculiarly French, and this nation above all others has ever since retained the ideal of the self-respect, the courtesy and the bravery of a " man of honor." The Court of the King of France began to be looked upon as the highest school of courtesy for the whole kingdom.

The Crusades.—The consecration of the warlike spirit to the service of Christianity and of Christendom took visible and practical shape in the Crusades, which began at the close of the 11th century. Jerusalem was taken from the Infidels in 1099.

Normans in Naples and Sicily.—In this century also the swords of the Norman knights began to carry French ascendency to other countries of Christendom. In 1016 Norman pilgrims had assisted in the expulsion of the Arabs from lower Italy. Serving at first the Byzantine and Lombard rulers of the state of Naples, they became its masters after 1059, when Robert Guiscard was made Duke of Apulia and Calabria by Pope Nicholas II. Sicily was rescued by them at the same time from the Arabs and was added to the new state. The Italian Normans rendered great service to the Roman Pontiffs in their contest with the emperors.

Normans in England.—In 1066 the Normans, under William the Conqueror, accomplished the conquest of England. By this conquest England was connected with French culture, and the period of Anglo-Saxon barbarism was brought to a close.

The kings of France were still of small importance in territorial possession. They were confined to their domain of the Isle de France, and the Norman conquest of England was undertaken and accomplished without the least reference to the wishes or in-

terests of the contemporary king, Philip I. It is not till after 1100 that the personal influence of the monarchs made itself appreciable in French history. They first became important during the period of the Crusades, and as a result of the influence of the Crusades on France. Among the kings of the 11th century the name of Robert is distinguished for Christian charity and devotion.

Map Study.—Norman kingdom of Sicily and Naples, p. 182. Apulia, same map. Calabria, p. 156. Normans in England, p. 182. Observe the relations of color in Normandy and England. As the Norman conquest precedes the date of this map, turn to page 156 for the domain of French monarchy " Francia," in the 11th century.

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

What line of German emperors succeeded the Saxon line in 1024?   (P. 163.)

Who was the first Franconian emperor of this line ?

What kingdom in Southeast France was incorporated in his empire in 1032 ?   (P. 159.)

What were the dimensions of this state ?   (P. 157.)

To what state belonged the modern French provinces of Alsace and Lorraine ?   (P. 157.)

To what state belonged the Netherlands ? Switzerland ?   (P. 157.)

Who was the second emperor of the Franconian line ?   (P. 163.)

What new kingdom acknowledged his sovereignty ?   (P. 159.)   When Christianized ? (P. 158.)

Who was French king in 1077 ?   (P. 180.)

Who was Pope in 1077 ?   (P. 160.)

What happened in this year ?   (P. 160.)

How long after the Norman-French conquest of England ?   (P. 181.)

How long before Jerusalem was taken from the infidels ?   (P. 181.)

Give the important events of the years 1066, 1077, 1099 ?

What nation took most active part in the Crusades ?   *Ans.*   The French.

What tended to estrange the German empire from interest in the First Crusade ?   *Ans.* The contest with the Popes.

TWELFTH CENTURY (INCLUDING THE FIRST CRUSADE JUST BEFORE 1100).

FRENCH KINGS OF THE 12TH CENTURY.

Philip I...A. D.	(1060)–1108
Louis VI., son of the foregoing........................... "	1108–1137
Louis VII., " " .... "	1137–1180
Philip II., Augustus, son of the foregoing.................. "	1180–1223

Sultanate of
Iconium

Malatia
Merash

The Cilician pass

Edessa
Edessa

Armenia

Adana
Tarsus

Rakka
Euphrates

Antioch

Aleppo

Laodicea

Tortosa

Tripolis

Hama

Emesa

Baalbeck

Seljukian Turcs

Berytus
Sidon
(Tyrus) Sur
Ptolemais
Tiberias
Caesarea
Arsoof
Jerusalem
Ascalon

Jordan

Gaza

The Christian
States
in the East
in
1142

Scotland

Ireland

England

Normandy
Bretagne
Anjou

Saxony

Franconia

Lorraine

Paris

Vezelay

Burgundy

France

Aquitaine

Gascony

Toulouse

Languedoc

Longobardia

Venice

Tuscany

Romagna

Rome

Leon

Portugal

Castile

Navarre

Arragon

Andalos

Palermo

Tunis

Magrab

58 **EUROPE**
during the 12ᵗʰ Century.
The Age of the Crusades.

The possessions of the Plantagenets in 1160 are light blue
The German Empire is colored blue
The Christian states in the East are also col'd blue
The Byzantine Empire is colored yellow
The Western Caliphate is colored green
The Eastern Caliphate is light green

Grand duchy of Valadimer

Prussia

Poland

Hungary

Danube

Servia

Bulgaria

Spalatro

Constantinople

Byzantine

Empire

Black Sea

Caspian Sea

Iconium

Nicaea

Dorylaeum

Tigris R.

Edessa

Mossul

Iconium

Armenia

Bagdad

Antioch

Kufa

Euphrates R.

Crete

Ptolemais
or Acco

Jerusalem

Damietta

Cairo

Egypt
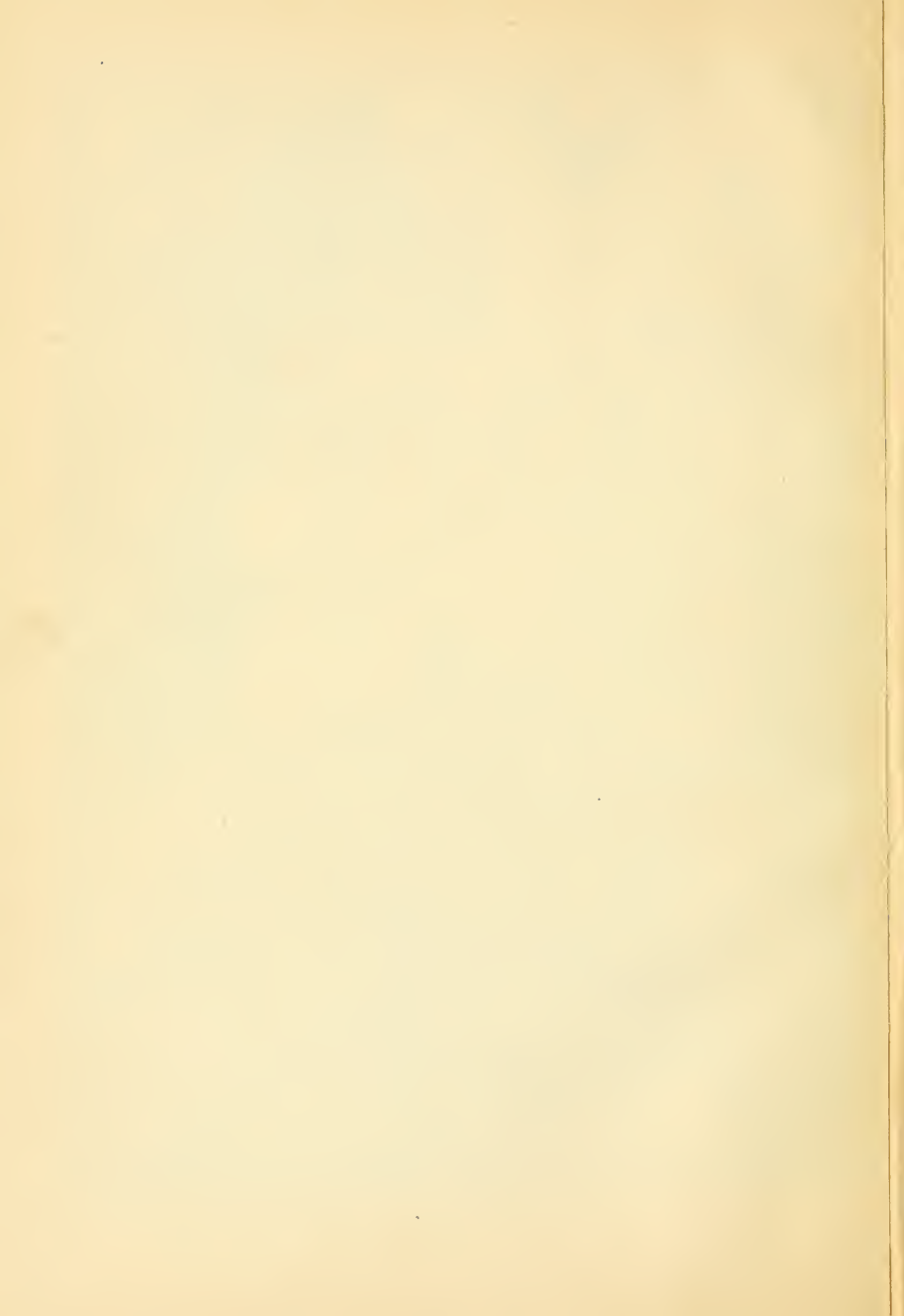
Cause of the Crusades.—The Mohammedan Arabs had conquered Syria from the East-Roman or Byzantine Empire in 637 A. D.; but pilgrims to the Holy Sepulchre were not molested till toward 1100, after the Mohammedan Turks had supplanted the Arab rule. The Turks were originally wandering marauders of the steppes between the Caspian and Aral, which extend south to the Persian plateau. They adopted the religion of Mohammed in the 7th and 8th centuries, after the Arab conquest of Asia, which reached beyond the Indus. Then, in the decline of Arab power and civilization, the Turks assumed the role of ruling and propping up the Mohammedan countries. The Turks holding Syria in the 11th century were the Seljuks ; not the tribe of Othman, which afterward established the present state of Asiatic and European Turkey.

The First Crusade for the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre from Unbelievers was preached in Southern France by Peter the Hermit, a monk of Amiens. Of all nations the French entered into the Crusades most enthusiastically, and the name of the Christians of Europe in the East has always since been the " Franks." In consequence of letters brought by Peter the Hermit from the Patriarch of Jerusalem, depicting the oppressions of the pilgrims, and of the pressing appeals from the East-Roman Emperor, whose territories in Asia Minor had been conquered by the Turks, Pope Urban II. convened the Council at Clermont in 1095, by which the Crusade was publicly proclaimed. The appeal of Urban II. was greeted by the assemblage with the cry, " It is the will of God." The enthusiasm comprehended all orders of society, and private feuds were abandoned.

Details of the First Crusade.—An advance army of Crusaders fell to pieces on the march, and was dispersed in the plains of Hungary and Bulgaria for lack of organism and supplies. The second army, which also marched by way of the Danube, reached the walls of Constantinople 600,000 strong. Its commander was Godfrey of Bouillon (bwe-yon), Duke of Lower Lorraine, who now atoned for earlier share in the opposition of the Emperor Henry IV. to Gregory VII. Other leaders were Hugh of Vermandois (vermandwa), brother of Philip I. of France ; Robert of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror ; Bohemund of Tarentum, Nor-

man ruler of Southern Italy and son of Robert Guiscard ; and Raymond the Count of Toulouse, ruler of Languedoc. The first work of the Crusaders was the siege and capture of Nicæa, in Northwestern Asia Minor, for to this extent had the Seljuk Turks overrun the domain of the Byzantine state. The army of the Sultan of Iconium, the ruler of Turkish Asia Minor, was defeated at Dorylæum, east of Nicæa. The Crusaders then marched under incredible privations and difficulties through Asia Minor to Tarsus. The difficulties of obtaining forage and provisions, the debilitating effects of the Eastern climate for Europeans, and ignorance of the territory to be traversed, were obstacles not less serious than the task of combating with the highly trained warriors of the East. The Feudal chivalry, whose force lay in the valor and prowess of individual knights, was not adapted to distant expeditions or to union in large bodies. Thus the ultimate success of the First Crusade is sufficient testimony to the zeal and valor of its leaders and soldiers.

Capture of Jerusalem.—On reaching Northern Syria, a portion of the crusading army under Baldwin, brother of Godfrey, was
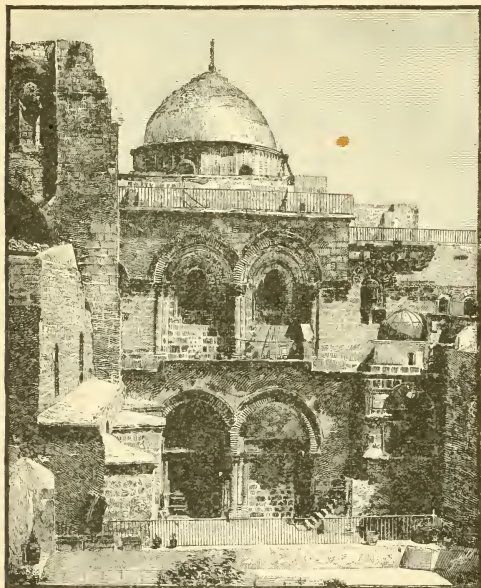
Church of the Holy Sepulchre, Jerusalem.
(*Built by the Crusaders.*)

directed across the Northern Euphrates, and here was founded the Christian principality of Edessa. This was to protect the Christians in Syria from attacks by way of the Euphrates. The siege of Antioch occupied nine months, and after its capture it became the centre of a principality ruled by the Italian Norman, Bohemund of Tarentum. Only 1,500 knights and 20,000 foot reached the walls of Jerusalem. They stormed the city on the 15th of July, 1099. Godfrey of Bouillon was elected the first Christian king of Jerusalem, but refused to wear the crown where our Saviour had borne the chaplet of thorns. The

hold of the European Christians on Syria lasted for two centuries, although Jerusalem itself was lost in 1187.

The later Crusades generally miscarried, or wasted much energy in proportion to apparent results, but the broad fact still remains that the forces of the Mohammedan East were thus occupied at home and prevented from making aggressive war on Europe. The two centuries of Christian occupation in Syria gave that much additional lease of life to the East-Roman Empire, which, although it showed the Crusaders no gratitude, continued an important factor in the development of Western civilization until the middle of the 15th century. The commercial relations of the Genoese and the Venetians were firmly established at this time in the Levant, and continued long after the Crusades were over, and until modern times entered on new paths of commerce with Asia.
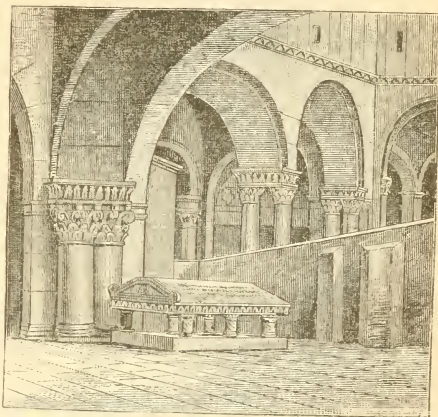
Tomb of Godfrey of Bouillon in the Holy Sepulchre Church at Jerusalem.*

The Second Crusade was undertaken in 1147, in consequence of the conquest by the Saracens of the principality of Edessa. The French king Louis VII.

Castle of the Syrian Crusaders near Tiberias.
(*Restoration from the Ruins.*)

and the Hohenstaufen emperor Conrad III., both took part in it at the summons of Pope Eugene III. St. Bernard, Abbot of Clairvaux (clarevo) was active in promoting it. The Christian armies were almost destroyed in Asia Minor, mainly by the perfidy of the Byzantine allies, who began to fear the West more than the East. The remnants of these armies which reached Syria laid siege to Damascus without success, and Edessa was not recovered.

Third Crusade.—In 1187 the capture of Jerusalem by the Turk Saladin,

---

* From a drawing made 1828; the tomb since destroyed.

whose successes confined the Christians to two strips of territory on the Syrian coast, the principalities of Tripolis and Tyre, led to the Third Crusade, time of Pope Urban III. The Hohenstaufen, Frederick Barbarossa, was its most important leader, on account of the discipline of his army and his military experience. He was drowned in crossing the river Calycydnus (near Tarsus), which had once been nearly fatal to Alexander the Great. Deprived of his leadership, the German army reached the Syrian Christians with diminished numbers and weak heart. Forces led by Richard I., "the Lionhearted," of England, and by Philip II. of France, sailed across the Mediterranean to Syria, and assisted the Crusaders already engaged in the siege of Acre.

Knight of the Twelfth Century.
(*From a seal dated* 1196.)

The capture of Acre was the only great success of the Third Crusade. Dissensions between the French and English kings caused the return home of the former. Richard performed prodigies of valor as a knight, but as a general he was not successful in coping with Saladin, and Jerusalem was not recovered.

Rise of French Royalty.—Meantime, in France the three reigns which cover the 12th century—those of Louis VI., Louis VII., and Philip II., began that development of the royal power which was destined to make of this country the first compactly organized and united modern state of Continental Europe. Under the direction of Suger (sooja), Abbot of St. Denis and Minister of Louis VI. and Louis VII., the policy of royal alliance with the civic communities was inaugurated.

The city communes were the centres of commerce, and therefore were the natural antagonists to the system of feudal territorial independence and private war, which had left the rulers of France without real power since the death of Charlemagne. Charters and liberties were now granted by the kings

to the communes, which secured their financial and military alliance for the monarchy in its contest with the Feudal system. This alliance was promoted by the influence of the Crusades. Public sentiment had been raised above narrow local jealousies by contact with foreign nations, and the merchant classes acquired wealth and consideration by the more luxurious mode of life introduced after contact with the East.

Map Study for the Crusades.—Byzantine Empire, p. 140. This empire is called indifferently Byzantine, East-Roman, or Greek. It is the Greek half of the Roman Empire. On this map it is marked by the words " Greek Empire." Compare, for Arab conquest of Syria and Egypt, map at p. 154. For further description of these and other conquests, see history of the Arabs and Turks, in Book III.

Caspian and Aral Seas, see a modern map. Amiens, in Northern France, modern map. Turkish encroachment on Byzantine Empire in Asia Minor, p. 182. Clermont, p. 182. Hungary and Bulgaria, the same. Constantinople, the same.

On same map, Lorraine—(belongs to what empire?)—Toulouse and Languedoc, Nicæa, Iconium, Dorylæum.

Enlarged map of Syria, time of the Crusades, Tarsus, Edessa, Antioch, Jerusalem.

Clairvaux, in Champagne. Damascus, p. 154. Tripolis, Tyre, Acre (see Ptolemais), p. 182.

MAP EXPLANATION FOR EUROPE DURING THE TWELFTH CENTURY.

Eleanor of Acquitaine, wife of Louis VII., had for a short time brought her husband as her dowry and inheritance, the whole of Southwestern France. But Eleanor was divorced from Louis VII. soon after the Second Crusade, and carried these territories to her second husband, Henry II., King of England in 1154.

Since the Norman conquest of England, the Normans also ruled Brittany and Maine. The additional extent of the English color is derived—first, from the Plantagenet inheritance of Anjou and Touraine. The father of Henry II. was Count of these provinces. Second :

Henry's marriage with Eleanor gave the English kings Acquitaine (in which name Gascony was then included), that is, the whole of Southwest France. The provinces of this inheritance are to be looked out on a modern map. They are Gascony, Guienne, Limousin, Angoumois, Saintonge, Poitou, and Auvergne.

Thus, in the 12th century, one French Baron ruled about a third of France and England beside.

On the other hand, the French king ruled only about one-fifteenth of France.

The following were also Feudal independent territories :

Languedoc, map, p. 182.

Provence and Dauphiné (map for Europe about 1400) were in " Burgundy," p. 182, and belonged to the Germanic Empire (p. 157).

Champagne (p. 156) was an independent Feudal state.

Franche Comté (or the Free County of Burgundy) belonged to the Germanic Empire.

Lorraine and Alsace (modern map) belonged to the Germanic Empire. See explanations at p. 157.

Picardy (modern map) belonged to the Count of Flanders (Flandria, p. 156).

The Duchy of Burgundy (map for Europe about 1400), where see its distinction from the county and kingdom of same name), was also independent.

The foregoing explanations are especially important for the later part of the reign of Philip II. and for following sovereigns. Under them modern France began to be built up from these hitherto independent states, beginning with the Anglo-French provinces.

SYNCHRONISTIC AND OTHER QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

What line of emperors began in 1137 ? (P. 163.)

What two French kings may be dated by this year? (P. 182.)

When did Barbarossa become emperor ? *Ans.* In 1152.

Who was French king then ?

Date the battle of Legnano ? *Ans.* 1176.

What change in the relations of Italy and Germany does this recall ? (P. 161.)

Who was Pope ? (P. 161.)

What followed ? *Ans.* The independence and subsequent greatness of the Italian Communes.

Name the most important ? *Ans.* Venice, Milan, Genoa, Pisa, Florence.

What is, therefore, the most important feature of Italian history in the 12th century ?

What is the important feature of French history in this century ? (P. 186.)

When did the Gothic Cathedrals rise in Germany ? (P. 169.)

What do they indicate ? (P. 169.)

Whence did the style come ? (P. 169.) When did it begin ? *Ans.* In the 12th century.

How many Crusades in the 12th century ?

What German emperor took part in the Third Crusade ? What French king ?

What sovereignty did the provinces of Northwestern France acknowledge in the reign of Philip II. before 1200 ? *Ans.* The English.

What sovereignty was acknowledged by Southwestern France ? *Ans.* The English.

What sovereignty was acknowledged by Southeastern France ? *Ans.* The German.

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

What provinces of France were not subject to the monarch in 1200 ?

What great events had, however, led the people to wish for closer unity ?

In what ways did the Crusades assist the rise of French monarchy ? (P. 187.)

Why were the City Communes opposed to the Feudal System ? (P. 186.)

What is the century of St. Bernard ?

By what Crusade can his date be fixed ?

What sovereigns did he influence and inspire ? *Ans.* Lothair the Saxon and Louis VII.

What important event of English history belongs to the 12th century ? *Ans.* The murder of Thomas à Becket, 1170.

What important event of Irish history in the 12th century ? *Ans.* The Anglo-Norman invasion, about 1170.

When was founded, by French Normans, a Norman state in Naples and Sicily ? (P. 181.)

What became of this kingdom at the close of the 12th century ? (P. 162.)

What was the Byzantine Empire ? (P. 135.)

What province of the Byzantine Empire was almost entirely conquered by the Seljuk Turks before the First Crusade ? Map for the 12th century.

What provinces had been conquered by the Mohammedan Arabs ? (P. 150, and map for Charlemagne, p. 154.) When ? (P. 150.)

From whom had the generals of Justinian conquered Northern Africa ? (P. 147.)

When did the Vandals come there ? (P. 144.)

Of what empire was it a portion previously ?

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE 13TH CENTURY.

Philip II., Augustus....................A. D. (1180)–1223

Louis VIII., son of the foregoing.............. " 1223–1226

Louis IX., " " .... " 1226–1270

Philip III., " " .... " 1270–1285

Philip IV., the Fair, son of the foregoing...... " 1285–(1314)

Cathedral of Notre Dame, Paris. Built in the reign of Philip Augustus.

Royal Acquisition of Northwestern France.—After the death of Richard of England in 1199, the succeeding English king John had murdered his nephew, Duke Arthur of Brittany, the rightful heir. From motives of policy and of justice, Philip II. Augustus had espoused the cause of Arthur, and as John's feudal lord cited him to answer for the crime. John refused to appear, and in consequence lost, after 1204, as much by disaffection of these provinces as by conquest of arms, Normandy, Brittany, Anjou, Maine, Tourraine, Poitou, Saintonge, Angoumois, and the Limousin. Guienne, including Gascony, alone remained English. The Channel Islands, which still belong to England, are the remnant of the possessions lost by John to the French king. Auvergne was also about the same time, in 1209, acquired by confiscation.

Battle of Bouvines.—To recover his losses, John united an army of Germans and Flemings 150,000 strong. Philip defeated it with an army of 60,000 militia of the Communes at Bouvines, between Lille and Tournay, 1214.

Albigensian Crusade.—To this hold gained on Northern and Western France was soon added the control of Languedoc, the most important province of the South. In Southern France the sect of the Albigenses, named from the town of Alby, had developed a heresy dangerous to religion and to morals. Pope Innocent III. proclaimed a crusade against them, which was undertaken by the French of the North. "The atrocious cruelties of the sectaries provoked reprisals equally atrocious, and although this war saved both religion and civilization in the South, neither accept the responsibility of cruelties inflicted in their name, but against their spirit."

Acquisition of Languedoc.—The general in command against the Albigenses was the Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, whose son is considered the originator of the English House of Commons. To Simon de Montfort was given the province of Languedoc, forfeited by its ruler, Raymond of Toulouse, on account of the sympathy and assistance given the Albigensian sectaries. Amalric, elder son and successor of Simon de Montfort, unable to control his

inheritance, transferred it three years after the death of Philip Augustus, to his successor, Louis VIII. (in 1226).

The Fourth Crusade.—At the opening of the 13th century, in 1202, the Fourth Crusade was undertaken to recover Jerusalem, lost since 1187 (p. 185). The expedition was assembled at Venice, and by Venetian persuasion, after setting sail, was directed against the Byzantine state, contrary to the Pope's wishes. Constantinople was taken, and Baldwin, Count of Flanders, was declared sovereign of the "Latin Empire" of the East, although three-fourths of its territories were divided among other participants in the expedition, the Venetians taking the larger share. This "Latin Empire" lasted from 1204 to 1261. The Byzantine Empire was then reconstituted.

The Fifth Crusade.—Although two abortive expeditions are sometimes included in the number of the Crusades, the fifth is generally counted as the one undertaken by the Hohenstaufen emperor, Frederick II., in 1227 and 1228. He was successful in making a truce with the Sultan of Egypt, by which Jerusalem was yielded again to the Christians. But in 1244 a new horde from the steppes near the Caspian, the Charismian (Karismian) Turks, overflowed Syria, and Jerusalem was lost once more.

The Sixth Crusade.—This led to the Sixth Crusade, undertaken in 1249 by the French king, Louis IX., the most celebrated sovereign of Medieval France. His expedition was directed against Egypt, in order to secure by the possession of this country a sure hold of Syria. But after some successes, the army and king were made captives by the Egyptian Sultan. Louis was ransomed, and spent some time in assisting the Crusaders of Syria to strengthen their positions on the coast, returning to France in 1254.

The Seventh Crusade.—In 1270, Louis IX. again undertook a Crusade, the seventh and last. Intended to conquer both Egypt and Syria, it was first directed against the Mohammedans of Tunis, and was here overtaken by a pestilence in which the king lost his life.

Later history of the Christians in the East.—Discontent at the diminution of Louis' ransom by the Egyptian Sultan had led to the overthrow of the latter by his body-guard of Tartar and Caucasian slaves, called Mamelukes. They placed one of their own number on the throne of Egypt and then gradually wrested from the Christians in Syria their remaining strongholds. After desperate resistance Acre, the last crusading fortress in this country, was taken in 1291.

The Ottoman Turks occupied Constantinople, 1453, one hundred and fifty years later, but the Knights of St. John held the Island of Rhodes till 1522, and Cyprus, which passed to the Venetians, was held by them till 1571. In this year the naval battle of Lepanto was a decisive check on the farther advance of the Mohammedans in Europe. (See Turkish his-

tory, **Book III.**) It is not, however, till our own century that the Turkish Mohammedan power has begun sensibly to yield ground. The miserable condition to which its rule has reduced the once flourishing territories of Southeastern Europe, of Asia Minor, of Syria, Egypt and North Africa, is an all-sufficient testimony to the far-seeing wisdom of the Mediæval Popes, in uniting the energies of Europe against the foe of its civilization and in attacking it on its own ground.

In a time when the arms and inventions of Western civilization have placed it above the danger of destruction, it is not easy to estimate the dangers which threatened it when the weapons and skill of Eastern warfare were equal, and often superior, to those of the West. To the policy of the Popes—which enabled the states of Europe to develop their strength and forces before the barrier against the East which the Byzantine Empire interposed was overthrown—the very existence of modern civilization must be attributed.

" Although the later Crusades were unsuccessful and the territorial gains of the earlier ones were gradually lost (the fall of Acre at the close of the 13th century, 1291, ended the Christian power in Syria), it cannot be said that the result of the Crusades was a failure. Their immediate effect was to save the Christian world from a Turkish invasion, and to teach the sons of the Prophet what they had to fear from the warriors of Jesus Christ. They increased the spiritual and temporal power of the Popes, who were supreme directors of the transmarine warfare. The political influences of the Crusades extended, 1st, to the rulers, who were enabled by them to strengthen their authority and extend their domain ; 2d, to the nobility—the orders of knighthood established in the East shed their lustre upon Europe and were imitated in every Christian kingdom ; 3d, to the people—the Crusades did more than any other agent to favor emancipation, the establishment of municipalities, and of the third estate or commons ; 4th, to commerce and industry—the growing necessity for more frequent journeys, their profitable issue, and many practices borrowed from the pilots of the Levant, gave a great impulse to the nautical art. The maritime cities which became the emporiums of Eastern commerce drew to themselves increase of population, and some of them became powerful republics. Witness the prosperity of Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Marseilles and Barcelona. From the same source, though by less direct action, sprang the wealth and activity of the Flemish cities, which were at once commercial and manufacturing towns, serving as great marts between the North and South. The soil was taught to bear new products, and the mulberry, buckwheat, sugar cane, etc., were brought into Europe. The Crusades advanced general civilization by opening new relations between the various nations and the mutual interchange of practical knowledge. The laws of honor and courtesy were communicated by chivalry to the practices of daily life and did much to raise the middle classes. The repeated expeditions to Syria, the diplomatic relations consequently opened with the Mongols of the farther East, and the new roads they cleared for commerce, gave to the West a much more correct notion of the East and even of the interior of Asia. Oriental history also shared the new light cast upon geography, and Arabia gave to medical science many new ideas for the treatment of diseases and the use of simples, while mathematics and mechanics were enriched from the treasures of Eastern lore."—(*Abbé Darras' " History of the Church.*")

The Domestic Policy of Louis IX. was not attended by the disasters which the Eastern climate and unaccustomed surroundings brought upon his two foreign expeditions. He was both a strict and merciful executor of justice. He protected the common people, held in check his Barons and won the hearts of all by up-

right behavior and nobility of life. In view of the very recent and large increase in the extent of the royal domain, of the savage Albigensian war by which one portion had been gained, and of the insubordinate spirit of the times, the later security and solidity of the French monarchy must be attributed largely to the esteem for it which he inspired in his people.

Louis IX. was canonized by Pope Boniface VIII. at the close of the same century. He owed much of the elevation of his mind to the Franciscans and Dominicans by whom he was surrounded. On difficult questions he was wont to consult St. Thomas Aquinas.

Under Philip III. the monarchy was peaceful and well governed.

Amiens Cathedral.
(*Built in the reign of Louis IX.*)

Philip IV., the Fair, added to its territory Champagne, in 1285, by marriage with its heiress. In his relations with the Church he lacked the spirit of Louis IX., and maltreated shamefully Boniface VIII., who had canonized his grandfather. His difficulties with the Pope arose from the exactions which he practised on the French clergy, and these again were caused by need of money to carry on war with the English and their Flemish allies—defeat of the French at Courtrai (Koortray), 1302.

The Templars.—The same need of money led to Philip's confiscations of the wealth of the Knights Templars, who were cruelly persecuted by him to this end. History is in doubt as to the crimes of the Temple Order, but not as to the cruelty of Philip's process. The Order was suppressed by Pope Clement V. in 1312. It had

been the great bulwark of the Crusaders in the East, but became corrupt by the immense wealth heaped upon it.

Map Study.—The provinces lost by John are indicated by the light blue color on map for the 12th century ; if Gascony and Guienne be noted as the only ones remaining English.

Province of Auvergne, see modern map.

Bouvines, in Flanders.

Languedoc, map for Europe about 1400. Alby, northeast of Toulouse, modern map.

Venice, p. 182 ; Tunis, p. 182 ; Rhodes, modern map ; Cyprus, p. 182 ; Lepanto, modern map of Greece, north side of the Gulf of Corinth ; Champagne, p. 156 ; Courtrai, in Flanders.

MAP EXPLANATION.

Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX., had been given this province of Anjou by his father. He added to it, by marriage with its heiress—Provence (map for 1400), so far a feudal territory of the Germanic Empire, but by this time practically independent of it, and by conquest from Conradin, heir of the Hohenstaufens—Naples (South Italy), 1268.

In this conquest, made by Papal assistance and approbation, Sicily was included ; but this island, lost to the French by the massacre of the Sicilian Vespers, 1282, passed to the House of Aragon, through a marriage relationship of the Hohenstaufens and the preference of the revolted people.

Thus was founded the French Angevin line in Naples, with Provence as dependency. (Angevin is an adjective formed from Anjou.) See also the color for Aragon and Sicily.

SYNCHRONISTIC AND GEOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

Who was French king before and after 1200 ? (P. 189.)

Who was Pope ? (P. 168.)

What influence had this Pope on English history ? *Ans.* He appointed the Archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton, who procured the great charter of English liberties from King John.

What provinces did King John lose to Philip II. ? When ?

Since when had an English king ruled Normandy and Brittany ? *Ans.* Since the Norman conquest of England.

Date it ? (P. 181.)

Since when had an English king ruled Anjou and Maine ? (P. 187.)

Since when had an English king ruled the Acquitanian inheritance ? (P. 187.)

What were these " English " kings ? *Ans.* French Barons.

What province was united with the French monarchy in 1209 ? (P. 190.)

When was Languedoc united with the monarchy ? (P. 191.)

As result of what war ?

What Pope prompted the Albigensian Crusade ? (P. 190.)

What Pope procured the Fourth Crusade ? *Ans.* Innocent III.

Did its result meet his wishes ? (P. 191.)

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

What province passed to a French ruler (not the king) in the time of Louis IX. ? (P. 194.)
How did it become connected with Naples ? (P. 194.)
From whom was Naples conquered ? (Pp. 162. 194.)
When had the Hohenstaufens obtained it ? (P. 162.)
From whom ? (P. 181.)
Who was Hohenstaufen emperor at the time ? (P. 162.)
For what else is Henry VI. renowned ? *Ans.* For detaining Richard the Lion-hearted, of England, in captivity on his return from the Third Crusade. Richard was not released till he paid a heavy ransom.
What was the legal condition of Provence when it passed to Charles of Anjou ? *Ans.* Fief of the German Empire.
Since when ? (P. 159.)
But when had the power of the emperor met a decided check ? (P. 160.)
When had it been mainly excluded from North Italy ? (P. 161.)
What sustained the emperors in Italy a little longer ? (P. 162.)
Who overthrew the Hohenstaufen cause finally ? (P. 162.)
When were Germanic pretensions to sovereignty over Southeastern France formally abandoned ? (P. 166.)
What province was united with the French monarchy in 1285 ? (P. 193.)
What province was receded to England under Henry III., son of John, by Louis IX. ? *Ans.* The Limousin.
What province had the English always retained since the time of Eleanor of Acquitaine ? *Ans.* Guienne, including Gascony.
What French provinces, therefore, had the English in the time of Louis IX. ?
How would you fix the time of Eleanor of Acquitaine ? *Ans.* Divorced from Louis VII. and married Henry II. after the Second Crusade. Date the Second Crusade.
What cathedral dates from Philip Augustus ? *Ans.* Notre Dame, in Paris.
What king founded the University of Paris ? *Ans.* Philip Augustus.
What is his central date ?
Who founded the college and theological faculty of the Sorbonne ? *Ans.* Robert de Sorbon. chaplain of Louis IX.

THIRD REVIEW LESSON.

Who was French king in 1250 ? (P. 189.) When did he die ?
How long before the accession of Rudolf of Hapsburg did he die ? (P. 164.)
What is the character of the empire after Rudolf of Hapsburg ? (Pp. 163, 164.)
What influence on the French monarchy had Louis IX. ?
What Saint and theologian was his friend ?
Who caused him to be canonized ?
When did Louis IX. die ?
When did Edward I. succeed Henry III. as King of England ? *Ans.* 1272.
How many years between the death of Louis IX. and accession of Edward I. ?
How many years between the accessions of Edward I. and of Rudolf of Hapsburg ?
What phase of English history begins with Edward I. ? *Ans.* The French Baron, King of England, has become an English king with French possessions.

What was the result ? *Ans.* Jealousy between the two nations, as opposed to feudal contentions between Frenchmen ; the earlier aspect of French and English relations.

What war offered Philip the Fair opportunity to harass the English ? *Ans.* Edward's war with Scotland after 1290.

Into what crime and cruelties did this contention draw Philip IV. the Fair ? (P. 193.)

Who was French king in 1200 ? In 1250 ? In 1300 ?

Date the death of the last Hohenstaufen emperor ? *Ans.* 1254.

What important event in Northeastern Europe in the 13th century ? (P. 168.)

When was Syria abandoned by the Christians ? (P. 191.)

Did they therefore abandon resistance to the encroachments of the Mohammedan East ? (P. 191.)

What shows the necessity of the Crusades ? (P. 192.)

When have the Turks begun to lose their hold on Europe ? (P. 192.)

FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

THE DESCENT OF EDWARD III. AND PHILIP VI. OF VALOIS.

Philip III., † 1285.

Philip IV. the Fair, † 1314.   Charles of Valois.

Philip VI.

Louis X.   Philip V.   Charles IV.   Isabella = Edward II.
† 1316.   † 1322.   † 1327.
                                                   Edward III.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE 14TH CENTURY.

Philip IV. the Fair............................	A. D.	1285–1314
Louis X.	"	1314–1316
Philip V. ⎬ sons of the foregoing............	"	1316–1322
Charles IV.	"	1322–1327
Philip VI. of Valois...........................	"	1327–1350
John, son of the foregoing....................	"	1350–1364
Charles V., son of the foregoing..............	"	1364–1380
Charles VI., " "	"	1380–(1422)

Reign of Philip the Fair, continued.—Notwithstanding the bad personal character of Philip IV., he assisted the tendencies of the country to unite under the monarchy. The still remaining obstacle to this national unification was the hold of the English kings on Acquitaine (dating from the marriage of Henry II. and Eleanor). The consequent tension between France and England resulted in a war which lasted over a century and terminated in the subsequent

rise of France as the first modern monarchy. Philip IV. had seized portions of this Southwestern France, when the English, under Edward I., were engaged in war with Scotland after 1290, and, to combat the English in France, the Scotch were openly or covertly assisted. This led, when England was freed from the Scotch war, toward 1330, to the outbreak of the long wars between France and England, which continued till the middle of the 15th century.

The accession of Philip VI. gave Edward III., of England, pretext for declaring war, on account of his own descent from Philip IV., whose daughter Isabella was his mother. Edward's claim could not stand in French law, which gave preference to the male line. The ambition of the English king was, however, not only to hold Southwestern France independent of the French allegiance legally due, but to regain also the provinces lost by John (p. 190). Hence the claim to the French throne.

Church of St. Ouen, at Rouen.
(*Early 14th Century.*)

The Franco-English Wars.—The first period was one of success for the English—victories of Sluys (naval), 1340; of Crécy, 1346, and Poitiers, 1356. In this last battle the French king John the Good was taken prisoner, and he died in captivity.

The Peace of Bretigny (Bretinyi), in 1360, gave the English absolute possession of Acquitaine, as opposed to their earlier feudal

possession, but they abandoned the claim to the French crown and to the Northern provinces conquered by Philip II. from John..

The war was reopened, at the accession of Charles V., in 1364, by the French. As carried on by their national hero, Du Guesclin (Ghāklin), it resulted in the almost entire expulsion of the English. They only retained Bordeaux and Calais. This latter town had been taken after the victory of Crécy. The war languished after 1380, under Richard II. of England, and the overthrow of this king, in 1400, by the Lancastrian dynasty of Henry IV., represented the resulting English discontent.

Map Study.—Sluys, in Flanders, p. 200 ; Crécy, or Cressy, extreme Northern France ; Poitiers, in Poitou, p. 200.

Bretigny, southwest of Paris, p. 200. The English possessions given to England absolutely and without French claim of feudal allegiance by the Treaty of Bretigny, are light red on the map for Europe about 1400.

Bordeaux, Southwest France, p. 200; Calais, extreme Northern France, p. 200.

MAP EXPLANATION FOR EUROPE ABOUT 1400.

Compare map for Europe in the 12th century with map for Europe about 1400.

Acquisition of Dauphiné.—An important event of the 14th century is the acquisition of Dauphiné. See matter at page 166.

Independent "Secondary" or Branch Lines.—But the process of unifying the provinces of France was counteracted by gift of territories to branches of the royal family. These then developed an independent influence, and often assumed an attitude of veiled or open opposition to the monarchy.

Brittany, after conquest by Philip Augustus, was thus bestowed on the House of Dreux (Droo), founded by the uncle of this king ; and the dukes of Brittany attained an independence which makes the subsequent reunion of this province with France, at the close of the 15th century, one of the most universally quoted facts of French history.

Provence became in the same way a dependence of Naples, when Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX., acquired this kingdom in the 13th century and transmitted it to his descendants.

The province of Anjou itself was reunited with the monarchy by Philip of Valois, and John the Good gave it to a son Louis—thus founding the Second Line of Anjou.

Dukedom of Burgundy.—Of such branch lines the most important of all is the Line of Burgundy, also founded by John the Good. John gave the duchy of Burgundy (map, p. 200) to his son Philip the Bold, 1361.

Distinctions as to the meaning of the word Burgundy.—Under this duke and three successors was developed, by additions through marriage, purchase and conquest, one of the most important European states of its time. Its possessions, as transmitted by marriage, were an essential element in the greatness of the most potent sovereign of the 16th century, the Emperor Charles V. ; and ignorance of its nature and territories involves a hopeless con-

fusion in the details of history after 1500. Such confusion is favored by the varying application of the word "Burgundy" at different periods of history and its simultaneous use in different senses for the same period.

The original kingdom of Burgundy (map, p. 140), founded by the Burgundians of the 5th century, took in the territories on the Rhone and Saone, reaching from beyond their western banks to the eastern borders of modern France and from the Mediterranean into Switzerland. It took in the territories afterwards known as the Franche-Comté or free county of Burgundy, the duchy of Burgundy, Savoy, Dauphiné and Provence. All of these territories were incorporated in the Frankish dominions after 534 (p. 149).

In the division at Verdun, 843, the later "duchy" of Burgundy—that is, the province so named on the modern map of France—was included in the French territories of Charles the Bald. The remaining provinces were part of the Imperial domain of Lothair (map at p. 154). When this domain was dismembered soon after (p. 156), the Burgundian territories were ruled by independent princes and kings till the formal incorporation with the "Empire"; time of Conrad II., 1032 (p. 159). They are known (map at p. 156) as the kingdom of Burgundy or *Arelat* (from the town of Arles).

Of the two most important Southern provinces of this state, Provence came under Charles of Anjou (13th century) and so to the State of Naples, while Dauphiné became a French province, as just noted, in 1347, when the Emperor Charles IV. abandoned any farther Imperial claims on Arelat.

Meantime, the French Duchy of Burgundy, united with the monarchy under Robert and transferred by him to the line founded by his son, continued under this house till its extinction in 1361. John the Good then gave it to his son Philip the Bold.

From this time "Burgundy," which once indicated provinces reaching from the French duchy to the Mediterranean, comes to mean countries reaching north of the duchy to the North Sea.

The first Duke, Philip the Bold, added to the French Duchy by marriage

Seal of John the Fearless, third Duke of "Burgundy."

—Franche-Comté, Artois and Flanders (map at p. 200 and modern map), feudal dependencies of the Germanic Empire. But the weakness of the Empire at this time (see the German history) left the owner of these possessions an independent prince. By conquest, purchase, or marriage, these possessions were so extended before the middle of the next century (the 15th) as to include Luxemburg and the Netherland provinces, that is, modern Belgium and Holland.

The final extent of the Burgundian territory is represented on the map for Europe about 1550, where the purple color in the "Franche-Comté" and the "Netherlands" denotes the Burgundian inheritance of Charles V. and of Philip II. of Spain. But the duchy itself has meantime reverted to France under Louis XI.

Independence of a Burgundian Duke.—In the time of which we are speaking the Netherland territories were attached to the Germanic Empire, but really yielded their ruler the position of an independent sovereign. Thus for a small part only of his possessions was a Burgundian duke of the 15th century even theoretically the subject of a French sovereign. For his richest territories he was feudally connected with an empire which had abandoned its pretensions to real sovereignty.

The towns of the Netherlands, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, etc., by their commerce and manufactures, were the richest and the most important of Northern Europe. The Flemish manufactures of cloth connected their commercial interests with those of England, which furnished them with wool. Thus is explained the hostility to France of the "Burgundian" dukes, in the 15th century, during and after the Franco-English wars. In the next section any further explanation of this Burgundian hostility to France will be unnecessary.

SYNCHRONISTIC AND OTHER QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

Name the English kings of the 14th century? *Ans.* Edward I., Edward II., Edward III., Richard II. †1400.

How did the Scotch war affect relations with France? (P. 197.)

Why were the French disposed to antagonize the English? (P. 196.)

When did the sentiment in favor of French unity begin? (P. 186.)

On which side were the brilliant victories of the Franco-English wars?

On which side the solid results? (P. 198.)

What did these victories demonstrate? *Ans.* The inutility, in large battles, of the Feudal chivalry, on which the French depended, as opposed to organized bands of foot like the English bowmen. The knights were employed by the English to complete their victories, not to begin them.

What important province was united with the French monarchy in 1347? (P. 166.)

Who was king? (P. 196.)

Who became the first Dauphin? (P. 166.)

Who was emperor? (P. 166.)

What had he to do in this acquisition? (P. 166.)

Who was his father? *Ans.* John of Luxemburg-Bohemia. (P. 165.)

Where was this king of Bohemia killed? *Ans.* At Crécy.

What motto and crest were then borrowed from this king of Bohemia by the English Prince of Wales? *Ans.* The three ostrich feathers and motto "Ich dien" (I serve).

What is the date of the Golden Bull? (P. 170.) Of the battle of Poitiers?

Who was paternal grandfather of the Emperor Charles IV.? (P. 165.)

How does Henry VII. of Luxemburg call up the name of Dante, the Italian poet? (P. 165.)

What is the century of Dante?

WESTERN EUROPE
about 1400 A.D.

English dominion light yellow
Aquitaine light red
French dominion red
Angevin dominion
Aragonese dominion brown
Luxemburg possessions blue
Habsburg possessions purple
The names of the seven electorates are underlined.
The principal Duchies in Germany are written in Caps.

ENGLAND

Wales
March · Warwick
Berkeley · Worcester
Exeter · Gloucester
Corfe · Winchester
Canterbury
Calais
Ghent
Flanders
BR

Rouen
Normandy
Seine R.
Rheims

Brittany

Anjon
Paris
Bretigny
Orleans
Loire R.

FRANCE

Poitiers
Duchy
of Dijon
Besançon
BURGU

Saintes
Chaluz
Lyon
Bordeaux
Vienne

Aquitaine
Dauphine

Leon
Burgos
Pampeluna
Muret
Avignon
Toulouse
Languedoc
Provence
Aix
NAVARRA

Salamanca
Civ. Rodrigo
Segovia
CASTILE
Madrid
Toledo
Aragon
Huesca
Saragossa
ARAGONIA
Catalonia
Marseille

PORTUGAL

Lisbon
Valencia
Barcelona

Calatrava
Montiel
Cordova
Valencia
Navra
The Balearic Islands

GRANADA
Granada

FEZ and MAROCCO
TLEMESEN

LITHUANIA

Bornholm

Strasburg
Lubeck   Jagen   Stolgast
Wismar   Konigsberg
Stettin   Dantzig
Hamburg   Marienburg
POMMERANIA   PRUSSIA
Bremen   hulm
BRUNSWICK
BRANDENBURG   Thorn
Magdeburg   Berlin
Francfort °o
COLOGNE   SAXONY
la-Chapelle   Lusatia
Breslau
Silesia   POLAND
TREVES   Francford °M.
MAYENCE
Worms   Wurzburg   Prague
Spiers   Bamberg   BOHEMIA   Moravia
PALATINATE   Neuremberg
Ratisbon   Brunn
Augsburg   BAVARIA
Hohenzollern   Landshut   Danube R.
Ulm   Mühldorf   Vienna °   Presburg
Basle   Constanz   Salzburg   AUSTRIA   Buda   The field of Rakos
Bern   Sempach   Swiss
Morgarten   Nafels   Brixen   Carinthia   Gratz
Tyrol   Styria   H U N G A R Y
The Milanese   Carniola   Finfkirchen
Milan   Verona   Venice
Mantua   Padua
Genoa   Parma
Modena   Bologna   Ferrara   Bosnia
Pisa   Florence   Romagna   Spalatro   Servia
Corsica   Siena   Papal   Bologna
belonging to   Perugia   States   Ragusa   Bulgaria
Genoa   Orvieto   Spoleto
Viterbo   Albania   TURKISH EMPIRE
Rome   Sorrento
Benevento   Naples
Sardinia   Puzzoli   NAPLES   Tarent   Durazzo
Provide   Naples   Tarent
Calabria
Palermo   Duchy of Athens
Tunes   Siena
Sicilia   Morea
Syracuse

MOLDAVIA

Wallachia

Rhine R.   Weser R.   Elbe R.   Oder R.   Danube R.

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

Who is the leading French author of the 14th century? *Ans.* Froissart, the historian of the age, 1337–1410.

What leading English author lived in the 14th century? *Ans.* Chaucer, author of the Canterbury Tales, 1328–1400.

What is the significance of these authors? *Ans.* They indicate the beginnings of the modern Italian, French, and English languages.

When was modern German formed? *Ans.* Not till the 16th century.

What does this indicate? *Ans.* A more backward condition of national unity.

What shows this condition? (P. 164.)

Who was French king in 1300? In 1400?

In what year began the history of the famous Burgundian dukedom? (P. 198.)

Under what king?

What province had this king acquired as Dauphin?

What other province beside Burgundy did he transfer to another son? (P. 198.)

What line was thus founded?

How many years of the 14th century are covered by the united reigns of Louis X., Philip V. and Charles IV.? (P. 196.)

For what are these kings distinguished? *Ans.* For various acts of administrative wisdom, which make more effect in the lives of nations than on the pages of books.

What shows the rise of the lower orders to power and influence in the French state during the 14th century? *Ans.* The "sumptuary" laws of Philip the Fair (against luxury of living) and the rebellion of the serfs and of the Third Estate (the common people) after Poitiers. During the captivity of King John a merchant, Etienne Marcel, for a moment ruled Paris and even France. He was overthrown by the Dauphin, who became soon after Charles V.

What important event took place in Southeastern Europe in the 14th century? *Ans.* The Ottoman Turks established themselves in portions of Byzantine Europe.

What important fact in the history of the Roman Pontiffs belongs to the 14th century? *Ans.* Their residence at Avignon from 1305 to 1378.

How long did Avignon continue a possession of the Popes? *Ans.* Till the French revolution of 1789.

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE 15TH CENTURY.

Charles VI..........	....	......A. D.	(1380)–1422
Charles VII., son of the foregoing..........	"	1422–1462
Louis XI., " "	"	1462–1483
Charles VIII., " "	"	1483–1498
Louis XII., 2d cousin of the foregoing................. ...	"	1498–(1515)

Orleanists and Burgundians.—Since 1392 Charles VI. had been insane. The regency was contested by two parties whose fac-

tions distracted the kingdom. Louis of Orleans, the king's brother, was opposed by the king's uncle, Philip the Bold of "Burgundy," who coveted his position and his influence. The son of this first Burgundian duke (his successor in 1404), John the Fearless, continued this strife with his cousin, and in 1407 procured his assassination. The Orleans party was now headed by the Count of Armagnac (Armanyak), father-in-law of the murdered duke's son.
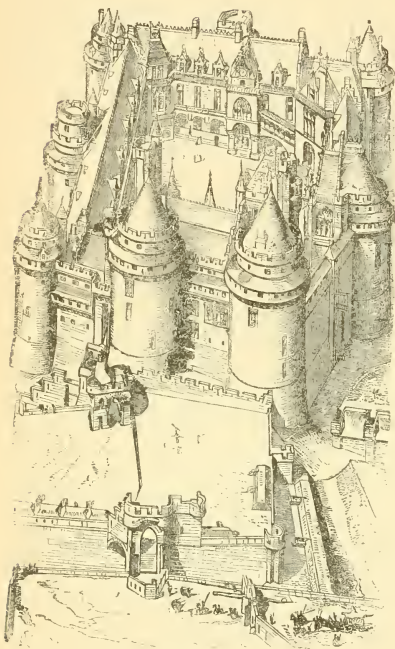
Castle of Pierrefonds. Built by Louis of Orleans.

Henry V. of England resolved to take advantage of these disorders and to sustain his credit at home by recommencing the foreign war. After the victory of Azincourt, in 1415, he conquered the whole of Normandy, while party conflicts still weakened the French. In 1419 an interview between the Dauphin, of the Orleans or Armagnac party, and John the Fearless, was arranged at Montereau (Monterō) and the latter was murdered by the Dauphin's attendants, in revenge for the assassination of the Duke of Orleans.

Treaty of Troyes.—This led to a formal coalition between the immense power of Burgundy (Philip the Good) and the English, by the Treaty of Troyes, 1420. Henry V. was declared by this treaty the successor of Charles VI., whose daughter Catherine he married. The English occupied Paris, and after the death of Henry V., in 1422, the regents for his young son Henry VI. met with continued successes.

Joan of Arc.—The power of the Dauphin, now Charles VII., was confined below the Loire, and the English siege of Orleans was apparently about to terminate in its capture and enable the English to overrun the South. At this moment France was saved by Joan of Arc, a shepherdess of Domrémy, on the border of Burgundy, which country she had learned to detest because its duke had sold France to the English. Declaring her miraculous mission, she raised the siege of Orleans, procured the coronation of the Dauphin at Rheims, and led her countrymen to victory. But Joan herself was captured by the English and burned as a sorceress.

Archers of the 15th Century.
(*From an old picture at Rheims.*)

The Story of Joan of Arc.—On the 24th of February, 1429, the court was visited by a poor shepherdess of Domrémy. "The King of Heaven," said she to the monarch, "has sent me to tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned at Rheims, and shall rule France." She said that mysterious voices had enjoined her to quit her native village, and in the armor of a warrior to save her king and country. The youthful heroine of eighteen years was sent to Poitiers that her vocation might be tested by the bishop and doctors. "God needs not warriors," they said to her, "if it be his will to save France." "The warriors," replied the maid, "must fight and God will give the victory." "And what kind of language do your voices speak?" asked a doctor. "A better one than yours," replied Joan, with some fire. "If you show no better signs to give authority to your words," said the doctor, "the king will not trust you with his soldiers, for you would lead them into danger." "I am not sent to Poitiers to give proofs of my mission," answered the heroine. "Take me to Orleans and you shall see the truth of my words. The sign I am to give is the rescue of that city from siege."

She was believed at last. The young heroine armed herself with a sword, pointed out to her by the mysterious voices. She held a white standard spangled with golden lilies, and bearing, as a pledge of victory, the names of Jesus and Mary.

On the 1st of April, 1429, in open day, she passed through the English lines and entered the beleaguered city at the head of a provision train. On the 8th of May the enemy fled before the

youthful maid, leaving their camp and military equipage in the hands of the French. On that glorious day Joan of Arc received her title as Maid of Orleans.

The heroine might now claim to be believed on her word. "The will of God," she said to Charles VII., " is that you come to receive the crown at Rheims." In a natural point of view, the idea seemed absurd and chimerical: such at least was the opinion of all the leaders. They were more than eighty leagues from that city, which was, with all the intervening country, in the hands of the enemy. But what is impossible to man is easy to God, and Joan of Arc had proved that she was the envoy of God. Charles yielded to her request and set out for Rheims with only twelve thousand men, without provisions or artillery. Auxerre, Troyes and Chalons successively opened their gates. Rheims expelled its English garrison and received Charles with triumphal pomp on the 17th of July, 1429.

During the whole ceremony of the coronation Joan, shedding tears of joy, stood by the king with her white banner in her hand. At the close of the solemnity, Joan threw herself on her knees

Crossbowmen of the 15th Century.
(*From MS., Paris Library.*)

before Charles and kissed his feet. "My liege," she said with tearful eyes, "now the will of God is done. He had decreed to raise the siege of Orleans, and to bring you to Rheims. My mission is ended. I would go back to my parents to resume my life as a shepherdess." The lofty simplicity of her words drew tears from every eye. But Joan had become the army, the hope, the treasure of France, and Charles could not spare her then. She accordingly continued her glorious career ; but she had said, "I shall last but another year, or very little longer ; I must therefore use it well." The sad prediction was only too strictly fulfilled.

On the 24th of May, 1430, Joan of Arc was taken by the English before the walls of Compiegne (Conpiān). If anything could add to her glory it would be the unbounded exultation displayed by the enemies of France over their prisoner ; their whole camp resounded with cries of joy. The soldiers crowded round to gaze on her whose very name had made them tremble. The heroine was taken to Rouen and tried for witchcraft. Peter Cauchon (Kōchon), Bishop of Beauvais (Bō-vā), whose name is a disgrace to the Church and a stain on the page of history, dared to condemn the guiltless victim to the stake.

The execution of the Maid of Orleans will ever remain an infamous blot on the English nation (May 30, 1431). Twenty-five years after the death of Joan of Arc, Pope Calixtus III. ordered the Archbishop of Rheims to institute an inquiry into the particulars of the case. The heroine's innocence was clearly proved and her memory gloriously vindicated. Calixtus pub-

lished a solemn sentence declaring that Joan of Arc " had died a martyr for her faith, her king, and her country."—ABBÉ DARRAS.

Acquisition of Acquitaine.—The death of the Maid of Orleans did not save the English. By 1454, when the war finally closed, they had lost all possessions in France but Calais. Thus, as final result of this hundred years struggle, Acquitaine was added to the Monarchy.

Louis XI.—The greatest influence on the final solidification of France was exerted by Louis XI., son and successor of Charles VII., an unscrupulous and intriguing nature, whose instincts, however, clearly discerned and assisted the popular tendency to national unity. He secured to the advancing geographical solidity

Coin of Louis XI.

the moral support of the nation, by his preference for the common people, and by his contempt of feudal titles. A footman was his herald, a barber his master of ceremonies.

His great rival was the fourth, last, and most famous Burgundian duke, Charles the Bold. Charles proposed the conquest of Lorraine, then territory of the Germanic Empire, and the acquisition of Alsace (Austrian domain, p. 164), which he held in pawn from the Emperor Frederick III. He also aspired to the royal title, which it lay in the power of the Emperor to bestow. His ambition and his life were cut short by the battle of Nancy, 1477.

Charles the Bold had refused to receive the money sent to redeem the Alsatians from his oppressive extortions. The latter called on the Swiss for assistance, which was accorded, and the Burgundian duke accordingly invaded Switzerland. He was decisively defeated in 1476, at Granson and Morat. The Duke of Lorraine then retook Nancy, his capital, and obtained the victory that cost Charles the Bold his life. The gems from the diadem of the Duke, which was found on the battle-field, are dispersed among the regalia of the modern European sovereigns, and many of their most precious jewels are traced to this single source.

Acquisition of the Duchy of Burgundy.—Louis XI. proceeded to confiscate the French territories of the Burgundian dukedom, namely, the French Duchy of Burgundy and Picardy, both of

which have ever since been portions of the French monarchy. The daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, Mary of Burgundy, to secure her states from farther losses, married Maximilian of Austria, emperor after 1493. This marriage laid the foundation of the greatness of the House of Austria, which thus acquired Franche-Comté, Luxemburg and the Netherland Provinces. It also laid the foundation for the rivalry of France with the Hapsburgs, the most important feature of European history in the 16th and in the 17th centuries.

Acquisition of Anjou, Maine, Provence, and Brittany.— Four years after the battle of Nancy, died the last heir of the second House of Anjou (p. 198). This House had acquired Provence, by adoption, from the Neapolitan line of Anjou, when this dynasty died out in 1433, with Joanna II. of Naples. Louis XI. inherited, by the extinction of this second line of Anjou, Maine, Anjou, and Provence, in 1481. His successor, Charles VIII., added Brittany to the crown by his marriage with its heiress.

Influence of Italian Civilization.—To the weight which France was destined to exert in history as the first modern continental state, consisting of a united people under a single ruler, was now to be added the refinement drawn from the civilization of Italy. The two successors of Louis XI.—Charles VIII. and Louis XII.—were the kings who brought France into direct contact with Italy, and their names will appear in this connection.

Map Study.—Orleans, on the Loire, p. 200; Azincourt, in modern French Artois; Montereau, southeast of Paris; Troyes, the same; Domrémy, in Lorraine; Rheims, northwest of Paris, p. 200; Calais, extreme Northern France, p. 200; Lorraine, p. 200; Nancy, in Lorraine; Austrian Alsace, see Austrian Hapsburg color on this map reaching beyond the Rhine, and consult matter at p. 164.

On map for "Europe about 1550" see Duchy of Burgundy and Picardy, with the French color, and compare boundary on "Europe about 1400." See Austrian Hapsburg color (purple) reaching from Alsace (Elzass) over Franche-Comté and covering the Netherlands.

For acquisition of Anjou, Maine, and Provence, compare France on the maps for Europe in 1400 and 1550.

For acquisition of Brittany, compare the same maps.

MAP EXPLANATION.

Modern France compared with France in 1500.— Before 1500 the territory ruled by the French king corresponded to that now French with the following exceptions—Bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, added by Henry II. (map for Europe about 1550); Belgian France (Artois), added by Louis XIV., Alsatian France, added under Louis XIV., Franche-Comté, added under Louis XIV. (map for Europe in 1713); Lorraine, added under Louis XV., (map for Europe in 1748); Nice and Savoy, added under Napoleon III. (modern map). This enumeration omits some minor provinces of small extent.

The steps by which France was geographically built up are important, because France is the country which most clearly exhibits the progressive development of modern national monarchy out of the independent feudal estates. Germany has not even yet attained to absolute national unity. It was still a chaotic mass of small principalities in 1500.

The same process is obscured in England by the fact that the country was absolutely ruled, after 1066, by a foreign conqueror (who was only a feudal lord himself at home). Thus, after 1066, England was not a feudal country in the full sense of the word, being long under strict royal government. Again, the process is obscured in England by the fact that the Wars of the Roses, exhibiting really the power and contentions of the Barons, were apparently and professedly wars between two different royal claimants. The Barons concealed themselves behind the shadow of divided royalty. Under Henry VII., time of Louis XI., England also became a modern national state in the political sense, but France is the country where the logical process can be geographically traced by which independent feudal provinces, one by one, came under the royal power.

French Medieval Costumes.
(*From MSS. of the Time.*)

Spain was made a modern national state by coalition of two royalties—by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella and union of Aragon and Castile in 1469, and by conquest of Grenada from the Moors, 1492. Once more, then, France is the more clearly distinct type of the process by which modern nations in general came into being.

The tendency of European countries to combine feudal principalities under national governments was promoted by the formation of national languages, after 1300, as opposed to a multiplicity of dialects. Common speech led to common government. The demand for the comforts and luxuries of modern civilization, which could be only supplied by cities, and free commercial intercourse, demanded the overthrow of petty state divisions within the state. Therefore the money power (cities) assisted the kings against the land power (feudal nobles). The idea of a nation, involving the idea of common protection under common laws, demanded the existence of an arbiter

and visible single head. The great military and physical power of feudalism demanded an absolutely strong physical military power to overpower it—absolute monarchy.

Absolute monarchy is peculiarly and distinctively modern, the means of destroying feudalism ; but in later modern times the people, having secured their place and national position, have no longer needed in many countries the protection of absolute royal power, hence resort to constitutional monarchy or to republics.

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

Who was the Duke of Lorraine, victor at Nancy ? (P. 205.) *Ans*. René the Good, **of the Second Line of Anjou.** This Line also ruled Provence since 1433, and claimed Naples since the same time (pp, 206, 219). René had acquired Lorraine by marriage (map, p. 200). He died in 1480. When his nephew and heir died in 1481, leaving Maine, Anjou, Provence, and claims on Naples to Louis XI., Lorraine passed, by marriage of René's daughter Violante, to a branch of the older Line of Lorraine. Most of it was fief of the Germanic Empire.

Who were the English kings of the 15th century ? *Ans*. Henry IV., Henry V., Henry VI., Edward IV., Richard III., Henry VII.

What followed the close of the French wars in England ? *Ans*. The Wars of the Roses— civil wars in which the Barons destroyed each other.

How was the modern monarchy prepared in England ? *Ans*. By the self-destruction of the feudal nobles, and the consequent rise of a new aristocracy of wealth. Very few noble families of England can trace back of Henry VII.

How was it prepared in France ? *Ans*. By the gradual consolidation with the monarchy of provinces whose nobles entered the service of the state.

When did this distinction make itself felt ? *Ans*. Especially in the 17th century, in the inferiority of the Court of Charles II. to the Court of Louis XIV.

How did the higher society of France distinguish itself in the 16th century ? *Ans*. By especial aptitude for the art, culture, and civilization of the Italian Revival of Letters, or " Renaissance."

When did French contact with Italy become especially close ? (P. 206.)

When had this Italian civilization begun to develop its flower ? *Ans*. After the independence of the Lombard and other Italian states had been secured by Pope Alexander III. (See p. 161 and questions at p. 183.)

Who became the leading patrons of modern art and literature? *Ans*. The Popes of Rome.

In what country is their influence most evident ? *Ans*. In Italy.

What event in the year 1453 assisted the revival of letters ? (P. 136.)

What had prevented the reunion of the Greek and Latin Churches ? *Ans*. The political jealousy of the Greek Byzantine state toward the Latin world.

What had the Popes done to achieve this union ? *Ans*. Next to the defence of the West from Mohammedan fatalism, it was their most constant effort.

Who were the guardians of learning through the Middle Ages ? *Ans*. The dignitaries of the Roman Church and the members of the Religious Orders.

What history naturally precedes the history of Western Europe after 1500 ? *Ans*. An account of the civilization of Italy.

Synchronistic Exercise.—Compare the following Table with the Table by Centuries for Germany (p. 170), and unite the two in recitation.

LEADING EVENTS OF FRENCH HISTORY UNTIL 1500.

2d and 1st Centuries B. C.—Roman conquests.

1st, 2d, 3d and 4th Centuries A. D.—Roman civilization. Christian conversion.

5th Century.—States of German West-Goths, Burgundians, and Franks.

6th Century.—The Franks conquer all France and South Germany.

7th Century.—The Frankish state continues (Merovingian Line).

8th Century.—Arab-Mohammedan repulse. Carlovingian Line.

9th Century.—The Empire of Charlemagne founded and divided. Northman ravages. Feudal system ; explain it (pp. 152, 153).

10th Century.—Normandy settled. Capetian Line in the Isle de France.

11th Century.—The Truce of God. Chivalry develops. French-Norman conquests in Naples, Sicily, and England.

12th Century.—Crusades. Coalition of the Monarchy with the Communes. The " English " possessions in France enlarged.

13th Century.—Crusades continued. Normandy, Brittany, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge, Limousin, Auvergne, Languedoc, Champagne, acquired. Neapolitan Anjous, rulers of Naples and Provence.

14th Century.—Anglo-French wars. Dauphiné acquired. Second Line of Anjou founded. Burgundian Dukedom founded.

15th Century.—The Anglo-French wars continue till 1454. Acquitaine, Maine, Anjou, Provence, Picardy, Duchy of Burgundy, Brittany, united with the monarchy.

CHRONOLOGY OF FRENCH HISTORY TILL 1500.

Clovis, ruler of Northern France.....................A. D. 486   Dynasty ?
Conquers the Allemanians after.............A. D. 497   West Germany.
And Visigothic Gaul after.................. . "   507   Southwest France.
His successors conquer the Burgundians...... "   533   Southeast France.
All South Germany by the same date.

EIGHTH CENTURY.

Charles Martel at Poitiers............... ....A. D. 732   His title ?
Accession of Pepin. (What Papal acquisition ?)....... "   752   Dynasty ?

NINTH CENTURY.

Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the West......... "   800   Territories ?
Treaty of Verdun................................ "   843   Conditions ?

TENTH CENTURY.

Normandy settled. (By whom ?).................. "   911   What reign ?
Accession of Hugh Capet. (Dynasty ?)............. "   987   Territory ?

ELEVENTH CENTURY.

French Norman conquest of Naples and Sicily........ "   1059   Till when ?
French-Norman conquest of England........ ...... "   1066   What reign ?
Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders. (What reign ?)... "   1099   When lost ?

TWELFTH CENTURY.

Second Crusade begins. (Cause? Results ?)........ "   1147   What reign ?
French-Angevin line begins in England with Henry II. "   1154   Territories ?
Third Crusade begins. (Cause? Results ?).... ..... "   1189   What reign ?

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

Philip II. worsts John of England. (What results ?). "   1204   4th Crusade.
Auvergne confiscated to the crown................. "   1209   What reign ?
Languedoc acquired after the Albigensian war....... "   1226   What reign ?
Louis IX., central date. (Name his brother.)........ "   1250   Crusades ?
Champagne acquired before accession. .... "   1285   What reign ?
Charles of Anjou died. (What territories ?)......... "   1285

FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

Anglo-French wars after.................................A. D. 1327	What reign ?
Dauphiné acquired....................................... " 1347	Emperor ?
Peace of Bretigny...................................... " 1360	Conditions ?
Dukedom of Burgundy founded. (By whom?)....... " 1361	Territories ?

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

Treaty of Troyes....................................... " 1420	Conditions ?
Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans............. " 1429	What reign ?
The Second Line of Anjou inherits Provence......... " 1433	How ?
Close of the Anglo-French wars..................... " 1454	Acquisition ?
Death of Charles the Bold. (What acquisitions ?).... " 1477	What reign ?
Second Line of Anjou extinct. (What acquisitions ?).. " 1481	What reign ?
Charles VIII. marries Anne of Brittany............. " 1491	Acquisition ?

FAMOUS BATTLES OF FRENCH MEDIEVAL HISTORY.

Bouvines, 1214.
Philip II. Augustus.
Victory.

Significance.—Defeat of John of England's effort to retrieve his losses, and proof of the devotion of the communes to the French monarchy.

Courtrai, 1302.
Philip IV. the Fair.
Defeat.

Significance.—Tremendous power of the Flemish cities and their commercial sympathies with England.

Sluys, 1330.
Time of Philip VI.
Naval defeat.

Significance.—The naval superiority of England already begins to assert itself.

Crécy, 1346.
Time of Philip VI.
Defeat.

Significance.—Military weakness of Feudal chivalry when combined in large masses.

Poitiers, 1356.
John the Good.
Defeat.

Significance.—The same. These defeats were decided by the English archers and crossbowmen.

Azincourt, 1415.
Time of Charles VI.
Defeat.

Significance.—The same. Imminent subjugation of France by England.

Nancy, 1477.
Time of Louis XI.

Significance.—The Burgundian dukedom ceases to be a thorn in the side of France.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE CAPETIAN LINE TO 1500.

BRANCHES OF VALOIS-ORLEANS AND ANGOULEME.

DESCENT OF LOUIS XII. AND OF FRANCIS I.

Louis, Duke of Orleans, son of Charles V.

Charles of Orleans.   John, Count of Angoulême.
    †1465.
                              Charles, Count of Angoulême.

Louis XII.   Claude of France=Francis I.
1498–1515.   †1547.

                              Henry II.
                              †1559.

Francis II.   Charles IX.   Henry III.   Marguerite of Valois=Henry IV.
  †1560.   †1574.   †1589.   Bourbon Line.
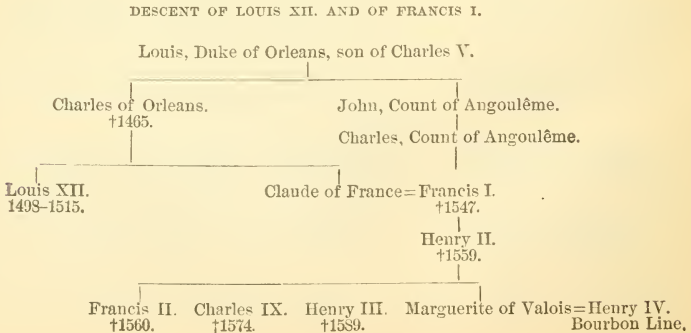
ITALY

BEFORE AND ABOUT A. D. 1500.

CIVILIZATION OF THE ITALIAN RENAISSANCE.

In the earlier Middle Ages Italy was one of the most backward countries in Europe. Before Charlemagne the country had suffered much from the barbarism of the Lombards. After Charlemagne the Arabs harried the coasts—entirely mastering Sicily, then a territory of the Byzantine emperor, after 880. They held Sicily until the Norman conquest after 1059 (p. 181). In the 10th century the country suffered in the Northeast from the savage Hungarians, who at the same time were ravaging Germany.

The political history of Italy after 800 has been summarized in the sections relating to Charlemagne and to the later territorial extent of his empire, as sustained by the Germanic emperors of the 10th, 11th, 12th and 13th centuries.

At the fall of the Hohenstaufens, after 1254, the Italian States became practically independent of either an Imperial or Royal power. The Popes exercised a general supervision over them, being also themselves temporal Italian princes, but never attempted to fetter their independence or cripple their progress. The States of Italy were civic, not feudal. The cities absorbed the landed proprietors and established for themselves territorial ownerships. To the absence of all feudal interference, or royal ownership, is to be attributed their unprecedented vigor and greatness, which finds its parallel only in the free States of the Greeks of ancient times.

The Italian civilization was already highly developed in Pisa and in Venice in the 11th century. Other states were not far behind. Among them the greatest were Genoa, Milan, Mantua, Padua, Ferrara, Bologna, Florence, Siena and Perugia. Many others of smaller size, like Urbino and Rimini, were scarcely less important for the history of Italian culture. The Italian

civilization reached its climax about 1500, blossoming out at that time, and immediately after, into a perfection of art rivalling the ancient Greek. The names of Leonardo da Vinci, of Michael Angelo, of Raphael, Titian, and Correggio—the greatest painters of history—all belong to the one generation, centering about 1500.

The greatest modern building, St. Peter's, was begun in 1506 under Pope
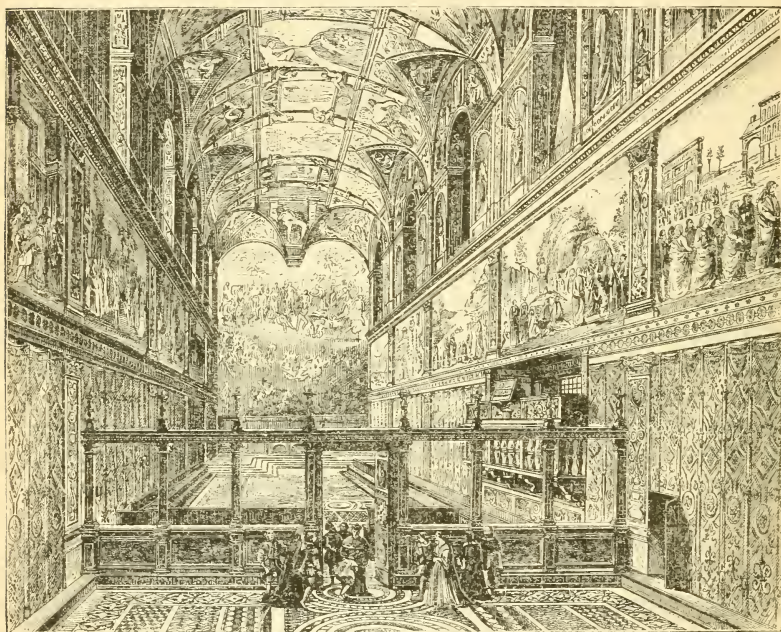
The Sistine Chapel, with Wall Paintings by Michael Angelo. On the ceiling, the "Story of Genesis;" at the end of the room, the "Last Judgment."

Julius II. The names of this Pope and of his successor, Leo X., are household words to all lovers of letters and of art.

Not only in art and in letters, but in governmental administration, business relations, diplomacy, and the conventions of modern society, Italy leads the modern time. In Florence and in Venice were first prepared the census statistics of property, of taxation, of births and deaths, without which modern government could not be carried on. Just, regular and systematic

taxation for purposes of government, as opposed to irregular and arbitrary loans and exactions, still common in Northern Europe until a considerably later date than 1500, was usual here before 1400. In this country was devised the system of marine insurance. Her bankers were in the early 15th century already the main dependence of northern sovereigns for loans of money. Medieval coinage in England was long supervised by Florentines, and Lombard Street in London still reminds us of the Italian bankers who carried on business there. The Pitti Palace in Florence is to-day the finest palace in Europe,

Pope Julius II., 1503–1513.
(*Medal of the period.*)

and was built by a Florentine banker of the 15th century.

The manufactures of Valenciennes and Alençon lace, now so highly prized, were borrowed from Italy, and the manufacture of Venetian glass still retains its reputation.

Pope Leo X., 1513–1521.
(*From a woodcut of the period.*)

Venice was especially important for its commercial relations with the East, and for large territorial possessions in the Levant. Its ambassadors were the most finished diplomatists of the 16th century. The archives of Venice are the most valuable in Europe for modern studies of this period; so minute and exact were the reports of these ambassadors from all its various courts. The skill of Genoese navigators is attested by a famous instance, and Columbus had seen Iceland before discovering America.

Ferrara was distinguished for its compact administration, and for the high breeding of its Court. Here flourished in the 16th century the poet Ariosto, author of " Orlando Furioso," and Torquato Tasso, author of " Jerusalem Delivered," a poem based on the events of the First Crusade.

Bologna had the leading university of Europe for the study of jurisprudence and of the Roman law.

In Padua, medicine and anatomy were especially cultivated. Here, at a later time, had studied Harvey, discoverer of the circulation of the blood—a discovery possibly anticipated by the Italians.

Urbino was celebrated for its library, the finest of the time in Europe. Its

treasures were united with the Vatican collection in the 17th century, and have assisted in securing that library its undoubted precedence over all others.

In Florence, the history of Italian painting begins with the names of Cimabue and of Giotto, about 1300. (Nicholas of Pisa, a quarter of a century earlier, had almost anticipated, in his famous pulpit still to be seen in that city, the later perfection of modern sculpture by more than two centuries.) In Florence, the great centre of the Italian Artists of the Renaissance (a French word meaning Rebirth or Revival of ancient learning and civilization), was also especially cultivated the knowledge of the Latin and Greek authors.

Toward 1500, this knowledge began to be more generally diffused by Italian influence over Northern Europe ; extending now to laymen that knowledge of the ancient languages which had previously been considered necessary only for the clergy. In Florence, the studies of geography and astronomy were also assiduously cultivated. From Florentine students of the ancient geographers the rotundity of the earth was made known to Columbus.   Copernicus, who first of moderns reannounced a fact already known to the ancients (p. 68) that the sun is the centre of the planetary system, had spent five years in Italy, 1500–1505. His system was published in 1543.

Influence of Italy on Europe.—A modern German writer and high authority on Italian history declares that the cultivation of Italian women before 1500 was generally superior to that of German ladies in our own time. The knowledge of ancient languages, possessed in the 16th century by English ladies like Queen Elizabeth or Lady Jane Grey, was entirely Italian in derivation.   The " Elizabethan " style of architecture, so-called, is the style of the Italian " Renaissance," and so also is the later so-called style of " Queen Anne." The dependence of the English Chaucer, 14th century, on learning and literature of Italian origin is well known.   In the late 16th century the name of Shakespeare once more reminds us of Italian influence on England.   Aside from the many plays which are Italian in scene or story, all those of classical subjects (borrowed from Plutarch) point in the same direction.   In the 17th century, the English Milton owed to his Italian travels and studies the classical coloring and allusions of his poems.   His French contemporaries, Molière, Corneille, and Racine, owe to the ancients their literary inspiration.   And here, as always in modern history, a classical inspiration points to an Italian influence.   In the 18th century the English Dr. Johnson pronounced the " Courtier," by Count Castiglione, the friend of Raphael, to be still the most perfect book on manners and good breeding.

Soon after 1500 the employment of Italian artists and the prevalence of Italian fashions in Northern Europe led to the overthrow of Gothic archi-

tecture in favor of the style of the " Renaissance," a word applied equally to the architecture, to the literary spirit, and general civilization of Italy at this time. In the Renaissance style of St. Peter's at Rome were built the famous palace façades of Heidelberg, the Escurial Palace near Madrid, the Palace of the Louvre in Paris, and St. Paul's in London. Observe in illustrations of these
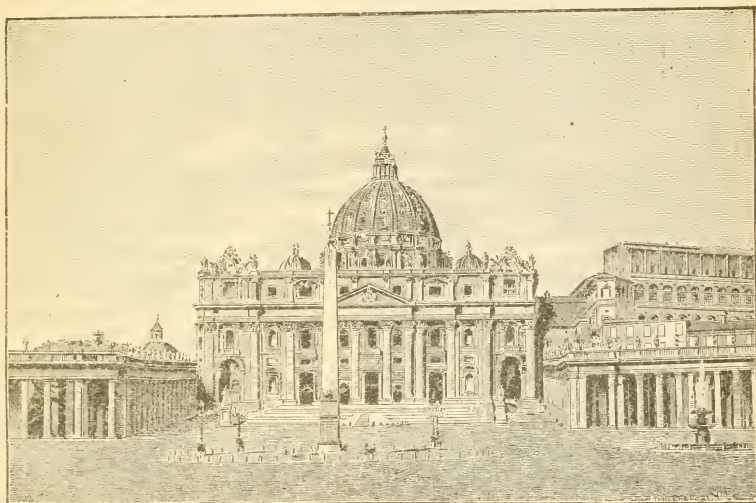
St. Peter's at Rome, begun by Pope Julius II. in 1506. The Vatican Palace on the right.

buildings, for instance in St. Peter's or in the Louvre (under modern French history), the revival of classic Greek forms as used in the ornament of the Roman ruins of Italy. The streets of every modern city, in which the Renaissance style is still general, offer abundant ocular evidence of the long-continued dominance of Italian influence on history.

Italy's Weakness.—But while this civilization was spreading by a thousand channels over Northern Europe, France, Germany and Spain were engaged in the effort to appropriate and rule over the territories in which so much wealth, luxury, and cultivation were concentrated. For the Italian states boasted all the features of civilization excepting a physically strong military power. In this regard, the coarser European nations were all more or less superior. Thus the beginning of modern history finds **Italy becoming the battle-ground of the North.** To the greed and ambition of other countries her later misfortunes must be attributed, although these warlike expeditions

attested her superiority, and served, by closer contact of foreign nations with her, to increase her influence. Moreover, highly developed civilization had brought its own corruptions with it. Human selfishness, vice, and violence were not lacking to mar and spot the picture of her excellence and her perfections. Within the limits of this single country were concentrated and prefigured not only the luxury, wealth and culture, but also the diplomatic intrigues, state rivalries, and selfish plotting of modern times in general. In good and in bad the Italy of 1500 was 19th century Europe on a diminished scale, but with more highly concentrated energies and more pronounced expression.
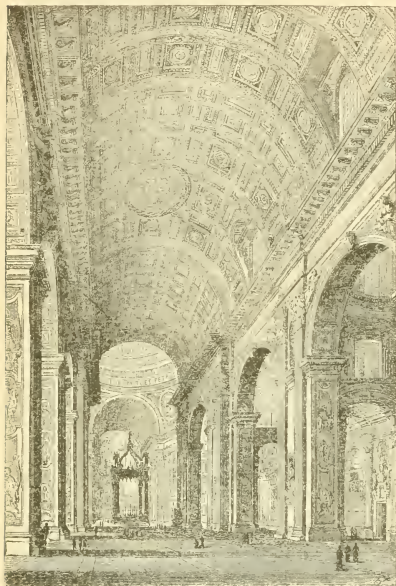
Interior of St. Peter's at Rome.

The versatility and refinement of Italian culture are illustrated by an anecdote in Vasari's Lives of the Italian Painters (written about 1550), of a monk named Fra Giocondo. This monk was at once painter, architect, engineer, philosopher, theologian, horticulturist, and man of letters. As man of letters, besides being an excellent Greek scholar, he published an edition of Vitruvius, the ancient authority on architecture, and discovered in the Paris Library the greater part of the famous Letters of Pliny. He collected ancient inscriptions throughout Italy, wrote on the Commentaries of Cæsar, and made a design of the bridge thrown across the Rhine by this Roman general. As architect, he was employed for a time in the construction of St. Peter's at Rome. As engineer, he turned the course of the river Brenta, which was filling in the lagunes of Venice, and so preserved this city from ruin. The anecdote relates to his skill as horticulturist, as exhibited in the service of the French king, Louis XII.

"Fra Giocondo was a man of universal attainment, and, in addition to the pursuits above described, he found pleasure in the most simple occupations, among others, in agriculture and gardening. On this subject the Florentine, Messer Donato Giannotti, who was his intimate friend during many years that they spent together in France, relates that Fra Giocondo, while they were thus living in the French court, once reared a peach tree in an earthen vase. The little tree prospered so well, and was loaded with such a large quantity of fruit, that it was a marvel to behold. Thereupon he was one day advised by some of his friends to set it in a place where the king was to pass, and where he could not fail to see it, which he did. But it happened that certain of the courtiers came by first, and these men, as is the fashion of such gentry,

gathered all the fruit off the little tree, to the great displeasure of Fra Giocondo, and what they could not eat they scattered along the whole length of the street. The matter coming to the knowledge of the king, he amused himself for a time over the jest with his courtiers, but then returning thanks to the monk for what he had done, his Majesty caused a gift of such value to be presented to him that Fra Giocondo was consoled."

This story illustrates the refinement of Italian feeling which selected such a present as one best worthy of a king, and also the inferior cultivation of Northern Europe at this time, when French courtiers had so little sensibility as to destroy the gift. Notwithstanding the manifold talents and knowledge of Fra Giocondo, he is by no means one of the best known examples of Italian versatility. Leonardo da Vinci was at once painter, sculptor, architect, civil and military engineer, anatomist, musician, poet and author ; and many other similar cases could be given.

POLITICAL HISTORY OF ITALY ABOUT 1500.

Naples (Southern Italy, below the States of the Church) and Sicily, had a history independent of the Civic States of Northern and Central Italy. When Charles of Anjou (pp. 162, 194) had defeated, in South Italy, the Hohenstaufen regent Manfred, 1266, and the Hohenstaufen heir Conradin, 1268—the latter, who was beheaded in Naples, bequeathed Sicily to the Spanish House of Aragon. His half-uncle, Manfred, was related to this House by marriage.

Sicily was thus transmitted, after the revolt of the Sicilian Vespers, 1282 (p. 194), to a branch line of the House of Aragon, and was then reunited with the Aragonese line in 1409.

Joanna II. of Naples, with whom the Neapolitan Line of Anjou ended in 1433, had adopted successively as her heirs, first, the Second Line of Anjou (p. 198) ; and, second, the Aragonese princes. In the dispute which consequently arose, the Second Line of Anjou succeeded in obtaining Provence, while the Aragonese claimants established a collateral line in Naples. But the Second House of Anjou maintained its claim to Naples, contesting the validity of the second adoption, and transmitted this claim with Provence, Anjou, and Maine (p. 206) to the French crown under Louis XI.

Charles VIII., his son, undertook to establish this claim and conquer Naples. He was incited to this campaign by Ludovico Moro, ruler of Milan (famous as the patron of the great painter Leonardo da Vinci). Ludovico wished to supplant his nephew, for

whom he was regent. In this intrigue he was resisted by his nephew's wife, and her father, the King of Naples. War with Naples and revolution in Milan were impending. To forestall this danger he resorted to the French.

Hence the Italian Campaign of **Charles VIII**. The French king marched an army through Italy, 1494, to Naples, and the king, Ferdinand II., fled to Sicily. The rapid success of the French caused a general coalition of the Italian states, and Charles VIII. returned with difficulty to France, leaving part of his army behind. This was soon conquered by Ferdinand II., assisted by Spanish infantry, under Gonsalvo de Cordova, furnished by Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain.

French Claims on Naples and Milan.—When Charles VIII. died, in 1498, his successor, Louis XII., of the new line of Valois-Orleans, revived the claim to Naples, and added a claim to Milan. His grandmother had belonged to the family of the Visconti rulers of Milan, some time extinct. Both claims represent the ambition of the new French monarchy to show its prowess, to win new sources of revenue and rich possessions in the South.

In 1499 Louis XII. invaded Italy, seized Milan, and then allied himself with Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain for conquest of Naples in partnership. This was effected in 1501. A quarrel arose as to the division of the conquered territory. Gonsalvo de Cordova then expelled the French, and Naples (all South Italy below the States of the Church) with Sicily now belonged to Spain.

A turning point in history is marked by the French occupation of Milan in 1499, and the Spanish conquest of Naples in 1501, the beginning of a rivalry between France and Spain for ascendency in Italy. Both had contested Naples, the rich state of the South. Both were soon to contest for Milan, the richest province of the North. Thus does the year 1500 once more reveal itself as a point which cannot be passed without a description of the power of Spain.

Map Study.—Italy under the Roman Empire, p. 116 ; under the Ostrogoths, p. 140. The Lombards succeeded the Ostrogoths in the 6th century, with a short intervening period of Byzantine rule, p. 147. Italy under Charlemagne, p. 154; under Otto the Great and the German emperors, p. 156.

For Sicily compare these last two maps. On the first it has the Byzantine color, on the second, the Arab. Normans in Sicily, p. 182.

Italy in the 12th century, p. 182 ; still a part of the " Germanic " Empire. Italy in the 13th century, before 1254, was also under Hohenstaufen rule in Naples and Sicily.

On map for Europe about 1400, p. 200, see Pisa, Venice, Genoa, Milan, Mantua, Padua, Ferrara, Bologna, Florence, Siena, Perugia.

For Venetian possessions in the Levant, see color of Venice in the " Morea " or Peloponnesus, same map. It became a Venetian possession somewhat later than the Fourth Crusade. For Urbino, see map for Europe about 1550, under Charles the Fifth.

Anjous in Naples and Aragonese in Sicily, same map. Second Line of Anjou in Provence, same map.

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON ITALIAN AND PAPAL HISTORY.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

What civilized peoples were there in Italy before the foundation of Rome ?   (Pp. 76, 77.)

How many centuries of Italian history are covered by the history of Rome from its foundation until A. D 476 ?

What Germanic kingdom does this date recall ?   (P. 146.)

When did Theodoric the Great lead the Germanic East-Goths into Italy ?   (P. 146.)

When did the generals of Justinian expel the East-Goths ?   (P. 146.)

Who was Justinian ?   (P. 135.)

When did the Germanic Lombards replace the Byzantine power in Italy (with exception of the Exarchate of Ravenna ?   (P. 147.)

Who expelled the Lombards from the Exarchate at a later time, soon after they occupied it ?   (Pp. 148, 150.)

What became of the Exarchate ?

Who overthrew the Lombard rule of Italy ?   (P. 154.)

How was Italy affected by the Treaty of Verdun ?   (P. 155.)

What was its condition after extinction of the line of Lothair?   *Ans.* Its throne was contested by various claimants.

Who reunited it with the territorial empire founded by Charlemagne ?   (P. 157.)

How was this territorial empire diminished under Otto the Great ? How enlarged ? (Compare pp. 154, 157.)

What were the relations between the emperors and popes of the 10th century ?   *Ans.* Generally harmonious.

When did the emperors and popes begin to be at variance ?   (P. 159.)

Were the Imperial territorial rights over Italy then contested?   *Ans.* No.

When did Italy begin to shake off the rule of the emperors?   (P. 161.)

When was she entirely freed from their influence ?   (P. 162.)

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

What great Pope of the 5th century saved Rome from destruction ?   (P. 145.)

What great Pope lived about 600 ?   (P. 149.)

What people was Christianized at this time ?   (P. 149.)

What Pope gave sanction to the Carlovingian line ?   (P. 150.)

What great Pope crowned Charlemagne ?   (P. 154.)

Who was the most learned man in Europe about 1000 ?   *Ans.* Pope Sylvester II.   What monarchs had he served as tutor when a monk ?   (Pp. 158, 180.)   What country became Christian in his pontificate ?   (P. 158.)

What date fixes the time of Gregory VII. ?   (P. 160.)

What date fixes the time of Urban II. ?   (P. 184.)

What event fixes the time of Alexander III. ?   *Ans.* The battle of Legnano.

When was it ?   *Ans.* 1176.

What date fixes the time of Innocent III. ?   (P. 191.)

What mission was promoted by this Pope ?   (P. 168.)

What date fixes the time of Boniface VIII.?   *Ans.* The jubilee of 1300.

What change of residence removed the Popes for a time from Italy ?   (P. 201.)

What was the fate of most of the Popes in the first three centuries of the Christian era ?   (P. 121.)

About how many years between Pope St. Leo the Great and Pope St. Gregory the Great ?   Between Pope St. Gregory the Great and Pope St. Leo III. ?   Between Pope St. Leo III. and Sylvester II. ?   Between Sylvester II. and St. Gregory VII. ?   Between St. Gregory VII. and Urban II. (using the single dates already fixed) ?   Between Urban II. and Alexander III.?   Between Alexander III. and Innocent III. ?   Between Innocent III. and Boniface VIII. ?

THIRD REVIEW LESSON.

What year precedes by three years the pontificate of Julius II. and by thirteen years the pontificate of Leo X. ?   *Ans.* **The year 1500.**

How does this year relate to the dates for the Spanish conquest of Naples ?   The French occupation of Milan ?   (P. 220.)

In what year was begun St. Peter's at Rome ?   (P. 217.)

What famous works of art were begun in 1508 ?   *Ans.* The ceiling frescoes of the Sistine Chapel by Michael Angelo, and the wall paintings of the Vatican by Raphael.

What great wall-painting preceded these works by just ten years ?   *Ans.* The Last Supper, in Milan, by Leonardo da Vinci.

What is therefore its date ?

In what year was begun the famous Vatican Collection of Antique Statuary ?   *Ans.* In the year St. Peter's was begun.   (See note on the Belvedere Apollo, at p. 34.)

What Pope made Michael Angelo architect of St. Peter's?   *Ans.* Pope Paul III., in 1546.

What is the greatest modern statue ?   *Ans.* The "Moses," by Michael Angelo, in San Pietro in Vinculi in Rome, the tomb of Julius II.

What Pope caused the "Last Judgment" to be painted on the end wall of the Sistine Chapel by Michael Angelo?   *Ans.* Paul III., in 1534.

When did the Christian Crusaders leave Syria ?   (P. 191.)

How soon after did the Ottoman Turks enter Europe ?   *Ans.* In 1356.   (See p. 201.)

Where were the Popes residing at this time ?   (P. 201.)

What necessity especially redemanded their presence in Italy ?   *Ans.* The mission of combating Mohammedan encroachment on Europe.

What was the main political activity of the Popes of the 15th century ?   *Ans.* Organizing resistance to the Turks.

Who was canonized for the heroic defence of Belgrade in this century ?   *Ans.* St. John Capistran.   (See history of the Arabs and Turks, Book III.)

What proves the urgency of the peril ?   *Ans.* Toward the close of the 15th century the Turks occupied Otranto, the key to Southern Italy, and the Sultan proposed to feed his horse on the altar of the old St. Peter's at Rome.

FOURTH REVIEW LESSON.

What success attended the resistance to the Turks ?   *Ans.* They were prevented from conquering any portion of Latin Christendom but Hungary.

When did the larger part of Hungary fall into their hands?   *Ans.* In 1526, when religious schism had begun to weaken the energies of Europe.

Who then inherited the rest of Hungary (with Bohemia), and ultimately gained the whole?   *Ans.* The House of Austria.

Who was emperor in 1500 ?   (P. 167.)

To what House did he belong ?

When did he become emperor ?   (P. 167.)

What marriage had he previously contracted ?   (P. 206.)   •

Soon after what battle?   (P. 205.)

What rivalry was founded by that marriage ?   (P. 206.)

Who was the son of Mary of Burgundy and Maximilian ?   *Ans.* Philip, Duke of Austria.

Whom did he marry ?   *Ans.* Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain.

Who sprang from this marriage ?   *Ans.* The great Emperor Charles the Fifth.

When was he born ?   *Ans.* In 1500.   What rivalry did he inherit from Spain ?   (P. 220.) What rivalry did he inherit from Austria ?   (P. 206.)

What resulted from this succession of marriage alliances ?   *Ans.* The Spanish monarchy became the most powerful in Europe.

What history therefore must introduce the history of the 16th century ?

What countries are involved in an account of the period of Charles the Fifth ?   *Ans.* Spain, because he was its king. Germany, because he became its emperor. France, because Louis XI. had seized Picardy and the Duchy of Burgundy from the Burgundian dukedom, and because the Emperors still claimed the right to appoint the Dukes of Milan. Italy, because it became the battle-ground of French and Spaniards. England, because this country was sought in alliance by the two rivals. Turkey, because the Turks were in Austrian Hungary.

What European nations are not involved in the general history of the 16th century ?   *Ans.* The nations of Scandinavia (Denmark, Norway, and Sweden), and Russia.

When did Scandinavia enter the " game of nations " ?   *Ans.* In the 17th century, with the rise of Sweden.

When did Russia enter into general history ?   *Ans.* In the 18th century, time of Peter the Great.

SPAIN.

BEFORE AND AFTER A. D. 1500.

SPAIN BEFORE 1500.

Celto-Iberian Period.—The Spanish Peninsula was inhabited in prehistoric times, partly by Celts, partly by Iberians. Nothing exact is known of the Iberian population. The Basques of the Pyrenees are its descendants. Their language does not offer points of contact or comparison with any other speech.

Phœnician and Greek Colonies.—The coasts of Spain were colonized many centuries before Christ by Phœnicians from Syria and from Carthage. Cadiz (Gades) was an old Phœnician colony, and silver was exported in such quantity from it that the Phœnician ships are said to have added to their cargo chains and anchors of this metal. There were also Greek towns on the Northeastern coast after B. C. 600.

Roman Period.—After the Second Punic War was ended, the Roman Republic rapidly gained control of the country. When the Roman Empire replaced the Republic, Spain was already quite thoroughly Romanized, and its language, like French and Italian, still exhibits this decidedly Latin origin.

Visigothic Period.—Spain became, after A. D. 415, a portion of the state of the Germanic West-Goths (they were confined to Spain by Clovis in 507), but the Suevic northwest corner of the country was not conquered by the West-Goths till 585.

In 711 the Mohammedan Arabs (and Moors of North Africa) crossed the Straits of Gibraltar under Tarik. The entire kingdom was conquered from the last West-Goth king, Roderick, in a single battle. The Christians maintained their independence only in the strip of country under the Pyrenees (Asturia). From this foothold, after Charlemagne had forced the Arabs back to the Ebro, the Spaniards began to gain ground on the Mohammedans.

The whole medieval history of Spain is taken up in this struggle. The nature of the Spanish people developed in its long contest with the infidels a peculiarly zealous, enthusiastic, and warlike spirit.

Influence of the Spanish Arabs.—Notwithstanding the antagonism of the Spanish Arabs and Spanish Christians there was much intercourse between them. The contact between the subject Spaniards and the Mohammedans, in territory ruled by the latter, involved a mixture of civilizations. The Arabs had especially devoted themselves to the technic arts, to medicine, chemistry, and the natural sciences, and in these departments their influence through Spain on Europe was marked. The
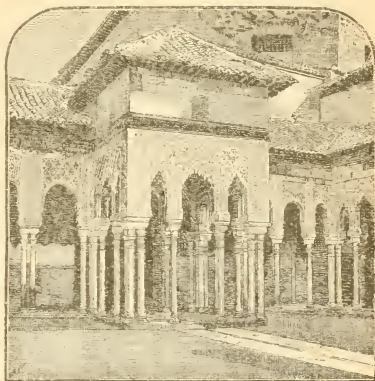
Portion of the Alhambra.
(*Palace of the Moorish kings at Granada.*)

numerals introduced in this way, and called Arabic, were derived from the Hindoos, for the Arab conquests extended to India. Many of the Greek authors, Aristotle among them, were made known to the Middle Ages by Latin translations from the Arabic.

The justly vaunted Arabian civilization was Byzantine in its origin, and was borrowed in the provinces of Syria, Egypt, and North Africa, conquered from East-Rome about 640 (Mohammed died 632).

Political History.—In medieval Spain there developed after Charlemagne five or six petty Christian states, but the whole number on the Peninsula was finally reduced to four—the gradually decreasing Moorish state of Granada, Portugal, Aragon, and Castile. These two last kingdoms were united by the marriage of their rulers, Ferdinand the Catholic and Isabella, in 1469. From this union, and from the consequent conquest of Granada in 1492, dates the modern national state of Spain.

The Spanish Inquisition.—An untemporizing character was developed in Spanish Christianity by a spirit of national hostility to foreign Arab and Moorish rule. The notorious Spanish Inquisition was first established as a political engine against the disloyalty of those Moors who had made the sham of a Christian conversion a cloak to their disloyalty to the state, in which they continued to live and intrigue after conquest. Undoubtedly its terrors have been exaggerated and its procedure more or less unjustly stigmatized. But it is certain that its introduction by the Spanish monarchs was antagonized by the protests and efforts of

the Popes, as being a secular interference with affairs of the Church. The first establishment of the Spanish Inquisition, in the 15th century, led Pope Sixtus IV. to sever diplomatic relations with the Court of Spain, and the Inquisitors of Toledo were excommunicated by Pope Leo X.

Map Study.—Spain after the Punic Wars, p. 92 ; under the Roman Empire, p. 116 ; under the Visigoths or West-Goths, p. 140 ; under the Arabs, with Charlemagne's " Spanish March " and the Christian kingdom of Leon, p. 154. Rise of other Christian states, p. 156. Development of same in the 12th century, p. 182. Portugal, Castile, Aragon, Granada, about 1400, p. 200.

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON MEDIEVAL SPAIN.

Date the end of the Second Punic War. (P. 93.)

The siege of Numantia. (P. 97.)

The beginning of the Roman Empire. (P. 109.)

The century of the German invasions. (P. 143.)

The expulsion of the West-Goths from France. (P. 148.)

The century of Mohammed. (P. 222.)

The overthrow of the Spanish Visigoths. (P. 150.)

The victory of Charles Martel at Poitiers. (P. 150.)

The Spanish conquest of Charlemagne (approximately by the round number of his coronation at Rome. (P. 154.)

The union of Aragon and Castile. (P. 225.)

The conquest of Granada. (P. 225.)

In whose reign may England be considered a modern national state ? (P. 207.)

What reign marks the final consolidation of modern France ? (Pp. 205, 206.)

When did Louis XI. die ? (P. 201.)

How long after occurred the conquest of Granada ?

When did Henry VII. become king of England ? *Ans.* 1485.

How long after occurred the conquest of Granada ?

To what state did Sicily belong in the year 1500 ? Since when ? (P. 220.)

To what state did Naples belong one year later ?

To what state did Sardinia, Majorca, and Minorca belong in 1500? *Ans.* To Spain through Aragon ; acquired in the 13th century.

MARITIME DISCOVERIES AND COLONIAL EMPIRE OF SPAIN.

The use of the magnetic needle, which assisted the discovery of new countries by facilitating long voyages, came into general use through Flavio Gioja (Gioya), native of Southern Italy, at the beginning of the 14th century. Exploring expeditions of the Portuguese along the coast of Africa began under Prince Henry the Navigator. At his death, in 1460, they had reached Sierra Leone. Bartholomew Diaz reached the Cape of Good Hope in 1486.

Italians, and especially Genoese, took part in these voyages, because

71.

The discoveries of the
SPANIARDS & PORTUGUESE
in the 15th & 16th Century.

Spanish Colonies Blue.
Portuguese „ „ Yellow.

72.

The Atlantic Coast of
NORTH AMERICA
in the 17th Century

Labels on map 71: Azores, Guanahani or St. Salvador, Mexico, Tlascala, Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, Darien, Quito, Lima, Cusco, Pope Alexander's Line of Demarcation, Cape Verd Isd., Madeira, Canaries, Salvador, L'Verd, Upper Guinea, Strait of Magellan, Terra del Fuego, Mexico, Mexico

Labels on map 72: NEW NETHERLAND, Fort Orange, NEW JERSEY, Hudson R., Connecticut R., NEW ENGLAND, Boston, Acadia, C. Ann, Plymouth, Pilgrim fathers 1620, C. Cod, Providence, Rhode Island, Long Island, New Amsterdam, Philadelphia, Susquehanna, Ohio R., Potomac R., Baltimore, NEW SWEDEN, VIRGINIA, Jamestown, James R., Roanoke R., Neuse, CAROLINA, C. Hatteras, Raleigh Bay, Port Royal

CHINA

Japan

Ormuz
Malabar
Diu
Goa
Calicut
Ceylon
Madras
Sumatra
Borneo
Philippine
Moluccas

Sofala
Mozambique

C.of Good Hope

LABRADOR

C. Charles
Belle I.

CANADA

Anticosti
St.Lawrence R.
Gulf of
St. Lawrence

NEWFOUNDLAND

St.John I.
C. Breton
Louisburg

Nova Scotia
Halifax

L. Huron
L. Ontario
L. Erie
L. Champlain
Ticonderoga
Ft.Edwards
Saratoga
Albany
N.HAMP.
L.George
Bennington
Lexington
MASSACHS.
Boston
NEW YORK
CONNECTICUT
White plains
RHODE I.
Long Id.
Princeton
Trenton
York
PENNSYLVANIA
Philadelphia
N.JERSEY
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
Brandywine
F du Quesne
VIRGINIA
York Town
N.CAROLINA
Hatteras
Salisbury
New Berne
S.CAROLINA
Camden
Wilmington
Eutaw Spr.
GEORGIA
Charleston
Savannah

73
THE
UNITED
STATES
in 1783.

74
The Gulf of
St LAWRENCE
Continuation of M.

of the advantage of a sea route to the East Indies. Since the Crusades the Genoese had had trading posts in the Crimea, which, by way of the Don, the Volga, and the Caspian, kept open a route to the far East. These trading posts were broken up by the Ottoman Turks when they made the Crimea a province in 1475. Christopher Columbus, a Genoese mariner, therefore conceived the idea of reaching the same destination by sailing to the west. His idea was drawn from Florentine geographers and astronomers, who were again dependent for their knowledge on the Alexandrine geographer, Ptolemy, of the 2d century A. D. Ptolemy was acquainted with the rotundity of the earth although he had abandoned the earlier teaching of Alexandrine astronomers as to the revolution of the earth around the sun (p. 68).

Spanish Ship of the Fifteenth Century.
(*From a print of the time.*)

Columbus applied for assistance to the Portuguese court, which refused it. He then had recourse to Ferdinand and Isabella. The generosity of the latter equipped the three vessels with which he reached the Bahamas in 1492. Columbus believed that he had reached a portion of the East Indies of which he was in search, nor did his later voyages change this idea. In a second voyage, 1493–1496, he discovered Jamaica and some of the lesser Antilles. On his third voyage he reached the main land of South America, 1498. Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian mariner in the service of Henry VII. of England, discovered the coast of Labrador in 1497 and sailed along the shore of North America as far as Florida.

Spanish Colonies.—It was not till more than a century later that the discovery of North America was utilized for settlements (the Spanish Colony of Florida excepted). The first colony on the main land of America was founded by Balboa, a Castilian Spaniard, in 1513, on the Isthmus of Panama. Columbus had examined this territory (together with the shores of Central America) on his fourth voyage in 1504. Balboa obtained the first information of Peru. The great significance of the American discoveries for Spain begins with the

immense riches gained by the conquest of Mexico by Fernando Cortez, after 1520, and of Peru, by Francisco Pizarro, after 1531.

Pope Alexander VI. fixed, in 1493, a line of demarcation, running from north to south, 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands, between the Spaniards and the Portuguese, giving to the former all discoveries west, to the latter all discoveries east of this line. Thus, besides Brazil, the East Indian and African discoveries were secured to Portugal.

The Portuguese navigator Vasco de Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and reached India in 1498, and a Portuguese commercial empire grew up, in consequence of this voyage, along the shores of Africa, of India, and Ceylon, which opened relations after 1517 with China and Japan.

The Portuguese Magellan, in the employ of Spain, sailed through the straits named after him, reaching the Philippines in 1521. Here he was slain in a combat with the natives, and his companions completed the first voyage around the world.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE MARITIME DISCOVERIES.

15th Century.	Sierrra Leone............................A. D. 1460	
	Cape of Good Hope............ .... " 1486	
	Bahamas................................... " 1492	
	American Continent and India............... " 1498	
16th Century.	First American Colony of Spain............. " 1513	
	Spanish Conquest of Mexico after........... " 1520	
	Spanish Conquest of Peru after . ... " 1531	

REIGN OF CHARLES V.; BORN 1500, DIED 1558.

GENEALOGY OF CHARLES V.

Maximilian of Austria = Mary of Burgundy.   Ferdinand the Catholic = Isabella of Castile.

Philip I. ══════════════════════════ Joanna.

Charles { I. of Spain.
        { V. of the Empire.
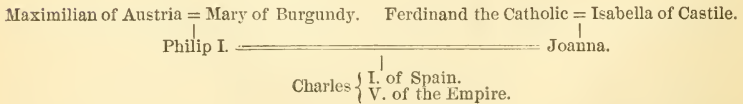
Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile had continued after marriage to rule their kingdoms as separate sovereigns.

WESTERN - EUROPE
about 1550 A.D.

The Habsburg possessions are purple
The Hohenzollern " " blue
The Savoy " " yellow
The French Dominion h is red
The Bourbon possessions are red
The Venetian dominion is
Poland is light purple
The Papal States

Wales
Shrewsbury
Bosworth
Stoke
Norfolk
Tewkesbury
Gloucester
London Suffolk
Exeter
Portsmouth

Ardres Ghent
Grainegate Neil
Cambray

Bretagne
Picardy
Rouen
Normandie Noyon Crespy
Verneuil Soissons Paris Rheims
Alençon
Nantes Vendome Orleans
Blois
Loire R. Plessis le Tour

Duchy of Burgundy
Franche Comté

FRANCE
Cognac
Bourges

Bordeaux
Lyons
Genev
SAV
Dauphiné

Leon
Braganza
Burgos
Navarre Armagnac
Bearn
Toulouse
Languedoc
Avignon
Provence Pier
Marseilles

Oporto
Douro R.

Lisbon
San Justo
Segovia
Tagus R.
Madrid
Toledo

PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Guadiana R.

Setubal

Palos Guadalquivir R.
Sevilla
Cadiz Granada
Gibraltar

Valencia
Rousillon
Barcelona

Balearic Isl.

Tanger
Oran Algiers
Tunis

FEZ & MAROCCO
ALGIERS
TUN

Denmark

Hamburg
Bremen
Munster
Magdeburg
Berlin
Brandenburg
Wittenberg
Eisleben
Frankfort
Main R. Culmbach
Nuremberg
Ansbach
Strassburg
Ratisbon
Augsburg
Passau
BAVARIA
Munich
Tyrol
AUSTRIA
Carinthia

Pommerania
Danzig
Prussia
Marienburg
Königsberg
LITHUANIA
Thorn
Posen
Vistula R.
Plock
Warsaw
POLAND
Lusatia
Silesia
Oder R.
Prague
BOHEMIA
Cracow
Moravia
HUNGARIA
Vienna
Presburg
Buda
MOLDAVIA
Mohacz
TRANSYLVANIA
WALLACHIA

Milan
Venice
Parma
Fornovo
Florence
Arno
Siena
Ravenna
Urbino
TUSCANY
PAPAL STATES
Sciavonia
Dalmatia
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Rovossosu
Ancona
Rome
Sinigaglia
Ragusa
NAPLES
Naples
Apulia
Carignolo
Sarno
Calabria
Palermo
Messina
Sicilia
Syracuse

Map of N.E.
ITALY
showing the battle
fields in the
Franco-Italian war
79

Adda R.
Valtellina
Trent
Lake
Como
Lake
Garda
Brescia
Magnadello
Vicenza
Milan
VENICE
Verona
Padua
Marignano
Porto
Mantua
Adige R.
Scoltera
Po R.
Parma
Modena
Duchy of
Parma
Ravenna
Papal States

Their daughter and heir, Joanna, married Philip, Duke of Austria, the son of Maximilian and Mary of Burgundy (p. 206). She became insane soon after the birth of her son Charles, in 1500. Isabella died in 1504. Philip, who then assumed the regency of Castile, died a year later, and Ferdinand became regent in Castile for his grandson and heir till his own death in 1516.

Cardinal Ximines was the most important person in Spain at this time. His wise administration really accomplished the permanent union of Aragon and Castile. It was he who had induced the Castilian estates to accept the regency of Ferdinand, and who preserved order till the arrival of the new monarch.

Charles I. of Spain had been educated in the Netherlands, spoke Dutch, and retained through life many peculiarities of the Burgundian Netherlander. His title in 1516 was Charles I. of Spain. But this inheritance involved the Spanish possessions already gained or soon to be acquired in America, together with Majorca, Minorca, Sardinia, Sicily and Naples (p. 220). In 1519 the death of Maximilian of Austria, his paternal grandfather, added to these possessions the " Burgundian " inheritance (p. 199) and the Austrian territories (p. 164). These last included, since the time of Rudolf of Hapsburg, territories in Alsace and South Baden, beside Austria proper, with the Tyrol, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola. The " Burgundian " inheritance included the " Franche-Comté " and the Netherland Provinces (modern Belgium and Holland), with claims on the Duchy of Burgundy and Picardy, which had been confiscated by Louis XI. (p. 205). But there was something still to be added to these immense possessions, namely, the rights and powers of the Imperial Title (p. 154). These had long been in abeyance practically, but might by a sovereign sufficiently powerful be again asserted.

The Imperial power, which gave Charles I. of Spain his title of Charles V., was not inherited from Maximilian, although he was the preceding Emperor. This title was in the gift of the Electoral Princes of Germany (p. 165). It was not necessary that the

Emperor should be a German (p. 157); as a matter of fact, he always had been. But there were, after the death of Maximilian, two other suitors for this distinction, Henry VIII. of England and Francis I. of France (who succeeded Louis XII. in 1515). The chances appeared to be in favor of the latter sovereign. One consideration turned the scale against him, the menacing attitude of the Turks (p. 223). Austria was the natural bulwark of Germany against them, and the leadership of Germany was therefore intrusted to the Hapsburg ruler of Austria, Burgundy, Spain, and South Italy.

Charles V.
(*Medal of his time.*)

Charles V. was only nineteen years of age. He was thought to be of feeble capacity. His manners and appearance gave an impression of awkwardness. The very extent of his possessions appeared to be an element of weakness, and the electors were by no means aware that they had made an emperor who was to reassert the territorial pretensions of the " Holy Roman Empire " of Charlemagne and Otto the Great. During this reign the states of Germany continued to retain much of their practical independence, but they were, notwithstanding, overawed and dominated by the weight of the emperor's character, the power of his diplomacy and of his enormous territorial possessions.

In Italy the old theory of the " Empire " (p. 157) gave a turn to history which determined the whole later destinies of this country. Since the time of the occupation of Naples by Ferdinand the Catholic, the French had made North Italy the scene of their campaigns. In 1512 they lost their conquest of Milan (made in 1499). They were expelled by the efforts of Pope Julius II., whose whole pontifi-

cate since 1503 had been devoted to this task, for the Popes were the guardians of Italian independence. But in 1515, the year of the accession of Francis I., this French king reconquered Milan after the brilliant victory of Marignano (Marinyano), won by his Swiss mercenaries (pontificate of Leo X., 1513–1521).

The election of Charles I. of Spain as Charles V. of the Empire transferred the rivalry between France and Spain, which had begun in the contest for supremacy in South Italy (p. 220), to this richest province of its fertile northern valley. The Duchy of Milan was the key to the rest of Italy, and hence the importance attached to its possession. The Emperor still retained the legal power to nominate its Duke, from the old period of territorial rights over Italy.

Rivalry of France and Spain in Italy.—The question to be decided, by force of arms, whether the Emperor could sustain his nominee (a member of the Sforza family, to which Ludovico Moro belonged), was now a question whether France or Spain should control Italy. For two entire centuries the rivalry between France and the Hapsburgs continued to furnish the most important material for a history of events in Europe (as opposed to a history of civilization which meanwhile continued to radiate from its Italian centre). Therefore let it be remembered that this rivalry began in the seizure of the Duchy of Burgundy and of Picardy in 1477, by Louis XI. (p. 205), whose restitution was demanded by Charles V., as taken from the inheritance of his grandmother, Mary of Burgundy; that it continued in the disputed claim of France and Spain to Naples in 1501, and culminated in the rivalry of Charles V. and Francis I. for the Imperial dignity and the control of Milan. (Francis I. had encouraged revolts against the new monarchy in Spain, another cause of quarrel.)

Francis refused to vacate North Italy. The generals of Charles, who himself had returned to Spain, expelled the French from Milan in 1521 and 1522. The pretensions of the Empire to Southeast France (p. 159) were now revived, for although Charles IV. of Luxemburg-Bohemia had made the French Dauphin

his vicar in these provinces (p. 166) there was here also pretext for war ; but the invasion of these territories by the Spanish forces was unsuccessful.

A new invasion of North Italy by Francis resulted in his defeat at Pavia, 1525.   He was made captive and carried prisoner to Madrid.   To secure his freedom he agreed (Peace of Madrid) to cede the French Duchy of Burgundy, to abandon claims to Milan, and to pay a heavy ransom ; but, alleging compulsion, he reopened the war on reaching France.

Pope Clement VII. (1523–1534) now took sides with the French ; for the Spanish ascendency threatened to crush Italy under the old Imperial pretensions.   This led to the sack of Rome, in 1527, by an army of Germans in the pay of Charles.   The Emperor (in Spain) disavowed responsibility for the violence of his agents, but the public sentiment of Europe forced him to an accommodation with the Pope, who then crowned him at Bologna in 1530.

Two later wars with France did not reverse the general results of the two wars between 1521 and 1529.   These results were that Spain became mistress of North Central Italy (Milan) as she was already mistress of Naples; that a marriage alliance between a daughter of Charles V. and Alesandro Medici, a relative of Clement VII., founded the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, which replaced the Florentine Republic after 1530.   The only important independent state in Italy after 1530 was the Republic of Venice, which continued until the close of the 18th century and the times of Bonaparte.   The small dimensions and diplomatic rivalries of the Italian free states, in which modern civilization developed its earliest and most beautiful flower, did not permit their continued existence after the rise of the strong national monarchies of France and Spain. But the spread of Italian culture over Europe began after this period, in consequence of the closer relations with Italy, to be the most important factor in the development of Northern civilization.

Addition of Bohemia and Hungary to the Hapsburg Territories.—Between the first and second wars of France and

Spain, took place, in 1526, the battle of Mohacz, in Hungary, between the Turks and Christians. In this battle the young king of Bohemia and Hungary was killed. His sister and heir was the wife of Ferdinand, brother of the Emperor, his regent in Austria. It was in consequence of this battle that these countries were united with the Hapsburg territories. The larger part of Hungary was, however, held by the Turks for a century and a half.

In 1529 the Turkish Sultan, Solyman the Great, laid siege to Vienna, which by valiant resistance preserved itself from capture and Germany from a Turkish invasion. Charles V. now turned his efforts against the Turks, and the army which he collected preserved Germany from a second invasion in 1532. The Turks retired without daring to encounter his forces.

Expedition to Tunis.—The Emperor next conducted an expedition to Africa against the Mohammedan pirates of Tunis, and freed their Christian captives, 1535. A later expedition against Algiers was less successful. By the public spirit shown in these expeditions, Charles V. secured the good will of Christendom in general. Francis I., on the other hand, made alliances with the Infidels in his two later wars with the Spaniards, which damaged his standing in his own time and in later history.

Meantime the spread of the Lutheran movement in Germany had already resulted, 1525, in a socialistic outbreak—the " Peasant Wars"—which cost the lives of a hundred thousand people. The communist excesses of the Anabaptists in Northwest Germany alarmed the supporters of morality and social order. (The Anabaptists were so named from their rejection of infant baptism.) Church property was being confiscated by the princes of North Germany, who entered into the " Reformation " as a business speculation. The Hohenzollern Grand-Master of the Teutonic Knights in Prussia (Northeast Germany, p. 168) transformed himself into the Lutheran owner of the province (held as a fief of Poland) in 1525.

The threatening invasions of the Turks had been utilized by the

Protestant German princes as a means to their own independence.

Review at Barcelona of the Expedition against Tunis.   Old Tapestry in Madrid.

The Emperor had been obliged to make concessions to the Protestants before they would render assistance against the Turks, and

undertook, after 1545, to forbid the farther dissemination of anti-Catholic tenets.

This led to the Smalcaldian War in 1546. Its name is derived from a league of the Protestant German princes formed at Smalcalden, in Saxony (1530). The victory of Mühlberg, 1547, placed the most important Protestant leader, Frederick of Saxony, in the hands of the Emperor, and Philip of Hesse was soon after made prisoner. But the fortunes of war were turned by the defection of Maurice of Saxony, who had been made Elector of this State by the Emperor. The later House of Saxony is descended from Maurice.

The Peace of Passau, 1552, left the religious parties about evenly balanced in Germany.* Certain questions relating to the restitution of confiscated Church property were left open for future settlement.

In 1556 the Emperor, at this time in the Netherlands, **formally abdicated** and transferred the government of his possessions to his brother and to his son. He secured **the Imperial dignity and the Austrian possessions** to his brother Ferdinand, who founded the line of the **Austrian Hapsburgs**.

---

* Toleration was not usual with the Princes of either confession. The religion of the ruler generally determined the religion of the State. Persecutions were common on both sides throughout the Reformation period, and it is beyond dispute that they were set in motion on both sides by the political rulers from political motives. Francis I. and eminently Henry II. his successor, who bitterly persecuted the Protestants in France, as openly assisted them in Germany, even by alliance in war. Elizabeth betrayed the cause of the Protestant Dutch and persecuted the Jesuits at home, openly alleging political motives. So the Lutherans of Denmark expelled the Calvinists from the kingdom and refused to harbor the Calvinists who fled from France. We can as little defend religious persecution for political motives as for religious reasons; but it is important to know that persecution was not the policy of the Roman Church. As far as political matters are concerned, it is undeniable that the Protestants were the innovators, and it is undeniable that their cause was made the cover of political factions from the moment of its inception. It may be urged that in the case of the sovereigns, the tolerance practised by some of them at first, notably by Charles V. for over twenty years, was the result of religious indifference. This could not be said, however, of the Roman Church, and the continued mildness of the Roman Pontiffs towards the Protestants as individuals is a well-authenticated fact of history. The habit of confounding the policy of the Roman Church with the policy of certain Catholic sovereigns is not unusual, but we may confidently anticipate the dissipation of this error as the truths of history are better known.

He secured the **Burgundian, Spanish, and Italian inheritance, with the American possessions**, to his son Philip, who became, as Philip II., founder of the **Spanish Hapsburgs**. Charles V. died two years later, in Spain.

Last Years of the Emperor.—" He had buried himself in the monastic seclusion of the Convent of St. Just, in Estramadura. Here he wished to hide in solitude the greatness, the ambition, and all the vast projects which for half a century had kept Europe in a state of alarm. His pastimes were limited to occasional rides on horseback, to the cultivation of a garden, and mechanical occupations. He had a passion for horology, and the inability to make two time-pieces exactly agree is said to have drawn from him the reflection: 'How absurd was it, then, to attempt the establishment of uniformity among men and empires, since I cannot even succeed in making two clocks agree.'"

PERIOD OF CHARLES V.

Important features of general European history during the time

Printing Press, 16th Century.
(*Old German woodcut.*)

of Charles V., besides the maritime discoveries, were the advances made in astronomy, the general diffusion of the art of printing, the revolution in warfare, and the rise of the Protestants.

The discoveries of Copernicus (native of Thorn in Prussia proper), who had studied in Italy, revived the ancient knowledge as to the movements of the planetary system and broadened the conception of the wonders of the Universe. These discoveries were published in printed form in the year of his death, 1543. The Natural Sciences in general began to be more closely studied and more systematically developed.

Invention of Printing.—The diffusion of the newly acquired scientific

knowledge and of the old classic learning was immensely assisted by the invention of printing, which came into general use after 1500. The discoverer of this art was John Gutenberg, a citizen of Mayence, but long resident in Strasburg. Here, about 1440, he improved the older art of cutting on wood by introducing movable wooden types for printing entire books. He returned to Mayence in 1445 and entered into partnership with John Faust and his son-in-law Peter Schœffer. The latter invented cast metallic types. The first book printed was a Bible begun in 1450, and published in 1456. The general knowledge of printing was diffused by troubles in which Mayence was involved by contested claims to its government, and by the consequent dispersion of many citizens. Venice became the most important centre of the art. Here were first given to the world in printed form most of the classic authors of antiquity.

The Use of Gunpowder and its application to artillery had so far revolutionized the art of warfare that the 16th century, in this respect also, was becoming distinctly "modern." The strongholds of the feudal nobility of Europe were destroyed or made useless by the new weapons. The courts of the monarchs thus became the centres of a new national life, by which the old local and provincial isolation was broken down.
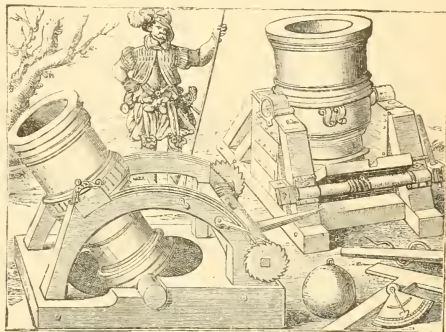
Artillery; 16th Century. Old German woodcut.

The use of infantry in war and of standing armies became general, and thus was overthrown the military importance of the old chivalry.

The invention of gunpowder was probably known to the Chinese, Hindoos, and Arabs, but was rediscovered by a German monk, Berthold Schwarz, of Mayence, after 1300, and was first employed for warlike purposes during the first half of the 14th century.

The author of the Protestant movement, Martin Luther, was born in 1483, at Eisleben, in Saxony. His family was poor, and his early surroundings full of hardship. The friendship of a liberal lady, Ursula Cotta, furnished him with means for his education. After taking his degree in philosophy at Erfurt, he entered its Augustinian convent and received Holy Orders in 1507. After visiting Rome in 1510 he was called to the chair of

Philosophy in the new university of Wittenberg, by its founder, the Elector Frederick of Saxony. Here he began to develop a doctrine exalting faith as a means to salvation at the expense of good works. In 1517 he attacked the prac-

Arquebusier, 16th Century.
(*From an old print.*)

tice of indulgences and the sale then going on in Germany ordered by Pope Leo X., to raise money for the construction of St. Peter's Church at Rome, and for an expedition against the Turks. In the controversy which followed, he was finally led to deny the authority of the Church Councils and of the Holy See. He publicly burned at Wittenberg, in 1520, the Bull in which his errors were condemned by Pope Leo X., and in which his sentence of excommunication was pronounced, unless he should retract in sixty days. He was summoned, in 1521, to appear at the Diet of Worms, presided over by the Emperor, but made no particular impression on this august assembly, and left Worms hastily. From this time till his death, in 1546, he continued to agitate in favor of the heresy since known as Lutheranism.

John Calvin was born at Noyon, in Picardy, in 1509. His father was a cooper. Calvin made literary and legal studies at the universities of Paris, Orleans, and Bourges. At the latter he imbibed Lutheran doctrines. In 1534 he went to Basle in Switzerland, where he published his leading work, "The Christian Institutes." He afterwards settled at Geneva, where a most rigorous and narrow system of government was established by his influence. He died in 1564. His scholar, John Knox, was the leader of the Protestant movement in Scotland.

Map Study.—" Western Europe about 1550." Specify the Hapsburg territories and the time and way in which they severally became possessions of this family. What countries not colored purple were ruled by Charles V. as an emperor ? Specify the division of Hapsburg power after the abdication of Charles V., and the territories allotted to each branch.

Marignano, see the small section map for Northeast Italy. Duchy of Milan, when would the purple color be first in place here ? (P. 239.) Pavia, see section map. Observe dimensions of Tuscany and Venice. Mohacz—observe the line of Turkish color in Hungary as result of this battle, and the purple color over Bohemia and the rest of Hungary also as result. Compare extent of Austria in 1400, p. 200. Vienna ; Tunis ; Algiers. Observe the Hohenzollern color (Brandenburg) in Prussia. Trent (mentioned next page), see section map. Smalcalden ; Mühlberg ; Passau.

Thorn ; Mayence ; Strasburg ; Eisleben. (Erfurt is marked on the map for age of Napoleon.) Wittenberg, Worms, Noyon.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE PERIOD OF CHARLES V.

Charles I. of Spain and V. of the Empire, born........ ....A. D. 1500
Conquest of Naples by Ferdinand the Catholic............................... "   1501
Fourth voyage of Columbus begun................. .... "   1502
Julius II. Pope after............... .... "   1503
St. Peter's at Rome begun................. ....   "   1506
Ormuz, at the mouth of the Persian Gulf, a Portuguese possession............... "   1507
Henry VIII. King of England after... .... "   1509
French driven from Milan by Julius II. in..................................... "   1512
First year of Pope Leo X...... .... "   1513
Francis I. succeeds Louis XII. and reconquers Milan........ .. .. "   1515
Death of Ferdinand the Catholic ; Accession of Charles I. of Spain....... .... "   1516
The Orlando Furioso published (p. 215)........................... .... "   "
Syria and Egypt conquered by Sultan Selim I., from the Mamelukes (p. 191)........ . "   1517
The death of Maximilian of Austria gives " Burgundy " and " Austria" to Charles I.
    of Spain. Charles I. of Spain elected Charles V. of the " Empire.".............. "   1519
Spanish Conquest of Mexico after...... .... "   1520
Death of Pope Leo X ; Accession of Adrian VI. Magellan†....................... "   1521
Luther at the Diet of Worms................... .... "   "
The Turks conquer Rhodes from the Knights of Malta............................. "   1522
The French expelled from Milan.. "   "
Pope Clement VII. succeeds Adrian VI. in..... .... "   1523
Protestantism introduced in Sweden by Gustavus Vasa........................... "   1524
Battle of Pavia and " Peasant War " in Germany... .... "   1525
Teutonic Knights suppressed in "Prussia".... .... "   "
Battle of Mohacz founds the Austrian power in Bohemia and Hungary.............. "   1526
Sack of Rome by the army of Charles V....... .... "   1527
Solyman the Great lays siege to Vienna.. "   1529
Pope Clement VII. crowns Charles V. at Bologna.................................... "   1530
The Florentine Republic becomes the Grand Duchy of Tuscany after................ "   "
Spanish conquest of Peru, after................... .... "   1531
Charles V. prevents a second Turkish invasion of Germany............... .... "   1532
Pope Clement VII. succeeded by Paul III. The Jesuit Order founded........ ...... "   1534
The Act of Supremacy makes Henry VIII. head of the English Church............... "   "
Emperor's Expedition to Tunis.. "   1535
Bull of Pope Paul III. against enslaving the American Indians...................... "   1537
Charles V. makes his son, Philip II., Duke of Milan.... .... "   1545
Council of Trent (closed 1563) opened.. . "   "
Death of Luther; Smalcaldian war begins. .... "   1546
Battle of Mühlberg.. "   1547
Death of Francis I. (successor Henry II.) and Henry VIII. (successor Edward VI.).. . "   "
Pope Paul III. succeeded by Julius III... "   1549
Peace of Passau ends the Smalcaldian war.. "   1552
Death of Edward VI. of England ; Accession of Mary............................... "   1553
Abdication of Charles V. in 1555 and... .... "   1556
Death of Charles V. Elizabeth of England succeeds Mary .. .. "   1558

SYNCHRONISTIC AND SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

Who were the Popes in the period of Charles V. ? *Ans.* Alexander VI. till 1503, Julius II., Leo X., Adrian VI., Clement VII., Paul III., and Julius III.

By what Pope were the colonial enterprises of Spain and Portugal separated and their later colonial empires indicated ? (P. 228.)

What important exception to the general control of South American colonies by Spain resulted from this line of demarcation ? *Ans.* The Portuguese Colony of Brazil.

What Popes are especially noted in the revival of art and letters ? (P. 214.)

What artists did they patronize ? *Ans.* Among many others, especially Michael Angelo and Raphael.

What Pope had been the tutor of Charles V. ? *Ans.* Adrian VI., when Bishop of Utrecht.

What famous goldsmith and sculptor did Clement VII. patronize ? *Ans.* Benvenuto Cellini.

Under what Pope did Michael Angelo finish the famous tombs of the Medici in the Church of San Lorenzo in Florence ? *Ans.* Under Clement VII.

Under what Pope was the "Last Judgment" of Michael Angelo painted in the Sistine Chapel? (P. 222.)

Who made him architect of St. Peter's ? (P. 222.)

Repeat the names of Italian artists so far mentioned belonging to the period of Charles V.

What other artists are noted ? *Ans.* Correggio, born near Parma, and Titian of Venice are especially famed.

What event crippled the later development of Italian art ? *Ans.* The sack of Rome. Date it.

What interfered with Papal patronage of art and letters ? *Ans.* The wars of French and Spaniards in Italy after 1521, and the troubles caused by the Lutheran movement.

What great German artists lived in the period of Charles V. ? *Ans.* Hans Holbein and Albert Dürer.

What was the later development of German art ? *Ans.* It was cut short by the disturbances in Germany.

In whose pontificate was convened the Council of Trent ? (P. 239.)

Name the sovereigns of England and France in the period of Charles V. ? (P. 239.)

Name two Sultans of Turkey in this period ? (P. 239.)

When did the Turks first enter Europe ? *Ans.* In 1356. (See p. 201.)

When did they take Constantinople ? (P. 135.)

When did they occupy the Crimea ? (P. 227.)

When did they conquer Syria and Egypt ? (P. 239.)

Rhodes ? (P. 239.)

Part of Hungary ? (P. 233.)

Date their siege of Vienna. (P. 233.)

Who prevented farther encroachments ? (P. 233.)

What American countries belonged to Spain under Charles V. ? (P. 228.)

Who became ruler of England in the year when Charles V. died ? (P. 239.)

SPAIN, AFTER THE PERIOD OF CHARLES V.

SPANISH HAPSBURGS.

Charles I. (V.)...... ....A. D. 1516–1556
Philip II., son of the foregoing................. " 1556–1598
Philip III., " " " " .... " 1598–1621
Philip IV., " " .. " .... " 1621–1665
Charles II., " " " .. (Line extinct)...... " 1665–1700

The grandson of Louis XIV. of France founded by inheritance, after 1700, the Line of Spanish Bourbons, still reigning, with intermission in the time of Bonaparte, early 19th century, and in late revolutions. The reigning Spanish Bourbon is Alphonso, proclaimed king 1874.

The Spanish ascendency over Europe continued for a century after the death of Charles V., and did not, till the Treaty of the Pyrenees, 1659, (reign of Louis XIV.,) yield the precedence to France, which, however, all this time constantly contested it. This Spanish ascendency is apparent in the " Burgundian " possessions within the Germanic Empire, in the control of North and South Italy (Naples and Milan) and in the immense colonial possessions. (Portugal was also a Spanish conquest from 1580 to 1640.) It is apparent also in the high perfection of Spanish art in the 17th century—time of the painters Velasquez and Murillo—and by the reputation in the field of letters of Cer-

Palace of the Escurial, near Madrid.
(*Built by Philip II.*)

vantes (1547–1616), author of Don Quixote; of Lopez de Vega (1562–1635) and Calderon (1601–1687), authors of a multitude of fine plays.

The Spanish Hapsburg rulers, after Philip II., made no especial mark in history as individuals, and their line became extinct in 1700. Meantime Spanish commerce was much crippled in the later 16th century by the English privateers, whose wholesale depredations in time of peace led to the

Spanish Armada (see English history). Spain was also crippled in the 17th century by the commercial wars with the Dutch which grew out of the revolt of the Netherlands under Philip II. (see next section).

Decay of Spanish Power.—The country shows a marked decay of vigor in the later 17th and in the 18th centuries. A period of exhaustion naturally follows one of great expansion ; but probably the greatest injury to the prosperity of Spain was her wealth in precious metals (so highly prized in the 16th century) drawn from the American Colonies—just as in our own time Germany grew poorer by the extortion of an immense war indemnity from France. Any sudden increase in the amount of gold and silver has simply the result of raising prices, and it is apt at the same time to cultivate habits of prodigality and idleness. The poverty of modern Spain is the result of the destruction of the trees and consequent dryness of the soil. This country supported 40,000,000 inhabitants in antiquity. It now supports only 8,000,000.

Map Explanation.—After the extinction of the Spanish Hapsburg Line in 1700 Spain and the American possessions passed, by the Spanish Succession War and Peace of Utrecht, 1713, to a French Bourbon Dynasty. The history of the remaining Spanish Hapsburg territories, after that time, will be found in later sections relating to the countries which acquired them.

GERMANY

AFTER 1500.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

GERMANIC EMPERORS OF THE 16TH CENTURY.

Maximilian I. of Hapsburg-Austria........ ......A. D. (1493)–1519
Charles V., grandson of the foregoing.......... "   1519–1556
Ferdinand I., brother   "   "   .... "   1556–1564
Maximilian II., son   "   "   .... "   1564–1576
Rudolf II., son   "   "   .... "   1576–(1612)

Austria acquired a new importance in the 16th century by its Hungarian and Bohemian territories (to which Silesia belonged) and by its position as the barrier for Germany against the Turks. On account of this position and of the Hapsburg influence over the Electors, Austria continued to hold the Imperial dignity. The power to which this dignity had been raised by Charles V. had tended to revive the old consolidated sovereignty of Germany, but had not succeeded in doing so. Maximilian had established in 1495 an organization of the empire by departments or "circles," which was strengthened by his successor. Each principality was to contribute a certain

Ferdinand I.
(*Old Woodcut.*)

number of men to a common army when needed, and a certain amount of money to the common treasury. The authority of an Imperial Court was also recognized. But the cumbrousness of pro-

cedure and uncertainty of operation in these arrangements were extreme.

The religious divisions of Germany were an additional element of weakness and of confusion. It was under these disadvantages that the Imperial reigns of the Austrian Hapsburgs Ferdinand I., Maximilian II., and Rudolf II. were conducted.

In the Burgundian portion of the Empire a revolt began against the Spanish Hapsburgs in 1566, which lost them their Dutch Provinces. Under the cruel severity of the Spanish General Alba both the Flemish Catholic and Dutch Protestant Provinces were united in resisting the rule of Philip II. After 1579 the humane and politic conduct of the Italian Duke of Parma, the greatest military genius of his time, brought back the Catholic Flemish Netherlands to the rule of Spain. The Dutch continued their struggle, headed by William of Orange, "the Silent," till his assassination in 1584. A price had been set on his head as a rebel by Philip II. The war outlasted Philip's reign and the limits of the century.

Germany suffered much from the so-called Reformation, politically and economically, in civilization as well as in religion. The great modern authors of Italy, Spain, France and England, precede the great German men of letters by centuries. The latter belong to the late 18th and early 19th centuries. By the Lutheran movement North Germany was cut off from the cultivating influences of Southern Europe. South Germany, in contention with the North, partly lost the advantages of its geographical contact with Italy. After Italy and Spain the precedence in modern civilization belongs to France ; but the glorious development of music in 18th century Germany (Italian influence) and of modern German literature (under Greek inspiration) atones for the tardiness of the flower. During the 16th and 17th centuries the leading representatives of the interests of culture and education in the German States were the Jesuits.

Map Study.—Compare maps for 1400 and 1550 to notice once more Austria's gain in 1526 of Hungary, Bohemia and Silesia. Observe the position of the Turks.

Compare maps for 1550 and 1648 for the Netherland provinces and the change of color for the Dutch Republic.

MAP EXPLANATION.

(The places not entered on the map for 1550 may be found on later maps (among others see map for 1816), or in a modern map, which should be used in all cases for comparison and contrast.)

Next to Austria the most important principality of the south was Bavaria—capital, Munich ; of the north, Brandenburg—capital, Berlin ; of the centre, Saxony—capital, Dresden ; of the southwest, Würtemberg—capital, Stuttgart, and the Palatinate—cap-

ital, Heidelberg; of the west centre, the two **Hesses** and the Archbishoprics of **Mayence** and **Treves**; of the northwest, the Archbishopric of **Cologne** and Bishopric of **Münster.**
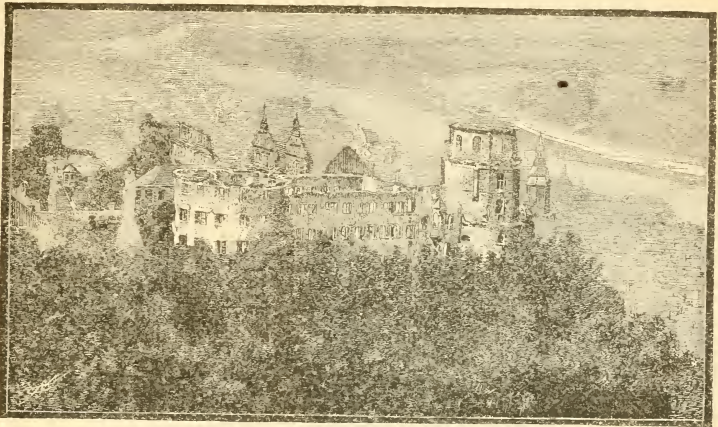
The Castle at Heidelberg. Built in the 16th Century.

The free city of **Frankfort on the Main** was the capital of the Empire and place of coronation.

North Germany was mainly Protestant, South Germany mainly Catholic; but in the west the **Rhine-Palatinate** was Calvinist, while the northwest remained Catholic. **Saxony** was mainly Protestant under a Catholic dynasty.

CHRONOLOGY OF GERMAN HISTORY IN THE 16TH CENTURY.

SYNCHRONISTIC AND SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS.

What were the territories of the Spanish Hapsburgs after 1556?

What Spanish territories were in the Germanic Empire?

What were the territories of the Austrian Hapsburgs after 1556?

What were the territories of the Hohenzollerns after 1525?

Who was king of Spain in the last half of the 16th century? (P. 241.)

How long before the end of the century did he die?

Who was queen of England during all this time? *Ans.* Queen Elizabeth; 1558–1603.

Who were the French sovereigns in the last half of the 16th century? *Ans.* Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III., Henry IV.

What is the origin of the word Protestant? *Ans.* At the diet of Spires, 1529, a number of German princes entered a Protest against the decisions of the Catholic majority.

What great Italian author belongs to the latter part of the 16th century? (P. 215.)

What contemporary great Spanish authors?

What contemporary great English author? *Ans.* Shakespeare.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

GERMANIC EMPERORS OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

Rudolf II. of Hapsburg-Austria................A. D. (1576)–1612

Matthias, brother of the foregoing.............. "　1612–1619

Ferdinand II., cousin "　　 "　　 ....　...... "　1619–1637

Ferdinand III., son of "　　 "　　 ....　... "　1637–1657

Leopold I.,　　 "　"　"　　 " 　..........　..... "　1657–1705

The Dutch Republic.—After the year 1609 the independence of the Dutch Republic from Spain was practically assured, and a twelve years' truce was then made. The Dutch had already begun to supplant the Portuguese in the East Indies (p. 228). (Portugal and its colonies belonged to Spain from 1580 to 1640.) During this century the Dutch became the most important commercial and maritime power in Europe.

Catholic Reaction.—During the last half of the 16th century a Catholic reaction had been gathering force in Germany. Protestant confiscations of Church lands, continued after the Peace of Passau and against its agreements, were a constant source of irritation and complaint. This was an important cause of the Thirty

Years' War ; but political motives were blended with religious. The opponents and antagonists of the House of Austria assumed the religious colors. This was especially the case in Bohemia, where the war began.

Thirty Years' War. First Period.—In 1618 an order of the Emperor Matthias to close two churches, erected by Protestants of Bohemia on ground belonging to the Abbot and Archbishop of Prague, caused a revolt in this country which assumed national proportions on account of Bohemian aspirations for a government separate from Austria. The rebels elected a Protestant, Frederick V. of the Palatinate, son-in-law of James I. of England, as their king. They were decisively defeated in the battle of the White Mountain near Prague, in 1620, by the army of the new Emperor Ferdinand II. Frederick the "Winter-king," so called, because king only for one winter, fled to Holland. His States were confiscated by the Emperor and given to Bavaria.

Troopers of the Thirty Years' War.
(*From a painting by Terburg, contemporary artist.*)

Thirty Years' War. Second Period.—Christian of Denmark, who was a Prince of the Germanic Empire for Sleswick-Holstein, instigated by France (Richelieu), and England (Charles I.), took up arms for the cause of the Elector-Palatine in 1625. The Bohemian Count Wallenstein, general for the Emperor, and Tilly, general of the Catholic German League, invaded and occupied the North German States. Christian of Denmark was driven out of Jutland to the Danish Islands. Wallenstein failed only in the siege of Stralsund. By the Peace of Lübeck, 1629, Christian received back his lost territories on condition of abandoning the war.

Thirty Years' War. Third Period.—An " Edict of Restitution "

was now issued by the Emperor, for the return of the Church lands confiscated since the Peace of Passau; but its execution was cut short by new difficulties. His successes in Bohemia and South Germany had been won by troops of the Catholic League, of which Bavaria was the head. He now proposed to disband them and replace them by the troops of Wallenstein. This general was known to favor a consolidated German sovereignty resembling that of France, Spain, or England, and the Catholic princes took the alarm and refused to disband their army. In union with the Protestant States they demanded and procured the displacement of Wallenstein. The Electoral Princes refused to ratify his possession of the North German Duchy of Mecklenburg, given him, after conquest, by the Emperor. The lack of organism and system made it impossible to pay the Imperialist troops. The armies levied on the country, and the odium of their excesses had fallen upon this general.

Meantime Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, landed with 15,000 highly disciplined soldiers in Pomerania, in 1630. This invasion was the result of an understanding with France, which pursued under the guidance of Cardinal Richelieu her traditional policy of weakening the Hapsburgs. Gustavus Adolphus proposed the foundation of a Swedish Baltic Empire, including Northeast Germany. His ambition, at a later day at least, even aimed at the Imperial crown.

His arrival was not welcomed by the Protestant States, and Brandenburg was forcibly occupied by him. Saxony hesitated between the two parties—was invaded by Tilly after his destruction of Magdeburg, and then called in the Swedes to assistance. Notwithstanding the coolness with which Gustavus Adolphus had been received, the discipline of his army, which did not plunder, won for him the good will of the people. As a general he was constantly successful against the Imperialists. After the victory at Breitenfeld, near Leipzig, over Tilly, 1631, almost all Germany (excepting Austria) fell into his hands. The Saxons, now allies of the Swedes, entered Bohemia and took Prague.

In this extremity recourse was had by the Emperor once more to Wallenstein. On condition of absolute independence of control, he accepted command and raised an army. After some months of indecisive manœuvres the Swedes and Imperialists met at Lützen in Saxony, 1632. Gustavus Adolphus was killed, but Wallenstein was defeated and retired into Bohemia.

Divisions now rose in the army of the Swedes. Wallenstein's negotiations with them, and his inactivity, awakened suspicions at Vienna. He was removed from command, and as he continued to negotiate, was assassinated as a traitor by one of his officers, at Eger in Bohemia, 1634. The act was sanctioned by the Emperor after commission, by a proclamation, dated back, setting a price

on the head of Wallenstein. The plans of Wallenstein and the justice of his fate are not certain. His character is perhaps the most mysterious one of history. The Swedes were defeated at Nordlingen, 1634. They had meantime lost all discipline, and the country continued to be mercilessly plundered by the soldiers of both parties.

Thirty Years' War. Fourth Period.—In 1635, Protestant Saxony made peace with the Emperor, admitting the Edict of Restitution with some restrictions. But the French now declared war on Austria and Spain (both being Hapsburg powers), and Oxenstiern, Minister for the Swedes, in understanding with the French, refused to leave Germany without cession of territory and pay for his soldiers. This prolonged the war for thirteen years.

Character of the Thirty Years' War.—The main original causes of the Thirty Years' War were Catholic irritation at the Protestant confiscations of Church property, Protestant irritation at the rapid progress of Catholicism, and the general disorder and confusion of an empire in which a sovereign authority was neither recognized absolutely nor entirely disputed. The long duration of the war was not, however, caused by religious differences, which would only explain its first period. This long duration was partly caused by the inability of either party to centre itself and present a determined front. The constant dissensions between Lutherans and Calvinists, which were quite as bitter as those with the Catholics, weakened the Protestants. The jealousy of Catholic Bavaria and other Catholic states, who refused to admit the diminution of their powers and a more absolute subordination to the Emperor, weakened the Catholics. The hereditary rivalry of France against the Hapsburgs, which opposed the consolidation of Germany by Hapsburg power, and the ambition of Sweden to establish a Baltic empire including the coast provinces of North Germany, continued the war long after the Germans themselves wished it over. Protestant soldiers fought in the armies of Wallenstein; Protestant states sided with the Emperor, in whole or in part, at different times. The Catholic French assisted Protestants in their resistance to the Imperialists.

To these elements of confusion was added the national spirit of Bohemia, whose Slavonic population was subject to the Austrian German rule, and the general lack of cohesion in the Austrian state resulting from the absence of ties of blood between its different portions—the Hungarians and the Bohemians being of different blood both from each other and from the German Austrians. (The Hungarians are an Asiatic race, originally allied to the Turkish family.)

Since there was no recognized established central authority on either side to raise pay for the troops, the armies of both sides lived on the country and supported themselves by plunder. The result of the struggle was therefore an exhaustion and depopulation from which the country did not recover till after the middle of the 18th century—perhaps has not yet recovered. The small towns and villages suffered most. In them it is computed that three-fourths of the inhabitants, four-fifths of the live stock, and two-thirds of the dwellings were destroyed. Twenty thousand corpses were found in Magdeburg after its destruction by Tilly.

The Imperial cause corresponded partially to that which had unified the national states of France, Spain, and England, but only partially, for the Hapsburgs did not possess sufficiently the national confidence of Germany to solidify the country. This was for two reasons. Spanish sympathies, interests, and policy were naturally imputed to the Austrian dynasty, and

Austria itself was only in a small part of its whole territories a Germanic state—namely, in Austria proper. It was not sufficiently strong in its own territories to control securely the rest of Germany, even had religious divisions not existed.

Peace of Westphalia, 1648.—The call for a congress of ambassadors had been issued eight years, and their sessions had continued four years, when the Peace of Westphalia was announced, so named because sessions were held at Osnabrück and Münster in this province. **The most important feature** of the treaty was the total abandonment of the idea of a single Germanic sovereignty. The Emperor retained only a nominal control of the German principalities, which, to the number of over two hundred and fifty, were recognized as practically independent, with separate diplomatic representation at foreign courts and with independent armies.

(In the arrangements between Prussia and Austria in 1866, one of these German states was omitted from the treaty. It was so small that it was forgotten.

The Austrian possessions in **Alsace** were ceded to **France.** They had been conquered during the latter part of the war by a German in French pay, Bernard of Weimar. Part of **Pomerania** was ceded to **Sweden,** with the Bishoprics of **Bremen** and **Verden** (these latter territories were afterward an important part of modern Hanover). **The independence of the Dutch Republic** was acknowledged both by Spain and by the Germanic Empire. **The independence of the Swiss Republic** from the Germanic Empire was acknowledged. The Swiss Cantons had been really separated from the Empire since the time of Maximilian I. They now became free legally. (See p. 195 for earlier Swiss history.)

In the matter of confiscated Church lands, the year 1624 was adopted as the "normal" year—that is, confiscations made before that year were to be undisturbed—a provision made in defiance of the Papal protest.

Germany after the Thirty Years' War.—After 1648 the numerous German principalities were bound together, for foreign affairs, by a political confederation of which Austria was the head,

EUROPE
in 1648
Peace of Westphalia

SWEDEN

Opslo
Aggerhuus
Arboga
Frederickshall
Norkoping
Suderkoping
Stegeborg
Gothenburg

Stockholm

Calmar

Schonen
Lund
Copenhagen

Bornholm
Lubeck

Pommerania
Brandenburg
Berlin
Saxony
Lignitz

Fraustadt

Abo
Carelia • Wiborg
Ingria
Narva
Esthonia
Cardis
Pskow
Livonia
Goldingen • Riga
Courland
Dwina R.
Smolensk

Niemen R. • Wilna
Konigsberg
Wehlau
Danzig
Prussia
Mercez
Groduo
Lachowicz
Thorn
Pultusk
Pripet R.
Warsaw
POLAND
Lublin
Breslau
Klissow
Lemberg
Kiew
Cracow
WhiteMountain
Weissenberg
Jankau • Olmutz

Nicholsburg
AUSTRIA Vienna
HUNGARY
Transylvania
Dniester R.
Moldavia
Bender
Jedisan

Pultawa

Styria
Krain

Duchy
of
MILAN

Duchy
of
Aquanegra
Bozolo
Sabioneta

Mincio R.
Mantua

MANTUA

Po R.

Legnano • Este
VENICE
Adige R.
Rovigo • Adria

Chioggia

Guastalla
Mirandola

Duchy
of
Parma
PARMA

Novellara
Correggio • Carpi
Modena Massa
Cento
Duchy of

MODENA

Ferrara
Duchy of
FERRARA
Comacchio

BOLOGNA
S.E. part of Lombardy
during the
17th Century.

Argenta
Bastia
Romagna

Habsburg poss. purple
Spanish Habsburgs
Hohenzollern poss. blue
Savoy poss.   yellow
France .... red
Venice   light yellow
Poland   light purple

This map illustrates also the
Scandinaro-Sclavonian wars
under Charles X, XI and XII

but absolute despotism of each particular prince became the form of government for the people.

Rise of Prussia.—Under the " Great Elector," Frederick William of Brandenburg, 1640–1688, his province of Prussia was freed, in 1657, from its feudal dependence on Poland. Generally in alliance and friendship with Austria, he took an active part in the wars with Sweden, Poland, and France, and raised his state to the position which secured his successors the royal title for their Prussian province, and therewith the appellation of Prussia for all their territories.
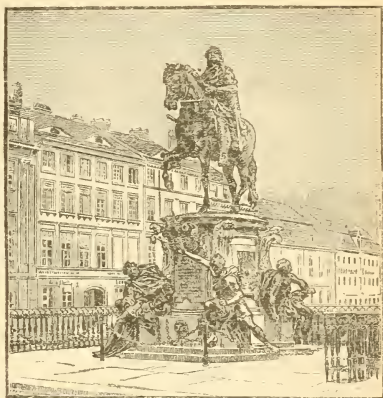
Statue of the Great Elector, Berlin.
(*By Schlüter, contemporary sculptor.*)

Rise of Austria.—The weakness of the Germanic Empire after the treaty of Westphalia exposed it to the encroachments of the French king, Louis XIV., whose wars disturbed Europe in the latter part of the 17th century. The states of the Hapsburg Emperor, on whose armies devolved the duty of defence, were far removed from the borders attacked. Notwithstanding this disadvantage in the wars with France, Austria increased in strength. After the siege of Vienna by the Turks in 1683, when the Polish king, Sobieski, rescued the city, rapid headway was made against the Turks in Hungary. By the peace of Carlowitz, 1699, they entirely abandoned this country.

In intellectual and literary effort, 17th century Germany is almost a blank. The fashions of the Court of Louis XIV. set the tone for all her petty courts. France was the intellectual and artistic force of the age.

Map Study for " Europe in 1648." Prague. (Klostergrab and Braunau are the places where churches were closed.) White Mountain is Weissenberg, near Prague. Sleswick and

Holstein. Jutland, Mecklenberg; see Europe in 1713. Pomerania, Magdeburg, Breitenfeld, Leipzig, Lützen, Eger, Nordlingen, Osnabruck, Munster.

For Treaty of Westphalia, see French color in Alsace, colors of Sweden and Brandenburg in Pomerania. See Swedish color at mouth of the Elbe for Bremen and Verden. Compare Switzerland on last three maps with Switzerland without local sovereignty and part of the German Empire on map for 1400. Observe the separation in locality, so far, between Branden- burg and Prussia. Carlowitz is near Belgrade—see modern map of Austria.

<center>MAP EXPLANATION.</center>

The importance of the Thirty Years' War and its closing treaty for the history of Europe will appear by the reflection that all events of our own century in Germany are changes in arrangements then made. Therefore some brief notice of the complicated geog- raphy of the states then made territorially independent will be proper.

A modern map of Germany should be used with this explanation, but many smaller Ger- man states are entered on later maps, especially on map for 1816.

Bavaria was increased in the north by the Upper Palatinate (p. 254), and was given an eighth Electoral vote. The Lower (Rhine) Palatinate was returned to the heir of the "Winter king."

Bavaria was about two-thirds of its present dimensions. It was first materially enlarged by Bonaparte.

Würtemberg was much smaller than now. It was enlarged at the same time.

Baden was a small strip of territory on the Rhine. An important part of modern Baden then belonged to the Palatinate (capital Heidelberg). Modern Baden was created by Bonaparte.

Hesse-Darmstadt was considerably smaller than at present (increased by Bonaparte).

The three large Bishoprics of Mayence, Treves, and Cologne (p. 200) were secularized (made secular property) by the French Revolution. In 1648 they occupied very considerable territories along the Rhine and the Moselle.

Oldenburg (map for 1816) is a territory famed for its Dynasty, which gave rulers to Den- mark and intermarried with the Houses of Russia and Sweden.

Hanover, or Brunswick-Lüneburg, was much smaller in 1648 than when absorbed by Prussia in 1866. It was afterwards increased by the territories of Bremen and Verden, ceded to Sweden in 1648 (see map at p. 254).

Saxony had been increased since 1635 by Lausitz or Lusatia (p. 228), an addition to its northern border from Austrian Silesia. It was made a kingdom and enlarged by Bonaparte.

The Saxon Duchies—Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Gotha, etc.—were in 1648 of about the dimensions of later time.

Between and around the various states so far mentioned as enlarged since 1648 must be imagined the smaller independent states, towns, and Bishoprics, which afterwards built up the increase of those mentioned by name. After Bonaparte there were thirty-nine German states as against the two hundred and fifty and over recognized by the Treaty of Westphalia.

Pomerania.—In North Germany the province of Pomerania was divided between Sweden and Brandenburg, the latter having the larger share (p. 250).

Mecklenburg had about the same dimensions in 1648 as now.

The Hohenzollerns of Brandenburg.—Among these now both practically and legally independent German princes, the Hohenzollerns began, after 1648, to take the leading position next to Austria, at least for North Germany. The steady rise of the Electorate of Brandenburg to prominence was assisted by its dimension, which, after increase by the

Treaty of Westphalia, was larger than any other single German principality, and by the thrift and good management of the reigning family, which has always exerted the most important personal influence on the fortunes of this state.

The Hohenzollerns of Brandenburg (Prussia) gained, in 1648, the larger (eastern) part of Pomerania, the Archbishopric of Magdeburg, and some smaller Bishoprics.

This House already owned in 1648, besides the little original Hohenzollern territory in the angle between Southern Baden and Southern Wurtemberg—first, **Anspach** and **Baireuth** in South Germany (p. 166), territories now belonging to Bavaria; second, the **Duchy of Brandenburg**, capital Berlin (since 1417); third, the **province of Prussia**, in extreme Northeastern Germany, since 1525. This province (as related, p. 168) was colonized by crusading knights of the Teutonic Order about 1200. In 1525 the Grand-Master of the Order, Albert of Brandenburg (a Hohenzollern), turned Lutheran, secularized its territories (made himself their secular ruler) and married. His territory of "Prussia" was in feudal dependence to Poland. His line died out in the third generation, and Prussia then passed in 1618, to the Hohenzollerns of Brandenburg. In 1627 the Elector of Brandenburg acquired certain territories in Western Germany—**Cleves, Marck,** and **Ravensberg** (p. 254), important as opening the way to the large Prussian gains in Western Germany after the French Revolution.

CHRONOLOGY OF GERMAN HISTORY IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Spanish truce with the Dutch Republic...A. D. 1609
Emperor Matthias, after.. .... " 1612
Thirty Years' War begins... .... " 1618
Emperor Ferdinand II., after......... .... " 1619
Christian of Denmark enters the Thirty Years' War................................... " 1625
    "   abandons it....... .... " 1629
Gustavus Adolphus invades Germany... .... " 1630
Battle of Breitenfeld.............. ... . " 1631
Battle of Lützen ; death of Gustavus Adolphus......................... .... " 1632
France declares war on the Hapsburgs...................... .... " 1635
Emperor Ferdinand III., after............. . . .. " 1637
Peace of Westphalia........ .... " 1648
Emperor Leopold I., after... .. " 1657
The Empire loses (Spanish) Franche-Comté to France................................ " 1678
Turkish siege of Vienna........ .... " 1683
Burning of the Palatinate by French troops. (Ruins of Heidelberg Castle.)........... " 1689
Peace of Carlowitz with Turkey............ .... " 1699

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

How long after the beginning of the Thirty Years' War was the landing of the Pilgrims in Massachusetts in 1620 ?

Who were the English rulers of the 17th century? *Ans.* James I., Charles I. (executed 1649), Cromwell, Charles II., James II., William III.

How long is 1614, the date when the Dutch settled New Amsterdam (New York), before the beginning of the Thirty Years' War ?

How long after the Peace of Westphalia was Charles I. executed?

How long after this peace is the date for the English possession of New York in 1664?

Who were French kings of the 17th century? *Ans.* Henry IV., Louis XIII., Louis XIV.

In what wars with Louis XIV. was the Empire involved in the last half of the 17th century? *Ans.* In the war with Holland—the German Empire lost thereby (Spanish) Franche-Comté in 1678—and the war of the League of Augsburg, when the Palatinate was devastated in 1689.

What was the character of the Spanish Hapsburg rulers? (P. 241.)

What power ruled Milan in the 17th century? (P. 232.) Sicily? (P. 220.) Naples? (P. 220.) Sardinia? (P 226) The Southern Netherlands? (P. 229.) Mexico and Peru? (P. 228.) See also p. 236 and maps. pp. 228, 250.

Who was the last Spanish Hapsburg? (P. 241.) When did he die? (P. 241.)

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY IN THE 18TH CENTURY

Leopold I. of Hapsburg-Austria...	A. D. (1657)–1705
Joseph I., son of the foregoing................. "	1705–1711
Charles VI., brother of the foregoing... .. ... "	1711–1740
Charles VII. (a Bavarian)..................... "	1740–1745
Francis I. (of Lorraine), husband of Maria The-	
resa, the daughter of Charles VI........ "	1745–1765
Joseph II., son of the foregoing....... .. ... "	1765–1790
Leopold II., brother of the foregoing.......... "	1790–1792
Francis II., son of the foregoing.... ... . "	1792–(1832)

Prussia obtains the Royal Title.—In 1701, by Imperial grant, the Elector of Brandenburg obtained the royal title as king of Prussia (the title being borrowed from the northeast province of his territories). In return for this honor he gave active support to Austria in the contest for the Spanish Succession.

Spanish Succession.—The extinction of the Spanish Hapsburg line, in 1700, led to a general European war on behalf of the rival claims of the Austrian Hapsburgs and French Bourbons. The Spanish Hapsburg inheritance was claimed by the second son of the Emperor Leopold, Charles—in order to propitiate the public sentiment of Europe, which was opposed to a reunion of the monarchy of Charles V. But the second grandson of Louis XIV. was heir by the will of the Spanish king. He was favorably received by the

POLAND

RUSSIA

Bug

Jedisan

Dniester R.

Dnieper R.

Moldavia

TURKEY

Bender

Danube

Walla chia

Black Sea

Crimea

The boundaries of Russia, Poland & Turkey
in 1713 (Charles XII's Career 1709-1714)

GERM...

ENGLAND

Lowestoft

London

Torbay

Portland

Chatham

Isle of Portland

Bred...

English Channel

Dungeness

Streets of Dover

Cala...

BELGI...

Arras

Dennis

Malplaquet

Flan...

Ronen

Chantilly

Seine R.

Paris

Fontainebleau

Orleans

Dijon

Burgun...

Nantes

Loire R.

Tours

Nevers

Fire...

Poitiers

Bay of Biscay

Rochefort

FRANCE

Finisterre

Corunna

Bordeaux

Ponte Vedra

Leon

Agen

Brigu

Pau

Toulouse

Camisards

Lyons

Oporto

Miranda

Burgos

Celte

Narbonne

Grenoble

Douro R.

Valladolid

Avevro

Tormes

Ebro R.

Cardona

Gerona

Avignon

Coimbra

San Ildefonso

Saragossa

Lerida

Marse...

PORTUGAL

Tombul

Villa Viciosa

Tortosa

Barcelona

Marseille...

Mafra

Tagus R.

Madrid

Toledo

Toulon

Lisbon

Belem

Elvas

SPAIN

Ecija

Guadiana R.

Valencia

Balearic Ist.

St Vincent

la Carolina

Ft. Mahon

Minorca

Mertola

Cordova

Almanza

Yvica

Mallorca

Sevilla

Guadalquiver R.

Murcia

Malaga

Granada

Tangier

Ceuta

Gibraltar

Tetuan

FEZ & MAROCCO

Fez

Algiers

ALGIERS

N OCEAN
DENMARK
Bornholm
Rugen
Wilna
Gottorp
Tyarrenahl
Pomerania
Dantzic
Konigsberg
PRUSSIA
Mecklenburg
Zorndorf
Kingdom
Brunswick
Brandenburg
Kustrin
Kunersdorf
Luneburg
Potsdam
Thorn
Nimeguen
Berlin
Vistula R.
Munster
Magdeburg
Halle
Cottbus
Warsaw
POLAND
Electorate
Moers
Cleve
of
Saxony
Silesia
Aix la Chapelle
Palatinate
Prague
Cracow
Nordlingen
Upper
BOHEMIA
Elchingen
Palatinate
Freiburg
Bavaria
Augsburg
Danube R.
Vienna
HUNGARY
SWITZERLAND
TYROL
AUSTRIA
Salzburg
CARINTHIA
Savoy
Milan
Fenestrella
VENETIAN
DOMINION
Turin
Po R.
Parma
Genoa
Venice
Modena
Florence
Tuscany
Arno R.
Elba
Sardinia
Papal States
Naples
Naples
Palermo
Sicily

Battle fields
of the
Netherlands
Zuyder
Sea
Haarlem
AMSTERDAM
Utrecht
Leyden
Scheveningen
HAAG
Rotterdam
Arnheim
Ryswyk
Cleve
Xanten
Wesel
Breda
Geldern
Muhlh.
Wester Schelde
Venlo
Dusseldorf
Elberfeld
Bethkershock
Lille
Turnhout
Bruges
Ghent
Antwerp
Mons
Maestricht
Cologne
Dunkirk
Lowen
Aix la Chapelle
Tourcoing
BRUSSELS
Waterloo
Liege
Verviers
Lille
Steenkerk
St. Andre
Ligny
Bonn
Lens
Tournay
Malplaquet
Namur
Arras
Valenciennes
Dinant
Denain
Barrow
Cambray
Moselle
Peronne
St. Quentin
Arlon
Amiens
Ham
Charleville
Luxemburg
Saarlouis
Compiegne
Laon
Aisne
Longwy
Thionville
Soissons
Verdun
Metz
Rheims
Valmy
St. Menehould
St. Germain
St. Denis
Marne
Chalons
PARIS
Montmirail
Tilsy
Nancy
Versailles
Fere Champenoise
Arcis
St. Dizier
Toul
Luneville
Fontainebleau
Nogent
Brienne
Bar s.A.
Montereau
La Rothiere
Troyes
Clairvaux
Langres
Yonne
Auxerre
Chablis

Spaniards, had taken possession peacefully of his kingdom and its dependencies. He had also abandoned any pretensions to the French throne which might unite France and Spain under a single king. A large part of Europe was, however, opposed, in view of the immense power of France under Louis XIV. and its various conquests and aggressions, to the union under a French dynasty of Spain, Belgium, Milan, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, and the American Colonies—all this was involved in the Spanish inheritance (p. 254).

France, under Louis XIV., had, moreover, favored the Stuart cause in England against the House of Orange (William III., king of England since 1688). Both England and Holland, whose interests were united under William III. (previously the Dutch Stadtholder or President), therefore feared the further aggrandizement of France as a menace to his rule. Holland and England were also inspired by colonial and commercial jealousy.

The Duchy of Savoy also took part in the armed opposition to Louis XIV. Its position, controlling the passes from France into Italy, gave this State importance, and it feared the establishment of French power on its eastern border, which would result from inheriting the Spanish territory of Milan.

Prussia, Austria, England, Holland, Savoy, were thus combined against the **Spaniards** and **French,** with whom **Bavaria** sided. In the Turkish wars the Austrian General Prince Eugene had developed a marvelous military genius. To his weight was added that of the great English General, Marlborough, while the greatest generals of Louis XIV. were dead.

Battles of the war were fought in Spain, North Italy, South Germany, and the Netherlands. Generally these battles were crushing defeats for the French, whose energies had been exhausted in three preceding wars under Louis XIV. The most humiliating offers were at last made by this king for peace and refused. The dismemberment and destruction of France were in prospect, when the tenacity of Spain, the disgrace of Marlborough, and the death of Joseph I. (which raised his brother to the Imperial throne, thus

preparing a revival of the monarchy of Charles V. if his claim were successful), secured the Peace of Utrecht.

Compare Europe in 1648 with Europe in 1713.

The Peace of Utrecht in 1713, accepted by Austria (at Rastadt in Baden) a year later, gave her the Southern Netherlands (Belgium), Milan, Naples, and Sardinia. See the Hapsburg color without the Spanish cross-lines. The French dynasty retained Spain and the American Colonies. See French color in Spain. Thus was founded, by Philip V., the line of Spanish Bourbons, still ruling Spain.

Sicily was ceded to the Duchy of Savoy (see the color), but was transferred to Austria, in 1720, in exchange for Sardinia and the royal title (origin of the royal line of modern Italy—the kings of "Sardinia" and Savoy). See color of Sardinia, map for 1748. Sicily and Naples were receded by Austria to Spain in 1738. See color on map for 1748. This loss was, however, balanced by the gain of Tuscany, where the line of the Medici (p. 232) expired in 1737. See Austrian color in Tuscany, map for 1748.

Thus Belgium and Milan (see color), after 1713, and Tuscany after 1738, were Austrian possessions (the latter ruled by a branch Austrian line).

The territorial changes of 1738 were the result of the war of the Polish Succession, in which France, Sardinia (Savoy), and Spain had supported the cause of the father-in-law of the French king Louis XV., Stanislaus Leczinski, a Polish noble—while Austria and Russia supported the cause of the Elector of Saxony. Both had been elected to the Polish monarchy by different parties in Poland. The Saxon Elector, Augustus III., obtained the Polish crown. Stanislaus Leczinski was indemnified with Lorraine, which was to pass at his death to France (see French color of Lorraine in 1748), and Francis of Lorraine, husband of the Austrian heiress, Maria Theresa, was indemnified with Tuscany (Peace of Vienna, 1738).

War of the Austrian Succession.—The death of the Hapsburg Emperor Charles VI. in 1740, without male heirs, was again the cause of a general European war. For many years his policy had been directed toward securing the undisturbed succession of his daughter Maria Theresa. His cession of Naples and Sicily to Spain and his support of the Saxon Elector in the Polish Succession had been prompted by the wish to secure the support of other European powers to this end. But the moment of his death was, notwithstanding, the signal for the War of the Austrian Succession, 1740 to 1748.

Rival Parties. — England and Holland supported Austria. France, Spain, Saxony, Prussia, and Bavaria were leagued against her. It was not generally believed that Maria Theresa could in any case hold her States together, and each foreign power had interest

Map legend:

House of Bourbon	Red
Spanish Bourbons	
Italian Bourbons	
Habsburg	Purple
Guelphs	Light Yellow
Hohenzollern	Blue
Savoy	Yellow
Wittelsbach	Orange
Palatinate branch	
Wettin	Green

IRELAND

Cork   Wexford

Scarborough
Preston

Wales

ENGLAND

Bleinheim
London

Portsmouth

Friesland

Dutch Republic

Austrian Netherlands

Harre
Fontenoy
Rouen

Rennes   Paris
Chartres   Chantilly
Nantes   Angers
Orleans   Fontainebleau
Loire R.
Poitiers   F R A N C E   Strassburg
Rochefort   Tours
Pompadour   Seine R.
Bordeaux   Saone R.
Lyons   SWITZERLAND
Geneva   Rhone R.
Leon   SARDINIA   Milan
Burgos   Agen   Valence   Turin   Venetian Do
Valladolid   Bayonne   Valence   Avignon   Genoa   Parma
Pau   Toulouse   Marseilles   Modena
SPAIN   Narbonne   Toulon   Florence
Madrid   Saragossa   Tuscany
Tagus   Lerida   Gerona
Toledo   Barcelona   Corsica
Portosa   Elba

Valencia   Balearic Id.
Xativa
Murcia   Sardinia

Algiers
ALGIERS   Palermo

Palatinate
Bran
wic
Luneb
Ravensberg
Mark   Minden
Bergen
Wesler
Dettinge
Anspa
Augsburg
Tyr
Po R.

EUROPE in 1748
Peace of Aix la Chapelle.

England, Scotland
& Ireland,
during the
18th Century.

in some particular portion of her territories. France wanted the adjacent Austrian Netherlands, *i. e.*, Belgium; Spain wanted to recover Milan; Bavaria, having gained the Imperial dignity (Charles VII., 1741 to 1745), wanted Austria proper or Bohemia. The ambition of Prussia alone was successful.

Frederick the Great, king of Prussia after 1740, conquered **Silesia** and kept it by the mediation of England.

The participation of England in these Continental affairs was partly caused by the fact that her kings since 1714 were the Electors of Hanover, with German interests and territory to protect and enlarge. (See English color in Brunswick-Lüneburg, or Hanover, on map for 1748.) Her league with Austria was also owing to her colonial jealousy of the French and Spaniards, who were for the time being the enemies of Austria.

Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.—Frederick the Great retired from the war in 1742 with Silesia (Peace of Breslau). (See Prussian color in Silesia, map for 1748.) He re-entered the war in 1744 and 1745, and again made peace on the old conditions.

A general Peace was made at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. This peace was, however, simply a truce. Maria Theresa was a sovereign of great personal popularity, especially in Hungary (which had not always been so devoted to its German rulers). Her husband, Francis of Lorraine, brought back the Imperial dignity to the Austrian House in 1745, as Emperor Francis I. Meantime the power of Prussia under Frederick the Great had awakened the jealousy of Europe by a standing army of 150,000 men. But England now supported him, to antagonize France and Spain.

Officers of Frederick the Great.
(*Design by Menzel.*)

Seven Years' War.—The Empress was bent on the recovery of Silesia. To secure this end she allied with her late enemies, France and Spain, in 1756. Russia also joined this coalition, together with Saxony and Sweden. Thus Frederick, supported only by British subsidies, had the whole of Europe against him. Although his heroic genius and undeniable personal greatness gained him everywhere sympathizers, the dismemberment of the

Prussian monarchy was the avowed aim of his enemies. At the most critical moment of the war, after many victories as well as crushing defeats, he was saved by the death of the Russian Empress Elizabeth. Her successors, Peter III. and Catherine II., withdrew the Russian armies from Germany.

The Peace of Hubertsburg (in Saxony), 1763, gave Europe rest till the French Revolution of 1789.

The contemporary Peace of Paris, which closed the Seven Years' War as regards England and France, is noted under the histories of these countries, and established important changes.

This peace raised Prussia to the rank of one of the five Great Powers of Europe, the others being Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and France. The province of Silesia, which belongs by configuration and drainage to North Germany, increased the riches and population of Prussia by about one-third, and the First Division of Poland, 1772, closed the gap between the province of Prussia proper and the Pomeranian and Silesian provinces. Austria and Russia shared in this division, as in the two later ones (after Frederick's death in 1786) of 1793, and 1795. The gain of Galicia by the first division was permanent for Austria; the later divisions were modified by the changes of the French Revolution.
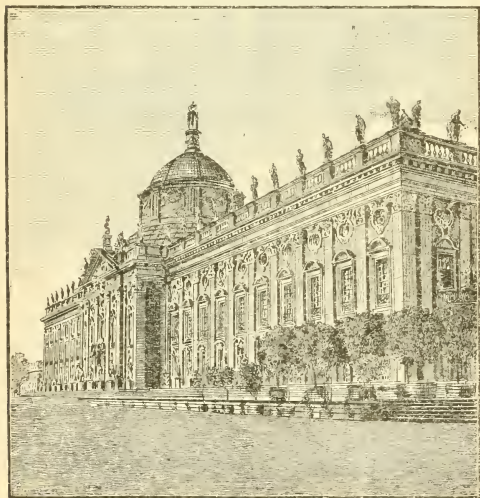
Palace at Potsdam. Built by Frederick the Great.

Divisions of Poland.— The history of the whole 18th century is inspired by dynastic and national selfishness. The lack of principle and of chivalry in its contests renders their details uninteresting, although the territorial changes have the greatest importance for the comprehenson of later history. The dismemberment of France (Spanish Succession), of Austria,

of Prussia, were successively attempted. Only that of Poland succeeded. Its government by elective monarchy exposed the country to constant party quarrels. In its diets the right of *liberum veto—i. e.*, the right of any one member to veto a law—was recognized. Hence anarchy and consequent weakness.

Prussia under Frederick the Great.—Amid the universal selfishness of the 18th century dynasties, the rule of Frederick the Great of Prussia, always despotic, sometimes unscrupulous, exhibits decided elements of greatness. In his zeal for industry he forced the apple-women of Berlin to knit at their stalls ; but he announced the principle that the monarch is the servant of his State. When the Jesuits were driven from all other European countries, they found protection and patronage with him and with Catherine II. of Russia. Both these sovereigns knew how to value their zeal and ability in education. In conceding this political greatness to Prussia, its barrenness in intellectual and artistic interest is also to be conceded. Only in the 19th century has this country shaken off its coarseness and barbarism.

The Electorate of Saxony was the most important centre of artistic interests and liberal education for Germany during the 18th century, before 1775. Here were collected, soon after 1750, most of the valued treasures of the famous Dresden Gallery of Paintings. Of Saxon birth was the great German critic, Lessing.

Vienna, by its connection with Italy, was an important seat of musical culture.

The little State of Saxe-Weimar became the intellectual centre of Germany after 1775, and was distinguished as the residence of the great poets Goethe (Gertĕ) and Schiller.

In Music the glorious names of Sebastian Bach (Bǎhk), of Hayden (Hīden), Gluck, Beethoven (Baythŏven), and Mozart, belong to 18th century Germany.

Map Study.—Aix-la-Chapelle, Breslau, Hubertsburg; see "Europe in 1748," p. 256. Galicia, see "Europe in 1816." Potsdam is near Berlin, map at p. 254. Weimar, see "Europe in 1810."

The following geographical references are for the table on the next page. See "Europe in 1713," p. 254, for Blenheim, Gibraltar, Ramillies (section map), Turin, Madrid, Barcelona, Almanza, Oudenarde (section map), Malplaquet (section map), Villa Viciosa, Utrecht (section map). See map at p. 256 for Rossbach.

For Division of Poland compare map for 1748 with map for 1816 (and see Russian history). The arrangements of the intervening map for 1810 were not permanent.

GERMAN WARS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Spanish Succession War. Peace of Utrecht.. A. D. 1700–1713
Polish Succession. Peace of Vienna.. " 1733–1738
Austrian Succession. Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. .... " 1740–1748
Seven Years' War. Peace of Hubertsburg and Paris................. .... " 1756–1763
Wars of the French Revolution.... .... " 1792–(1815)

KINGS OF PRUSSIA IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Frederick I. .. .. A. D. 1701–1713
(He had succeeded the Great Elector Frederick William in 1688 as Elector Frederick IV.)
Frederick William I., son of the foregoing.... .. .. A. D. 1713–1740
Frederick II. the Great, son of the foregoing......... .... " 1740–1786
Frederick William II., nephew of the foregoing............... .... " 1786–1797
Frederick William III., son of the foregoing......... .... " 1797–(1840)

CHRONOLOGY OF GERMANY IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Death of Charles II. of Spain (causes the Spanish Succession War)....................A. D. 1700
Frederick I. King of " Prussia ".. "   1701
Anne, Queen of England, after... "   1702
Marlborough's victory of Blenheim... "   1704
Gibraltar taken by the English (ceded to England by the Peace of Utrecht).......... "   "
Death of Leopold I.; accession of Joseph I.......................... ... . "   1705
Marlborough's victory of Ramillies.... .... "   1706
Prince Eugene's victory of Turin............ .... "   "
The Austrian " Charles III. of Spain " lands in Portugal and conquers Madrid........ "   1707
The Spaniards confine him to Barcelona by the victory of Almanza............ ...... "   "
Victory of Oudenarde (won by Prince Eugene and Marlborough). .... "   1708
Victory of Malplaquet; Marlborough.... .... "   1709
" Charles III." reconquers Madrid................. .... "   1710
Spanish victory of Villa Viciosa confines him once more to Barcelona .... "   1711
Death of Emperor Joseph I. places Charles VI. on the throne of the Empire. }
Threatened reunion of the monarchy of Charles V.   } .... "   1711
Disgrace of Marlborough .. .. "   "
These events lead to the Peace of Utrecht....................................... ... . "   1713
Frederick William I. of Prussia succeeds Frederick I......... .... "   "
Death of Louis XIV.; Accession of Louis XV. .. .. "   1715
Death of Charles XII. of Sweden....... .... "   1718
Dukes of Savoy made Kings of Sardinia.. .... "   1720
Death of Peter the Great of Russia.. "   1725
War of the Polish Succession opens.. .... " 1733
Closed by the Peace of Vienna..... .... " 1738
Frederick II. the Great, King of Prussia............................. .... "   1740
Death of Charles VI. of the Empire................... .... "   "
Succession of Maria Theresa in Austria. War of the Austrian Succession............ "   "
Peace of Breslau. Silesia to Prussia.. "   1742
Peace of Dresden. Silesia confirmed to Prussia.................................. ... "   1745
Peace of Aix-la Chapelle closes the Austrian Succession War. No changes...... ... "   1748
Seven Years' War begins .... "   1756
Prussian Victory of Rossbach.......... .... "   1757
Peace of Hubertsburg ends the war for Austria and Prussia...... .... "   1763
Peace of Paris ends the war for England, France, and Spain........................ "   "
Death of Emperor Francis I. Accession of Joseph II............................... "   1765
First Division of Poland... .... " 1772
Death of Frederick the Great. Accession of Frederick William II................. "   1786
French Revolution begins................... .... "   1789
Death of Joseph II. Accession of Leopold II...................................... "   1790
Death of Leopold II. Accession of Francis II................... .... "   1792
Wars of the French Revolution in Germany open .... "   "
Second Division of Poland... .. .. "   1793
Prussia abandons the war on France. Peace of Basle.. .... "   1794
Third Division of Poland............... .... "   1795

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

What territory unites Brandenburg and Silesia with Prussia proper? Compare "Europe in 1748" with "Europe in 1816."

When acquired? (P. 258.)

How much increase to Prussia by Silesia? (P. 258.) When? (P. 257.)

What territory occupied by Prussia before 1713, passed by treaty from Sweden to Prussia in 1720? *Ans.* Part of Swedish Pomerania. Compare maps for 1648 and 1748.

What was gained by this acquisition? *Ans.* Control of the mouth of the Oder.

What territory does the Oder drain? *Ans.* Silesia.

When did Prussia obtain the royal title?

What did Prussia gain in 1648? (P. 253.)

In 1627? (P. 253.)

When were Brandenburg and Prussia united under one ruler? (P. 253.)

When did "Prussia" come under a branch of the Hohenzollerns? (P. 233.)

When was Brandenburg acquired? (P. 166.)

What Hohenzollern territories were held in South Germany till 1816? (P. 166.)

When acquired? (P. 166.)

Where is Hohenzollern? (P. 166, and map, p. 200.)

Why are the successive steps in the rise of Prussia so important? *Ans.* Because they have continued until, in the 19th century, Prussia supplanted Austria in the control of Germany, and under her influence the German states have been consolidated.

How has Prussia exercised the ascendency acquired in Germany? *Ans.* With great arrogance, especially in her conduct to the Roman Church.

How may the study of history be a warning for individual conduct? *Ans.* Almost every nation which has risen to great power has sacrificed its position and lost its ascendency by pride and over-confidence, and a nation is composed of individuals.

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

To what kingdom had Silesia belonged? (P. 243, and map for 1713.)

When did Bohemia and Hungary become Austrian possessions? (P. 233, and map for 1550.)

When was Hungary united with Bohemia? (P. 166, and map for 1400.)

Who founded the line of Luxemburg-Bohemia? (P. 165.)

To what inheritance had Brandenburg belonged when transferred to the Hohenzollerns by Sigismund? (P. 166, and map for 1400.)

Who were the English contemporaries of Frederick the Great? *Ans.* George II. and George III.

French contemporaries? *Ans.* Louis XV. and Louis XVI.

What emperor died in the year of his accession? (Chronology, p. 260.)

Who was the daughter of this emperor? How did she become an empress? (P. 257.)

What territories became Austrian possessions in the 18th century *without re-transfer*? *Ans.* Belgium, Milan, and Tuscany. See p. 256. and maps for 1713 and 1748.

What territories gained by Austria were re-transferred?

Who were French sovereigns in the 18th century ? *Ans.* Louis XIV., Louis XV., Louis XVI.
Which of them obtained " Lorraine " from the " Empire " ? (P. 256.) How ? When ?

What is meant by England's " colonial jealousy " ? (P. 257.) *Ans.* Jealousy of the French in North America (p. 287), of the Spanish-American trade, and of the French in Hindoostan.

Who were English sovereigns in the 18th century ? *Ans.* William III. for two years, Anne, George I., George II., George III.

What other title and power had the last three ? *Ans.* Electors of Hanover. The House cf Hanover came to the English throne with George I. in 1714.

When was the House of Hanover founded ? (P. 162.)

When were England and Hanover separated ? *Ans.* At the accession of Queen Victoria in 1837.

What is the first event in point of time of the Seven Years' War ? *Ans.* Braddock's defeat at Fort Duquesne in 1754—the formal declaration of war not made till two years later.

How many years before the beginning of the French Revolution did the American Revolution end ? (P. 260.)

How many years before the death of Frederick the Great is the American Declaration of Independence in 1776 ? (Chronology, p. 260.)

How many years before his death is the Independence of the American Colonies in 1783 ?

How many years after the Seven Years' War ended (p. 260) did the American Revolution begin ?

What Russian Tzar died in 1725 ? (Chronology, p 260.) What Swedish king died in 1718 ?

What did Prussia gain in consequence ? *Ans.* The territory mentioned in a preceding question relating to 1720.

What did England gain in consequence ? *Ans.* The addition (by treaty) of Bishoprics Bremen and Verden (conquered before 1713) to Hanover, and consequent control of the Elbe.

(On map for 1648, see Swedish color at mouth of the Elbe for Bremen and Verden. On map for 1713, see dimension of Brunswick-Lüneburg or Hanover.)

SIMPLIFIED TABLE OF GERMAN HISTORY FROM 1500 TO 1800.

Accession of Charles V.	A. D. 1519
Division of his Monarchy	" 1556
Revolt of the Netherlands under Philip II	" 1566
Thirty Years' War, after	" 1618
Peace of Westphalia	" 1648
The Great Elector obtains the sovereignty of " Prussia " free from feudal dependence on Poland	" 1657
Kingdom of Prussia after	" 1701
Peace of Utrecht	" 1713
Peace of Vienna	" 1738
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle	" 1748
Peace of Hubertsburg and Paris	" 1763
Death of Frederick the Great	" 1786

IMPORTANT SYNCHRONISMS.

Elizabeth, Queen of England..................................... 1558

    When did Charles V. die ?
    When did Philip II. of Spain begin his reign ?
    When did Ferdinand I. of the Empire begin his reign ?

Execution of Charles I. of England....... 1649

    When was the Peace of Westphalia concluded ?
    When was the accession of Louis XIV. ? (See forward, p. 270.)

George III., King of England........... 1760

    How is this date related to the accession of Frederick the Great ?
    To the beginning and end of the Seven Years' War ?

The later history of Germany is connected with that of the other modern states, under the heading of the " French Revolution and later Modern History of Western Europe."

FRANCE

AFTER 1500.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

FRENCH SOVEREIGNS OF THE 16TH CENTURY.

Louis XII., 1498–1515, was an economical and wise ruler. His internal administration received the reward of national appreciation which it deserved, and was marked by that absence of "events" which is a certain indication of national happiness and prosperity.

Italian Conquests.—The French were expelled in 1512 from their occupation of Milan (p. 220) only to return in the first year of the following reign. The same impulse which drew expedition after expedition into Italy from Germany in the time of Otto I. or Barbarossa, was now drawing France and Spain in the same direction. In our own time this charm of Italy still exerts itself on foreigners. We see now armies of travelers instead of armies of soldiers, but the attraction is the same, and the influence of Italy exerts itself now, as it did then, on the stranger who beholds this country.

Italian Influence.—Because the stream of travel took the form of armed expeditions, we must not suppose that bloodshed and carnage were the rule. From all complications of parties and diplomacy one general result was always the same—viz., increase of Italian influence on the habits, fashions, and learning of France.

Architectural styles are the surest indication of general aspects of civilization, and in no country was the Gothic so quickly and so thoroughly overthrown in favor of Italian "Renais-

sance " fashions in architecture as in the country which invented the Gothic. The " Renaissance " in architecture is the Italian Revival of Roman-Greek architectural forms. Compare the Palace of the Louvre with the same Italian style in St. Peter's at Rome. Contrast with the Gothic, pp. 189, 197.

Francis I., 1515-1547, continued the Italian policy of his predecessor, and in 1515 re-entered Milan after the battle of Marignano, holding the duchy till 1522. The campaigns in Italy after 1521, during the long rivalry with Charles V., have been already summarized under this reign. Francis was a brilliant and showy personality, prodigal and brave, a patron of Italian art and letters. He brought the artists Benvenuto Cellini and Leonardo da Vinci to France, and many of their countrymen. Da Vinci is said to have died in his arms.
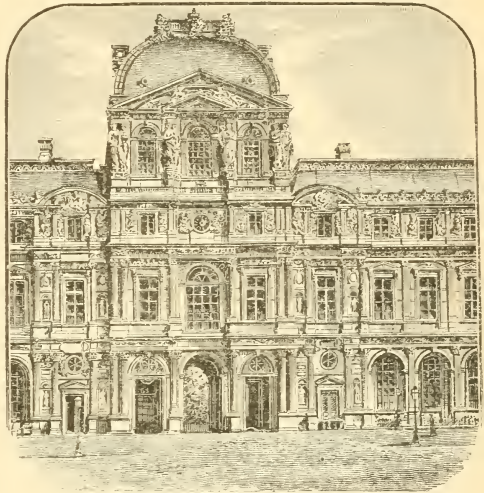
Portion of the Palace of the Louvre, 16th century.

Henry II., his son, **1547-1559**, continued the connection with Italy, by marriage before accession with Catharine de Medici, a Florentine princess. He attacked the Germanic Empire, in alliance with the Protestants, during the Smalcaldian war, and conquered, in 1552, the Bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. It was to chastise this assault that Charles V. made the peace of Passau (p. 235), in order that his hands might be free for a determined siege of Metz. But he could not retake this stronghold (lost to France in 1871). The war outlasted his abdication, and was inherited by Philip II.

The generals of Philip II. gained for him the brilliant victory

of St. Quentin in 1557, but the resulting opportunity to march on Paris was not improved. The Duke of Guise was therefore able to

French Costumes, 16th century.

reconquer Calais (p. 198) for the French in 1558. (An English alliance with Philip II., who married Mary of England, occasioned this attack of France, and cost England this important post, held since Crécy.)

The Peace of Cateau Cambresis (Cambresē) closed the war in 1559. It was the last war of any importance between the French and Spaniards of the 16th century. The French king lost his life in a tournament held to celebrate the peace and the marriage of Philip II. with his sister. (Mary of England died in 1558.)

The Huguenots.—By the reaction against the profligacy of the court, and by reason of injudicious and cruel persecution, Calvinism (p. 238) had made startling progress in this reign. The very great majority of the nation still hated the new heresy and its teachers, but many of the middle classes were attracted by its democratic tendency, and the nobles began to see in it a formidable engine of opposition to the government. The king leagued with the Protestants of Germany, but treated their brethren of France with great barbarity. "He hated the Calvinists," says an acute contemporary, "more from reasons of state than of religion, fearing lest other states should use them against him as he had used the Lutherans against the Emperor." Under the colors of the Huguenots (French Protestants) many of the nobles concealed a factious opposition to the crown, and this political use of religious disputes led to the later civil religious wars.

Francis II., 1559–1560, was the first husband of Mary Queen of Scots, daughter of James V. of Scotland. Before she was six years old she was sent to the French Court, was educated there, and married Francis, then Dauphin, in 1558. Her grandmother was the sister of Henry VIII., and Mary was therefore, in view of the illegitimacy of his daughter Elizabeth, the lawful heir to the English throne in 1558.

The marriage alliance with Scotland had been made to

offset the English alliance with Spain just mentioned, and it was the threat of the French to press the claim of Mary Queen of Scots to the English crown which had led the English-Spanish coalition to the peace of 1559. The king was only sixteen years old, and the power was in the hands of his wife's uncles—the Cardinal of Lorraine and the Duke of Guise. He left the crown to a still younger brother in a year.

Charles IX., 1560–1574, was ten years old at his accession. His reign was disturbed by civil religious wars, and by the intrigues of Catherine, his mother, to hold the regency. To this end she made alternate alliance with various factions of the nobles, the French Protestants included.

Massacre of St. Bartholomew.—The natural leader of France, by his strict Catholicity, and by his popularity with the people as defender of Metz and conqueror of Calais—was the

Duke of Guise, regent in the preceding reign. Catherine's wish to retain the power herself, led her to antagonize the Guise party and to league with the Huguenot (French Protestant) faction. This gave the latter an apparent strength not commensurate with their numbers (they were only about one in a hundred of the French). Their relations to the Queen Regent had no element of principle. These relations gave their conduct an arrogance, and their demands an absurdity of extravagance, which threw the nation into civil war. By German and English assistance in the civil war they once more made a figure not corresponding to their real influence. Generally unsuccessful in battle, a succession of truces accorded them a variety of privileges and an amount of toleration which culmi-

Catherine de Medici.
(*Old medal.*)

nated in the admission of Coligny, one of the leaders, to the confidence of the king. Thus was brought about the deplorable massacre of St. Bartholomew. The same regent who, for selfish reasons, had favored the Huguenots, seeing her influence threatened by a new rival, let loose the passions of the Parisian populace against them, and these passions had been inflamed by an arrogant attitude of the Huguenots for which Catherine de Medici was responsible. The Massacre of St. Bartholomew was not confined to Paris. It extended over France, cost the lives of over 20,000 people, according to some computations, and led to a new civil war.

Charles IX. died two years later, twenty-four years old, without having ever escaped the condition of tutelage to his mother.

Henry III., 1574–1589, was already (by election) king of Poland, and abandoned this crown for that of France. He was an effeminate voluptuary in personal character. His reign was distracted by a new element of dissension, for the next legal heir to

the crown was a Protestant—Henry, the king of Navarre. (Navarre was a small State on the borders of France and Spain.)

The claim of Henry of Navarre to the Crown was derived from Robert of Clermont, the brother of Louis IX., and founder of the House of Bourbon by marriage with its heiress. Antony, the father of Henry of Navarre, had married Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of the little kingdom of Navarre, whence Henry's possession of that State. The family of Bourbon had been in disgrace since the time of Francis I., when the Constable of Bourbon took service against his country as a general of Charles V. and was killed before the walls of Rome in 1527. The Bourbon estates, the Bourbonnais and Marche, were confiscated in 1531. The Constable left no direct heirs. Antony of Navarre was descended from a parallel branch of the Bourbon line, the Counts of Marche. Henry of Navarre had married Margaret of Valois, sister of Charles IX., just before the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Pope Sixtus V. declared that a Protestant could not inherit the crown of France, and Henry was excommunicated. A Catholic league was formed, which proposed to depose Henry III. He had lost the respect of the nation by his profligacy. The head of this league was the Duke of Guise, son of the duke already named, called *Balafré* from a scar on the cheek. He proposed to take the throne, in default of a better claim, as the heir of Charlemagne through the line of Lorraine. Henry of Navarre was himself removed by twenty-two degrees of affinity from the sovereign.

Thus there were three parties in France—the Protestant, headed by Henry of Navarre after the death of his uncle Condé; the Catholic league; and the king's party, the weakest of all. Henry III. caused the assassination of the Balafré. The odium of this act forced him into the alliance of the Protestants, but he found his own death also by assassination as he was preparing to besiege Paris.

Henry IV., 1589–1610, had his kingdom and capital still to conquer. He was a gallant soldier, but his faith could not be allowed to control the destinies of France. The dilemma was partly solved in 1593 by his conversion, although the Pope (Clement VIII.) refused for some time to withdraw his sentence, and did not accord him absolution till two years later. The Protestants were conceded extraordinary political privileges by the Edict of Nantes, 1598, which closed the Huguenot wars.

Map Study for "Europe in 1550," p. 228. Marignano is on the section map for Northeast Italy. Metz; Toul; Verdun. (St. Quentin in northern France is entered on the map for 1648, p. 250). Calais. (Cateau Cambresis, in northern France, is entered on the map for 1648.) Kingdom of Navarre, see map for 1400, p. 200, and 1550. The Bourbon possessions are light red on the map for 1550. Nantes is on the Loire.

CHRONOLOGY OF FRENCH HISTORY IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Battle of Ravenna; French victory over the Italian league (p. 230), but the death
  of the French commander Gaston de Foix caused the evacuation of Milan .....A. D. 1512
French reinvasion of Italy. Defeat of Novara. Consequent expulsion.............. " 1513
Accession of Francis I. French victory of Marignano .... " 1515
Tournament of the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Friendly meeting of Francis I. with
  Henry VIII. of England................. .... " 1520
Wars with Charles V. (p. 231) begin .... " 1521
French defeat of Pavia (p. 232)........... .... " 1525
Peace of Madrid (p. 232)................................ .... " 1526
Second War with Charles V. and Sack of Rome (p. 232)............................ " 1527
Peace of Cambrai........ ... . " 1529
Calvin's influence on France (p. 238) after.. " 1535
Third War for Milan (p. 232)..... .... " 1536
Truce of Nice....... .... " 1538
Fourth War for Milan (p. 232).. .... " 1542
Peace of Crespy............................... .... " 1544
Accession of Henry II... ... . " 1547
He enters the Smalcaldian War:. .... " 1551
Conquers Metz, Toul and Verdun... ....,........ " 1552
French defeat of St. Quentin........................ .. .. " 1558
Peace of Cateau Cambresis. Accession of Francis II.............. .. .. " 1559
Accession of Charles IX................................ .... " 1560
Huguenot Wars begin...................................... .... " 1562
Massacre of St. Bartholomew.. ... ." 1572
Accession of Henry III........ .... " 1574
Accession of Henry IV................................ .... " 1589
Edict of Nantes closes the Huguenot wars......................... .... " 1598

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

In what French reign was the fourth voyage of Columbus? (P. 227.)
The voyage of Magellan? (P. 228.) The conquest of Mexico and Peru for Spain? (P. 228.)
What general features of European history in the 16th century? (P. 236.)
How long after the accession of Francis I. occurred the Diet of Worms? (P. 239.)
When did he fail to secure the Imperial dignity? (P. 230.)
In what French reign was the word Protestant first used? (P. 246.)
Who was the English contemporary of Francis I. ? (P. 230.)
What two sovereigns died in 1547 ? (P. 239.)

What were the causes of the French rivalry with Spain ? (P. 231.)

Why did Henry II. enter the Smalcaldian War ? *Ans.* From this same rivalry—the wish to cripple the Emperor.

What Peace resulted ? (P. 266.)

In what French reign did the Council of Trent adjourn ? (P. 239.)

How long before Henry II. did Luther die ? (P. 239.)

In what French reign occurred the abdication of Charles V. ? (P. 239.) The revolt of the Netherlands? (P. 245.)

What sovereign died in the year of the Edict of Nantes ? (P. 247.)

What English sovereign began to reign in 1558 ? (P. 239.)

In what French reign ?

Through what French reigns did Elizabeth continue ? (She was Queen till 1603.)

Name the Germanic Emperors of the 16th century. (P. 243.)

What additions to the French monarchy in the 16th century ? (Pp. 265. 268.)

What style of architecture was adopted in France in this period ?

What style did it replace ?

In what French reign was begun St. Peter's at Rome ? (P. 217.)

In what French reign did England abandon the Roman Church (1534) ?

In what French reign were the Hapsburg possessions divided ? (P. 235.)

Name the English sovereigns of the 16th century. (Pp. 239, 246.)

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

FRENCH SOVEREIGNS OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

Henry IV. .... A. D. (1589)–1610

Louis XIII., son of the foregoing .... " 1610–1643

Louis XIV., son of the foregoing .... " 1643–(1715)

DESCENT OF HENRY IV.

Louis IX.
|
Younger son, Robert of Clermont=Beatrice, heiress of Bourbon.
|
Louis of Bourbon.
|
_____|_____
| |
Line ending with the Constable of Bourbon, 1527.   James, Count of Marche.
|
John, Count of Marche.
|
_____|_____
| |
Louis of Vendome.   James, Count of Marche.
|
John
|
Francis.
|
Charles.
|
Jeanne d'Albret, Queen of Navarre=Antony, †1562.
|
Henry IV., King of Navarre and France.

The Reign of Henry IV. continued till 1610. He was a character of great force, and a true Frenchman. Of a genial and gallant nature, he quickly won the affection of his subjects, and became, perhaps, the most popular of all French sovereigns. The task of his reign was to bind up the wounds of the civil wars, and restore prosperity to a devastated and impoverished country. In this mission he was supported by an able minister, Sully, whose interest in manufactures, commerce, and agriculture, laid the foundation for the later greatness of France. Canada was colonized and Quebec founded under his administration.

Henry IV. and Maria de Medici.
(*Old medal.*)

There were no foreign wars in this reign (an unimportant contest with Spain in the last years of the preceding century excepted), but in 1610 Henry prepared to take part in a disputed German succession in the lower Rhine territories. This dispute concerned the territories of Juliers, Marck, Cleve, and Berg (it terminated afterwards in the acquisition made by Brandenburg in the year 1627), but the motive of Henry was to attack the Hapsburg ascendency in the Germanic Empire. The fact that on the west France had not yet attained her natural boundaries, explains this project. The Spaniards still threatened the security of France by their possession of the Franche-Comté and of the Belgic Netherlands (Spanish Hapsburg portions of the Germanic Empire). Alsace and Lorraine were still foreign territories of the same empire, into which the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun projected as the outposts for a farther advance.

On the eve of war, when all preparations had been made, the king was assassinated, on the day after the coronation of his queen, which was intended to give additional stability to her

regency in his absence. His murderer was named Francis Ravaillac (Ravīyak). No motive for this assassination could then be discovered, nor has any since been assigned. It is not impossible that the crime was committed by a fanatical subordinate partisan of the parties attacked, to forestall the anticipated successes of so great a soldier.

A daughter of Henry IV., Henrietta Maria, became afterwards queen of Charles I. of England. St. Francis de Sales was his intimate friend.

Paris was so enlarged and beautified by Henry IV. that when the Spanish ambassador saw it, after a few years' absence, he scarcely recognized the city he had left so abject and desolate. "You see," said Henry, "that the father of the family was not at home; now he is here to care for his children, and all goes well with them." The same grave Spaniard one day surprised Henry on his hands and knees, and the dauphin riding on his back, while the young Duke of Orleans administered the whip. "Monsieur Ambassador," said the king, "are you a father?" "Yes, sire." "Then I may go on with my game."

Louis XIII., 1610–1643, was nine years old at his accession. The regency was conducted by his mother, Maria de Medici (second wife of Henry IV., after 1600). She in turn was ruled by one of

Louis XIII. Old medal.

her female Italian attendants, whose husband, Concini, thus came to be head of affairs—with the title of Marshal D'Ancre. The administration of Concini was antagonized by the great nobles, and his treatment of the young king was disrespectful and overbearing. He was killed, at the royal order, by a captain of the body-guard, in 1617.

Concini was succeeded by a favorite of the young Louis, De Luynes (Lean), whose administration was also disturbed by disorder and outbreaks of the unruly aristocracy. This minister died in 1620.

Richelieu, the Bishop of Luçon, had been first employed in state business by Concini, and after momentary disfavor was reemployed by De Luynes. The influence of Maria de Medici pro-

cured him the dignity of Cardinal, and introduced him in 1624 to the Council. Here he soon acquired the supremacy and became for eighteen years the ruler of the state. Under his guidance, Louis XIII. was " the first personage in Europe and the second in France." The influence of Cardinal Richelieu was repeatedly attacked by conspiracies and cabals. These were generally headed by the brother of the king, Gaston, who was for a long time, in default of a direct heir, his prospective successor. Maria de Medici also became jealous of her former protegé, and took the side of the opposition. As usual in the politics of the time, the foreign enemy leagued with, and incited by intrigues, the domestic revolts.

Spain was this enemy. A marriage alliance had been made with Spain by Concini (Louis XIII. married a daughter of Philip III.), but this state was once more antagonized by the national policy of Richelieu. His political genius was first apparent in the seizure of the Valtellina, the valley and pass leading from Milan to the Tyrol, by which the Spanish Hapsburgs moved troops from Italy into Germany during the Thirty Years' War.

The policy of Richelieu had two aims—the elevation of the royal power to an absolute sovereignty, and the humiliation of the national rivals of France. In both these aims, pursued through life with rigid consistency and bold daring, the great Cardinal was thoroughly successful. In pursuance of his domestic policy, it was necessary to crush the political independence of the Huguenot faction.

Siege of Rochelle.—The Edict of Nantes had not only given the Protestants toleration, it had also granted political and military self-government to Rochelle, the great commercial centre of the South, and to other southern towns. These were consequently the centres of every new intrigue or revolt against the monarchy. Cardinal Richelieu therefore began, in 1627, the siege of Rochelle, which he conducted in person. Charles I. of England sent two expeditions, the first under his favorite, Buckingham, to its assistance. Both failed. A great dyke had been constructed to prevent the entrance of vessels to the harbor, and after an obstinate resistance the town was reduced by

hunger. Cardinal Richelieu abolished the existence of the state within the state, but continued the religious toleration of the Huguenots.
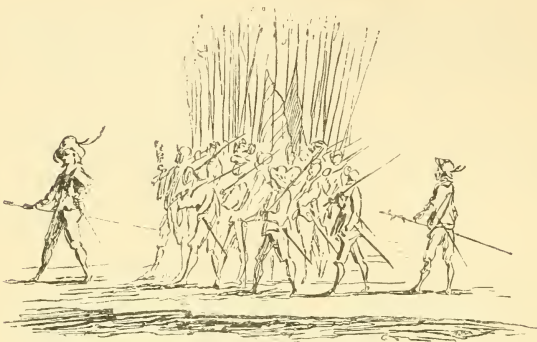
French Infantry. Sketch by Callot, 17th century.

In his treatment of the great nobles he showed unsparing severity when it was demanded. Resting on the support of a body of "notables" of the upper middle class, the destruction of the castles of the aristocracy was accomplished and their power was therewith broken.

The foreign policy of Richelieu supported the English Parliament against Charles I., the national aspirations of Portugal, the freedom of the Dutch Republic, and the independence of the German States from a Hapsburg ascendency. By supporting the movements which the logic of events had destined to success, he established the security and greatness of France among them.

The participation of France in the Thirty Years' War, after 1635, involved a war on both branches of the Hapsburgs. In this war the Austrian Hapsburgs suffered most severely, but Richelieu conquered Artois (Artwah) from the Spanish Netherlands, and by taking Roussillon (Roos-ĭ-yon) from Spain carried the French border to the Pyrenees.

The Peace of Westphalia was made after the deaths of the Cardinal and of Louis XIII. ; but its gain for France (Alsace) was the

result of his policy, as was the renewed independence of Portugal after 1640 (p. 241).

At home he built the Palais Cardinal, since called the Palais Royal; established the French Academy 1635, and by his patronage of learning created the generation which made the glory of the fourteenth Louis. The great College of the Sorbonne, founded in the 13th century, was especially favored and enlarged by Richelieu. He died on the 4th of December, 1642, in the arms of a Carmelite friar.

With all his political greatness Richelieu was an earnest Catholic. He did much to establish that spirit which has done such service to religion in our own time ; the spirit which finds all political beliefs consistent with a Catholic faith and finds therefore no grounds against political fellowship with Protestants. It is conceded that his policy opens the period when religious differences ceased to occasion religious wars. This remark applies to the statesmanship and policy of the European nations, for in the action of the Roman Pontiffs periods have made no difference in this respect. (The Crusades were undertaken to protect the Christians from insult and to protect Christian civilization from destruction. The Albigensian war was undertaken for the preservation of social order and morality in Southern Europe.)

The greatness of Richelieu consisted in a wise estimate of the possible, combined with an unswerving energy of resolution in its accomplishment, and his despotism of procedure was accompanied by that unselfishness of purpose which commands respect by its absolute devotion. On his death-bed, pressed to forgive his enemies, he replied, " I have none but those of the State." This character was recognized and appreciated by Louis XIII., whose greatness it is to have made the Cardinal king.

The character of Louis XIII. was pure, his interests elevated and noble. A musical air of his composition is still a favorite with modern orchestras. In his time were written the greater tragedies of Corneille— the Cid, Horace, Cinna and Polyeucte (Poly-ute). It is the later time of Corneille which belongs

St. Vincent de Paul.
(From an engraving of his time.)

to the following reign. "During the time of Louis XIII. appeared that remarkable constellation of saints and saintly men of whom we read in the lives of St. Vincent de Paul and M. Olier, and who renewed the faith of the Church in France. Even Richelieu consulted the

venerable Monsieur Vincent with respect on Church matters and appointments, and it was in his arms that Louis breathed his last."

Mazarin.—Cardinal Richelieu had designated the Italian Cardinal Mazarin as his successor. With less greatness, but with the same general policy, this Minister carried on the traditions of his predecessor into the following reign.

Louis XIV., 1643-1715, began his reign, like his father,
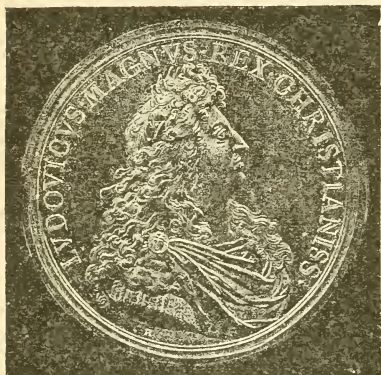
Louis XIV. Old medal.

as a minor. He was not five years old at accession. The Queen mother, Anne " of Austria " (a Spanish Infanta), and Mazarin had been left joint members in the regency. The smouldering opposition to the stern will of Richelieu took shape in a motion of the Parliament of Paris, setting aside this provision and making Anne of Austria the sole regent. The effort to win influence in this way was dashed by the action of the Queen, who reappointed Mazarin co-regent. He was, however, unpopular as an Italian foreigner, and she was unpopular as a Spaniard.

Causes of Discontent.—The system of taxation was oppressive, and this increased the discontent. The English parliament had made itself supreme in England against the king, and the Parliament of Paris was infected by its example. The situations were really, however, very different, for the Parliament in France was not a representative body. The members owed their place to purchase or appointment. Their duties were simply to register the laws. Nor was there in France, as in England, a sentiment opposed to absolute sovereignty, as a matter of principle. Therefore, the parliamentary opposition which began in France the civil war of the " Fronde " had no lasting results.

The Wars of the Fronde are so named because the opposition was thought to act like the boy playing with a sling (fronde) who throws a stone and then runs away. The Parliament began its war with some public support arising from the unpopularity of the regents and the weight of taxes, but found its cause mainly taken

up by the members of the nobility, who wished to reassert the old freedom of the aristocracy and to break down the system of Richelieu for selfish reasons. The Queen mother and Mazarin were driven from Paris. The latter had the wisdom to leave France, still continuing to direct his party.

Condé and Turenne.—Condé, first on the side of the government, then leader of the aristocratic revolt, became in this last capacity more unpopular than the government and took service with Spain. Turenne, the leader of the Fronde at first, afterward took service for the court. It seemed impossible for either party to be serious. Epigrams and jokes were plentiful on all sides. The court had actually caused the arrest of Condé, before he took service with Spain, by an order signed in blank by himself. The troubles of the Fronde continued between 1648 and 1653.

Peace of Westphalia.—Mazarin had already, in the first year of these troubles, effected the close of

Musketeer ; 17th Century.
(*Design by Charlet.*)

the negotiations of the Peace of Westphalia, by which France obtained the important possession of Alsace. This acquisition was important in itself and also because it gave one portion of the kingdom the Rhine as boundary. Brilliant victories of the French over the Spaniards, in the last thirteen years of the Thirty Years' War, had secured her these advantageous terms.

The victories of Rocroi, 1643, Freiburg, 1644, Nordlingen, 1645, Lens, 1648, were all won by Condé. The war with Spain was not closed by the Peace of Westphalia, but continued during the period of the Fronde, when the Spaniards secured some advantages and the service of the famous French general, as noted. Turenne was now his opponent and gained Dunkirk by the battle of the Dunes. It was turned over to England, whose alliance (time of Cromwell) ended the war in favor of the French.

The treaty of the Pyrenees, 1659, confirmed the conquests of Artois and Roussillon made in the time of Richelieu, and gave the Spanish Infanta in marriage to Louis XIV. Condé was pardoned, and became one of the great generals of the king.

Louis XIV. his own Prime Minister.—Four years before this date the young king had shown his mettle by appearing in the Parliament in hunting-dress, with a whip in his hand, and ordering its members to confine themselves to duties of registration without debate. Two years after the Peace of the Pyrenees, at the death of Cardinal Mazarin, he assumed absolute control of the state.

The despotic system developed by two great Ministers was now administered by the king himself, on the avowed principle— "I am the state." The system, which had begun by quelling the nobles, continued under Louis XIV. by disarming them with royal favors and employment at Court.

Popularity of the Monarchy.—Thus a despotism perfected by the support of the public and the middle classes (accorded the monarchy in constantly increasing degree since the time of Louis VI., p. 186), ended by making also an instrument and ally of the aristocratic power it had overthrown. This is the greatness of the time of Louis XIV. Had his absolute rule not received the support of public opinion it could not have existed. The development of absolute monarchy in France must be regarded as the instrument and expression of a popular sentiment demanding a power to quell the nobles and suppress the feudal system. In Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, even, the same popular aspect of absolute monarchy was openly conceded. The antagonism of monarch and people in England, beginning in the 17th century and ending in the revolution of 1688, had special local causes. It did not exist in the 16th century, when Elizabeth was quite independent of her parliament, though not of public sentiment. Against public sentiment no government can stand.

Molière.

Great Names of the Period.—The influence wielded by Louis XIV. was at once a tribute to his system, to his personality, and to his patronage of art and of learning. He had not created the generation of great men which surrounded him, but he discerned their qualities and rewarded their talents. Among dramatic authors the period of **Corneille** continued, that of **Racine** and **Molière** began. It was the time of Fénélon, Archbishop of Cambrai and author of " Télémaque " ; of Bourdaloue, of Bossuet (Bossn-ā), and of Massillon (Mǎssēyon) in pulpit eloquence ; of Boileau (Bwǎhlō) in criticism ; and of La Fontaine, author of the celebrated Fables. The French language attained that polish and facility of expression which has since made it the diplomatic and general language of Europe. The names of the statesmen, Colbert (Cŏlbare) and Louvois (Louvwǎh), of the generals Turenne and Condé, of Vauban, the military engineer, are world-renowned. The reign of Louis XIV. exhibited its splendor and magnificence in the palace and gardens of Versailles, on which 35,000 workmen were employed.

The War of Devolution.—In the Treaty of the Pyrenees

Louis XIV. had renounced any claims on behalf of his Spanish Queen to the Spanish inheritance, but her dowry of 500,000 crowns had not been paid. Moreover, Turenne considered the possession of certain fortresses on the frontier of the Spanish Netherlands as essential to the military security of France. At the death of

The Palace of Versailles in the time of Louis XIV.

Philip IV. of Spain, in 1665, claim was therefore laid to the Spanish Netherlands by right of " devolution," on the ground that Charles II., the next (and last) Spanish Hapsburg, was son of a second marriage, and that Flemish law gave preference to the female heir of the first marriage. This right of devolution had been discovered for Louis by the Flemings, who dreaded a reversion of their state to the Austrian Hapsburgs, and favored in preference a union with France.

In a single campaign, 1667-1668, the generals of Louis conquered Belgium and the Franche-Comté. This rapid success alarmed the rest of Europe, as leading, unless opposed, to an overpowering French ascendency, and an overthrow of the " balance of power."

A triple alliance was formed between Holland, Sweden, and England to oppose the French, and this alliance secured the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668, by which Franche-Comté was abandoned and French Flanders (the southern border of Belgium with important fortresses) was retained by the French.

The active part taken by Holland in checking the ambition of Louis and in forcing restitution of a conquest (the Franche-Comté) needed to carry France to her natural barrier and frontier of the Jura Mountains, drew upon the Dutch the hatred of the king.

The theory which made the monarch the state had this disadvantage—that the sentiment of personal honor so lively in the French was carried by Louis into the science of politics. A check to France was a personal insult to the monarch. This was the weak spot of his system, and the very chivalry and generosity of the king's character exposed France to ultimate exhaustion by constant war.

The Dutch war was opened to chastise Holland, in **1672**. The French armies overran the whole of the Spanish Netherlands, and nearly all Holland, to the walls of Amsterdam. In this emergency the Dutch overthrew the government of the brothers De Witt, who had ruled the Republic in the interest of the commercial aristocracy, and appointed William of Orange, a descendant of William the Silent, their Stadtholder.

Only one resource of resistance was left—to cut the dykes which protect this country from the sea. The country was flooded, and thus was saved. Holland could afford the sacrifice, great as it was, because her power and greatest wealth lay in her marine, then at the head of the commerce of the world. When this first step had been taken, William of Orange united in coalition against France—Spain (now the ally, so long the enemy of the Dutch), Austria, Prussia, and the Germanic Empire. France had now to contend with almost the whole of Europe, but she emerged from the struggle successfully, thanks to the genius of her great generals, Condé and Turenne. The latter was killed in this war.

The Peace of Nimwegen, **1678**, added to her provinces the Franche-Comté, to her protection the barrier of the Jura, and her fleet was mistress of the Mediterranean.

Continued success increased the jealousy of Europe against the French, and it increased the self-confidence of Louis XIV. to the pitch of arrogance. Spanish ambassadors were forced at all courts to give precedence to his. Pope Innocent X. was curtailed of his rights of justice in the very city of Rome on a question of ambassadorial privilege. His police were not allowed to have jurisdiction in the district of the French ambassador.

The rights of the Roman Church were seriously attacked in France by claim of the king to the revenues of all vacant bishoprics. The French Huguenots were to be forcibly made over into Catholics, and the dragonades (exposure to the violence of the soldiery) forced thousands of industrious people to abandon the country. (Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, 1685.)

Meantime, although the organization of the German Empire was weak, Austria was growing strong. The defeat of the Turks before Vienna in 1683, by the Polish king, Sobieski, resulted in a series of victories by which the Turks were driven out of Hungary.

In 1686 was formed the "League of Augsburg," between Austria and the Princes of the Empire, including Brandenburg (Prussia), Spain for the "Burgundian" territories, and Sweden for the Pomeranian countries. In this league the name of William of Orange did not appear, but he was well known to be its supporter and instigator. The League of Augsburg proposed to protect the integrity of the Germanic Empire. This was threatened with encroachments by Louis XIV., through claims on behalf of his brother's wife to inheritance in the Palatinate, and by claims to other German territories (based on old feudal pretensions of Metz, Toul, and Verdun), going back to the time of Charlemagne. That these pretensions were to be pushed with vigor was apparent in the absorption of Strassburg by France. This important free town of Alsace, with some minor territories, had not been included in the Peace of Westphalia, which affected the Hapsburg possessions of Alsace.

War of the League of Augsburg.—Louis XIV. declared war on the Germanic Empire in **1688**, making pretext of a quarrel about the appointment of a new Electoral Archbishop of Cologne. In this year James II. was expelled from the English throne and replaced by William of Orange, who was husband of Mary, one of the daughters of the English king. Louis declared for the cause of James, to antagonize his great enemy William of Orange.

The war of the League of Augsburg continued nine years, with many bloody battles and immense sacrifices. Spain, Holland, England, Savoy, Austria, and Prussia, were combined against France. The English naval victory of La Hogue, 1692, destroyed the French fleet and the naval ascendency of France in the Mediterranean, where England took her place.

In the Peace of Ryswick, 1697, France gained nothing, made some cessions in Belgium, and in internal forces, in moral stamina, had lost terribly.

Burning of the Palatinate.—In this war occurred the terrible French devastation of the German Palatinate, p. 253, when entire towns and villages were destroyed, and the country was laid waste wholesale. The motive was, to deprive the enemy of vantage-ground against the two fortified towns of Philipsburg and Mayence by creating a desert. The country was destroyed rather than surrender it to the rival armies. This cruel act was directed by the policy of Louvois, but the king could have prevented it.

Map Study.—Juliers, Marck, Cleve, and Berg are entered on the map for 1713, p. 254. In this disputed succession, the Palatinate gained Berg and Juliers; Brandenburg acquired Marck, Cleve, and Ravensberg (p. 253). For the Valtellina, see section map for N. E. Italy, on map for 1550, p. 228. Rochelle, map for 1648, p. 250.

Acquisition of **Artois,** map for 1713, but compare boundaries, pp. 228, 250. Acquisition of **Roussillon,** compare maps for 1550 and 1648. Acquisition of **Alsace,** compare same maps.

Spanish Netherlands, map for 1648. Aix-la-Chapelle, map for 1713. Nimwegen, same map. **Franche-Comté,** compare colors on maps for 1648 and 1713. Augsburg, map for 1713. **Strassburg,** La Hogue, the same. Ryswick, see map for 1648. Palatinate, map for 1713.

CHRONOLOGY OF FRENCH HISTORY IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Canada colonized after.. .... A. D.	1603
Assassination of Henry IV............ .. .. "	1610
Richelieu, Minister for Louis XIII. after.... .... "	1624
Siege of Rochelle........ . ... "	1627
France takes part in the Thirty Years' War after.................. .... "	1635
Death of Richelieu.... .... "	1642
Accession of Louis XIV............. .... "	1643
Peace of Westphalia gives **Alsace to France**............... .... "	**1648**
Civil Wars of the Fronde till...... ... . "	1653
Peace of the Pyrenees secures **Artois and Roussillon to France**.............. "	**1659**
Death of Cardinal Mazarin—Louis XIV. his own Minister... .... "	1661
War of Devolution opens..... .. .. "	1667
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle—**French Flanders acquired**....................... .. "	**1668**
War with Holland begun ..,.. . ... "	1672
Peace of Nimwegen—**Franche-Comté acquired**..... .... "	**1678**
French Empire in India after....... .... "	1680
Strassburg acquired............................. .... "	**1681**
Revocation of the Edict of Nantes........ .... "	1685
War of the League of Augsburg.......... .... "	1688
Burning of the Palatinate............... .... "	1689
English naval victory of La Hogue.......... .... "	1692
Peace of Ryswick.. .... "	1697

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

Who were the English rulers of the 17th century? *Ans.* James I., Charles I., Cromwell, Charles II., James II., William III.

Why did the accession of this last king in 1688 embroil England with France? (P. 281.)

What war began in this year? (P. 281.)

When did the Great Elector die? (P. 251.)

How long before the execution of Charles I. of England was the accession of Louis XIV.? (P. 263.)

How long before the Peace of Westphalia was this accession? (P. 250.)

When did the Thirty Years' War begin? (P. 247.)

How long after this time did Richelieu become Minister of France? (P. 282.)

What did this country gain by the Peace of Westphalia? (P. 250.)

What gain by the Peace of the Pyrenees ? (P. 277.)
With what two branches of one family were these treaties respectively made ?
Sketch briefly the history of Spain from 1469 to 1700. (Pp. 225–229, 241, 242.)
Cromwell was master of England from 1649 to 1658. Who was then Minister of France ?
When was Gustavus Adolphus killed ? (P. 248.)
What French Minister had favored his landing in Germany ? (P. 248.)
When did Portugal recover independence ? (P. 275.) How ? (P. 274.)
What English party was favored by Richelieu ? What German party ? (P. 274.)
When was Strassburg acquired by France ? (P. 282.)
What caused the war of the League of Augsburg ? (P. 281.)
What Spanish king died in 1700 ? (P. 241.)
What will had he made ? (P. 254, and Genealogy, p, 283.)
What powers opposed this will ? (P. 255.) Why ?
What contributed to the power of Austria in the last half of the 17th century ? (P. 251.)
What were the relations of Germany to France after the Peace of Westphalia ? (P. 251.)
What gains to Brandenburg by this Peace ? (P. 253.)
What part did Prussia take in the War of the Spanish Succession ? (P. 254.)
Why ? (P. 254.)
Relate the course of this war. (P. 255.) The conditions of the Peace of Utrecht. (P. 256.)
What gain for England ? (Pp. 260, 284.)
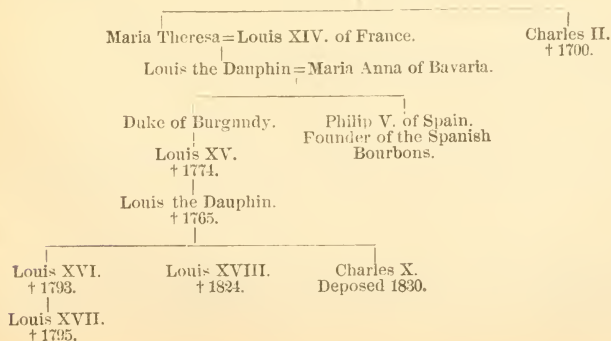When had the Spanish Hapsburg line begun ? (P. 257.) Name its possessions in 1556.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

FRENCH KINGS OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

Louis XIV... A. D. (1643)–1715
Louis XV., great-grandson of the foregoing.. .... " 1715–1774
Louis XVI., grandson of the foregoing............. .. .. " 1774–1793

GENEALOGY OF THE SPANISH AND FRENCH BOURBONS.

Philip IV. of Spain.

Maria Theresa=Louis XIV. of France.   Charles II.
                                            † 1700.
Louis the Dauphin=Maria Anna of Bavaria.

Duke of Burgundy.   Philip V. of Spain.
                         Founder of the Spanish
Louis XV.   Bourbons.
† 1774.

Louis the Dauphin.
† 1765.

Louis XVI.   Louis XVIII.   Charles X.
† 1793.   † 1824.   Deposed 1830.

Louis XVII.
† 1795.

War of the Spanish Succession.—The Peace of Ryswick lasted only three years. The Spanish Succession War (p. 254), which opened in 1700, went almost uniformly against the French, whose greatest generals, Turenne, Condé, and Luxemburg, were dead. Marlborough, for the English, and Prince Eugene, for the Austrians, either separately or together won victory after victory— Blenheim 1704, Ramillies and Turin 1706, Oudenarde 1708, Malplaquet 1709.

Peace of Utrecht, 1713.—In the time of disaster Louis XIV. showed the virtues of his defects, as he had before shown the defects of his virtues. His fortitude, patience, and dignity, won universal admiration. A revolution of English parties displaced Marlborough, and the death of the Austrian Hapsburg Emperor made the Austrian Hapsburg claimant Emperor as well, and so turned Europe against a reunion of the States of Charles V. Thus this war, which threatened the downfall of France, gave her Bourbon dynasty a seat on the throne of Spain (where it still continues) and the Spanish American possessions. France resigned to **England**, besides **Gibraltar, Hudson's Bay, Newfoundland**, and **Nova Scotia**, and abandoned the cause of the Stuarts, the heirs of James II. of England.

Map Study.—Blenheim, in Central Germany, map for 1713, p. 254. Same map, or corner section, for Turin and battlefields of the Netherlands—Ramillies, Oudenarde, Malplaquet. For Peace of Utrecht see Bourbon color in Spain ; for Austrian acquisitions and that of Savoy see map explanation, p. 256, and map for 1713.

Two years after the Peace of Utrecht Louis XIV. died. Above all the political changes and " historical events " of his reign must be placed that expansion of the French spirit and cultivation over Europe which has ever since continued. This it was which gave his triumphs their strength and which deprived his reverses of importance.

Character of Louis XIV.—In person this monarch was dignified and commanding. In intercourse he was affable and careful of the feelings of his friends. His mind was quick. His conversation had that combination of wit and sagacity peculiar to the French. His private life was not blameless in youth, but he had the grace to acknowledge and atone for his

sins in later years. On his deathbed greatness of soul did not desert him. To the friends around him he said: "Why do you weep, did you think me immortal? I did not think it was so easy to die."

Louis XV., 1715-1774, was the great-grandson of his predecessor and under five years of age at accession. The age and associations were not those of the period of Louis XIV., who had outlived the great artists and the great men of letters of the 17th century. The regency was conducted by the nephew of Louis XIV., the Duke of Orleans, a man of ability, but of dissipated character. His Prime Minister, the Abbé Dubois, was also a vicious person. Under the influence of such guardians the king grew up to rival them in vice, but not in talent. The Regent retired in 1723, when Louis XV. was declared of age, and died soon after.

Louis XV.
(*Engraved gem.*)

Cardinal Fleury was the king's Prime Minister for many years (1726–1743). His policy of economy and inactivity corresponded to the changed position of France, whose vigorous action of the century before was no longer congenial to a pleasure-loving court and an aristocracy weakened by corruption. During his administration, however, took place the War of the Polish Succession.

The Polish Succession.—Louis XV. had married the daughter of Stanislaus Leczinski (king of Poland, in the early part of the century, till expelled by Charles XII. of Sweden). Stanislaus was again elected at the death of the Saxon king of Poland in 1733. The House of Austria, in league with Russia, favored the pretensions of the next Saxon Elector (why? p. 256) and he was elected by another Polish party. Hence the War of the Polish Succession, 1733–1738. France, in alliance with Spain and "Sardinia" (Savoy), supported the claim of the king's father-in-law, but without much vigor.

The Treaty of Vienna, 1738, secured the crown of Poland to Augustus III. of Saxony, and indemnified Stanislaus Leczinski by the **Duchy of Lorraine**, with reversion after his death to France; and thus this important province was united with the monarchy. (Compare maps for 1648, 1713 and 1748, pp. 250, 254, 256.)

Tuscany.—The Duke of Lorraine, Francis, husband of the Austrian Queen Maria Theresa, was indemnified with Tuscany, where the line of the Medici became extinct in 1737. Tuscany became an Austrian Appanage (connected with Austria, but ruled by a branch line). See the Austrian color on map for 1748. (The House of Austria had obtained Belgium, Milan, Naples and Sardinia in the Spanish Succession War. See map for 1713, with Hapsburg color and Spanish lines removed in these territories. It had exchanged Sardinia for Sicily in 1720. So that it ruled before the Peace of Vienna in 1738, Belgium, Milan, Naples and Sicily.) The kingdom of Naples and Sicily was transferred by this peace to a branch line of the Spanish Bourbons. See Bourbon color on map for 1748. (Explanation repeated from p. 256.)

Austrian Succession.—France also took part in the War of the Austrian Succession (pp. 256, 257), 1740-1748, without glory and without any results except a large addition to an already enormous debt, the legacy of Louis XIV.

The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763, (p. 256.) cost France the loss of **Canada** and of the **Western American territories to England.** England gained also the **French East Indian possessions** and developed from them the British Empire in India. (Peace of Paris, p. 258.)

Corsica was ceded in 1768 by Genoa to the French. It had long been a Genoese possession, when a rebellion in 1755 which could not be suppressed caused finally the cession of the Island to a stronger power. Only a few months later, in 1769, **Napoleon Bonaparte** was born in Corsica, at Ajaccio. His family had emigrated at an earlier date from Florence.

French Uniform, 18th Century.
(*Design by Charlet.*)

After the death of Fleury (in 1743)

Louis XV. had conducted the government under the control of female favorites. The monarchy forfeited the esteem of the people, and while it continued to exhaust the resources of the country in foreign war, it did not offer even the barren stimulus of glory to the loyalty of the nation. A wise financial administration and a progressive domestic policy were absolutely essential to the national stability, and these were not even attempted by the king—the motto of whose favorite was: '' After us the Deluge.''

Louis XVI., 1774–1793, was the grandson of the last king, and twenty years old when crowned. His character was amiable and

upright, without decision, without foresight, and without experience. His Queen, Marie Antoinette, was the daughter of the Austrian Empress Maria Theresa. In spite of many engaging qualities, her extravagance and levity made the court unpopular with the common people, who were beginning to contrast their condition of misery with the opulence of the aristocracy.

The Tax-farmers.—Most opulent of all were the bankers who farmed the taxes. The old Roman Republican system of raising taxes by contract had been followed in France with the same results of oppression

Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette.
(*Medal of the time.*)

and peculation. The burden of these taxes fell on the poor. The privileged classes held the bulk of property, and they were exempt from taxation. This unjust distribution of burdens, combined with financial mismanagement and heavy indebtedness, was the main cause of the French Revolution. Public attention was, however, absorbed for the moment by the enthusiasm for the cause of the American colonies.

The French in America before the Seven Years' War.—After the opening of the 17th century, the French had been foremost in the New World and England next. Spain had relaxed her energies in this direction. While the Puritans were colonizing Massachusetts, after 1620, the French had already fixed themselves on the St. Lawrence. French Jesuit missionaries began the conversion of the Indians to Christianity. In two points the French far surpassed the English ; in their treatment of the natives, in the extent of their territory. From the St. Lawrence they pushed their exploring parties to Albany. Moving along the chain of Great Lakes to Lake Superior, they descended the Mississippi to New Orleans. Then they proceeded to open up the basin of the Ohio and the country between the crest of the Alleghanies and the Mississippi.

This rapid advance of the French in the West alarmed the settlers in the English colonies. The jealousy of England was excited. The Seven Years' War, 1756–1763, was begun (in America) to wipe out the French hold of the West and of Canada. Without warning, at the opening of the war, immense numbers of French merchantmen were seized. The Ministers of Louis XV. could not cope with the rapid, daring, and broad combinations of the English

Minister, Pitt. And yet the English overreached themselves. The French abandoned their American possessions at the close of the Seven Years' War; but the French Minister, Choiseuil, prophesied that England would lose her colonies in consequence. Both the French and Spaniards had much just reason for complaint, throughout the 18th century, against the colonial policy of the English. English mercantile jealousy of the two Bourbon dynasties had been the mainspring of her participation in the wars of the Continent. Since the loss of the Great West and of the French Canadian territories, the French Ministries had been waiting their turn.

Participation of France in the American War of Independence.—This now offered itself in the outbreak of the American Revolution, 1775 and 1776. The participation of the French in this war after 1778, was due to the influence of Benjamin Franklin at the French Court. The French army, sent under Rochambeau in 1780, contributed materially to the success of the American cause. The decisive turning-point was the surrender of Cornwallis in 1781, and American Independence was secured by the Treaty of Versailles in 1783.

An enthusiasm for Republican liberty had been awakened by the renewed studies of classic antiquity toward the close of the 18th century, and was increased by the success of the American colonies. Much philosophical speculation on the rights of man had led to an exaggerated estimate of human liberties as opposed to human duties and responsibilities. Skepticism and infidelity had become very general through the influence of talented but ill-balanced authors.

The French Revolution thus presents a mixture of causes and a mixture in results. It abolished class privilege and class distinction in legislation, which was a good thing to do. It attempted to establish a civil constitution for the Church, which was absurd. It attacked a monarchy which had neglected the people, but in the person of a monarch who wished them well. In its zeal for reform it made the mistake of conceiving that legislation is a universal remedy for ills of the State.

The Revolution presents three stages.—A period of changes—some absolutely necessary to the farther existence of France—some, destructive of religion and therefore of morality. 2d. A period of attack on the rights of property, of hatred for the best and purest characters in France, of wild legislation, of rampant infidelity and insane bloodshed. 3d. A period of reaction in favor of religion, of discipline and order, ending in the military monarchy of Napoleon Bonaparte as the only feasible government under the circumstances.

History of Europe during and after the Revolution.—From the time of the French Revolution the political history of Western Europe involves constant reference to all its nations. A brief account of the main events is best presented in the order of time, without attempt to separate the history of different countries.

IMPORTANT TERRITORIES ACQUIRED BY FRANCE AFTER 1500.

CHRONOLOGY OF FRENCH HISTORY IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

What conditions of the Peace of Utrecht are *not* mentioned at p. 284 ? (See p. 256.)

(Do not confuse these conditions with the changes of 1720 and 1738 mentioned in the same connection.)

What relation was the first Spanish Bourbon to the last Spanish Hapsburg ? (Genealogy, p. 283.)

When did the Spanish Bourbons acquire Naples and Sicily ? (Pp. 256, 286.) From whom ? How long had Austria held these possessions ? As result of what war ?

What did Austria gain in return ? (Pp. 256, 286.) In the person of what Prince ?

What territory had he ruled ? What became of this territory ?

Who were the English sovereigns of the 18th century ? (P. 262.)

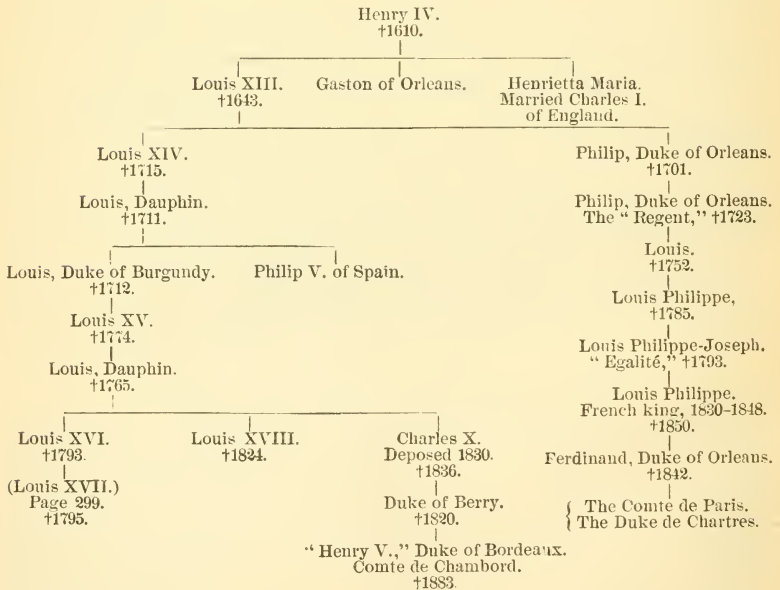## FRENCH SOVEREIGNS FROM 1500 TO 1800.

THE

FRENCH REVOLUTION

AND LATER MODERN HISTORY OF WESTERN EUROPE.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

THE BOURBON LINE WITH THE ORLEANS BRANCH.

Henry IV.
†1610.

Louis XIII. Gaston of Orleans. Henrietta Maria.
†1643.   Married Charles I.
                                   of England.

Louis XIV.   Philip, Duke of Orleans.
†1715.   †1701.

Louis, Dauphin.   Philip, Duke of Orleans.
†1711.   The " Regent," †1723.

                                                    Louis.
                                                    †1752.

Louis, Duke of Burgundy. Philip V. of Spain.   Louis Philippe,
†1712.   †1785.

Louis XV.   Louis Philippe-Joseph,
†1774.   " Egalité," †1793.

Louis, Dauphin.   Louis Philippe.
†1765.   French king, 1830–1848.
                                                    †1850.

Louis XVI.   Louis XVIII.   Charles X.   Ferdinand, Duke of Orleans.
†1793.   †1824.   Deposed 1830.   †1842.
                              †1836.
(Louis XVII.)   { The Comte de Paris.
Page 299.   Duke of Berry.   { The Duke de Chartres.
†1795.   †1820.

                  " Henry V.," Duke of Bordeaux.
                    Comte de Chambord.
                    †1883.

In 1786 the deficit in the French finances and the impossibility of meeting it without extraordinary measures, caused the king to

summon a Convention of " Notables " to devise remedies. This assembly did not accomplish anything.

Recourse was next had to a Convention of the Estates. Only the privileged orders of clergy and nobles had been represented in the meeting of Notables. In the new convention the Third Estate of people in general, without any privilege of rank, was also summoned.

On the 5th of May, 1789, the king convened the Estates at Versailles. The Third Estate refused to be convened separately. It demanded the holding of the Estates in one body to vote by numbers. The Third Estate equaled in number the sum of the two other orders, and this demand stated the grievance of the French people in general, as being opposed to privilege of one class over another.

On the 27th of June, 1789, the clergy and nobility agreed to sit with the Third Estate, and the **National Assembly** began to act. It abolished all class legislation and all distinctions of rank, but it also appropriated all Church property to the service of the nation. A uniform system of taxation was decreed, and the Assembly dissolved. A self-denying ordinance was passed, by which its members resolved not to serve in the Legislative Assembly which was to follow.

This Assembly met in October, 1791. Its most important act was a declaration of war, in 1792, against the German Emperor, Francis II. of Austria. Since 1713 the Spanish Netherlands had belonged to Austria. The principles of the French Revolution were spreading all over Europe, and the Austrian ruler, dreading the contamination of Belgium, posted an army on the Belgian frontier. This was considered a menace by the French, who were also much excited by efforts of refugee nobles to rouse Europe against them.

The declaration (of Pillnitz) by Prussia and Austria that they would take measures to emancipate Louis XVI. from confinement was the immediate cause of war. German forces. collected by the Austrian sovereign as Emperor of Germany, were directed

against France, but the campaign of 1792 was ineffective except in kindling French patriotism. (Check of the Germans at Valmy, and subsequent retreat. Victory of the French at Jemmappes.)

Meantime the halting attitude of the king and his repugnance to the war led to a coalition of the moderates with the extremists of the Republican party, and monarchy was abolished by a **National Convention** on the 21st of September, 1792.
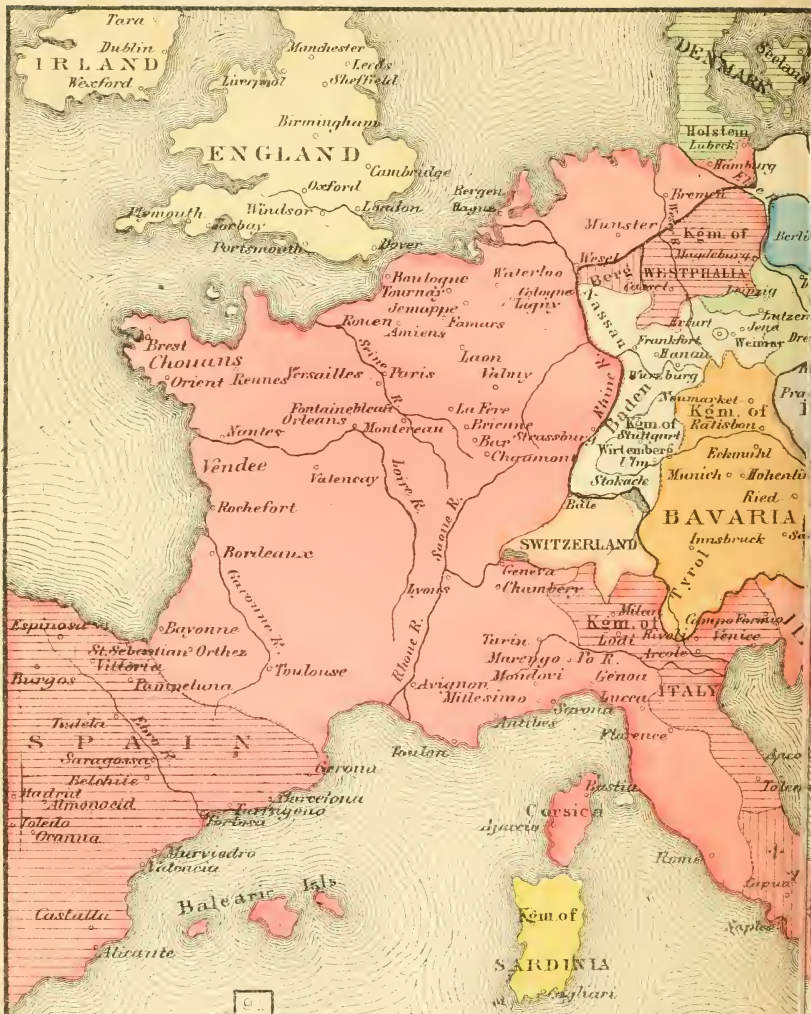
The king was then tried for conspiring against the national liberty, sentenced to death, and executed, January 21, 1793. His queen, Marie Antoinette, was soon afterward put to death. All members of the aristocratic or royalist party who could be seized shared a like fate. The Catholic priests, as defenders of law and order, were subjected to imprisonment and condemned to death wholesale. For opposing the frenzy of the extremists (the " Jacobins "), the moderates (" Girondists "), who had themselves set the ball rolling, found themselves the victims of the guillotine, and a " Reign of Terror " began which has left its stamp on the name of Robespierre (Rōb-ĕs-pēaír). The Catholic worship was proscribed under pain of death.

Divisions among the leaders of the Reign of Terror terminated in a reaction. July 28, 1794, Robespierre and the leaders of the extremist party were executed. This ended the Reign of Terror.

In 1795 the National Convention completed a Constitution for France and passed over the government to a legislative body of two Councils. The executive power was held by **Five Directors**.

Meantime the execution of Louis XVI. had caused a coalition in 1793, headed by England, of all European powers (except Denmark, Sweden, Turkey, and the Swiss) against France. But the French had waged war so vigorously that they held already in 1794 all territory on the left Rhine bank, including Belgium. (The Dutch Republic allied itself with France.)

Prussia, **in 1794**, **withdrew from the war** by the Peace of Basle, stipulating for a line of demarcation beyond which the war

Europe in 1810 – The Age of Napoleon the Great

The French Empire .... Red. Guelphs .... Light Yellow.
The States ruled by Bonapartes Hohenzollern .... Blue.
.... lined. Wittelsbach .... Orange.
Confederation of the Rhine .... Wettin .... Green.

IRLAND
Tara
Dublin
Wexford
Manchester
Leeds
Sheffield
Liverpool
Birmingham
ENGLAND
Oxford
Cambridge
Plymouth
Windsor
London
Bergen
Bagnes
Torbay
Portsmouth
Dover

DENMARK
Holstein
Lübeck
Hamburg
Bremen
Munster
Kgm. of
Magdeburg
Berlin
WESTPHALIA
Wesel
Berg
Nassau
Leipzig
Lützen
Cologne
Lagny
Erfurt
Jena
Dresden
Frankfort
Weimar
Hanau
Würzburg
Prague
Neumarket
Kgm. of
Ratisbon
Stuttgard
Ulm
Wirtemberg
Eckmühl
Stokach
Münich
Hohenlinden
Ried
BAVARIA
Innsbruck
Tyrol

Boulogne
Tournay
Jemappe
Waterloo
Rouen
Famars
Amiens
Brest
Chouans
Orient
Rennes
Versailles
Paris
Laon
Valmy
Fontainebleau
Orléans
La Fère
Brienne
Bar
Strassburg
Montereau
Chaumont
Nantes
Valençay
Vendée
Rochefort
Bordeaux

SWITZERLAND
Geneva
Chambéry
Bâle

Espinosa
Bayonne
St. Sebastian
Vittoria
Orthez
Burgos
Pampeluna
Tudela
Saragossa
Belchite
Madrid
Almonacid
Toledo
Ocanna
Castalla
Alicante
Murviedro
Valencia
Gerona
Tarragona
Barcelona
Tortosa

SPAIN

Balearic Isls.

Toulouse
Avignon
Millesimo

Turin
Lodi
Marengo
Mondovi
Antibes
Savona
Lucca
Florence

Kgm. of
Milan
Rivoli
Venice
Campo Formio
Arcole
ITALY
Genoa

Corsica
Ajaccio
Bastia

Rome
Capua
Naples

Kgm. of
SARDINIA
Cagliari

Kgm. of SICILY

Moskau

Borodino

Tarutino

Polotsk

Wiasma

Malo

Witebsk

Smolensk Jaroslawez

Tauroggen

Kowno

Wilna

Smorgoni

Tilsit

Königsberg

Friedland

Beresina R.

Eylau

Grodno

R. U. S. S. I. A

Danzig

Stettin

P R U S S I A

Byalystock

Wolkowysk

Pripet R.

Pultusk

Dnieper R.

Grand Duchy of

Kalish

Mlawa

Warsaw

Weichsel

Maciovice

Wahlstadt

Dubienka

Breslau

Lublin

W A R S A W

Zamość

Brody

emia

Gallicia

Lemberg

Tarnopol

idavia

Austerlitz

Danube R. Asperen

Vienna

Wagram

stria

Presburg

Leoben

Ofen

Pesth

Hungary

ria

A U S T R I A

Slavonia

Danube R.

Transylvania

Bosnia

Widdin

S e r v i a

Ragusa

A L B A N I A

Nissa

T U R K I S H   E M P I R E

Bari

Brindisi

Corfu

Tarabulus

Damascus

Beirut

S! Jean d'Acre

Mt Tabor

Jaffa

Jerusalem

Gaza

Rosetta

El Arish

Aboukir

Ramanieh

Chebreis

Katieh

Damietta

Alexandria

Mansourah

Salehijeh

Akaba

Semenhud

Heliopolis

Embabeh

Cairo

Suez

Pyramids

The Battlefields of Northern Italy 1794 1800.

Rhine

Gt St

Bernhard

Mt

Blanc

Aosta

Bard

Rivoli

Peschiera

Friauland

Trento

Rovereto

Bassano

Trieste

Vicenza

Verona

Bergamo

Mt Jan

Lonato

Castiglione

Padua

Venice

Legnano

Milan

Lodi

Cremona

Mantua

Ferrara

Casale

Alessandria

Tortona

Parma

Po

Mt Cenis

Turin

Marengo

Modena

Genoa

Montenotte

PARMA

Bologna

Mondovi

was not to be carried in North Germany. Thus the Emperor was left to wage war alone, with assistance of England. The French made aggressive campaigns on South Germany and Italy at the same time.

THE TIMES OF BONAPARTE.

Map Study.—See " Europe in 1810 " and compare in detail with " Europe in 1748," p. 256. Notice the section map for North Italy.

Italy became a theatre of conflict, because Austria ruled Milan and Tuscany. In Germany the French campaign was a failure, but this reverse was more than balanced by the brilliant successes of **Napoleon Bonaparte** against the Austrians in Italy.

By the Peace of Campo Formio, 1797, Austria formally relinquished the Netherland possessions to France and recognized an Italian Republic erected out of the Austrian possessions in Italy.

Bonaparte.
(*By Gérard.*)

In 1798 and 1799 took place **the Egyptian expedition** under Bonaparte. Its idea was to clear the way for a French ascendency in the East and the overthrow of the British Empire in India. The destruction of the French fleet by the English (Lord Nelson) in the Bay of Aboukir crippled these plans. Bonaparte conquered Egypt, but could not hold Syria against the Turks and English, and he returned to France. (Egypt was abandoned by the army left behind in 1801.)

In 1799 the violent transformation by the Directory of the Papal States into a " Roman Republic," with other aggressive acts, again led to war. (England, Russia, Turkey and Austria against France.) The French were driven out of Italy by the Russians under Suwarrow (Soovarov). But on the return of Bonaparte from Egypt he overthrew the Directory and was made **First Consul,** 1799, *i. e.,* elective head of the State.

The decisive battle of Marengo was gained by Bonaparte in

Italy, June 14th, 1800. The French General Moreau gained in Germany, December 3d of the same year, the victory of Hohenlin- den. Peace was made with Austria at Luneville, 1801 ; with the other Powers at Amiens, 1802. All terri- tories on the left Rhine bank were ceded to France.

Bonaparte restored the Catholic worship, encouraged the return of the Royalists to France, and in all de- partments of government carried out most important reforms.

In 1803 England again declared war through jealousy of Bonaparte. Russia, Austria, and Sweden com- bined with her. Prussia remained neutral. The victory of **Austerlitz**, won by Bonaparte December 2d, 1805, ended the war. At the moment of victory Prussia was about to begin hostilities because Bonaparte had not stopped to go round Anspach and Baireuth (see p. 167), instead of marching through them. The am- bassador who was deputed to declare war changed his key after Austerlitz, but his original commission was guessed by Napoleon, and Prussia lost favor.

Colonel of Cuirassiers.
(*Times of Bonaparte.*)

By the Treaty of Pressburg Bonaparte was acknowledged by Austria as Emperor of France (he had been crowned in 1804) and King of Italy. Venice had been surrendered to Austria as com- pensation for Belgium. But Venice and Dalmatia were both taken from Austria now and made French territory, and the Tyrol was given to Bavaria. Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden were enlarged. The two former were made kingdoms. The kingdom of **Naples**

was given to Napoleon's **brother Joseph. Holland** was given as a kingdom to his **brother Louis** (father of Napoleon III.).

In 1806 a large part of Western Germany was consolidated into a "Rhenish Confederacy," with Napoleon as Protector. Francis II. of Austria renounced the title of Emperor of Christendom, held by the German sovereigns since Charlemagne, and assumed the title of Emperor of Austria.
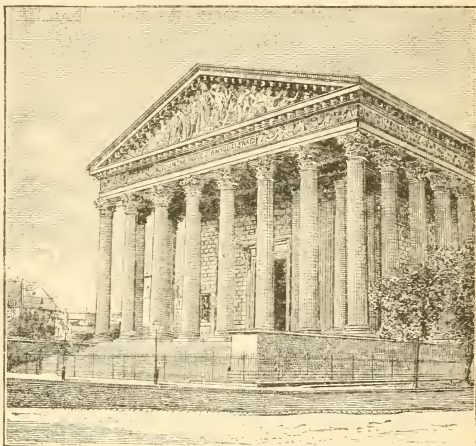
Church of the Madeleine, Paris. Built under Bonaparte.

Prussia could not brook the dominance of Bonaparte in Germany, and the harsh words which her own duplicity had provoked. She declared war in 1806. The double victory of **Jena** (Yānǎh) and **Auerstädt** in this same year led to the triumphal entry of the French into Berlin. The Russians, 90,000 strong, came to the assistance of Prussia. Bonaparte defeated them at Friedland. The **Peace of Tilsit** then stripped Prussia of one-half her territory, 1807, and made an alliance between France and Russia. The French Empire now reached, through Holland over Hanover, to the border of Denmark.

From the confiscated Prussian territories on the left bank of the Elbe, with portions of Brunswick and Hesse-Cassel, Bonaparte made the new kingdom of "**Westphalia**" for his younger **brother, Jerome.**

To cripple the mercantile resources of England, which (having lost Hanover) refused to abandon its hostility to the Emperor, he declared a blockade of Great Britain, that is, prohibited all

commerce with her on the part of the European States, and ordered the confiscation of all British property and arrest of all British subjects on the Continent. **Portugal** refused to confiscate British property, and **was occupied by a French army** in 1807. (The Royal family took refuge in Brazil, and one of its branches has since continued there.)

Dissension between parties in Spain called in here also the intervention of Bonaparte, who procured the abdication of the incapable monarch, and **gave the kingdom to his brother Joseph**; his cavalry general, **Murat, taking Naples.** Many useful reforms were proposed for Spain, but its national spirit rebelled against them. English armies were poured in to assist the Spanish revolt, and this war, in the years from 1808 to 1813, when the French were driven out of Spain, caused the final ruin of Bonaparte. (The Spanish South American Colonies threw off their allegiance and established independent governments during the time of the war with France.)

Pope Pius VII. had refused his countenance to the extreme measures against the English, and he was made prisoner in consequence. Although Bonaparte had restored the Catholic worship, suppressed in the Reign of Terror, his supreme power over all Europe made him lose sight of the force of public sentiment, and his treatment of the Pope was a second step on the downward path. His first mistake had been the conquest of Spain. For the time being he was still successful.

Austria again declared war in 1809, and was defeated in the same year at **Wagram.** Carniola, Carinthia, part of Croatia, were ceded to the French by the **Peace of Schoenbrunn** (Shernbroon), and Napoleon, divorced from his first wife, Josephine, married the Austrian Archduchess Maria Louisa, daughter of Francis II., in 1810.

Russia resented the incorporation of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck with France, as prejudicial to her interests in the Baltic, and relaxed the restrictions on British commerce. Napoleon,

EUROPE in 1816.   Congress of Vienna

Map labels:

96

The theatre of the
Damish War in 1864

Jutland
Sleswick
Flensburg
Fredericia
Duppel
Kiel
Holstein
Lubeck
Hamburg
Elbe R.

Birmingham
Cambridge
ENGLAND
Oxford Londo.
Plymouth Windsor
Claremont
Portsmouth

HOLLAND
The Hague
HANOVER
Munster
Wesel Westphalia
Antwerp Cologne
Louvain
Rhenish HESSIA
Prov.
Frankfort
Bois le
Duc
Russel
Brussels
BELGIUM
Boulogne
Amiens
Rouen
Ham
Paris
Versailles
Rambouillet
Fontainebleau
Chartres
Joinville Coblentz
Chaumont Mayence
Palatinate
Strassburg
BADEN
Brest
Nantes
Orleans Loire R.
Nemours
Chambord
Bourges
Basle
Rochefort Nevers
Liestal Arenenberg
SWITZERLAND
FRANCE
Blaye Saone R.
Geneva
Bordeaux
Montpensier
Lyons
Turin
Kgm. of
SARDINIA
Toulouse
Avignon
Alexandria
Nizza
Marseilles
Toulon
Leghorn
Oviedo
Santander
Bilbao Bayonne
St.Sebastian
Burgos Berguin
Ebro R. Logrono
Pampeluna
Urgel
Gerona
El Pardo
Madrid
SPAIN
Mataro
Barcelona
Toledo
Aranjuez
Tortosa
Ceuta
Guadiana R.
Ocanna
Murviedro
Valencia
Cordova
Alegy
Guadalquivir R.
Alicante
Granada
Murcia
Malaga
PORTUGAL
Corsica
Sardinia
Elba
Corsica

Lombardy
Magenta
Milan
Novara
Parma
Modena
Lucca
TUSCANY
TYROL
WURTEMBERG

Algiers
Oran
Mostaganem
Telemsen
Maskara
Tittery
Constantine
Medeah
Dellis
Bona
Tunis

The Theatre of the Crimean war in 1854-55. 95

MEKLENB...
Pommerania
Danzig
Konigsberg
Prussia
Brandenburg
Schneidemühl
Berlin
Oder R.
PRUSSIA
Posen
Osieck
Moslin
Grodow
Prague
Wawr
Tyonic
Saxony
Leipsic
Spree
Kgm. of
Kgm. of
SAXONY
Dresden
Breslau
Kalisch
Pulawy
chies
Teplitz
Silesia
Poland
Laurahütte
Carlsbad
Lublin
Kiew
Dnieper R.
Prague
Troppau
Lemberg
BARIA
Bohemia
Moravia
Cracow
Galicia
RUSSIA
Passau
Kremsir
Bug R.
nich
Danube R.
Preshburg
Dniester R.
Vienna
Komorn
Hungary
Austria
Frohsdorf
Ofen
Pesth
Odessa
Carinthia
Mor
Debreczin
Bukowina
Moldavia
Jassy
Akerman
Styria
Klausenburg
AUSTRIA
Szegedin
Vilagos
Transylvania
ice
Görz
Laybach
Arad
Venice
Carniola
Temesvar
Herrmanstadt
Croatia
Sclavonia
Wallachia
Dalmatia
Bosnia
Servia
Bukarest
Silistria
Monte
Sofia
Schumla
Negro
Madana
Varna
Ragusa
Philippopl
Sizebolt
Albania
Adrianopl
Constantinople
Durazza
Kiskkilissa
Bitoglia
Seres
Rodosto
Scutari
Berat
Enos
Aulona
Salonichi
Brussa
Suli
Janina
Trictala
Veta
Paiga
Arta
Missolonghi
Euripondo
Patras
GR
Athen
Sazona
Corinth
Argos
Tripolitza
Nauplia
of the two
Kalamata
Milo
Navarin

foreseeing further defection of this ally from his cause, invaded Russia with 700,000 men, 1812, and reached Moscow. By the **burning of Moscow**, set in flames by the inhabitants, October, 1812, his army was compelled to retreat in the dead of the Russian winter. Not more than 30,000 men returned.

The failure of the Russian campaign caused a general rising of Europe against Napoleon, 1813. He was defeated at **Leipsic**, "the battle of the nations." The allies entered Paris in 1814. The emperor was forced to abdicate, and was given possession of the Isle of Elba.

Napoleon re-entered France, while the ambassadors of all Europe were deliberating at Vienna, overthrew the new Bourbon government of Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI., and staked his all on the battle of **Waterloo**, 1815. Defeated by **Lord Wellington**, the hero of the English campaigns in Spain, Bonaparte was exiled to St. Helena, where he died in 1821.

WESTERN EUROPE, AFTER 1815.

Map Study.—For territories mentioned under Congress of Vienna, see " Europe in 1816." This map should be compared in detail with Europe in 1810 and in 1748. For changes of the Franco-Austrian war of 1859, of the war between Austria and Prussia in 1866, of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870, '71, compare " Europe in 1816 " with maps at pp. 298, 300.

The Congress already assembled at Vienna continued its session after Waterloo, and arranged the map of Europe about as it stood till 1859. France was confined to its old boundaries, and the Bourbons were again restored. Prussia obtained the **West Rhine country**, **Westphalia**, and **part of Saxony**. Holland and Belgium were united in one kingdom (divided since 1830). In compensation for Belgium, **Austria regained the Venetian territory**, once given her by Bonaparte. The **Tyrol** and **Milan** were returned to **Austria**. **Tuscany** was restored to its **Austrian branch line**. The Spanish Bourbons recovered Naples and Sicily. The Bourbon dynasty was restored in Spain.

The general effect of Bonaparte's career and of the French

Revolution was, territorially speaking, to recompose Germany. The two hundred and fifty States of the Peace of Westphalia were reduced to thirty-nine, and these were correspondingly enlarged.

In advancing legal equality the French Revolution had a marked and beneficial influence over Europe; but it substituted an uncertain and changeable series of governments at home for the old hereditary principle, and France has never since been able to constitute a stable government.

The son of Louis XVI. had died in prison, 1795. Thus the brother of Louis XVI. received the title of Louis XVIII. at the Restoration of the Bourbons (Genealogy, p. 290). Louis XVIII. died in 1824. His brother, Charles X., was expelled by revolution in 1830, and was succeeded by Louis Philippe of Orleans. This line of Orleans descended from the brother of Louis XIV., Regent for Louis XV.

The Revolution of 1848 drove this king from the throne. France became a Republic before the end of the year, under the presidency of Napoleon, son of Louis, Bonaparte's brother.

The Empire was substituted for this Republic in 1852, the President of the Republic becoming Emperor Napoleon III.

In 1854 began the Crimean War. France and England allied to protect Turkey from Russian invasion. The war accomplished its purpose, and for the time crippled the power of Russia by the siege and capture of Sebastopol in the Crimea.

In 1859 Napoleon III. assisted the aspirations of Italy to expel its Austrian rulers, by espousing the cause of the House of Savoy, under Victor Emmanuel, King of **"Sardinia"** (p. 256). By the battles of Magenta and Solferino, Austria was forced, in the Peace of Villafranca, to give up to him **Milan. The incorporation of the other Italian States**, excepting Venetia and the Papal territory, with the new Italian kingdom, followed in 1860. To France were ceded Nice and Savoy.

In 1866 the rivalry between Prussia and Austria, existing since the great increase of the former power in 1815, resulted in war for

97

EUROPE IN 1866
Peace of Prague.

France   Red
Spanish Bourbons
Habsburg   Purple
Guelphs   light yellow
Hohenzollern   Blue
Wallachian
Hohenzollern
Savoy   yellow

BRITISH EMPIRE

SCOTLAND
Inverness
Aberdeen
Glasgow
Edinburg
Belfast
IRELAND
Dublin
Cork
York
Hull
ENGLAND
Bristol
London

German
Ocean

SCANDIN
Christiana
Norway

DENMARK
Alnwick
Lubeck
Hambu
Bremen
Weser

Heligoland

Holland

NORTH G
Magdeburg
Cologne
Leipsic
Langens
In
Kass
Frankfort

Coblentz
Luxemburg
Belgium
Brussels
Calais
Dunkirk

SOUTHERN
GERMANY F
Strasburg
Danub
Augsb
Hohen-
zollern
Munich
Inn R.

Brest
Rennes
Alençon
Chartres
Rouen
Amiens
Rheims
Paris
Seine R.
Orleans
Blois
Nantes
Tours
Loire R.
Poitiers
FRANCE
Angouleme
Bordeaux
Garonne R.
Montauban
Toulouse
Lyons
Rhone R.
Durance R.
Marseilles
Saone R.
Moselle
Geneva
Switzerland
Basle
Zurich
Ulm
Turin
Milan
Venice
Custoz
Po R.
Genoa
K G m
Bologna
Floren

Bay
of
Biscay

Santiago
Oviedo
Leon
Oporto
St. Ant. de
Burgos
Vittoria
PORTUGAL
Coimbra
Salamanca
Madrid
Lisbon
Tagus R.
Toledo
Ebro R.
Saragossa
Barcelona
Gerona
Tarragona
Evora
Guadiana R.
SPAIN
Badajoz
Valencia
Lagos
Sevilla
Cordova
Jaen
Granada
Malaga
Gibrattar

Balearic Ils.

Corsica
Elba

Sardinia

FEZ
& MAROCCO

Algiers
Algiers

Tunis

Paler

AN EMP.E
Finnland

weden Stockholm

Revel Narva
St. Petersburg

Esthland
Pernau
Livonia
Walmar
Riga

Calmar Courland

Baltic

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

Viemen R. Wilna

Königsberg

Dantzig

CONFEDERACY

Oder R. Thorn Grodno Niemen R.

Speer R. Breslau Poland
Sadova
Trauenau
Nachod
Königsgrätz
Prague

Nikolsburg Lemberg Brody

EMPIRE Kamjenjetz
Chotin

STRIAN Vienna Presburg Theiss R. Jassy Dniester R.
Ofen Pesth Moldavia

Drave R. Szegedin Crimea

Save R. Sevastopul

Bosnia Servia Wallachia ROMANIA Bukarest Silistria Black Sea
Rustsuc
Sistor
Ticopolis

TURKISH Adrianople
Constantinople

Naples EMPIRE

ITALY Ionian Ist.s

ily Greece

Sea of Azof

The German Confederacy inset

Holland Hanover PRUSSIA
Belgium Weser R. Elbe R.
Rhine R. Hessia Berlin
France Frankfort Saxon Saxony Oder R. Russia
Baden Maine F. Duchies
Würtemb. Upper Danube R.
Switzerland Bavaria AUSTRIA
Vienna

The German
Confederacy
1815–1866
On the same Scale
as M. 97.

Turkey

the supremacy in Germany. This had been mainly exercised by Austria since 1815. The pretext of the war was a quarrel about the government of the Duchies of Sleswick and Holstein. After the victory of **Koeniggraetz** (Kerniggrates) in Bohemia, Prussian armies were about to march on Vienna, when Napoleon III. intervened, compelling Prussia to accept the line of the Main as boundary of her new ascendency. All North Germany was formed into a " Bund," headed by **Prussia**, which retained Sleswick-Holstein and confiscated **Hanover, Nassau, Frankfort**, and **Hesse-Cassel** for assistance rendered Austria, thus uniting East and West Prussia into a compact State. In this war **Italy** had been the ally of Prussia, and **was given** in compensation the territory of **Venetia**.

Franco-Prussian war of 1870, '71.—Following the Restoration of the Bourbons in Spain, after 1815, they reigned till the dethronement of Queen Isabella II. in 1868. Amadeus, second son of Victor Emmanuel, the Italian king, then accepted the Spanish monarchy, but abdicated in 1870. It was now proposed that a member of the Prussian House of Hohenzollern should be King of Spain. France resented this effort to establish Prussian influence beyond the Pyrenees. Prince Bismarck, the Prussian Minister, resented the restriction on Prussian ambition set in 1866. Hence the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 and 1871. France was overrun by the German armies. Paris was besieged and taken. Part of **Lorraine**, acquired after 1738; **Strasburg**, acquired in 1681; **Alsace**, acquired in 1648; and **Metz**, acquired in 1552, were ceded to Germany with the bitterest feelings. Under the sentiment of patriotism roused by foreign war, Bismarck constituted the **New Germanic Empire**, headed by Prussia, in which the kingdoms of Saxony and Bavaria, the Saxon Duchies, the Grand Duchy of Baden, kingdom of Würtemberg, etc., resigned their diplomatic and military independence, although still retaining their independent courts.

The unification of Germany has not answered the expectations which produced it. Under the direction of Bismarck, Germany has shown an overbearing and persecuting spirit. Her mate-

rial prosperity is weighted by oppressive taxation for the support of the army, which the wrenching of provinces from France has forced her to maintain in constant readiness for war.

After the unification of Italy, under Victor Emmanuel, in 1860, the Papal territory had been protected by a French army. This was withdrawn for employment at home against the Ger-

Archbishop Darboy.

mans in 1870. Hence, in 1871, the over- throw of the Papal temporal power in the States of the Church, which were incorporated in the new Italian kingdom. Since this event, the dignity of the Pope has been exposed to the most unworthy insults.

The French Republic.—Napoleon III. had been made prisoner with an en- tire French army at **Sedan**, 1870 (dying in England in 1873). His overthrow was the signal for the establishment of a French Republic, and this had to con- tend with a revolt of the Parisian Social- ists before Paris could be entered after the treaty of peace.   Among the Catholic martyrs of the Paris " Commune " was Archbishop Darboy.

The Republic has, since this time, disgraced itself by a religious persecution under the banner of pretended liberalism.

MAP EXPLANATION FOR " EUROPE IN 1816."

The Prussian gains of 1815 in Western Germany were composed mainly of the Arch- bishopric of Treves, Juliers and Berg, the Archbishopric of Cologne, and other parts of the kingdom of Westphalia formed by Bonaparte. Besides North Saxony, Prussia obtained Swedish Pomerania. Prussia lost part of the former gains by the second and third divisions of Poland. (See duchy of Warsaw, and kingdom of Poland, after 1815, under Russian history.)

Bavaria obtained the Rhine Palatinate, Anspach, and Baireuth (from Prussia), and retained the other gains under Bonaparte, excepting the Tyrol.

Würtemberg and **Baden** retained the dimensions reached under Bonaparte.

Hanover obtained, in 1815, East Friesland, the territory between Holland and Olden- burg.
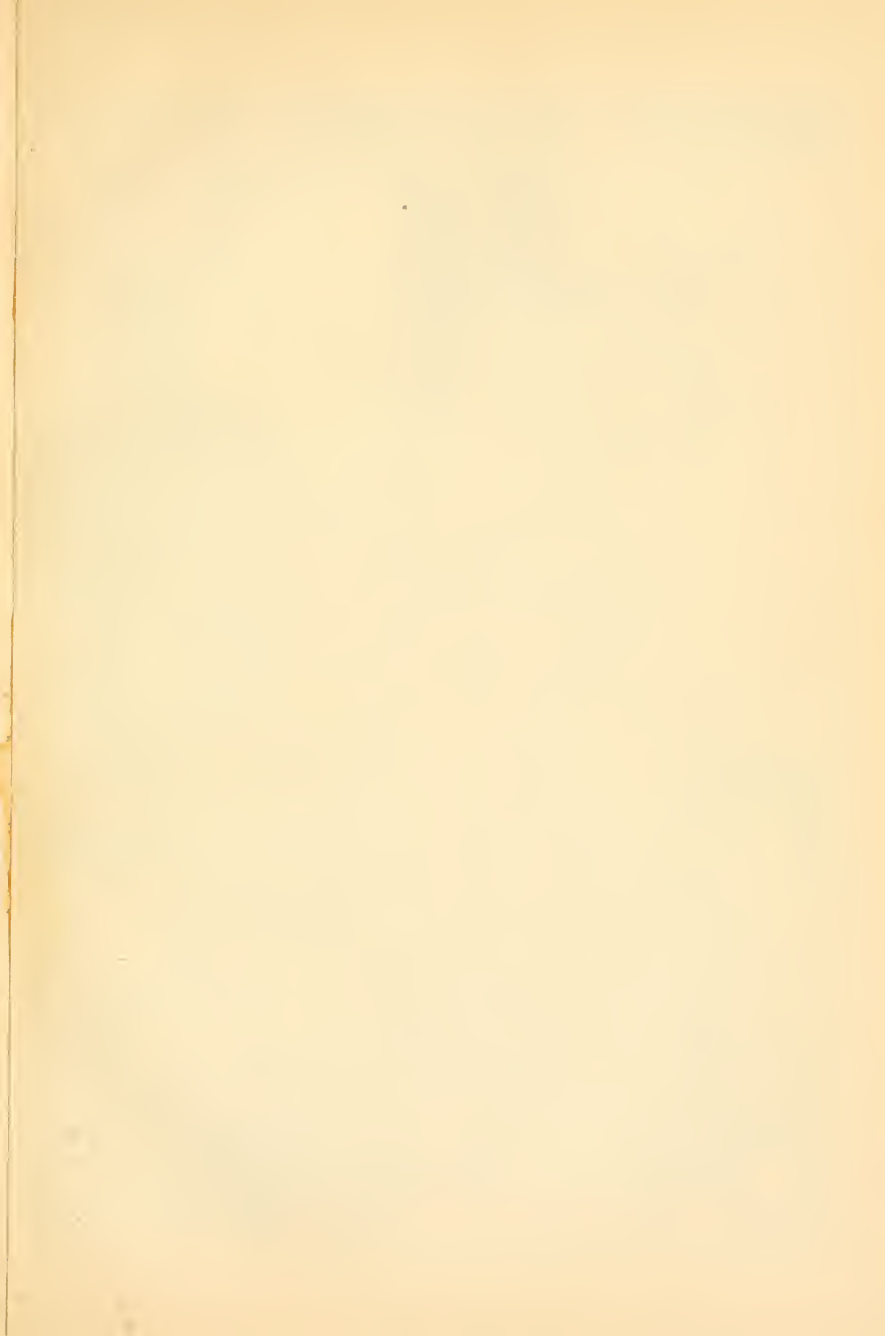
EUROPE
IN 1871.

0 50 100   300
Eng. Miles.

SCAND

Shetland Is.

Christiania

Helder Orkney Is.

Inverness

SCOTLAND
Perth

Glasgow
Paisley Edinburg

Belfast

IRELAND
Dublin
Limerick
Valentia Waterford
Cork

BRITISH EMPIRE

Liverpool
Leeds
Manchester
York

Jutland
DENMARK
Fünen

Heligoland

Wales

Birmingham
ENGLAND

Friesland

Hamburg Stetti

Bremen Havel R.
Hannover

Magdeburg Berlin
Wilhelmshöhe Br
Cassel
Leipsic Dresden
Saxony

GER

MAN

Cornwallis Bristol London
Portsmouth Greenhurst
Dover
Wight Dorking

Channel Isl.

Brest

Calais
Arras
Amiens
Rouen

Versailles
Chartres
Tours

Nantes

Poitiers

Paris
Seine R.
Orleans
Loire R.

BELGIUM
Brussels

Holland

Cologne
Rhine R.
Frankfort

Luxemburg Main R.
Nancy
Metz Strasbourg
Lorraine

BADEN
Stuttgart
WÜRTEMBERG
Danube R.
Munich

BO

BAVARIA

Dijon Belfort
Besançon Dôle
Zurich
Bern SWITZERLAND TYROL AU

AUS

Bordeaux
Garonne R.

FRANCE

Lyons
Rhone R.

Avignon
Durance R.

Toulouse

Milan
Po R.
Turin

Verona
Mantua

Florence
Arno R.

I
T
A

Marseille

Corsica

Elba
Rome
Tiber R.

Oporto
Coimbra

Burgos
Valladolid Vitoria
Douro R.

PORTUGAL

Tagus R. Madrid
Guadiana R. Toledo

SPAIN

Cordova
Guadalquivir R.
Jaen Murcia
Gibraltar Granada

Ebro R.

Barcelona

Balearic Is.

Sardinia

MAROCCO
Fez

Algiers

Algiers

Constantine

Tunis
TUNIS

Sicily

VIA
Finnland
Abo
Upsala
St. Petersburg
Stockholm
Narva
Dagoe
Esthonia
Gothland
Oesel
Livonia
Riga
Courland
Duna R.
Bornholm
Niemen R.
Königsberg
Dantzig
Prussia
Thorn
Bug R.
Posen
Vistula R.
Warsaw
Silesia
Poland
Breslau
Lublin
Cracow
GALICIA
Olmütz
Theiss R.
Bessarabia
Presburg
Offen Pesth
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
Jassy
MOLDAVIA
Szegedin
Neusatz
CROATIA SLAVONIA
WALLACHIA
Bucharest
Bosnia
Belgrade
Silistria
DALMATIA
SERVIA
Widdin
Nicopolis
Montenegro
TURKISH EMPIRE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Tarent
Janina
Corfu
Cephalonia
GREECE
Athens
Zante

Rhenish Prussia
Bavarian Palatinate
Baden
Rhine R.
Saarbruck
Wörth
Wissembourg
Hagenau
Strassburg
Forbach
Saarlouis
Moselle R.
Saargemünd
Bitsche
Lorraine
Luneville
Meurthe R.
Epinal
Schlestadt
Moselle R.
Thionville
Luxemburg
Metz
Pont à Mousson
Toul
Dutch Luxemburg
Belgium
Longwy
Montmedy
Gravelotte
Meuse R.
Sedan
Mezières
Monzon
Rethel
Aisne R.
Vouziers
Nancy
Bar-le-duc
Laon
Rheims
Epernay
Chalons
Vitry
Aube R.
Marne R.
Troyes
Oise R.
Soissons
Seine R.
Yonne R.
Sens
Beauvais
Paris
Versailles
Rambouillet
Fontainebleau
Artenay
Vire Orleans
Chartres
Eure R.
Lisieux
Rouen
Le Mans
Sarthe

100.
THE SEAT OF WAR
IN NORTHERN FRANCE
1870–71.

SUMMARY OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION, AND OF SUBSEQUENT EVENTS IN WEST CONTINENTAL EUROPE.

LIST OF THE POPES SINCE 1500.

Alexander VI....	.A. D.	1503†	Urban VII........	A. D.	1590†	Innocent XII......	A. D. 1700†
Pius III	"	1503†	Gregory XIV.......	"	1591†	Clement XI	" 1721†
Julius II..........	"	1513†	Innocent IX........	"	1592†	Innocent XIII......	" 1724†
Leo X........	"	1521†	Clement VIII.....	"	1605†	Benedict XIII......	" 1730†
Adrian VI....	"	1523†	Leo XI............	"	1605†	Clement XII	" 1740†
Clement VII.......	"	1534†	Paul V............	"	1621†	Benedict XIV	" 1758†
Paul III..........	"	1549†	Gregory XV	"	1623†	Clement XIII......	" 1769†
Julius III.........	"	1555†	Urban VIII.	"	1644†	Clement XIV......	" 1774†
Marcellus II.......	"	1555†	Innocent X..	"	1655†	Pius VI...........	" 1799†
Paul IV...	"	1559†	Alexander VII.....	"	1667†	Pius VII.	" 1823†
Pius IV...........	"	1566†	Clement IX........	"	1669†	Leo XII...........	" 1829†
St. Pius V.........	"	1572†	Clement X.	"	1676†	Pius VIII.........	" 1831†
Gregory XIII... ..	"	1585†	Innocent XI.	"	1689†	Gregory XVI..... .	" 1846†
Sixtus V	"	1590†	Alexander VIII....	"	1691†	Pius IX	" 1873†
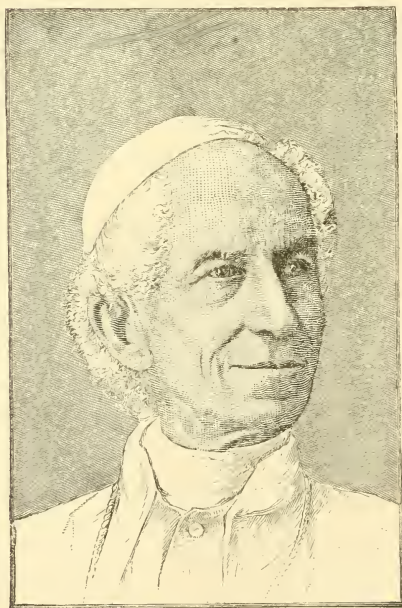
His Holiness Pope Leo XIII.

DYNASTIC ASCENDENCIES IN ITALY SINCE 1500.

Milan.—Hapsburg Empire of Charles V. (after 1545) till 1556.

Spanish Hapsburg till 1700.

Austrian Hapsburg after 1713 (intermission during French Revolution) till 1859.

United Italy under House of Savoy since 1859.

Venice.—Independent till the French Revolution, 1797.

Austrian after 1815 till 1866.

United Italy under House of Savoy since 1866.

Tuscany.—Medici Grand Dukes, after 1530 till 1737.

Austrian Appanage (branch line) through Francis of Lorraine, husband of Maria Theresa (with intermission during the French Revolution), till 1860.

United Italy under House of Savoy since 1860.

Naples.—Hapsburg Empire of Charles V. till 1556.

Spanish Hapsburg till 1700.

Austrian Hapsburg, after 1713, till 1738.

Spanish Bourbon (branch line) till 1860 (intermission during French Revolution).

United Italy under House of Savoy after 1860.

Sicily.—Hapsburg Empire of Charles V. till 1556.

Spanish Hapsburg till 1700.

Possession of Savoy, after 1713, till 1720.

Austrian Hapsburg till 1738.

Spanish Bourbon (branch line, Naples and Sicily) till 1860.

United Italy, after 1860.

Sardinia.—Hapsburg Empire of Charles V. till 1556.

Spanish Hapsburg till 1700.

Austrian Hapsburg, after 1713, till 1720.

House of Savoy till the present time.

The smaller Italian states are omitted.

DYNASTIC ASCENDENCIES IN THE NETHERLANDS SINCE 1500.

Holland.—Hapsburg Empire of Charles V. (from Burgundian inheritance) till 1556.

Spanish Hapsburg till 1566.

Independent Republic till French Revolution, 1794.

Kingdom of United Netherlands, after 1815, till 1830.

Separate Kingdom of Holland since 1830.

Belgium.—Hapsburg Empire of Charles V. (from Burgundian inheritance) till 1556.

Spanish Hapsburg till 1700.

Austrian Hapsburg, after 1713, till French Revolution, 1794.

Kingdom of United Netherlands, after 1815, till 1830.

Separate Kingdom of Belgium since 1830.

FRENCH RULERS, 19TH CENTURY.

Bonaparte, till .... A. D. 1815
Louis XVIII. till.. " †1824
Charles X. deposed .... " 1830
Louis Philippe deposed... .... " 1848
Napoleon III. deposed....... .... " 1870

REPUBLICAN PRESIDENTS.

Thiers, till.. " 1873
MacMahon, resigned .... " 1879
Grévy ....

PRUSSIAN RULERS, 19TH CENTURY.

Frederick William III., till........ .... A. D. 1840
Frederick William IV., till... " 1860
Emperor William.   (Imperial title, after 1871.)

AUSTRIAN RULERS, 19TH CENTURY.

Francis II., after 1806 as Emperor Francis I. of Austria (p. 205), till................. A. D. 1832
Ferdinand IV., abdicated.. " 1848
Francis Joseph.

SPANISH RULERS, 19TH CENTURY.

Charles IV., till.. A. D. 1808
Ferdinand VII., till... " 1833
Isabella II., deposed.... . ... " 1868
Amadeus, abdicated .... " 1870
Alphonso II.

KINGS OF ITALY, 19TH CENTURY.

Victor Emmanuel, till................. .... A. D. 1878
Humbert.

Synchronistic Exercise on the 16th Century.—Write out a new table, uniting the chronologies for Germany and France at pp. 245, 269.   Arrange the dates in the order of time.

Synchronistic Exercise on the 17th Century.—Write out a new table, uniting the chronologies for Germany and France at pp. 253, 282.

Synchronistic Exercise on the 18th Century.—Write out a new table, uniting the chronologies for Germany and France at pp. 260, 289.

Geographical Exercise on the 19th Century.—Write out, in order of time, with the dates, a list of territories gained by Prussia in the 19th century, a list of the acquisitions by which the kingdom of modern Italy has been formed, a list of the territories lost by Austria since 1815, a list of the territorial gains and losses of France since 1815.

BOOK III.

MODERN HISTORY.

(CONTINUED.)

———————

IRELAND; ENGLAND; SCANDINAVIA; RUSSIA;
POLAND; AND TURKEY.

IRELAND.

FIRST PERIOD.

___

FROM PREHISTORIC TIMES TO THE FIFTH CENTURY.

The Race.—The Irish nation belongs to a race mentioned in previous pages (p. 31)—the Celtic or Keltic. (The first orthography is general, the latter is used preferably by men of science.) Of this race the French nation is also a member, though mixed with foreign elements, while the blood of the Spanish is a mixture of Celtic with Iberian. The same Celtic race once peopled the whole of England and Scotland. The Welsh and the Highland Scotch are its existing representatives in these countries.

Some general characteristics of the Celtic race have been mentioned in the History of France. The Celts are by nature enthusiastic and impulsive, spirited, quick, and endowed with much natural genius. The wit of the French and Irish is notoriously rapid and delicate, as opposed to the slow and some- times ponderous humor of the English. The Highlanders of Scotland were renowned, and still are, among the British regiments, for their rapid and head- long battle onslaughts, and the gallant dash of French and Irish soldiers is also famous. The Welsh have been obscured in modern times by being swallowed up in general English society, but their natural genius, like that of the Irish and the French, is superior to that of the Anglo-Saxon English. In musical talent they are known to excel. Their genius inspired the literature of Eng- land in its early days (see England, under 15th century), and also furnished it with the fables on which both Tennyson and Edmund Spenser have depended.

The Irish Celts.—No other country has shown the Celtic traits so clearly and held to them so firmly as Ireland. The Scotch Highlanders, of small num- bers and living in a barren country remote from cultivating influences, have figured in history only as brave predatory warriors. The Welsh have been nearly submerged by English influences. The French were diverted from

unmixed Celtic tendencies by the forms of Roman and of Feudal organism. But to these the Irish never submitted, and thus their character stands pre-eminent as a manifestation of the possibilities and greatness of the Celtic nature.

Antiquity of the Irish.—According to the natural order in which Sla- vonian peoples (namely, Russians, Bulgarians, Servians, Poles, Bohemians) are placed in Eastern Europe ; while Germanic peoples (Germans, Dutch, Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Anglo-Saxon English) come next beyond in order towards the West ; it will be inferred that the Celts preceded the Germans and Slavonians in their migration from Asia. They were naturally pushed west- ward by the later comers. So it would be understood how it is that the Irish Celts lay claim, and establish it, to high antiquity. They belong to the most ancient Celtic settlers of Europe. The Erse (Irish) language is known by students to be the most primitive and least corrupted dialect of the Celtic.

Phœnician Commerce.—The first maritime visitors to the British Isles, through whom the ancient nations of Southern Europe obtained knowledge of Ireland, were the Phœnicians. First settled as a historic people on the coast of Syria, where they were the natural traders between the great Eastern States of Egypt and Chaldæo-Assyria, they passed to a sea trade with all coasts of the Mediterranean, exchanging for the raw products of the then barbarous Greeks, Italians, and other Mediterranean nations, the manufactured products of the East. It was from the Phœnicians that the Greeks acquired the first knowledge of " Ierne " ; thus they named Ireland. All the literature of the Phœnicians has perished, but a Latin author of the 4th century A. D. (Festus Avienus) copied Phœnician records of a Carthaginian temple, dating from the 7th century B. C. From this copied record of the 7th century before Christ it appears that Ireland had been known to this people from " ancient " times as the " Sacred Island."

Phœnician Influence.—The Phœnicians are held to have made their first trading voyages to the British Isles as early as B. C. 1300, and the descrip- tion of the poet shows a more intimate acquaintance with Ierne (Ireland) than with Albion (England). The Phœnicians had extensive settlements in Spain, not only the famous Gades (Cadiz), and along the south and eastern coast, but also along the shore of Galicia. From the existence of these settlements on the west coast of Spain we can understand more readily how an active inter- course could have been maintained with Ireland. From Cape Ortegal to Cape Clear is 150 leagues, two-thirds of the way in sight of land.

Ancient Navigation.—Julius Cæsar describes the large seaworthy vessels of the Veneti on the west coast of France, with leathern sails, and iron anchors and iron cables, and the Phœnicians were no less provided with vessels which could brave the ocean. (About 600 B. C. they had circumnavigated Africa.) The boats of the Irish themselves were apparently of frailer description—of hide-covered wicker work ; but there is no doubt that they made voy-

ages of extent in these boats, possibly using stronger ones on occasion. They reached Iceland, for instance, in the 8th century after Christ, and were used to remaining for days out of sight of land.

Early Civilization.—This intercourse with the Phœnicians, well authenticated as it is, assists us to comprehend how this island might boast, centuries before Christ, of wealth, luxury, and civilization. The earliest Irish alphabet consisted, like the Phœnician, of sixteen letters, and was doubtless drawn from it. Carved inscriptions in this "Ogham" writing are found. To the Phœnician period are attributed the coal-mining excavations at Ballycastle, on the coast of Antrim. Other mining excavations bear close resemblance to mines in Cornwall, attributed to the Phœnicians. Beads of Egyptian manufacture have been found, and swords exactly resembling those of Carthaginian style, as elsewhere known.

The **Irish Commerce with Spain,** which continued in the Roman period, is brought vividly to the imagination by a phrase found in Tacitus, the Roman historian of the 1st century A. D. He remarks that the waters and harbors of Ireland were better known through the resort of commerce and navigation than those of Britain. This evidently could be only through a Spanish Roman medium. The remark of Tacitus is curiously supported by the geography of Ptolemy, of the 2d century A, D., who makes some remarkable errors in the geography of North Britain, but shows considerable accuracy as to Ireland ; and yet most of Britain was Roman possession at the time, and Ireland was not. Ptolemy gives names of tribes in Southern Ireland corresponding with names of tribes in Spain. The river Kenmare was called Ierne ; there was a river of the same name in Spain. All these points give credence to the tradition which peoples Ireland by Celtic tribes from Spain. According to the Bards the sons of Milesius had sailed from the Tower of Betanzos in Galicia. (In our own times Kinsale and Galway have the physiognomy of Spanish towns.)

Ireland settled from Spain.—Thus, from the known intercourse with Phœnicians and with Spain, it is natural to argue that the first settlements of the island by Celts were from Spain : not from Gaul or Britain. If the Irish Celts had passed over from Britain, it would be difficult to explain why intercourse with Spain should not have been equally active for both islands.

Early History.—The chronicles and ancient traditions of the country carry back the lines of Irish kings more than a thousand years before Christ. As the Celtic settlement preceded, or was at least contemporary with, the earliest Phœnician trading expeditions, there is no reason for questioning the existence of the Irish royal dynasties at this early time. Authenticity of detail and approximate accuracy of date are generally conceded from about the year 300 B. C. downward. About this time the historian Tigernach—of the 4th century A. D., a thoroughly sober and matter-of-fact writer—

begins his account. The building of a splendid palace at Ema-
nia, not far from Tara, is recorded for the reign of Kimbaoth at
this time.

The lists of kings, and details of their lives, run on clearly
enough from this point to the time of St. Patrick. This was the 5th
century A. D., the time of the overthrow of the West-Roman Empire.

Notwithstanding the proximity of the Roman rule in Britain, no
attempt was ever made to subdue the island by Roman arms. The
Irish institutions, laws, and customs, as far as they did not conflict
with Christianity, were therefore transmitted unbroken from the
Pagan to the Christian period. This is why the Celtic institutions
can be studied in their purest form only in this country.

Institutions.—The most remarkable peculiarity of institution regards the method of
holding land. Land was owned in common by the clan, *i. e.*, by a community of one family
blood. Every clansman had an equal right to, and share in the land, by virtue of his family
membership. The absence of selfish and mercenary traits in Irish character is one expression
and result of this race custom. Or it would be equally well to say that the absence of selfish-
ness could alone explain the custom. The aversion to living in walled towns or castles and
to the use of body armor—traits apparent as national habits even in times when these things
seemed to be necessary—all point to a conception of life in which men are not hunted by their
fellows, or taken unfair advantage of by others.

The Irish law was called " Brehon " law. The Brehons were legislators who were at the
same time judges and lawyers. Their punishments were mild, their traditions humane and
generous, but they were respected and obeyed.

The Bards.—An equally important class was that of the Bards, at once poets and mu-
sicians, who also were the guardians of history and tradition. Irish poetry holds high rank.
The use of rhyme, generally attributed to the Arabs in Spain, is found in an Irish Latin poem
of the 5th century A. D., the earliest instance of its use. The use of the harp is attested as far
back as the 7th century B. C. at least. An author of the 12th century A. D., otherwise hostile to
the Irish, speaks of their music in terms of enthusiastic admiration. The Welsh bards were
accustomed to receive their instruction in Ireland as late as the 11th century. Lord Bacon says
that no harp has so melting and prolonged a sound as the Irish

The hospitality which is still proverbial in our own time, was always a national
virtue. The story of a chief who was about to burn his castle as an excuse for sending his
guests home, rather than confess that he had no more stores of provisions for them, is of late
date—perhaps a fable ; but the extravagance and profusion of attention to strangers and guests
find illustration in every period. Permanent signs signifying that every wayfarer should turn
aside for gratuitous entertainment have been known to exist down to late times. The English
historian, Bede, tells us that foreign students were not only given gratuitous instruction, but
also were gratuitously fed, clothed and lodged in the Irish schools of learning.

The Government was patriarchal monarchy. A supreme king was chosen, ruling from
Tara, but his power was rather that of a nominal than of an actual head. The minor king-

doms over which he ruled were often practically independent, and much contention prevailed among them, as well as among the clans themselves. These contentions were, however, more as to points of honor in the matter of precedence than for gain or conquest. The successor of a king was generally appointed in his lifetime, and called " Tanist." The Tanist thus became a sort of rival king, and many small wars were fought in consequence.

The virtues of character and of institutions which Ireland boasts in her pagan period undoubtedly explain the wonderful rapidity of Christian conversion. The lack of Irish martyrs was made a reproach by the Norman barons, when they invaded the island, but it is the highest test of Irish civilization in pagan times that Christianity made its way without persecution and almost without resistance. The Irish Druids who, with the Bards and Brehons, made up the three especially esteemed and favored classes, must have been in the 5th century, A. D., rather men of science and of learning than devotees of the cruel mysteries undoubtedly known to Druidism in other countries and in earlier times.

The Monumental remains of the Irish Druid worship are of the same kind as are found in England and in France. Circles of upright stones of large size, like that at Stone-

Druid Worship.

henge in England, served as open-air temples for the religious rites. Cromleachs, or Dolmens (p. 175), large stones, supported at one end or both ends by others, served at once as tombs and altars of sacrifice. Menhirs, single erect blocks of large size, were symbols, as with the Phœnicians, of divinity. The partial dependence, at least, of Celtic Druidism on Eastern influence is made probable by the consideration that the art of moving the immense blocks of stone used in the Dolmens and Menhirs was an Eastern art, and by many customs and verbal analogies pointing to Eastern sun and fire worship.

Map Study.—See modern maps for Galicia, Cape Ortegal, Cape Clear, Ballycastle, Antrim, Cornwall, Kinsale, Galway, Tara, Stonehenge.

SECOND PERIOD: FROM A. D. 432 TO ABOUT 800.

Conversion to Christianity.—It is not supposed that St. Patrick's mission, A. D. 432, brought the first knowledge of Chris-

tianity to Ireland. St. Patrick speaks of being in sections "where no missionary had been before." The terms of his mission from

"St. Kevin's Kitchen," Glendalough.
(*An Oratory of the* 6*th Century.*)

Pope Celestine were to those "believing in Christ," and there is no reason for thinking that the British, under Roman rule, could have numbered many Christians as early as the 2d century, without some influence on the neighboring country. However, it is certain that Ireland was generally Pagan before St. Patrick, and generally Christian from the time of his mission. King Leoghaire (Leary) was ruling over the country when the Saint appeared at the Court of Tara.

St. Patrick was born 387 A. D. near Boulogne (in Northeastern Gaul). His parents were people of rank. In the disturbances which France (then part of the Roman Empire) was enduring through the German attacks on the Rhine frontier, her coasts were also exposed to predatory excursions. The Irish king, Nial, "of the Nine Hostages," made a descent on the coast and carried St. Patrick with other captives to Ireland, A. D. 403. Here he became a slave and a herdsman of sheep in the County of Antrim. His master was named Milcho. In the seventh year of slavery he made his escape and returned to Gaul. He then studied four years in the monastery of St. Martin, near Tours.

Having placed himself under the instruction of St. German of Auxerre, he accompanied him in 429 to Britain to combat the Pelagian heresy. Hence he was recommended by St. German to the Pope as a fit person to undertake a mission to Ireland. Meantime Palladius had been despatched for this purpose, 431 A. D. Some of his disciples made known the death of Palladius to St. Patrick, and he then landed in Ireland, 432 A. D., at Dublin (probably).

His first pronounced success was in braving the king and his ministers and court at Tara. His bearing and sermons won him the tolerance of Leary, though the king does not appear to have been himself a convert. Leary's leading Bard instantly devoted his talents to Christianity, and from this day till his death, in 465, the career of St. Patrick was one of constant activity and constant success. His work was organized and established by the foundation of the Episcopal seat of Armagh, not far from the ancient palace of Emania.

Irish Influence on Europe.—Ireland owes her brilliant period in the centuries following St. Patrick not only to natural genius. This was assisted

by general causes. In the disturbances and convulsions which England, France, Spain, and Italy suffered by the German invasions, Ireland was at peace. In the revolution and break up which European society experienced in passing from antiquity to the Middle Age, Irish institutions were unchanged.

This period of revolution and disturbance, as we shall notice from preceding pages and especially from the accounts under the heading of German History, was in the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th centuries especially. (With Charlemagne, about 800 A. D., the reorganization of Europe begins.) In these centuries Ireland was not only protected by her insular position from the inroads of barbarism, but the civilization and culture of the other countries also sought refuge and protection here in the persons of nearly all learned and studious men of the times.

The Irish schools were frequented by thousands of foreigners, so that the biographies of the ecclesiastics of other European countries mention their studies in them generally as a matter of course. Not only did the Irish universities—especially famous those of Lismore, Clonmacnoise, Armagh and Bangor—thus diffuse learning and culture over other countries by the return home of their own native students, but the Irish themselves became the missionaries of Europe.

Irish Learning.—Their standing as men of letters and of mind is not simply one of comparative excellence. The Irish poet Sedulius (Shiel), contemporary of St. Patrick, but not resident in Ireland, was the author, among other works of acknowledged merit, of a spirited poem upon the life of Christ, the *Paschale Opus*, from which the Catholic Church has selected some of her most beautiful hymns. Adamnan's life of St. Columba, written in the 7th century, is considered a model of excellent Latin style. In the 8th century Virgilius (Feargal), afterwards Bishop of Salzburg, asserted the doctrine of the earth's rotundity in a time when the belief in this truth had apparently disappeared. In the 9th century the layman Scotus Erigena was a renowned master of philosophy and dialectics at the Court of Charlemagne. In the 10th century the English Saint Dunstan owed his learning in arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music, to the instruction of Irish monks at Glastonbury. In the 11th century lived the Irish historians Tigernach and Marianus Scotus, the latter long resident at Fulda in Germany, and author of the first General History attempted in medieval times.

Irish Missions.—It was in the time immediately following St. Patrick's, that Irish missionaries to foreign countries were especially active—the 6th, 7th, and 8th centuries being those in which other countries were most backward. In order of time the first, and also first in order of importance, was St. Columba, or Columbkill, born of the royal family of the Nials (O'Neils) of Ulster, on the father's side, and of a princely house of Leinster on the side of his mother.

Iona.—Since the 3d century (258 A. D.), a branch of the Nial family had established a colony in Scotland, corresponding at first to the territory of Argyle, then reaching into Ross and Perth,

and including the islands of the Hebrides. From the king of this colony, his relative Conal, Columbkill obtained a grant of the island of Iona, and here he founded one of the most celebrated monasteries of the world. This island is still covered with ruins of ecclesiastical structures. From Iona went forth the mission-
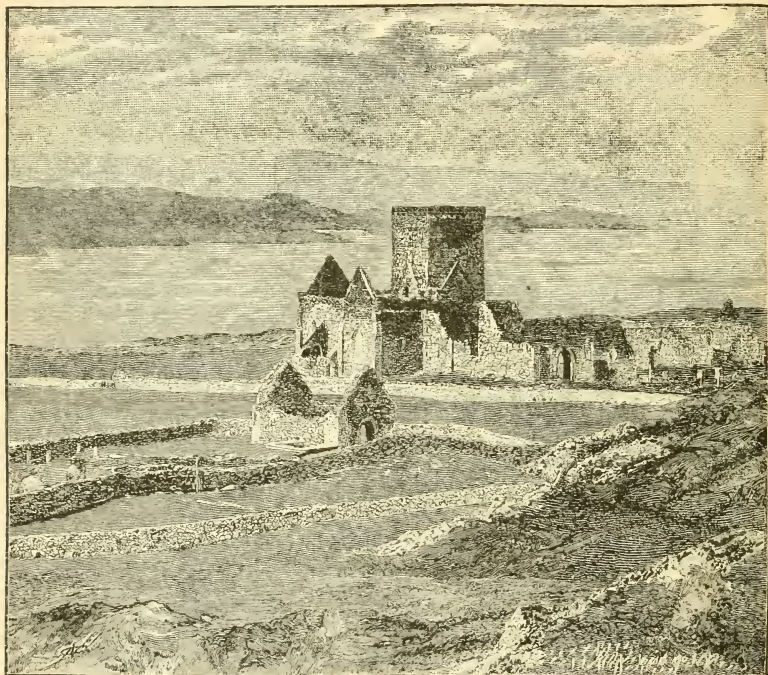
The Ruins of Iona.

aries who converted the Picts of Scotland and of the Orkneys. Columbkill himself penetrated beyond the Grampians, and was personally no less the missionary of Scotland than St. Patrick was the missionary of Ireland. The Saint died in 596. The year in which the first Roman missionaries landed in Kent was 597.

St. Columba.—" Of his tenderness as well as energy of character tradition and his biographers have recorded many instances; among others, his habit of ascending an eminence every

evening at sunset, to look over towards the coast of his native land. The spot is called by the islanders to this day 'the place of the back turned upon Ireland.' The fishermen of the Hebrides long believed they could see their saint flitting over the waves after every new storm, counting the islands to see if any of them had foundered."—(McGEE.) In Trinity College, Dublin, is now preserved a splendid MS. copy of the Four Gospels in a cover richly ornamented with gold. It is held to be the same one long kept in the monastery of Kells and written by the hand of St. Columbkill.

Lindisfarne.—In the time following his death, Iona sent out the Apostle of North England, St. Aidan, just before the middle of the 7th century. He established on the island of Lindisfarne, below the mouth of the Tweed, a monastery which became the centre of Christian influence and civilization for the Anglo-Saxons of Northumbria, parent of the Bishopric of Durham and of the Archbishopric of York.

Irish Missions to the Franks.—The Picts of Scotland and the Anglo-Saxons of England were pagans at the close of the 6th century, but the Christian population of France had sunken into a degradation which needed missionary labor no less. The barbarism of the German Franks, first christianized under Clovis, only a century before, had reacted on the Christian Roman population of Gaul. It was in this country that another Irish Apostle first became renowned.

Columbanus, the namesake of Columbkill, was born in 559 A. D. in the province of Leinster, and entered the monastery of Bangor in Ulster, where he mastered both Greek and Hebrew. Devoting himself with twelve worthy companions to missions in France, he founded within the realms of Thierry and Brunehilda the monasteries of Luxeuil and Fontaines (in Franche-Comté). By his protests against the wickedness of these sovereigns he lost their protection and favor, but courageously persisted in defying their malice. He was compelled to leave their dominions, but was well received at the Frankish courts of Theodobert and Clotaire, who soon after reunited the Frankish dominions. (The various local divisions of the Frankish State before Charlemagne have been omitted in this history as too complicated and perplexing for students.)

From France Columbanus made his way to Italy and the Lombard court at Milan. In the Lombard dominions he finally settled, founding in the Apennines the monastery of Bobbio, and dying in 615 A. D. At Bobbio his coffin, chalice, holly staff, and an Irish

missal are still shown. His memory also lives in the name of the beautifully situated town of San Columbano in the territory of Lodi.

Convent of St. Gall.—A disciple of Columbanus was Gallus, who founded on the Lake of Constance, in Switzerland, the celebrated Convent of St. Gall. The architect's plan of this convent has been preserved. It shows by the various apartments, assigned to monks of different trades and occupations, that such monasteries were centres, not only of learning and religion, but also of industry and of the mechanical arts.

Irish Missions in Germany.—In the 7th century an Anglo-Saxon king and a Frankish king were educated in Ireland—Alfred of Northumbria and Dagobert II. The latter appointed the Irish St. Arbogast to be Bishop of Strassburg. His friend and countryman, St. Florentius, succeeded him in this office. St. Wiro, of County Clare, was Confessor of the Frankish Pepin of Heristal. At Ratisbon (Regensburg), in modern Bavaria, the tombs of two brothers, Erard and Albert, distinguished Irish saints of this time, were long shown. The reputation of St. Fridolin, a native of Connaught, lives along the Rhine. He established a monastery on the island of Seckingen. St. Killian is called the Apostle of Franconia (Central and West-Central Germany). He is the patron Saint of Würzburg, in Bavaria. The Irish St. Cataldus, the patron Saint of Tarentum, in Southern Italy, belongs to the late 7th or early 8th century.

In the 9th century Charlemagne placed two Irishmen, Albinus and Clement, over the universities of Paris and Pavia. This sovereign, wishing to inform himself on the reputed occurrence of two solar eclipses in 810, addressed himself to the Irishman Dungal, of the monastery of St. Denis. The reply of the latter has been preserved, and proves the writer an accomplished astronomer. Of the same period was the Irish Bishop of Fiesole, in Italy, Donatus.

It has been calculated that the Irish monks held, from the 6th to the 9th century, thirteen monasteries in Scotland, twelve in England, twelve in Brittany, eleven in Burgundy, seven in other parts of France, seven in Lorraine, nine in Belgium, ten in Alsace, sixteen in Bavaria, fifteen in the Tyrol, Switzerland and Suabia, others uncomputed in Thuringia (Saxon Duchies), and on the left Rhine bank.—(*Thébaud*, "*Irish Race.*")

Scriptorium of a Monastery. 15th Century MS.

The Female Orders.—The activity of study and the extent of learning in Ireland itself are sufficiently attested by the foregoing matter, but we must not omit mention of the Female Orders. St. Bridget was twelve years old when St. Patrick died, and she died in 525 A. D., four years after Columbkill was born. From her activity dates the institution of Female Orders throughout Ireland. Her especially famous foundation, at the request of the people of Leinster, was the monastery and town of Kildare.

Irish in Scotland.—From the territory of Dalriada (Antrim) in North-west Ulster, it was but fourteen miles to the nearest Scotch coast of Argyle. Carbry Riada, of the Nial family, ruler of Irish Dalriada, founded the State of Scottish Dalriada in 258, A. D. Community of blood with the Picts of Scotland and superiority of civilization made it easy to establish and extend this colony.

The " Scots."—In the time of the Romans in Britain, and following their withdrawal, constant mention is made of the incursions into England of the " Picts and Scots." The Picts were the native and barbarian Celtic population of Scotland, the Scots were the Irish settlers. " Scoti " was the name given to the Irish by foreigners, and long confined to them. From the 3d century, A. D., when the " Scots " first settled in Argyleshire, their relation to their Pictish brethren had been, in matters of general civilization, that of superior to inferior. The influence of the " Scots," as Christian missionaries and civilizers from the time when Columbkill established the monastery of Iona, in the 6th century, was all powerful. Conal, the relative of Columbkill, was the sixth in the line of princes of Scottish Dalriada. The first was Loarn More, from whom was named the district and Marquisate of Lorne. The successor of Conal, Aidan, anointed by Columbkill, raised the colony to practical independence of the mother country.

Kenneth McAlpine.—So rapid was the expansion and influence of the Irish colony, through the missions of the monks of Iona, that Kenneth McAlpine, 843, A. D., replaced the line of Pictish rulers, and " Caledonia " was united under the sway of the Irish, or " Scottish " line. Either in direct or female succession it continued to give kings to Scotland till the union with England under James I.

Irish Warrior.
(*From a 9th Century MS. preserved in Germany.*)

The celebrated Lia Fail, or Stone of Destiny, on which the kings of Ireland used to be inaugurated, had been brought over to Argyle when the colony was founded. After the victory by which Kenneth McAlpine, in 843, finally subdued the Picts, it was removed by him from Argyle to Scone, where it remained till the time of Edward I. It was carried off by his order, enclosed in a stately chair, and placed in Westminster Abbey. Thus it became, and still remains, the coronation chair of the English sovereigns.

Proximity of Anglo-Saxon Northumbria to Irish Civilization.—In the time of Kenneth McAlpine, Caledonia did not reach south of the Forth. The Lowlands of Scotland were part of the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Northumbria, as settled by the Anglo-Saxons at the time they invaded England. This close proximity of the north boundary of Northumbria to

the original Irish settlements in Scotland, enables us to understand the missionary influence of Iona in the 7th century, when Aidan, the monk of Iona, became the Apostle of the Anglo-Saxons of Northumbria at Lindisfarne.

Cession of the Lowlands to "Scot"-land.—A century and over after Kenneth McAlpine, the Lowlands, *i. e.*, the territory between Forth and Tweed, were ceded to Scotland by the great English statesman, Dunstan. At this time the old Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were united under the successors of Alfred the Great, and in the difficulty of protecting North England from the Danes, Dunstan wished to save the rest of Northumbria by building up a power in the North against them. The union of this territory between Tweed and Forth with the earlier possessions of the "Scottish" kings was facilitated and cemented by the missionary and civilizing influences of Iona and of Lindisfarne. It was in the reign of the English Edgar (958-975) that the Tweed thus became the boundary between Scotland and England, which has ever since remained.

Thus, an Irish line of Princes, assisted by the general ascendency of Irish Christianity and civilization over North Britain, united the territories which became Scotland. But the name Scotland was not yet used. This portion of North Britain had been known as Caledonia or Alba. Alba (Albania, Albany) was the name used for it by the Scoti of Ireland.

The word Scotia (or Scotland), as applied to Caledonia, appears first with the Irish writer Marianus Scotus of the 11th century. The use first became general in the 12th century. Before the 12th century the terms Scoti and Scotia were used indifferently for the Irish, whether in Ireland or Scotland. The latter were distinguished from the former as the Scots of Albania. Some authors speak of the two Scotias, Ireland being Scotia Major. So utterly, however, was the memory of the original use of the words Scotia and Scoti at last forgotten that in the early 16th century some Irish monks, in partial possession of the old "Scottish" monastery at Regensburg, in Germany, were expelled as intruders. Their place was given to Scotchmen, and the expelled monks were accused of having forged, in the annals of the monastery, the words Scotia Major to designate Ireland.—(BURTON'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND. p. 202, Vol. I.)

The "Poems of Ossian" were published in the 18th century by the Scotch author McPherson as a rediscovered ancient Scotch poem. Investigation into the authenticity of this work has shown that, although modern in its combination, it is based on old fables and poems of the Scottish Highlands which had been transplanted from Ireland in the times of the Irish settlement.

The latest and most extended history of Scotland is that of Mr Burton, " Historiographer Royal for Scotland." On the subject of the Irish in Scotland he says, p 294, Vol. I. : "We cannot thoroughly understand the ascendency so acquired by kings of the Dalriadic race without realizing to ourselves, what is not to be done at once, the high standard of civilization which separated the 'Scots' of Ireland and Dalriada from the other nations inhabiting the British Isles. It was as yet a waxing civilization, bringing with it continual increase of political influence......We have no conspicuous memorials of such a social condition, such as the great buildings left by the Romans and the Normans. Celtic civilization took another and subtler shape. It came out emphatically in dress and decoration. Among Irish relics there are many golden ornaments of exquisitely beautiful and symmetrical pattern. Of the trinkets, too, made of jet, glass, ornamental stone, and enamel the remnants found in later time [in Scotland] belong in so large a proportion to Ireland as to point to the centre of fashion, whence they radiated, as being there. There seems to have been a good deal of what may be called elegant luxury. The great folks, for instance, lay or ecclesiastic, had their carriages and their yachts. Especially the shrines, the ecclesiastical vestments, and all the decorations devoted to

religion, were rich and beautiful. They had manuscripts beautifully written and adorned, which were encased in costly and finely-worked bindings. It is to this honor done to sacred books, of which the finest specimens belong to Ireland, that we may attribute the medieval passion for rich bindings. The testimonies to the high social position of the Celts among the tribes of the British isles are taken by induction from the examination of such memorials as have turned up in recent times. We know from old authorities that these Celts were honored by their neighbors as a lettered people. By the 'Scots' writers, whether of Dalriada or Ireland, the Saxons are spoken of, without any affectation, as barbarians, just as they would have been spoken of by the Romans. From the other side, even in Bede's [Anglo-Saxon] narrative, the sense of inferiority is distinctly apparent."

Map Study.—See modern maps for Antrim, Armagh, Lismore, Clonmacnoise, Bangor, Argyle, Ross, Perth, the Hebrides, Iona, the Grampians, Kent, Northumbria, Durham, York, Leinster, Ulster, Franche-Comté, Lake of Constance, Kildare, the Forth, the Tweed.

THIRD PERIOD. NINTH AND TENTH CENTURIES.
FROM 794 TO 1014.

The Danish Invasions.—For the period of Irish history after St. Patrick's mission in the 5th century, down to the 9th century, the details of royal genealogies, dates, and deeds of the Irish kings, are sufficiently distinct. But interest attaches to these features of history only when related at length, and attention to such matters in brief histories is apt to obscure the salient and important points.

In the account given of the Irish learning and its influence over Europe, it will be noticed that few of the distinguished names of Irish residents on the Continent dated later than the 9th century. At this time Continental Europe, disciplined and civilized, as far as then possible, by the efforts of the Church, was reorganized by Charlemagne, and his work was carried on by the German emperors of the 10th century. But Ireland was now destined to make the experience in a less degree of the terrible effects of the foreign invasions which had scourged the rest of Europe in the 5th and 6th centuries.

These later invasions were simply a continuation of the earlier Germanic invasions, but were carried on by sea and by tribes of Germanic race living to the north of Germany, still Pagan, cruel and bloodthirsty.

The Angles and Saxons who settled in England in the 5th cen-
tury were Germanic
tribes from the shores
of the Baltic and the
Peninsula of Den-
mark.   There was no
real   distinction   of
blood or nature be-
tween them and the
Danes proper, or the
Northmen   of   the
Scandinavian penin-
sula, excepting that
the latter had a more
imaginative and po-
etic temperament, a
more chivalric charac-
ter.

The incursions by
which Ireland was
devastated began in
794, when the North-
men landed on the
Isle of Rathlin, and

A Landing of the Danes.

lasted till 1014, when Brian Boru defeated them on the field of
Clontarf.

During the intermediate time they also ravaged the coasts of France and overran
England. By the settlement in Normandy, hence named, of a band of Northmen under Rollo,
in 911, France was protected from the further ravages of their brethren (p. 178). The general
result of these Danish invasions was the civilizing and Christianizing of the Scandinavian
nations, by contact with the people whom they ravaged and persecuted. The Christianizing
process first became general after 1000 A. D. Meantime, England's struggle out of Anglo-Saxon
barbarism was nipped in the bud. Ireland's more advanced civilization suffered less, but
suffered greatly.

The monastic foundations, as seats of wealth and prosperity, offered the most tempting
prizes to the piratical expeditions, and they were the most accessible to them in location.

Armagh was plundered seventeen times during the two hundred years of war. By constant war and suffering the morals of the nation were impaired and weakened.

The landings of the Northmen were made with fleets counting as high as 120 vessels. The largest ships carried from 100 to 120 men, and expeditions of 6,000 or 7,000 warriors were not unusual. The peculiar geography of Ireland, with rivers opening out into inland lakes, admitted the Danes to the very heart of the country without obliging them to abandon their ships. The necessity of meeting the Danes in all quarters, without waiting for assistance from a distant royal power, tended to weaken the royal authority. The period of the invasions is therefore also filled with intestine feuds, and as the Danes became settled on the coasts they are often found in alliance with the local Irish princes.

Five important towns were ultimately held and peopled by the Danes—Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, Cork, and Limerick. Meantime, during the reign of Flan " of the Shannon," about 900 A. D., the predatory incursions diminished under the stern rule of the Norwegian king, Harold the Fair-haired. In the middle of the 10th century, occurred, in Dublin, the first conversions of the Danes.

In the third quarter of this century the brothers Mahon and Brian opposed the Danes in Munster. They were resisted in Meath by Melaghlin (or Malachy), after 979 Malachy II. At the time of the accession of Malachy II., Brian Boru, trained up to deeds of bravery under his brother Mahon, had succeeded this brother as King of Munster (978). The jealousy between North and South was apparent in the contentions of these two kings; Brian really the more powerful and able, Malachy II. with the legal title.

Brian Boru King of Ireland.—In 1001 Malachy finally yielded his title to Brian, and the latter was acknowledged, not only by the Irish princes in general, but also by the Danes of the coast cities, as king of the whole Island.

Just at the time when the Danes under Canute established themselves as ruling power in England, a last great effort was made to subdue Ireland. An immense armament was gathered from the Scandinavian countries, and from the Orkneys and Hebrides, then under Northman rule. This army was defeated by Brian Boru, in 1014, on the field of Clontarf, near Dublin. Brian fell in the battle

with his son and grandson. This was practically the end of the in-
vasions, which reach a few years on either side of the 9th and 10th
centuries (794–1014). The Danes of the coast towns mentioned had
already mixed and intermarried with the Irish. They were soon
thoroughly amalgamated with them.

The reign of Brian Boru is celebrated by the annalists for its vigor and good order.
In his palace at Kinkora he practiced a truly royal hospitality. The interests of the Church
were carefully regarded in the matter of endowments. Roads, bridges, and buildings of public
utility were constructed or repaired. The preservation of the public peace, remarkable in a
time following the long devastations of foreign war, was strictly enforced. But a strongly
organized monarchy was not in the genius of the Irish people. It had not existed before Brian,
and it ended with him.

The most remarkable feature of Irish society was its development of the family
tie into a governmental and social system. The consequent existence, side by side, of a num-
ber of family chiefs—heads of the great clans and their subdivisions—of really equal position
and of locally separated territorial rule, made the office of over-king or "Ard-righ" rather one
of honor than of actual royal power.

The national custom of "tanistry," i. e., nominating the king's successor, "Roy-
damna," in his life-time, was rather a result than a cause of the loose power of the chief Irish
king. It is to be noted about the frequent contests of Irish rival kings and chieftains, that
they did not disturb the social fabric, but grew out of its peculiar character. If the system of
Irish monarchy was a complex and unsettled one, it had one grand redeeming feature. The
relations of the subjects to these petty kings were never those of oppression, of extortion, or of
subjection. They were relations of affection, devotion, kindred blood and patriarchal equality.
Therefore, in the disputes and wars of the rivals we do not find personal aggrandizement or
personal greed as a motive power.

Map Study.—See modern maps for Island of Rathlin, Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, Cork,
Limerick, Munster, Meath, the Orkneys.

FOURTH PERIOD. "KINGS WITH OPPOSITION."

FROM 1014 TO 1170.

The Century and a half after Brian Boru is called the time
of kings "with opposition." The five provinces of Ulster, Meath,
Leinster, Munster, and Connaught now appear as five nearly equally
balanced local principalities. The exaction by the nominal king of
any decided recognition was frequently opposed by the local jealousy
of the rival provinces.

To these provinces correspond the great families of the

O'Neils in Ulster, the O'Melaghlins in Meath, the McMurroghs in Leinster, the O'Briens in Munster, and the O'Connors in Connaught. Such family names now replace the earlier tribal and clan designations. Their general use dates from the time of Brian Boru, who recommended or enforced it. The O'Briens were the descendants of Brian. The O'Neils correspond to the Nials. The distinction between clan and family now made indicates a more closely organized society.

Norman Conquest of England.—The 11th century, beginning in Ireland with the victory and death of Brian Boru, opened in England with the establishment of the Dane Canute on the English throne. He was followed by his two sons. Then came the reign of the Saxon Edward the Confessor, followed by his minister Harold. In 1066 took place the landing of the French Northmen in England and the Norman conquest of that country (p. 181).

FIFTH PERIOD. NORMAN INVASION AND SETTLEMENTS.

FROM 1170 TO 1509.

Norman Settlements.—It was in the natural course of events that a Norman conquest of Ireland should be attempted after that of England. The Normans had not forgotten the two centuries of war which their Northman relations had waged with Ireland, only closed fifty years before the English conquest. From the same natural association of the Normans in England with their own Northman persecutors, the Irish were naturally sympathizers with the Anglo-Saxons and with the Welsh. An Irish force had assisted the brothers of Harold, Edwin and Morcar, in their continued resistance to William the Conqueror after Harold's death, had threatened Bristol and landed in Devonshire. This the Normans had not forgotten, and they knew that Ireland, by its sympathies, had become a resort for refugees from England.

Since the time of the Danes in Ireland, complaints had also reached Rome of disorders and laxness of discipline in the Irish

Church. St. Bernard had publicly called attention to such abuses, but it is not certain how far the reports to which he gave ear may have been exaggerated by an unfriendly nationality. In 1155, Pope Adrian IV. commissioned the English king, Henry II., with the reformation of these abuses, and granted him the kingdom of Ireland. No invasion of Ireland took place till thirteen years after the Papal Commission was issued.

Cause of the Norman Invasion.—Dermid McMurrogh, Prince of Leinster, had carried off Devorghoil, wife of O'Ruarc,

Gate of Cong Abbey. Residence of Roderick O'Connor.

Prince of Breffni (Leitrim). For this crime he was deprived of his kingdom of Leinster and of his patrimony, by Roderick O'Connor, titular king of Ireland, king of Connaught, and ally and friend of O'Ruarc. The abduction of O'Ruarc's wife was in 1153, when the father of Roderick had incurred the hatred of Dermid by compelling him to restore the lady to her husband. Dermid was not expatriated till 1168, when he refused submission to the new king, Roderick.

In this year he resorted for assistance to Henry II. in Acquitaine, and received from him a patent authorizing enlistments. The natural starting point for an expedition against Ireland was Wales, and from the Anglo-Normans of this country Dermid sought his assistants. Chief among them was Richard Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke ; assisted by Robert Fitzstephen, Raymond le Gros, and

Maurice Fitzgerald, with other Norman knights, their men at arms, bowmen, and Welsh and Flemish mercenaries. The Flemings were settlers in Wales.

In 1168 Dermid returned to Leinster with a party of Flemings. He made no claim to the restoration of his kingdom of Leinster, and after some opposition, on delivery of hostages and payment of fine, was allowed to resume his patrimony.

In May, 1169, Fitzstephen landed in the Bay of Bannow, near Wexford, with a small force of Anglo-Normans. Wexford was besieged and taken. Roderick summoned a national muster of the Irish at the hill of Tara. This was well attended. The force proceeded to Dublin, but finding no attack threatened, the army partially disbanded.

By the treaty of Ferns, Dermid agreed to do homage to Roderick, and to take no more Normans into his service. But in the same winter, always secretly intriguing to recover his kingdom of Leinster, he welcomed the arrival at Wexford of Maurice Fitzgerald with an additional force, and employed it in threatening Dublin.

In May, 1170, Raymond le Gros sailed into the harbor of Waterford and fortified himself near the town. In August, 1170, Richard Strongbow joined him with the largest force yet sent over. Waterford was taken, and Strongbow married, by previous agreement, Eva McMurrogh, with the dowry of the kingdom of Leinster, after Dermid's death. This death took place in 1171.

Meantime, Dublin had been besieged and taken, while Roderick, who had done his best to relieve the city, retired into Connaught.

In October, 1171, Henry II. landed, near Waterford, with 500 knights and 4,000 men at arms from a fleet of 400 transports. Garrisons were placed in Limerick and Cork, and many chiefs of Munster and Leinster made feudal submission. The chiefs of Ulster uniformly refused submission. Henry spent Christmas at Dublin, then held a synod at Cashel for the reformation of the Church abuses, staying altogether seven months in the island. The persecutor of Becket probably did not materially transform the

Irish Church, but in a military sense Henry did not take an actively aggressive attitude in Ireland. It was at the moment of his disgrace with the See of Rome for Becket's murder (see English
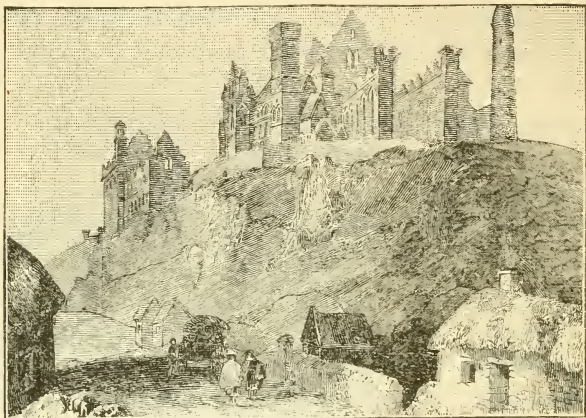
The Rock of Cashel.

history) that he undertook the Irish expedition, and probably to gain favor with the commissioners sent to inquire into Becket's murder that he held the synod of Cashel.

Extent of Norman power in Ireland.—The weak organism of Irish monarchy already explained made the settlement of the first Anglo-Norman invaders an apparently easy matter. Sometimes by marriage, as in the case of Richard Strongbow; sometimes in the service of contending Irish princes; oftener by violence, they made themselves possessions and built castles in many parts of the country. In Munster, Leinster, and Meath, they were most numerous; in Connaught less numerous; in Ulster there were scarcely any. The Irish were opposed, by national habit, to the use of armor and of castles, whereas the Normans were the military experts of all Europe. Notwithstanding this apparent superiority, the history of the Anglo-Normans in Ireland is that of a constantly decreasing power. They were never themselves masters of the country, and their own feudal tendency to oppose the authority of the English monarchs prevented this authority of the English kings from being in any way established.

One cause preventing the Anglo-Norman conquest of Ireland was a traditional jealousy between the English kings and their Norman-Irish nobles. Another was the thoroughly gallant and spirited Irish military opposition—not the less effective because it was not combined to win or lose all in a single battle, as with Harold and William the Conqueror. The most decided influence was exerted by the amalgamation of the Normans with the native pop-

ulation. The former, by intermarriage and gradual adoption of Irish manners, language, and fashions, became " more Irish than the Irish."

Extent of the "Pale."—Three hundred years after the Anglo-Normans landed in Ireland, the territory under English law, known as the " English Pale," was confined to the country immediately surrounding Dublin. The English " Pale," in its earlier and widest extent, took in about one-half of the island, by a line drawn diagonally from northeast to southwest through the centre.

The history of Ireland, from Henry II. to Henry VIII.—*i. e.*, from 1170 to 1509— is the process of the absorption or re-conquest of the Anglo-Normans. After Henry II. we pass through the reigns of the English kings Richard I., John, and Henry III., to the time of Edward I., about 1300, without finding either intervention or presence of these kings in Ireland, two rapid and resultless visits of John excepted. These were made to overawe insubordinate Norman barons. In the reign of Edward I., and at the time of his Scotch wars, after 1290, the Norman-Irish barons, chief among them the " Red Earl " of Ulster, obeyed his summons to feudal service in Scotland. Meantime the power and office of " Ardrigh " were generally maintained west of the Shannon and in Ulster.

(Henry II. had recognized the sovereignty of Roderick over all territories not actually in possession of his own subjects, accepting Roderick's feudal submission in return. Cathal O'Connor, Irish king of Connaught and Ardrigh, co-operated with John in 1210. Feidlim O'Connor of Connaught was on friendly terms with Henry III., and attended his war in
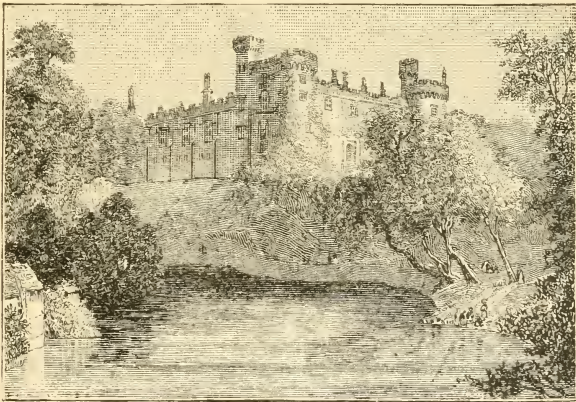
Kilkenny Castle, Seat of the Ormonds.

Wales. In Meath, Leinster, and Munster the power of Irish and Norman-Irish chiefs was about equally balanced. In the time of Edward I. the " Red Earl," Richard de Burgh, descended on one side from the granddaughter of Roderick O'Connor, was the most powerful of the Norman-Irish, and his rule was recognized in Connaught and Ulster. His descendants adopted the Irish clan system and the name of MacWilliam.)

Edward II. carried on war with Scotland till the English defeat of Bannockburn made Robert Bruce secure in this country. In consequence of this Scotch victory (1314) the

leading Irish chieftain, Donald O'Neil of Ulster, called on David Bruce, brother of Robert, to make Ireland an independent kingdom, and abdicated in his favor the title of Ard-righ.

The campaigns of the Bruces in Ireland carried them over the island, but the proposed kingdom was shattered on the opposition of the Munster Irish and the old jealousy of North and South. David Bruce was defeated and killed by a Norman force at Faughard, near Dundalk. His tombstone still stands on the site of the battle.

The Desmonds and Ormonds.—Bruce's own Scotch family was of Norman extraction. Many Norman-Irish barons had sympathized with his ambition and assisted it. From the confiscations which thus followed their participation in his campaign dates the great importance of the two branches of the family descended from Maurice Fitzgerald (hence called Geraldines), the **Geraldine Earldoms of Desmond and Kildare,** and of the family of the Butlers, now raised to the **Earldom of Ormond.** (Theobald Walter, a follower of Henry II., was raised to the feudal dignity of his chief " butler " in Ireland.)

Kilkenny was the seat of the Ormonds, and capital of the Pale, and the Ormonds became the representatives of its English tendencies, although themselves much Hibernicized.

The Principality of Desmond comprised parts of the counties of Waterford and Tipperary, with all Cork and Kerry. The chief seat of the Desmonds was Kilmallock (now called from its ruins the " Balbek of Ireland "). They became the great representatives of the Irish Normans as opposed to the Norman-Irish Ormonds.

Thus, after the time of **David Bruce** (1318) till Henry VII. (after 1485) the dominant family of Munster was the hibernicized Desmond branch of the Geraldines. Connaught was thoroughly Irish. Ulster was thoroughly Irish. Meantime, the limits of the Pale were steadily receding, and in the time of Edward III. (1327–1372) his son Lionel, to whom had passed by marriage the nominal title of Earl of Ulster, was sent over to assert the English interests. He was defeated by an O'Brien of Munster, but his name of " Clarence " originated in his fictitious victories in County Clare. From the efforts of Clarence date the famous Statutes of Kilkenny, 1367.

The Statutes of Kilkenny enacted that marriage, nurture of infants, or "gossipred" with the Irish (*i. e.* fostering), or submission to Irish Brehon law, should be deemed high treason. Any man of English race taking an Irish name, using the Irish language, or adopting Irish customs, was to forfeit goods and chattels until he gave security that he would conform to English manners. It was declared highly penal to entertain an Irish bard, minstrel, or story-teller, or even to admit an Irish horse to graze on the pasture of an Englishman. These statutes were never enforced beyond the County of Kilkenny, and were enforced imperfectly there. They are best understood by parallel with old sumptuary laws against extravagance of food or dress. Such laws really exhibit the general prevalence of the customs they strove to reform, and are thus the most perfect illustration of their own futility.

English jealousy.—These statutes have, notwithstanding, a deep significance for the future course of Irish history. They show the jealousy constantly exhibited by native English governors and administrators for the English-born natives of Irish soil. They show the incapacity of English nature to comprehend the virtues of a society different from their own, and the intolerant spirit of England towards Ireland. Notwithstanding the large numbers of Anglo-Norman settlers, it appears that about 1500, and before the "Reformation," Ireland was essentially a homogeneous country. The "conquests" subsequent to 1500 differ from all earlier ones in really carrying into effect the spirit which the Statutes of Kilkenny in their own time but impotently breathed.

Through the 14th century the cutting down of the limits of the English Pale steadily continued. The great liberator of Leinster was Art McMurrogh, and his power is well illustrated by the campaigns of Richard II., 1377–1399 (successor and grandson of Edward III.). These campaigns were undertaken on account of the tribute paid by the English to McMurrogh and other Irish lords for right of way through their territories, which had become a tax on the English treasury.

In 1394 Richard II. landed at Waterford with an army of 30,000 archers and 4,000 men at arms. In order to reach Kilkenny he unfurled the banner of Edward the Confessor, as more popular with the people than the Norman leopards. But he could not march beyond Carlow. The way was blocked by McMurrogh, and his opposition obliged the king to turn aside and reach Dublin by the sea-shore.

A second expedition of 24,000 men was equally unsuccessful in 1398, in penetrating into Leinster beyond the coast territories. For the expenses of the second expedition, Richard had confiscated the estates of John of Gaunt, his uncle, just deceased. This was the cause of the return to England of the banished Henry of Lancaster, son of John of Gaunt. Richard was put to death, and the House of Lancaster came to the English throne with Henry IV. in 1399.

Henry IV., 1399–1413, was absorbed with trouble at home. Henry V., 1413–1422, was kept busy by his French wars. In the reign of Henry VI., 1422–1471, and Edward IV., 1471–1483, the Wars of the Roses left Ireland undisturbed.

At the accession of Henry VII., in 1485, such was the practical independence of Ireland that the 8th (Geraldine) Earl of Kildare, then Lord Deputy, was not removed by Henry, although he took the part of Lambert Simnel, a pretender to the English crown. The Geraldines of Kildare, under the leadership of this earl, were now the ruling family of Ireland, being united by inter-marriage with the Irish chiefs of Ulster and Leinster. The 8th

Earl of Kildare continued in office till 1513, the fourth year of Henry VIII., king of England, after 1509.

Map Study.—See modern map for Connaught, Leitrim, Wexford, Ferns, Waterford, Limerick, Cork, The Shannon, Dundalk, Kilkenny, Tipperary, Kerry, Kilmallock, Carlow.

SIXTH PERIOD : 1509–1690. FROM HENRY VIII. TO THE BATTLE OF THE BOYNE.

In the accounts given of the Rise of Monarchy, as opposed to Feudalism, some explanations have been given of the general causes contributing to raise up a system of absolute monarchies in the 16th century (p. 208).

St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin. Begun 1196.

The policy pursued by any individual monarch was often, perhaps generally, inspired by personal ambition ; but certain interests of the people contributed to his success. These interests were in general those of stable society, as opposed to one of feuds and petty warfare. But the rise of a strong monarchy in England was attended with fatal consequences for the adjoining island, not only because of the contemporary Protestant revolution in England, but also because the English laws of land-tenure and succession were diametrically opposed to those of the race which religious intolerance and mercenary greed now combined to persecute.

During the reign of Henry VIII. the approaching overthrow of Irish institutions was not yet apparent. To the more peaceful society which a strong monarchy seemed to promise, Irish public sentiment was not opposed. The kings were the natural antagonists of powerful territorial nobles, and the fact that an almost independent country in 1485, the date of Henry VII.'s accession, generally accepted Henry VIII. as king in 1541 is explained by the policy pursued in the intervening time.

This policy was to break the power of the great lords in Ireland by favoring the small ones, and thus we have the singular spectacle of an English policy which for the time being favored and supported the interests of the small Irish chiefs against the great nobles in general and the Geraldines in particular. The 9th (Geraldine) Earl of Kildare, at first allowed to suc-

ceed his father, was then repeatedly summoned to London, and finally confined in the Tower on various charges. His son attempted an abortive insurrection, incited thereto by forged letters announcing his father's execution. The imprisoned earl died in 1534; his son was executed in 1537.

In 1541 Henry VIII. was formally recognized as king of Ireland by a parliament at Dublin, and most of the territorial interests not then represented were subsequently bought over. The conversion of many Irish chiefs into nobles with English titles produced, however, disaffection among the clansmen. The destruction of shrines and abolition of monasteries, first begun in 1539, increased the disaffection, but it had no leader. The use of artillery gave the English king a supreme advantage, and the time of purely local insurrections destined to success was over.

At the death of Henry VIII. in 1547 no great headway had, however, been made or seriously attempted towards overturning the Catholic Church in Ireland.

With the reign of Edward VI., 1547–1553, the raid on the Churches and the old faith began to take large proportions, backed by an army of 10,000 men, and, more important than any number of men, a heavy train of artillery. The accession of Mary, 1553-1558, reversed this religious revolution, but did not reverse the natural policy of the English sovereigns to make themselves as absolute in Ireland as in England.

Mary's reign, though it once more favored the Catholics, still levelled the way for the Protestant Elizabeth to reverse the order of things. The Anglicizing of Ireland required the overthrow of the clan system, in which every member held an equal share in the land, in favor of a system of primogeniture in which the eldest son of a lord owned all the land of the clan. In Leinster, at least, this new system made headway under Mary.

On the accession of Elizabeth, 1558, an Irishman took up the gauntlet for his country, who held this revolution of the land system in check during his lifetime. John or Shane O'Neil, Lord of Ulster, proved himself the equal of the English deputies. Elizabeth made peace with him, practically on his own terms, but he was

killed, in 1566, by Highlanders dismissed from his service, who refused to abandon Ulster.

The Irish Revolt.—Meantime, in 1564, active steps had been taken to introduce the Protestant faith into Ireland. In 1569 Elizabeth was excommunicated by Pope Pius V. The Geraldine Desmonds were practically kings of Munster, and the 16th Earl of Desmond now took up arms, in 1573, for the old religion and the native institutions of Ireland. The sympathies of the Catholic countries of the Continent were with the Irish. But a small armament despatched by the Pope and the King of Spain served to rouse all the energies of England against the devoted province, and to clear the way for wholesale confiscations of the enormous estates of Desmond (570,000 acres) and of the lands of Munster generally (1584).

Some years before, Elizabeth had written to her Lord Deputy, in anticipation of a rising by Shane O'Neil, to assure her lieges in Dublin that " it would be for their advantage, for there will be estates for them who want." It was in this spirit that insurrections were fomented and then put down. The more merciless and sweeping the confiscations, the sooner a new revolt might be expected, and a new lot of estates for English adventurers. The sovereign who swelled her private purse by the sale of negro slaves from Africa, forced by English pirates on the American dominions of Spain, showed no mercy to Ireland. With Elizabeth's " colony " in Munster began the system of planting Ireland by English adventurers, who drove out the gentry to starve and reduced the free clansmen to menial and poverty-stricken laborers on the lands to which, by national law, they had an equal claim.

A new rising in the North under Hugh O'Neil, the son of Shane, and O'Donnel of Donnegal, assumed national proportions in 1598. The victory of Ballinaboy, two miles from Armagh, spread panic over all the English settlers in Ireland. The Earl of Essex, himself the son of an English adventurer settled in Ireland, was given an army of 20,000 men and three-fourths of the English annual revenue, but failed to make headway. He was disgraced in consequence.

The Articles of Mellifont.—Mountjoy, his successor, was more successful : but after three years' effort, during which a Spanish armament of 3400 men was obliged to capitulate at Kinsale, he gave honorable terms of peace to the Irish leaders. The war had

absorbed all the revenue and energies of England during the last years of Elizabeth. The Articles of Mellifont allowed free exercise of religion, 1603. Elizabeth was already dead when these articles were signed, but they were violated by her successor, James I., under compulsion of the English Protestants.

Ireland under James I.—O'Neil and O'Donnel were driven from Ireland by an intrigue which involved them in the suspicion of a new conspiracy, and the way was now open for a " colonization " of Ulster. The entire province was declared a forfeit to the crown. Two-thirds of the North of Ireland were given to Scotch and English settlers by a stroke of the pen. To the trading guilds of London 209,800 acres were given, including Derry; since called Londonderry. The ancient owners were not even to earn their living as day-laborers unless they denied the supremacy of the Pope; but this law could not be executed.

In the last years of James I. (died 1625) similar confiscations, amounting to 450,000 acres, were carried out in the midland counties of Ireland. But there was still left something for the Puritans of Cromwell.

Ireland under Charles I.—The troubles between Charles I. and his parliaments gave new hopes of Irish independence. These aspirations were stimulated by the harsh government of his minister, Strafford, the devious course of Charles toward his Irish loyalists, and the wish to restore the ancient laws and religion. In 1641, just before his final break with the English parliament, Charles I. had sacrificed Ireland to a momentary turn of policy, by confiding its government to two Puritans, Parsons and Borlace. Parsons had declared that within twelve months he would not leave a Catholic in Ireland. Pym, the leader of the Puritan party in England, spoke to the same effect. An Irish rising in the North, under Phelim O'Neil, was stained by cruelties which were the natural result of the English oppressions of Ulster.

Ireland under Cromwell.—The war thus begun was continued with general success for the Irish cause till the landing of

Oliver Cromwell in 1649, after the execution of Charles I. Massacres at Drogheda and at Wexford by his Puritan soldiers stunned the opposition of other besieged towns. Cromwell remained in Ireland less than a year, leaving his son-in-law, Ireton, to continue the war. It was ended by the capitulations, after heroic defense, of Limerick and Galway, 1652.

The measures were now taken which completed the misery of Ireland. Over 3,000,000 acres, in addition to all previous confiscations, were taken from the Catholic owners, and only the wild and barren lands of Connaught were left to the Irish Catholics. Here, under penalty of outlawry, the expelled inhabitants were to congregate before the 1st of May, 1654, and they were not to appear afterwards within two miles of the Shannon or four miles of the sea.

Results of the Confiscation.—In speaking of Blarney Castle, near Cork, a writer on Ireland says: "The fate of the once formidable clan of the MacCarthy is similar to that of nearly all the ancient families of Ireland. The descendants in the direct line may be found working as day-laborers around the ruins of castles where their forefathers had ruled; and as in many instances a period of little more than a century and a half has passed between their grandeur and their degradation, it can excite no marvel if at times they indulge the idea that what was swept from them by the strong tide of conquest, the eddy of events may bring back to them again. We have ourselves seen the legitimate heir of one of the ancient owners and rulers of West Carberry pause as he delved the soil, lean on his spade, and point to the mountains and the valleys stretching as far as the eye could reach, and speak as if they were still his own."

Of the family of Lord Roche of Fermoy, whose estates were parcelled among the soldiery of Cromwell, it is related that a Lady Roche was remembered as begging charity through the streets of Cork in a tattered and faded court-dress. Of the last Lord Roche, it is said that he was, in the early part of the 19th century, a stable-boy in the County of Tipperary, living with the servants in the kitchen, but that he would accept no wages.

The fidelity of the Irish to their religion under these oppressions is attested by exact figures. In a country of 2,000,000 people, but sixty had embraced Protestantism down to the reign of James I.—*Thébaud*. "*Irish Race*."

The Restoration of Charles II., 1660–1685, did not alleviate the condition of the Irish. The public sentiment of England was Royalist at home, but would not suffer the restoration of Irish to their rights, at the expense of Cromwellians in Ireland.

Under James II., 1685–1688, little was done for Ireland, except the temporary gift of religious freedom. Events related in

the English history led to the dethronement of this king. His behavior, when seeking by Irish aid to regain his throne, did not show chivalry or gain personal popularity. In the battle of the Boyne, 1690, the troops of William III., his successful opponent, were double the Irish force, beside an immense superiority in artillery. This defeat reflected no discredit on Irish bravery.

Map Study.—See modern map for Mellifont, Londonderry, Drogheda, Limerick.

SEVENTH PERIOD. TIMES OF THE PENAL CODE.
FROM 1690 TO 1782.

Notwithstanding the personal unpopularity of James II., the Catholic faith of his dynasty—the exiled Stuarts—made them dear to the Irish. From 1690 to the death of the last Stuart " Pretender " in 1788 (Genealogy, p. 389), they endured persecutions more terrible than any as yet related for the sake of their religion and the dynastic preference which this religion carried with it.

These sympathies with the Catholic Stuarts, whose cause was generally supported or favored by France, explain the immense numbers of Irish in French service through the 18th century. From the capitulation of Limerick, 1691, when 25,000 Irish soldiers were allowed by the terms of capitulation to pass under French colors, till 1745, 450,000 Irish soldiers died in the service of France. Thirty thousand more were enlisted in her armies after this date.
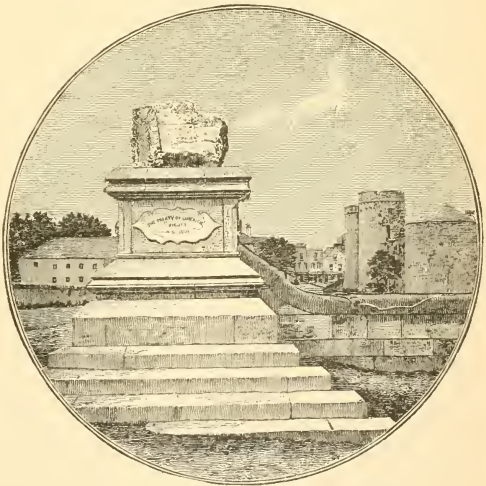
The " Treaty Stone " of Limerick.

Limerick is called "the City of the violated Treaty." The terms here accorded by William III.. at the conclusion of the war

in favor of James II., 1691, promised freedom of religion and an oath of allegiance which should not include the Church supremacy of the English sovereign; but these terms were soon violated by the English Parliament. They were signed on a stone near the town, which has been made a monument of this breach of faith.

From the time of William III. (1688–1703), through the reign of Anne (1703–1714), of George I. (1714–1727), and of George II. (1727–1760), the enactments of the Penal Code against Irish Catholics were made more and more rigorous, and continued in force until the time of the American Revolution. Then first relaxed, they were not removed till 1829. The period of William III. opened for Ireland with a confiscation, by the Protestant parliament of that country, of 1,060,792 acres. Thus, at the time when the provisions of the Penal Code against Catholics began to be sharpened, they had been robbed, by the various confiscations, of six-sevenths of the soil, without reference to the inferior value of the land still left them.

The following account of the **Penal Code** is from Bancroft's American History, Vol. V., Chap. IV.: " Besides exclusion from Parliament and from the elective franchise, a Catholic could not gain a place on the bench, nor act as barrister or attorney or solicitor, nor be employed as a hired clerk in courts of law, nor sit on a grand jury, nor serve as sheriff or justice of the peace, nor hold even the lowest civil office of trust or profit, nor have any privilege in a town corporate, nor be a freeman of such corporation.

"If 'papists' would trade and work, they must do it even in their native towns as aliens. They were expressly forbidden to take more than two apprentices in any employment, except in the linen manufacture only. A Catholic might not marry a Protestant. The priest who should celebrate such a marriage was to be hanged. A Catholic could not be a guardian to any child, nor educate his own child if the mother declared herself a Protestant ; or even if his own child, however young, should profess to be a Protestant.

"None but those who conformed to the Established Church were admitted to study at the Universities, nor could degrees be taken but by those who had taken all the test oaths and declarations. No Protestant in Ireland might instruct a ' papist.' 'Papists' could not supply their want by academies and schools of their own. For a Catholic to teach, even in a private family, or as usher to a Protestant, was a felony punishable by imprisonment, exile, or death. Thus 'papists' were excluded from all opportunity of education at home, except by stealth and in violation of law. It might appear that schools abroad were open to them ; but, by a statute of King William, to be educated in any foreign Catholic school was an unalterable and perpetual outlawry.

"The child sent abroad for education, no matter of how tender an age, could never after sue in law or equity, or be guardian, executor or administrator, or receive any legacy or deed of

gift. He forfeited all his goods and chattels, or forfeited for his life all his lands. Whoever sent him abroad, or maintained him there, or assisted him with money, incurred the same liabilities and penalties. The crown divided the forfeiture with the informer; and when a person was proved to have sent abroad money or a bill of exchange, on him rested the burden of proving that the remittance was innocent.

" The Irish Catholics were not only deprived of their liberties, but even of the opportunities of worship except by connivance. Their clergy could not be taught at home, nor be sent for education beyond seas, nor be recruited by learned ecclesiastics from abroad. Such priests as were permitted to reside in Ireland were required to be registered, and were kept like prisoners at large within prescribed limits. By an Act under Queen Anne—all 'papists' exercising ecclesiastical jurisdiction, all monks, friars, and regular priests, and all priests not then actually in parishes and to be registered, were banished from Ireland under pain of transportation, and, on return, of being hanged, drawn, and quartered. Avarice was stimulated to apprehend them by promise of a reward. He that should harbor or conceal them was to be stripped of all property. When the registered priests were dead, the law, which was made perpetual, applied to every priest. By the laws of William and Anne, St. Patrick would have been a felon.

" Any two justices might call before them any Catholic and make inquisition as to when he heard Mass, who were present and what Catholic schoolmaster or priest he knew of, and the penalty of refusal to answer was a fine or a year's imprisonment. The Catholic priest abjuring his religion received a pension of thirty, afterwards of forty pounds.

" No nonconforming Catholic could buy land or receive it by descent, devise or settlement, or lend money on it as the security, or hold an interest in it through a Protestant trustee, or take a lease of ground for more than thirty-one years. If under such a lease he brought his farm to produce more than one-third beyond the rent, the first Protestant discoverer might sue for the lease. Even if a Catholic owned a horse worth more than five pounds, any Protestant might take it away.

" The dominion of the child who became Protestant over the property of the Popish parent was universal. The Catholic father could not in any degree disinherit his apostasizing son; but the child, in declaring himself a Protestant, might compel his father to confess upon oath the value of his property, in which the court might out of it award the son immediate maintenance, and after the father's death any establishment it pleased."

Restrictions on Commerce and Manufactures.—As far as exclusion from electoral rights is concerned, the Presbyterians of Ulster were also included in the disabilities of the Irish. The narrowness of English policy toward Ireland is illustrated by this treatment of the English settlers. The importation of cattle to England was forbidden, and all possible steps were taken to cripple the agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial interests of the island.

Catholic Relief Bills.—After half a century of this oppression, the first Catholic Relief Bill was passed shortly after the

beginning of the Seven Years' War (1756), in 1757. It conceded
only the rights of petition and of public meetings.   In 1777 the
second Catholic Relief Bill allowed the lending of money on mort-
gage, the leasing of land, the right to inherit and bequeath landed
property. The coincidence of these measures with the Seven Years'
War, 1756–1763, and the American Revolution, 1776–1783, respect-
ively, will be noticed.   The policy of propitiating Irish sentiment
during these times of strain on the English government is apparent.
Thus, in 1776, the first slight relaxation of trade restrictions was
made.

The Irish Volunteers.—After the capitulation of Burgoyne at
Saratoga and the French alliance with America (p. 288), the drain of
regular troops from Ireland required the passage of the Militia Bill,
by which the defence of Ireland was confided to its own volun-
teers.   Following this creation of the Irish volunteers, and the con-
sequent sense of power toward England, the Irish (Protestant)
Parliament began to take strong ground in favor of free-trade for
the island.   In 1780 free-trade in most respects was granted.   In
1782 the same sense of power enabled the Irish Parliament to obtain
an Act of Legislative Independence for Ireland.

EIGHTH PERIOD: LEGISLATIVE INDEPENDENCE OF IRELAND, 1782–1800.

The Irish Parliament was limited, as before, to Protestants,
and was not, even under this limitation, a truly representative body.
Still, this period of legislative independence did much to break
down the divisions of religious jealousy and intolerance.

In 1793 was passed an act of Catholic Emancipation from all
provisions of the Penal Code, except that affecting the right to hold
the highest offices of state, to sit in the Parliament, or act as judge.
These beginnings of conciliatory tendencies towards the Catholics
were naturally developed by the events of the French Revolution
(after 1789), and the consequent sympathies of all conservative

interests. In 1795 was established the Catholic College of May-
nooth, the first since the reign of James I., when the last Catholic
College of Ireland, St.
Nicholas at Galway, was
closed, for non-con-
formity of the Principal.

**Meantime, the
spread of French
Revolutionary prin-
ciples** over Europe, un-
settling all society and
government, although
carrying also some true
ideas as to the rights
of the governed and
the injustice of social
oppressions, divided Ire-
land in two parties.
The Revolutionary
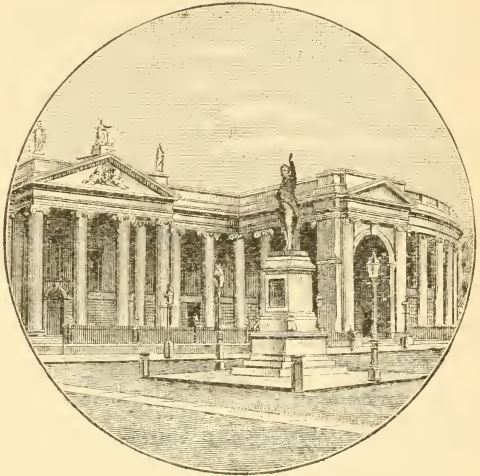
The Parliament House in Dublin before the Union.
(*Now the Bank of Ireland.*)

prejudice against sovereigns in general harmonized with Irish
aspirations for independence from England. Thus the Irish peas-
antry, the Presbyterians, and the extreme advocates of French prin-
ciples, were combined in sympathies against the conservative sen-
timents of the Catholics of the upper orders and of the Anglo-Irish
loyalists.

The terrors of England were excited by the menacing attitude
of the French toward England (especially following the rise of
Bonaparte, after 1795), by various landings of French expeditions in
Ireland, and by the constantly threatening preparation of more
formidable expeditions than really appeared.

The Irish rising in 1798, under direction of the United
Irishmen (organized since 1791), was therefore put down with piti-
less and relentless cruelty (Battle of Vinegar Hill). Meantime, the
Irish volunteers had been suppressed, since 1793, on account of

the change of parties and of sentiment toward England following the outbreak of the French Revolution.

The harsh proscriptions of the Protestant parliament after the rising, alienated the Irish national feeling in favor of continued legislative independence. On the other hand, the anti-French and anti-revolutionary sentiments, common to England and so many Irish, favored the legislative union with England. This was made in 1800.

IRELAND SINCE THE PARLIAMENTARY UNION OF 1800.

The general state of the country during the next few years, the period when the career of Bonaparte constantly excited hopes of independence, may be argued from the army force kept in Ireland. In 1803 an army of 50,000 militia was under arms and pay, besides a force of 70,000 enrolled volunteers.

In this year took place the miscarriage of the rising headed by the gifted Robert Emmett, his consequent execution, and famous death-speech.

Catholic Emancipation.—Meantime the agitation for Catholic representation continued. It assumed colossal proportions after 1821, under the leadership of Daniel O'Connell. In 1828 this great man took the decisive step of procuring his election to Parliament in County Clare, in advance of any relief of Catholic parliamentary disability, and presented himself at the bar of the House of Commons. The Relief Bill, proposed in consequence of his step, procured Catholic emancipation in 1829. O'Connell himself was obliged to procure a re-election, as the Relief Bill was not allowed to react on his individual election, made before its passage.

" A lofty column on the walls of Derry bore the effigy of Bishop Walker. who fell at the Boyne, armed with a sword, typical of his martial inclinations rather than of his religious calling. Many long years had his sword—sacred to liberty or ascendency, according to the eyes with which the spectator regarded it—turned its steadfast point to the broad estuary of Lough Foyle. Neither wintry storms nor summer rains had loosened it in the grasp of the warlike churchman's effigy, until, on the 13th day of April, 1829—the day the royal signature was given

to the Act of Emancipation—the sword of Walker fell with a prophetic crash upon the ram-
parts of Derry and was shattered to pieces."—(*McGee*.)

After 1840 O'Connell began an agitation for Repeal of the
Union (Home-rule), by public meetings which reached colossal pro-
portions. The English government interfered, forbade the meet-
ings, and prosecuted the great orator and his associates. He was
fined and sentenced to a year's imprisonment. The sentence was
reversed by the House of Lords after three months. O'Connell died
in 1847 at Genoa.

After the terrible famines of 1846 and 1847 began an enormous
emigration to America, amounting since that time to about 4,000,000,
in addition to the earlier emigration. Georgia, North Carolina and
South Carolina were originally mainly settled by Irish.

Disestablishment of the Irish Church.—Next in importance
to the Emancipation Act of 1829 must be placed the disestablish-
ment of the English State Church in Ireland, under the Premier-
ship of Gladstone, in 1869. Down to this year Ireland had been
taxed for the support of an English State Church which did not repre-
sent even the bulk of Irish Protestants, who were Presbyterians.

Agricultural Distress.—Under the conditions established by the English confiscations
in and after the time of Elizabeth, all details of Irish history sink into insignificance before
one grand disturbing element—the *constant* agricultural discontent and suffering. The oppres-
sive treatment which began with confiscation was continued toward the dispossessed population.
This harshness of treatment was increased by the difference of race between conquerors and
conquered. The evil of " absenteeism," *i. e.*, of the residence of the foreign land-owners in
England, prevented the establishment of local ties and sympathies between landlords and
tenants. The system of short annual leases, and the law which deprives the tenant farmer of
any right to his own improvements, the habit of managing the confiscated estates by middle-
men, whose only interest is the extortion of the largest sum of money, and the generally
oppressive laws as to Irish industry and trade, have produced the frightful state of pauperism
in Ireland which still continues.

Criminal outrages and violence were the natural result. Among the soldiers disbanded
after the Treaty of Limerick began the combination afterwards known as Rapparees and
White Boys. These first became prominent in the disorders which broke out in Tipperary
between 1760 and 1775. Similar bands of peasants, leagued against the oppressive land system,
were known in 1785 as Right-boys. At the same time an organism in Ulster, which visited
and searched the houses of Catholics for concealed arms, was known as that of the " Peep-
o'-day Boys," the precursors of the Orange Association. (The Orange Lodges were founded
after 1795.) They were opposed by the " Defenders," afterwards absorbed in the " United

Irishmen," founded by Theobald Wolfe Tone in 1791. These again appear after 1798 as " Ribbon Men."

The Fenian organization of our own time is a later development of associated secret resistance to English oppression.

The Land-league, headed by Mr. Parnell, was a combination to effect, by legitimate

Charles S Parnell.

means and the pressure of public sentiment, a permanent improvement in the Irish land-laws and in the condition of the Irish peasantry. Evictions for non-payment of rent, supported by constabulary and soldiers, roused Ireland in 1881 to a pitch of excitement which led the English government to proclaim martial law. This exertion of military force against an entire class of unfortunate debtors, whose misery has been caused by an oppressive system, is without a parallel in the history of nations.

In 1882 a Relief Bill was passed by the Gladstone Ministry, conceding to farmer tenants a system of governmental commissions, with power to lessen rents. This step was supported by the appointment of a Lord Lieutenant and Chief Secretary to the charge of Irish affairs known to be acceptable to the Land-league ; but a band of revolutionists caused the assassination of the Chief Secretary, Lord Frederick Cavendish, and the Under-Secretary Burke. This crime was committed to block the conciliatory policy inaugurated, and to embitter once more the antagonism of races, and of history. The discovery of the guilty association was effected, and the trial and execution of the assassins followed ; but the unhappy results for Ireland will be long apparent.

Distinguished Irishmen.—Notwithstanding her misfortunes and oppressions, Ireland has contributed more than her share to the distinguished men of Great Britain. In oratory and eloquence her renown begins especially with the names of Henry Flood, Henry Grattan, and John Philpot Curran, before and during the legislative independence of Ireland. A still greater Irishman, Edmund Burke (before and during the French Revolution), was probably at once the most brilliant and the most solid mind of all British statesmen.

Of the same time are Barré, famed for his defense in the English Parliament of the American Colonies, and Richard Brinsley Sheridan (speech against Warren Hastings). Of the following period are Daniel O'Connell and Richard Lalor Shiel.

The great virtue of Irish eloquence, as represented by these illustrious men, is its union of inspired expression, with solid argument and logical debating power. No orator of English birth has ever reached the same combination of sense and form. To Ireland belongs also the name of Arthur Wellesley, Lord Wellington, victor of Waterloo (p. 297).

In English literature the 18th century boasts, in its early period, of the famous Dean Swift and Richard Steele, the associate of Addison in the

" Spectator," as names belonging to Ireland. Oliver Goldsmith and Lawrence Sterne belong to the middle of the 18th century. To the latter part of the 18th century belongs Sir Phillip Francis, reputed author of the Letters of Junius. Miss Edgeworth, the novelist, and Thomas Moore, the poet, belong to the close of the 18th and opening of the 19th century. Sheridan, already mentioned as an orator, was also distinguished as a dramatic author.

In philosophy and metaphysics Great Britain can boast no more illustrious name than Bishop Berkeley, first half of the 18th century. Balfe and Sullivan, the two distinguished musical composers of England in the 19th century, are Irish ; also James Sheridan Knowles and Boucicault, the dramatists.

In foreign countries, during the 18th century, the Irish held conspicuous positions. The Governor of Cadiz and Spanish Ambassador at the Court of Louis XVI., was Alexander O'Reilly. Another O'Reilly saved the remnant of the Austrians at Austerlitz, and in the Austrian army list of the century there are forty Irish names holding ranks from Colonel to Field-Marshal.

In French service the Irish were too numerous for individual mention. General MacMahon, the hero of Magenta (p. 298), and late President of the French Republic, is a descendant of one of these Irish-French families.

Among distinguished men of Irish blood in America, besides the famous Patrick Henry, are nine of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and six who took part in framing the Constitution. Of the Revolutionary heroes, Montgomery, Moylan, Sullivan, Wayne, Clinton, Stark, Knox, Hand, Dillon, were Irish. The same holds of Commodore John Barry, " the father of the American Navy ;" of George Clinton, first Governor of New York ; Robert Fulton, American inventor of the steamboat ; De Witt Clinton, promoter of the Erie Canal ; of John C. Calhoun, the South Carolina statesman ; Gen. Andrew Jackson ; and of Commodores Stewart, Shaw, and McDonough, the latter all prominent in the war of 1812.

Sixteen thousand Irish soldiers fought on the side of the Colonies in the War of the Revolution. In the Union armies of the late civil war were one hundred and fifty-five thousand of Irish birth, and nearly double that number of Irish descent. Large numbers also fought for the Confederates.

REVIEW OF THE PERIODS OF IRISH HISTORY.

CHRONOLOGY.

TABLE OF IRISH HISTORY SINCE THE CHRISTIAN ERA TO EMPHASIZE THE RELATIVE DURATION OF THE PERIODS.

1st Century.—Druid Celtic Civilization.

2d Century.— "   "   "

3d Century.— "   "   "

4th Century.— "   "   "

5th Century.—Christian Celtic Civilization.

6th Century.— "   "   "

7th Century.— "   "   "

8th Century.— "   "   "

9th Century.—Danish Piracies.

10th Century.— "   "

11th Century.—Local Kings.

12th Century.—Local Kings and Anglo-Norman Settlements.

13th Century.—Normans amalgamate with the Irish.

14th Century.— "   "   "   "

15th Century.— "   "   "   "

16th Century.—English Land-tenure and Confiscation.

17th Century.— "   "   "   "

18th Century.—Penal Code.

19th Century.—Partial Emancipation.

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON IRISH HISTORY.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

From what country was Ireland probably settled by the Celts?   (P. 309.)
Of what race is the Irish nation a member?
To what family of nations does this race belong?   (P. 31.)
Name the other races of this family.   (P. 31.)
Name the remaining great families of language.   (P. 31.)
To what family of nations do the Phœnicians belong?   (P. 32.)
What civilizations did they unite and spread?   (P. 25.)
How early did they reach Ireland?   (P. 27.)
From what place besides Syria and Carthage did they sail there?   (P. 308.)
Mention characteristics of the Irish nation, and similar traits in other peoples of the same race?   Compare p. 174.
Why is Ireland the most characteristic representative of these general race tendencies? (Pp. 308, 309.)
What were the peculiar institutions, forms of government, and social life of early Ireland? (Pp. 310, 311.)
When does her first historic period end?
What resistance was offered Christianity?
What inference as to earlier Irish civilization?
What is the date for St. Patrick's mission?
Were there Christians already in Ireland?
What great revolution in Roman history was taking place in the century of St. Patrick?
Did this revolution affect Ireland?
What influence on the succeeding centuries of Irish history?   (P. 313.)
How do you show the power and glory of Ireland at this time?   (Pp. 313-319.)
Mention distinguished Saints, missionaries, men of learning, and give details of their individual lives.

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

What were the leading Irish schools?
What famous monastery near the coast of Scotland?
What famous monastery on the coast of Northumbria?
What is the name and time of the Irish Apostle of Northumbria?
How is the name Scotland derived?
When was the Irish colony in Scotland first settled?
When did a king of this colony subdue the Picts?   His name?   (P. 317.)
When were the Lowlands of Scotland added to this kingdom?   (P. 318.)
How had they been civilized?
Name once more the date when the Picts were subdued, and the kings of the Irish line became supreme in Scotland?
What contemporary event of French and German history?   (P. 155.)
When did the Danish invasions begin?

What towns did the Danes settle?
What battle finally stopped the incursions, and what was the date?
What Irish king died in this battle?
What was the character of his reign?
What was the character of the following period as to government?
Why was a strong monarchy not developed in Ireland?
What were the local divisions of the country at this time?
And the corresponding families? (Pp. 322, 323.)
What were the features of English history in the 11th century? (P. 323.)

THIRD REVIEW LESSON.

When did the Normans invade Ireland?
What general causes?
What particular cause?
Who was the king of England at the time?
Was he a Norman? *Ans.* No; he belonged to the House of Anjou (p. 187).
What were the relations between the English kings and Norman barons in Ireland?
Did this tend to prevent a Norman conquest of Ireland?
What other causes prevented it?
What was the broadest extent of the English Pale? The narrowest extent?
What became generally of the Normans in Ireland?
What statutes show the tendency to amalgamation by trying to forbid it? (P. 328.)
Name the English kings between Henry II. and Edward I.? (P. 327.)
Were they present in Ireland?
What defeat did Edward II. suffer in Scotland?
What result for Irish history?
What became of David Bruce?
Why did confiscations result? (P. 328.)
What families built up their fortunes by these confiscations? (P. 328.)
Which headed the English interest?

FOURTH REVIEW LESSON.

Name the English kings after Edward I. to Richard II.? *Ans.* Edward II., Edward III.
What king among these came over to Ireland? (P. 329.)
What expeditions show the general independence of the country at the time?
How long before 1400 were these expeditions?
Name the English kings after 1400 to Henry VII.? (P. 329.)
Why were these kings not connected with Ireland? (P. 329.)
What family practically ruled Ireland in the time of Henry VII.? (P. 330.)
How did a country so independent so easily acknowledge the authority of Henry VIII.?
(P. 330.)
When was this? (P. 331.)
Give the dates for the reign of Edward VI. (P. 331.)

What was the course of events for Ireland now ?
Give the dates for Queen Mary ?   (P. 331.)
What transformation in the land system still went on ?
What relation has Mary's reign to the reign of Elizabeth as to Irish matters ?
What province was Anglicized under Mary ?
What are the dates for the reign of Elizabeth ?   (Pp. 331, 333.)
What Irish chieftain held Elizabeth in check ?
When did he die ?
When was Elizabeth excommunicated ?
When did the rising of the Geraldine Desmonds of Munster take place ?
With what result ?
When were the confiscations of Munster accomplished ?

FIFTH REVIEW LESSON.

When was the next Irish rising against the oppressor ?
Who were the generals of the English ?
What was their success ?
What were the Articles of Mellifont ?
When were they made ?
When did Elizabeth die ?
Who was her successor ?
How did he keep the Articles of Mellifont ?
In what province were the confiscations now made ?
What province had been " colonized " by Elizabeth ?
What province had been Anglicized under Mary ?
What province had been mainly always in the limits of the English Pale ?   *Ans.* Meath.
Who succeeded James I. ?
What acts of Charles I. caused disaffection in Ireland ?
When did this disaffection end in revolt ?
Who suppressed this revolt ?
By what massacres ?
What became of the Irish Catholics ?
Give the approximate time of Cromwell—of the Restoration ?   (P. 334.)
What English king after Cromwell ?
What was done to relieve Ireland from the Cromwellians ?
Who succeeded Charles II. ?
What events led to his overthrow ?   See English history.
Where did he attempt retrieval ?   (P. 335.)
Give the date for his defeat and name the battle.

SIXTH REVIEW LESSON.

What treaty concluded this war ?
Who was English king ?   His date ?   (P. 336.)
What were the conditions of the treaty ?   (P. 336.)
How were they kept ?

Why did the Irish Catholics sympathize with the cause of the Stuarts ? (P. 335.)
How did they show this sympathy ? (P. 335.)
What was the amount of French enlistments of Irish in the 18th century ?
What confiscation in the reign of William III. ?
How much land was left for Irish Catholics ? (P. 336.)
Mention provisions of the Penal Code ?
Under what sovereigns was this Code elaborated ?
Give the dates for Anne, George I., George II.
When was the Penal Code first relaxed ?
What are the dates for the Seven Years' War ? (P. 338.)
When was a Second Relief Bill passed ?
Name its provisions ?
What are the dates for the American Revolution ? (P. 338.)
What led to the creation of the Irish Volunteers ?
How did this affect the Irish Protestant Parliament as regards England ?
What measure was therefore passed ?
What was the period of legislative independence ?
What influence on Ireland and the Penal Code ?
What great statesmen before and during this period ? (P. 342.)
What Catholic College was established in 1795 ? (P. 339.)

SEVENTH REVIEW LESSON.

What leading event of European history at this time ?
What influence on Irish parties ?
What rising followed ?
What was the date ?
What body was active in harsh measures afterward ?
How did this favor the legislative union of Ireland and England ?
What sympathies worked in the same direction ?
What is the date for the Legislative Union ?
What great event followed ?
Give the date.
Name the man who secured this result.
What was his subsequent effort ?
What success ?
What event stands next in importance to Catholic emancipation ? (P. 341.)
What general feature of Irish history is more important than its details since the English
Confiscations ? (P. 341.)
What fraternities and organizations have resulted ?
What names among English statesmen belong to Ireland ?
What names in English letters belong to Ireland ?
What part has been played by the Irish in Europe ?
What leading names of American history belong to Ireland ?

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

What great event of European history took place in the 5th century B. C. ? (Pp. 143-146.)

How long after St. Patrick's mission did the Anglo-Saxons invade England ? (P. 145.)

How long before St. Patrick's mission did the Visigoths establish their empire in Spain and France ? (P. 143.)

Same question as to the Burgundians in France. (P. 144.)

Same question as to the Vandals in Africa. (P. 144.)

How long after St. Patrick's mission was the great battle with the Huns ? (P. 145.)

How long after this date did Clovis establish the Frankish State ? (P. 148.)

How long after this date did Theodoric establish the Ostrogoth State in Italy ? (P. 146.)

How long after 432 did Alboin found the Lombard State in Italy ? (P. 147.)

How long after 432 was the Christian mission of Augustine to the Anglo-Saxons ? (P. 149.)

What Anglo-Saxon State rose to importance after 600? *Ans.* Northumbria.

How long before died Columbkill, and how long after died Columbanus ?

What Anglo-Saxon State was important after 700? *Ans.* Mercia.

What Anglo-Saxon State was important after 800? *Ans.* Wessex.

What was the relative state of Irish civilization at this time ?

What led to a decline of Irish civilization after 800 ?

What shows that this decline was merely relative ? *Ans.* The continued ascendency of Irish culture over Scotland.

When did the Northmen first invade Ireland ?

When did they first invade England ?

When did they settle France ?

Who was king of England at the time of the battle of Clontarf?

Who was French sovereign in the time of Brian Boru, 1014 ? (P. 180.)

Who was German sovereign ? (P. 163.)

How much later was the First Crusade ? (P. 183.)

Who was French king in the time of Roderick O'Connor ? (P. 182.)

Who was German sovereign at this time? (P. 163.)

What were leading events of European history between 1170 and 1509 ? (Pp. 170, 209.)

Who was Emperor when Henry VIII. was acknowledged king of Ireland in 1541 ? (P. 228.)

Who was the natural ally of Ireland in the time of Elizabeth? *Ans.* Spain.

What prevented James I. and Charles I. from justly treating Ireland? *Ans.* The theory of an English State Church supremacy, making religious conformity essential to political unity.

What caused the cruel treatment of Ireland in the 18th century ? *Ans.* Hanoverian dread of the Stuarts and their Catholic sympathizers.

ENGLAND.

ENGLAND BEFORE THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

Our first information as to the early inhabitants of Britain dates from the time of the invasion of Julius Cæsar (p. 105). In 55 B. C. the Conqueror of Gaul landed on the island, and repeated his expedition in the following year. No settlement or conquest resulted from these expeditions. They were intended to overawe the inhabitants and prevent combinations for assisting and inciting revolt among the recently subjugated Celtic tribes of Gaul.

The ancient British were of the same Celtic race, and the accounts given by Cæsar of the Gallic tribes supplement his accounts of the British, with whom he was so short a time in contact. We are also assisted by our knowledge of the Irish Celts, which is more perfect, to a general conception of the British.

Their condition was inferior to that of their Gallic and Irish brothers, but was far superior to that of the mere barbarism sometimes imagined. Phœnician commerce was not without its influence. The tin mines of Cornwall and the Scilly Islands had, from the 14th century B. C., brought Phœnician navigators to Britain. The lead mines of Somerset and the iron mines of Northumberland were also worked in antiquity. Gold coins were used before the Roman invasion arguing not only a certain civilization, but showing also in their design an influence derived from the Greeks of Marseilles and Southern France.

The famous remains of Stonehenge, on Salisbury Plain, Wiltshire, are

Stonehenge.

among the most remarkable of the stone Celtic monuments common to Britain, Ireland, and France. Cæsar, in his account of the Druids, the priests of Celtic paganism, says that those of France made studies in Britain.

FIRST, SECOND, THIRD, AND FOURTH CENTURIES.

Nearly a century elapsed after Cæsar's visit before the Romans again set foot in Britain. Meantime the influence of commerce, and intercourse with the Romanized Celts of Gaul, was preparing a way for the conquest to be accomplished. Here, as elsewhere, Roman conquest was a process owing its permanence to the civilization which partly went before, and which, partly coming after, solidified and strengthened the victories of force.

It was in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, A. D. 43, that the general Aulus Plautius began the permanent Roman occupation of the Island. It was in the reigns of the Emperors Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian that Agricola completed the conquest, A. D. 78–84. A line running between the Friths of Forth and Clyde—*i. e.*, between Edinburgh and Glasgow—was the boundary on the North, and here was constructed a Roman wall, in the times of the Emperor Antoninus Pius, of which vestiges still remain.

Roman Remains.—A more remarkable work was the earlier wall of Hadrian, seventy miles in length, between the Rivers Tyne and Solway. Its ruins are a testimony not only to the engineering skill and science of the Romans, but also to the barbaric valor of the Celtic Picts of the Scottish Highlands, and to the care which protected the rest of Britain from their ravages. Beyond the wall of Antonine, Scotland is covered with vestiges of Roman camps of the armies sent against the Picts. Some of these camps are estimated to have held armies of 30,000 men, and along the wall of Hadrian at least 15,000 soldiers must have been kept in garrison.

For the condition of Britain under Roman rule the matter explanatory of the Empire in general is in point (pp. 126–130). All its provinces resemble one another in the description there given. Besides the ruins of the fortifications mentioned, remains of the Roman period still exist in mosaic pavements of villas and town houses, and in subterranean constructions for the heating of buildings. Coins, and minor works of art and industry are

abundantly found. On a coin of Hadrian appears the first figure of Britannia. The names of towns ending in "chester" indicate a Roman origin—from *castrum* or *castra*, camp. Names ending in "coln" also indicate Roman origin—from *colonia*, colony.

The early diffusion of Christianity among the Roman British is attested by the firm support given the Emperor Constantine during his rise to power by his British legions. Names of the Bishops from Britain appear in ecclesiastical synods of the 4th century. The first British martyr, St. Alban, died at Verulam in England during the persecution under Diocletian, in 304.

Map Study.—See modern maps for the Forth, the Clyde, Edinburgh, Glasgow, the Tyne, the Solway.

FIFTH AND SIXTH CENTURIES.

In the opening of the 5th century after Christ, Britain had been a Roman province for a longer period than is covered by its whole Protestant history. It was in A. D. 411, in consequence of the troubles in Italy, France, and Spain resulting from the invasions of the German tribes (p. 144), that the Emperor Honorius withdrew the Roman Brit-

Roman Ruin at Leicester.

ish legions for service on the Continent. Britain was not at the moment in apparent danger, nor was it intended to abandon the province permanently. But the thickening disasters of the Continental provinces kept the island deprived of her regular military force. The Picts of the Highlands grew continually bolder and more successful in their predatory expeditions. In these they were assisted by "Scots" from Ireland and the Irish settlement in Argyle, and by pirates from the tribes of North Germany.
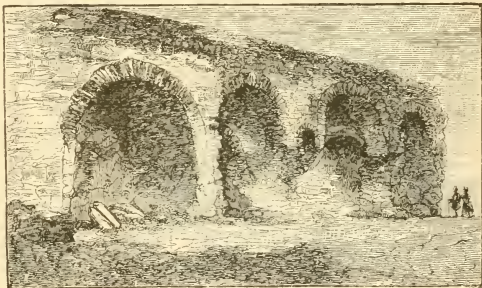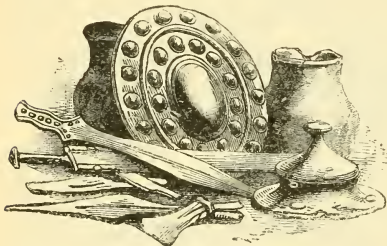
Among the tribes of Germany, those on the Baltic shore and on the North Sea had been naturally most remote from Roman influence. They were therefore not Christians, as were, for instance, the Goths. By nature they were the dullest, as they were in locality the least favored, of the Germans. The three tribes which effected the conquest of England were

known to the Romans, by a general name given to the population of North Germany, as Saxons. The Saxons who settled in England were from the modern province of Holstein. Above them, in Sleswick, were the closely related Angles. Most powerful of the league, their name was adopted by it, and gave the name to England. In the Peninsula of Jutland (Denmark) were settled the Jutes, whose bands landed first in Kent under Hengist and Horsa.

The Anglo-Saxons, under which name the Jutes are included, although long known along the east coast of England as piratical marauders, and just previously engaged in hostile attacks on Britain, had been employed by the British to protect them from the Picts and Scots. Quarrels as to pay arose and, instead of hired protectors, the Anglo-Saxons became the conquerors and exterminators of the British, A. D. 449. (See p. 145.)

The German settlement of England differs remarkably from the German settlements of other Roman provinces. The East and West-Goths, Franks, and Lombards were

British and Saxon Relics, found in the Thames.

joined to the subjugated Roman populations by the ties of religion. The conquerors settled among the conquered, respecting their superior civilization and striving to acquire it. But the conquest of Britain was one of dispossession and extermination. The wealthier and educated British, who escaped the sword, fled to France—especially to Brittany, hence named—or they crowded toward the mountains of Wales, and lost their habits of refinement in the distress of poverty and of warfare, and in the forced association with their more illiterate peasant brethren. The conquest of England was not rapid or immediate. Its gradual process did not, however, lead to a mixture of British and Anglo-Saxons. The latter remained pagans.

KINGDOMS OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS IN ORDER OF FOUNDATION.

Map Study, with reference to Modern Map of England.—The position of **Mercia** was that most advanced toward the west in middle England. It lay in the upper valley of the Trent, by which river line middle England was invaded, and spread from that centre. **East Anglia** lay mainly between the Ouse and Stour, comprehending the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk (North-folk and South-folk). **Deira** lay between the Humber and Tees. **Bernicia** lay between Tees and Forth. The positions of **Essex, Kent,** and **Sussex** are implied in those of the modern counties. The kingdom of **Wessex** first centred about Winchester, was bounded on the east by Essex, Kent, and Sussex, and on the west had a gradually extending border, reaching to the Severn after 552.

Down to the year 600, one hundred and fifty years after the beginning of the Anglo-Saxon settlements, the British had maintained possession of the whole western side of Britain. The extension of the kingdom of Wessex to the west had already, however, in reaching the Severn, separated '' West Wales '' (Somerset and Cornwall) from " North Wales " ; corresponding to the modern Wales, but reaching further east (to the Severn).

In 607, the same king Ethelfrith who united Bernicia and Deira in one Northumbrian kingdom, pushed its territory westward to Chester and then added to it Lancashire. Thus the British were parted into three divided and therefore weakened sections. North of Lancashire lay the third British State, reaching to the Clyde and called Strathclyde. (That part of Strathclyde lying below the present English border was called Cumbria.) Southern Scotland was thus far, therefore, on the west, part of a British State, and on the east, part of Anglo-Saxon Northumbria. Beyond the Forth and Clyde were the Picts, of the same Celtic race with the British, and in Argyle and spreading gradually beyond it, the Irish " Scots," also of the same blood with Picts and British, and at this time superior to either.

SEVENTH AND EIGHTH CENTURIES.

England about 600 A. D.—In the constant changes of frontier during the expulsion of the British and the wars between the different Anglo-Saxon kingdoms, the year 600, not far removed from the first beginnings of Mercian power, is a convenient dividing date. It was just after this year, in 603, that Bernicia and Deira were united as the kingdom of Northumbria, thus reducing the " octarchy " of kingdoms to a " heptarchy." The date 600 also fixes the time at which the heathenism of the Anglo-Saxons began to yield to Christianity.

The first Christian missions arrived in England in 597, despatched from Rome by Pope Gregory the Great. The rival of the Northumbrian Ethelfrith was Ethelbert, king of Kent, whose sway extended also over Essex and East Anglia. The marriage of Ethelbert with Bercta, daughter of a Frankish Merovingian king (Charibert), opened the way for the mission headed by Augustine.

For Bercta, herself a Christian, came to Kent accompanied by a Christian bishop.

"Years before, when but a young deacon, Gregory had noticed the white bodies, the fair faces, the golden hair of some youths who stood bound in the market-place of Rome. 'From what country do these slaves come?' he asked the traders who brought them. 'They are Angles,' the slave-dealers answered. The deacon's pity veiled itself in poetic humor. 'Not Angles, but angels,' he said, 'with faces so angel-like. From what country come they?' 'They come,' said the merchants, ' from Deira.' 'De irâ,' was the untranslatable reply. 'Aye, plucked from God's ire and called to Christ's mercy ; and what is the name of their king ?' 'Aella,' they told him, and Gregory seized on the word as of good omen. ' Alle luia shall be sung there,' he cried and passed on, musing how the angel-faces should be brought to sing it. Years went by, and the deacon had become Bishop of Rome, when Bercta's marriage gave him the opening he sought.

"' Strangers from Rome ' was the title with which the missionaries first fronted the English king. The march of the monks, as they chanted their solemn litany, was in one sense the return of the Roman legions who had retired at the trumpet call of Alaric. It was to the tongue and thought, not of Gregory only, but of such men as the English had slaughtered and driven over sea that Ethelbert listened in the teaching of Augustine. Canterbury, the earliest royal city of German England, became the centre of Latin influence. The Latin tongue became again one of the tongues of Britain, the language of its worship, of its correspondence, its literature. But more than the tongue of Rome returned with Augustine. Practically his landing renewed the union with the Western World which that of Hengist had destroyed. The new England was admitted into the older commonwealth of nations. The civilization, art, and letters which had fled before the sword of the English conquest, returned with the Christian faith. It is impossible not to recognize the influence of the Roman missionaries in the fact that the codes of customary English law began to be put into writing soon after their arrival."—(*Green*, " *Short History of the English People*.")

Times of Northumbrian Ascendency.—In 617 the North-umbrian king, Ethelfrith, was succeeded by Edwin, whose name is retained in Edinburgh (Edwin's-burg), a reminder of the extent and power of Northumbria over Scotland (by union of Bernicia and Deira). Under this king, Essex and East Anglia passed from Kent-ish supremacy to the Northumbrian, and the other Anglo-Saxon states also acknowledged its over-lordship.

With a daughter of the Kentish king, who married the North-umbrian Edwin, the Roman missionaries made their way to North-umbria, and in beginning its conversion secured for the Christian faith the supremacy which the power of Northumbria over England conveyed. Mercia represented the heathen opposition. Its king, Penda, by the battle of Hatfield, 635, in which Edwin was defeated

and slain, checked for the moment the advance of Christianity. But under the new Northumbrian king, Oswald, who summoned missionaries from the Irish monastery at Iona, was founded the Irish monastery on the Island of Lindisfarne, which thenceforth became the stronghold of Christianity in North Britain. The opposition of heathen Mercia was broken in 655 by the battle of Winwœd, near Leeds, won by the Northumbrian Oswi.

In 668 Theodore of Tarsus was dispatched to England from Rome as Archbishop of Canterbury. From him dates the organism as to dioceses, even of the modern English Church. "The conquest of the continent had been wrought either by races such as the Goths, which were already Christian, or by heathens like the Franks, who bowed to the Christian faith of the nations they conquered. To this oneness of religion between the German invaders of the empire and their Roman subjects was owing the preservation of all that survived of the

Portal of the Saxon Church at Monkwearmouth, Durham, built in 674.

Roman world. The Church everywhere remained untouched. The Christian bishop became the defender of the conquered Italian or Gaul against his Gothic and Lombard conqueror; the mediator between the German and his subjects, the one bulwark against barbaric violence and oppression. To the barbarian, on the other hand, he was the representative of all that was venerable in the past, the living record of law, of letters, and of art. But in Britain the priesthood and the people had been exterminated together; the very memory of the older Christian Church which existed in Roman Britain had passed away.

"In his work of organization, in his creation of parishes, in his arrangement of dioceses, and the way in which he grouped them round the See of Canterbury, Theodore was unconsciously doing a political work. The policy of Theodore clothed with a sacred form and surrounded with divine sanctions a unity which had before rested on no basis but the sword. The regular subordination of priest to bishop, of bishop to primate, in the administration of the Church, supplied a mould on which the civil organization of the state quickly shaped itself. The councils gathered by Theodore were the first of all national gatherings for general legislation. It was at a much later time that the Wise men of Wessex, of Mercia or Northumbria, learned

to come together in the " Witenagemote " of all England. It was the ecclesiastical synods which, by their example, led the way to national parliaments, as it was the canons enacted in such synods which led the way to a national system of law."—*Green*.

Caedmon and Bede.—To the kingdom of Northumbria belong the two most famous names of Anglo-Saxon Christianity before Alfred the Great, namely, Caedmon, author of an Anglo-Saxon Biblical poem of the 7th century, and Bede, of the 7th and 8th centuries. Caedmon, a cowherd, became a monk in the monastery of Whitby.

Bede, " the Venerable," spent his whole life in the monastery of Jarrow. " He became, as Burke rightly styled him, the father of English learning. The traditions of the older classic culture were first revived for England in his quotations of Plato and Aristotle, of Seneca and Cicero, of Lucretius and Ovid. In his own eyes, and those of his contemporaries, his most important works were the commentaries and homilies upon various books of the Bible, which he had drawn from the writings of the Fathers. But he was far from confining himself to theology. In treatises compiled as text-books for his scholars, Bede threw together all that the world had then accumulated in astronomy and meteorology, in physics and music, in philosophy, grammar, arithmetic, medicine. In his Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation, Bede was at once the founder of medieval history and the first English historian. His last work was a translation into English of the Gospel of St. John. The completion of its last sentence was the moment of his death, 755 (born about 674)."— *Green*.

The place held by Northumbria as the leading Anglo-Saxon state of the 7th century, was lost before its close. Cumbria, the English portion of Strathclyde, had been conquered from the British, and it was in attempting to subject the Picts beyond the Forth and Clyde that the Northumbrian power was broken—battle of Nechtansmere in Fife, 685.

Mercia became the leading Anglo-Saxon state in the 8th century.—This state now comprised all Central England, from Wales to the Eastern Coast. It reached from the neighborhood of Manchester and Sheffield to the mouth of the Severn, the line of the Thames and the Ouse. Through the 8th century Mercia controlled both Northumbria and the South English states, East Anglia, Sussex, Kent, and Wessex.

NINTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH KINGS OF THE 9TH CENTURY.

Rise of Wessex.—Through the policy of Charlemagne, and his opposition to the growing strength of a kingdom which did not acknowledge his Imperial rule, the power of Mercia was crippled in the 9th century, and replaced by that of Wessex. Egbert, the nominee of the Frankish Court, by its favoring policy established

the over-lordship of Wessex over Mercia and Northumbria, after 823. Egbert styled himself king of the English. (See map at p. 154.)

The Danes.—From the opening of the 9th century and a little earlier, a new barbarian influx began to retard or overthrow the work of Christian civilization in England. The inhabitants of Denmark, of Norway, and of Sweden, also of Germanic blood and nearly related to the English, but destitute of the relative though very backward civilization which three centuries of settled life and two centuries of Christian faith had achieved, began their piratical raids on England. The " Danish " invasions—for as Danes the Northmen generally were known in England—broke the rising power of Wessex, and for two centuries blocked the progress of England.

Danish Settlements.—Between 866 and 871 the Danes passed from pillage and raids to regular settlement. The larger part of England was conquered and held by them—namely, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria—leaving for the kings "of England" only the southern part of the Island and Wessex proper. Thus, in the time of Alfred the Great, 871–901, this king was hard pressed by the Danes in his own little kingdom, and in his times of greatest success his territory reached only a short distance north of the Thames.

This easy conquest by the Danes of more than two-thirds of all England resulted from the jealousy of Northumbria and Mercia, the hitherto powerful states, towards Wessex, and from their indifference as to its success in establishing a new supremacy.

Alfred the Great.—The efforts of Alfred to support the staggering Anglo-Saxon culture were not, however, the less praiseworthy because confined in their range. History has unanimously accorded this king the character of a conscientious and earnest friend of civilization.

" While the country was overrun by the Danes he was said to have entered a peasant's hut, and to have been bidden by the housewife, who did not recognize him, to turn the cakes which were baking on the hearth. The young king did as he was bidden, but in the sad thoughts which came over him he forgot his task, and bore in amused silence the scolding of the good wife, who found her cakes spoiled on her return."

TENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH KINGS OF THE 10TH CENTURY.

After Alfred, who died in 901, the kings of Wessex experienced varying fortunes in their efforts to be kings of all England. The Danes of Northumbria and Mercia seem to have been so far incorporated with the old population that the resistance of England beyond the Thames to Wessex was at least as much local as Danish in its character. During this century foreign invasions of Danes were not frequent or troublesome.

Alfred was succeeded by Edward the Elder, 901-925, who subjected all England. A dangerous revolt of North England followed his death, but Athelstan, 925-940, maintained the supremacy of Wessex, adding to its dominions West Wales,—*i. e.*, Cornwall.

Notwithstanding Athelstan's famous victory of Brunanburgh, 937, his successor, Edmund the "Magnificent," once more yielded up to Danish supremacy all England north of Watling Street, the road from London to Chester—the boundary in Alfred's time of greatest success. His minister, Dunstan, the greatest Englishman of his time, succeeded in restoring the power of Wessex by abandoning to Scotland the Northumbrian territory lying beyond the Tweed and reaching to the Forth and Clyde (p. 318). Thus was established the present boundary between England and Scotland. With a reduced territory to rule, and a balance on the north in Scotland against the Danes of Northumbria, Dunstan continued to hold them in check. His administration lasted through the reign of Edred, 947-955, of Edwig, 955-959, of Edgar, 959-975.

The reign of Edgar is the great time of Anglo-Saxon England. His ships annually cruised round the whole of Britain.

In the reign of Edward "the Martyr," 975-978, the national policy of Dunstan, which had at once ruled and reconciled the northern Danish part of the English dominions, was overturned, and Dunstan died.

The succession of Ethelred "the Unready," 979-1016, found the kings "of England" once more confined to Wessex and Kent.

"**The daily life** of even the noblest of Anglo-Saxons was that of a half-savage people. Their wars and turbulence were not favorable to the cultivation of the domestic virtues. When not engaged in war, the nobles amused themselves in hunting and hawking ; and when the sports of the day were over, all—master and servant—met in the great hall. At the upper end of this, on a dais or raised part, was placed a rude table, canopied with hangings of cloth to serve as a protection from draughts of air and from the rain, which often leaked through the roof, and round this sat the lord, his family, and his guests. This table was served by slaves, who knelt as they offered to each huge joints on the spit, from which the chiefs cut slices with their daggers."

ELEVENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH KINGS OF THE 11TH CENTURY.

Ethelred II. the Unready................ ... ...A. D. (979)–1016
Edmund Ironside, son of the foregoing........... .... "   1016
Canute the Dane .... "   1016–1035
Harold, Harefoot, son of the foregoing.............. .... "   1035–1040
Hardicanute, brother of the foregoing...................... "   1040–1042
Edward the Confessor, son of Ethelred the Unready........... "   1042–1065
Harold............. . ... "   1066
William the Conqueror, of Normandy. .... "   1066–1087
William II., Rufus, son of the foregoing.................... "   1087–1100

A massacre of the Danes in Wessex, 1002, roused among their brethren in Denmark a spirit of vengeance. The conquest of all England was undertaken by King Sweyn, and after his death was accomplished by his son Canute. Edmund Ironside, the son and successor of Ethelred the Unready, had resisted the Danes bravely, but died in a few months.

Canute.—Although Canute was a Christian convert, his conquest and his early reign were stained by cruelty, but for this he atoned by the justice and wisdom of his later rule. His empire comprised England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

The 11th century thus witnessed the final amalgamation of the English Danes with the Anglo-Saxons. But no sooner was this process in completion than a new overthrow and overturning of English society began with the Norman Conquest.

The reigns of Canute's sons, Harold, 1035-1040, and Hardicanute, 1040-1042, and of the Saxon Edward the Confessor, 1042-1065, made no change in English history, except that during this latter reign the way was opened for the Norman Conquest by the introduction of Norman favorites and fashions.

Edward the Confessor.—The popularity of Canute as English king had been strengthened by his marriage with Emma, the widow of Ethelred the Unready. Edward the Confessor, who succeeded the sons of Canute, was the son of Ethelred and Emma. But this widow of two English kings, one Anglo-Saxon and one a Dane, was herself sister of Richard Duke of Normandy. Her son, Edward the Confessor, had been brought up at the Norman Court; his own preferences were for the French civilization which Normandy possessed.

Harold.—At the death of Edward the Confessor in 1065, his minister Harold secured for himself the succession in the absence

of legitimate heirs. The lack of a hereditary title on Harold's part inspired the ambition of William Duke of Normandy to make himself the English sovereign. This ambition was supported by the Norman tendencies of Edward the Confessor's Court, and by the fact that the Danes, who had given three kings to England, and to whom Harold himself belonged on the mother's side, were themselves foreigners in England and of the same blood with the Normans.

The Norman Conquest.—William had, during the lifetime of

Castle of Robert " the Devil," father of William the Conqueror, at Falaise, in Normandy.

Edward, secured the consent of Harold to his succession, and claimed to have received that of Edward. He thus considered Harold's election as a personal defiance, and landed in England with an army of 60,000 men. In the battle of Senlac, near Hastings, 1066, the English army was routed, and Harold was killed.

Not without bloody resistance did William master the country subsequently, but the superiority of Norman discipline was too great for any permanent check to his plans. The resistance was sufficient, however, to excuse a general confiscation of the Anglo-Saxon landed property. The Saxons were reduced to the level of an inferior and disinherited race. At least 60,000 estates were parceled out for the foreigners, and the word " bond," which originally meant an Anglo-Saxon free farmer, gained the new sense indicated by the word bondage.

Notwithstanding the suffering and misery inflicted by the Norman conquest, England first gained by it the union of her hitherto rival and contending provinces, and the beginnings of all her later civilization.

William the Conqueror was a great organizer and legislator. He abolished the English slave-trade, hitherto carried on at Bristol in great extent. He abolished the death penalty, and protected the Jews. The " Star-Chamber " was so called from the " starrs," or bonds, of

the Jews there deposited. The genius of William suppressed the insubordination of the nobles he had enriched, by the use of the old English local law. He thus supported the authority of the crown by courts of justice to which the barons were obliged to pay deference. The completeness of system by which William reorganized England is indicated by the still existing Domesday Book, a complete register of the landed estates.

GENEALOGY OF THE NORMAN AND PLANTAGENET LINES IN THE 11TH AND 12TH CENTURIES.

William the Conqueror.

Robert.   William Rufus.   Henry I.   Adela = Count of Blois.

Stephen.

Matilda. = Geoffrey of Anjou.

Henry II.

Richard.   John.
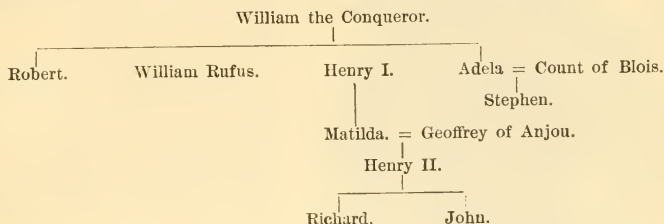
TWELFTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH KINGS OF THE 12TH CENTURY.

Henry I., son of the Conqueror.............................. A. D. 1100–1135
Matilda, granddaughter of the Conqueror........ .... " 1135–1153
Stephen, grandson of the Conqueror......................... " 1135–1154
Henry II., son of Matilda.... .... " 1154–1189
Richard I., son of the foregoing............................. " 1189–1199

Union of Normandy, Brittany, and England.—William the Conqueror had left the Duchy of Normandy, with Brittany and Maine, which he had also conquered, to his eldest son Robert, and England to his second son William Rufus. But after the death of Rufus, in 1100, the third son of William, Henry I., united Normandy, Brittany and Maine under one government with England.

Edmund Ironsides, the valiant defender of the Saxons against the Danes, had left two sons, who made their escape to Hungary. One of these sons, Edgar Atheling, had been elected English king, after the death of Harold, by the Saxon opposition to William the Conqueror. The sister of Edgar Atheling married Malcolm, king of Scotland—the daughter of this marriage married Henry I.; thus the Saxon and Norman lines were united.

Times of Stephen and Matilda.—The only son of Henry I. was drowned at sea. By the king's will, his daughter Matilda, was to succeed him. She had been married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, son of the Duke of Anjou. The succession of a daughter to the throne was not in accordance with Norman feudal ideas. (The law of primogeniture—*i. e.*, succession of the eldest son, was brought to England from Normandy.) The daughter of the

Conqueror, Adela, had married the Count of Blois. Stephen, the son of this marriage, and grandson of the Conqueror, became a rival claimant for the English throne. The contentions of the parties of Matilda and Stephen filled England with disorder and bloodshed till 1153. In this year a compromise gave to Stephen the throne, and to Matilda's son Henry the succession. This fell to him with the death of Stephen, a year after, in 1154.
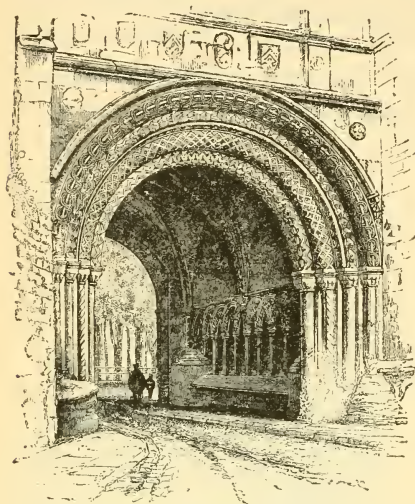
Norman Gateway at Bristol.

The line of Plantagenet (the name is derived from *planta genista,* the broom plant which Geoffrey wore in his helmet), is also called the Angevin (Anjevin), from the province of Anjou. The native French of Anjou were of different race from the Normans, and on account of close neighborhood to Normandy, the more bitterly inimical. The feudal rivalries of French provinces in the early Middle Age were fully as pronounced as national rivalries in our own day. The intermarriage with Anjou had been arranged by Henry I. to conciliate this hostility, but the distinction between the Norman line ending with Henry I. and the Angevin line beginning with Henry II. is highly important.

The Line of Anjou acquires Acquitaine.—Before the accession of Henry II., 1154–1189, he had married Eleanor of Poitou, heiress of Acquitaine, a word implying, at this time, the Southwest Provinces of France—Poitou, Saintonge, Auvergne, Périgord, the Limousin, the Angoumois, Guienne, and Gascony. Thus the Line of Anjou was a dynasty of French barons, ruling the larger part of France, whose dominions also included England. It is customary to speak of English possessions in France, but, till a century later, fact and feeling would have warranted the opposite phrase, of French possession in England. The Anjous were far more powerful than the French king. (See map for the age of the Crusades, p. 182, and compare p. 187.)

The policy of Henry II. in England was not, however, anti-English. As a sovereign, he showed much political moderation, but this moderation was devoted to an impos-

sible end, the combination of really unheterogeneous dominions. In his famous struggle with Thomas à Becket, he exhibited that error of a purely political conception of the Church often found in English and in other sovereigns.

Thomas à Becket had served the king as soldier and Chancellor, but when appointed to the See of Canterbury he resisted Henry's efforts to control the appointments of bishops, and to bring the clergy under control of the secular courts. The irritation consequently engendered cost him his life. Four knights of Henry's train, seizing on an impatient word, perhaps intended to excite them to the act, murdered Becket in his own Cathedral. The affection in which the memory of the martyr was held by the people, the immense riches heaped on his shrine, its reputation throughout the Middle Age all over Europe, show that the cause which he died to protect was dear to the common people.

The reign of Richard I., 1189–1199, was more that of an adventurous French knight than of an English king. He was called Cœur de Lion (the lion-hearted). His adventures on the third Crusade belong to the details of the Crusades rather than to English history. He was succeeded by his brother John. For mention of Richard I. see pp. 186, 195.

THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH KINGS OF THE 13TH CENTURY.

John, brother of the foregoing king.......................... A. D. (1199)– 1216
Henry III., son of the foregoing........................ .   "   1216 – 1272
Edward I., "   "   "   ....   "   1272 –(1307)

John was wicked, bold, and enterprising. These traits were apparent in his treatment of his nephew, Arthur of Brittany (p. 190), who was legal heir to the throne as son of John's elder brother, Geoffrey. The cause of Arthur was supported by Philip II. of France, and this led to England's loss of all her French provinces but Gascony and Guienne. The French Normans had lost sympathy with their kindred, so long established in England, and they preferred the rule of the French king to the rule of the hated Anglo-French Angevins. The Channel Islands, Alderney, Jersey, and Guernsey, are still retained by England—a relic of the loss of Normandy under John.

The Magna Charta, conceded by John to his Barons at Runnymede in 1215, was wrung from unwilling hands. The English Constitution of modern times looks back to this charter as its foundation. The complaints of the Anglo-Norman Barons which

the charter was granted to satisfy, had been especially caused by the favors, offices, and estates showered by the Line of Anjou on its own French kin. But Stephen Langton, Primate of Canterbury (appointee of Pope Innocent III.), chiefly instrumental in the execution of the charter, took a national standpoint as a churchman above the discontents of the feudal party, and used its arm to assert the personal liberty of the subject in general.

Magna Charta Island, near Runnymede.

A copy of the charter still hangs in the British Museum, injured by age and fire, but with the royal seal still hanging from the brown shriveled parchment. "No freeman" (ran the memorable article which lies at the base of the whole English judicial system) " shall be seized, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or in any way brought to ruin ; we will not go against any man, nor send against him, save by legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. To no man will we sell " (runs another article) " or deny or delay right or justice."

John was succeeded by his son Henry III., 1216–1272. Henry's mother had remained in Poitou and in place of Angevin favorites England was now overrun by Poitevin favorites. The king's marriage with Eleanor of Provence had also given rich offices to French Provençals. Henry's disposition was easy, his tastes refined. The Abbey of Westminster dates from his reign. The same disposition to rule as a Frenchman over foreigners exhibited by John and Richard continued.

Beginnings of a House of Commons.—Therefore, as in the reign of John, the feudal insubordination of the Barons coincided with the national English interest. This baronial party was headed, but in the national sense, by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, son of the Simon de Montfort of the Albigensian wars (p. 190).

From his summons of a Parliament in 1264 is dated the germ of the House of Commons, two citizens being summoned from every borough. " It was the writ issued by Earl Simon which first summoned the merchant and the trader to sit beside the knight of the shire, the baron, and the bishop, in the Parliament of the realm."

With Edward I., 1272-1307, the English sovereign first became a really national ruler. Parliamentary government was now so far established that statutes of this reign, if unrepealed, are still

valid English law. The organization of justice and of government was generally amended. In addition to his activity as administra-
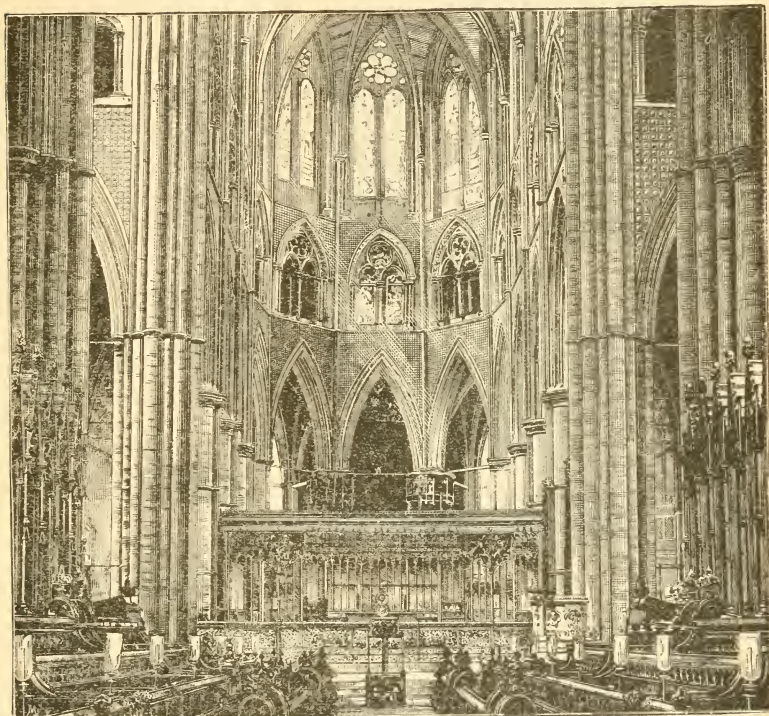
Choir of Westminster Abbey, London.

tor and organizer, Edward I. accomplished the English conquest of Wales, which he ruled justly after conquest. His son, afterward Edward II., was the first who bore the title "Prince of Wales," since given the eldest son of English kings.

Wars with Scotland.—The reign of Edward I. is also distinguished by the wars with Scotland, continued in the time of his successor, Edward II., and finally leading in the reign of Edward III. to the wars with France, which lasted till the middle of the 15th century.

Summary of Scotch history until the time of Edward I.—After the time when the barbaric Picts had, by their ravages, brought about the Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain, the Irish colony of "Scots" (p. 317), first settled in Argyle, had gradually increased in territory and influence until, with Kenneth McAlpine, about 843 A. D., the "Scottish" line of kings ruled the whole territory of North Britain as far as the borders of Northumbria. This territory was called, in consequence, "Scotland." The Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Northumbria included the Lowlands of modern Scotland, reaching to Edinburgh and Glasgow. But in the 10th century the Lowlands were ceded by Dunstan, thus fixing the Tweed as the southern border of Scotland. As the Scotch (or Irish) kings now controlled a country settled by Anglo-Saxons, they assimilated with them, and relations of friendship were cultivated with the Anglo-Saxons of England, on account of the mutual hostility toward the Danes.

Salisbury Cathedral, 13th century.

After the Norman conquest of England, the daughter of the Scotch king, Malcolm, who had married the sister of the Anglo-Saxon Edgar Atheling (p. 363), was married to the Norman king, Henry I. Friendly relations were consequently cultivated with the Anglo-Normans, many of whom gained estates in the Scotch Lowlands. Among these Normans were the families of Balliol and of Bruce.

During a revolt of the barons against Henry II., the Scotch king William the Lion took part, and was made prisoner by the English king. To gain his freedom, William consented that the Scotch lords should pay direct allegiance to the English crown. This direct feudal dependence was remitted by Richard I. for a sum of money, but a theoretical over-lordship was still conceded to England.

The Scotch Succession.—Edward I. attempted to replace the theoretic English overlordship over Scotland by direct supremacy, under the following conditions: Alexander III. of Scotland, dying in 1290, left as only heir his grandchild, the daughter of a Norwegian king, hence called the "Maid of Norway." It had been arranged that she should marry the son of Edward I., but her death on the voyage to Scotland left the throne vacant. Of thirteen pretenders to the succession, the three most important referred their dispute to Edward I. Pending its settlement, he occupied Scotland as its feudal over-lord. By the extinction of the line of William the Lion, the right of succession passed to the daughters of his brother David. John Balliol rested his claim on descent from the first of these. Robert Bruce was descended from the second.

Edward's decision in favor of Balliol was accepted by Scotland, but the English

king proceeded to require judicial dependence of the country on an English court of appeal. Foreign military service from the Scotch barons was also demanded. Balliol first consented, but Scottish sentiment forced him to retract his consent. A secret alliance with France emboldened the Scotch to take an attitude of open defiance. Balliol refused to attend Edward's parliament and besieged the town of Carlisle. Edward's answer was the siege of Berwick and massacre of its citizens. "The massacre only ceased when a procession of priests bore the host to the king's presence, praying for mercy, and Edward, with a sudden and characteristic burst of tears, called off his troops." Edinburgh, Stirling, and Perth opened their gates. Bruce joined the English army, and Balliol himself surrendered and passed without a blow from his throne to an English prison.

William Wallace.—The disgraceful submission of their leaders brought the people themselves to the front. "The genius of an outlaw knight, William Wallace, saw in their smouldering discontent a hope of freedom for his country, and his daring raids on outlying parties of English soldiery roused the Lowlands into revolt. The instinct of the Scotch has guided them aright in choosing Wallace for their national hero. He was the first to sweep aside the technicalities of feudal law and to assert freedom as a national birthright." His victory near Stirling, in 1297, was followed by the defeat of Falkirk, in 1298. After some changes of fortune Edward succeeded, 1305, in reconquering the whole of Scotland. A general amnesty was extended to all who had shared in the revolt. The execution of Wallace was the one blot on Edward's clemency.

FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH KINGS OF THE 14TH CENTURY.

Edward I., son of the foregoing king.................... ......A. D. (1272)–1307
Edward II., " " " " " .... " 1307–1327
Edward III., " " " " " .... " 1327–1377
Richard II., grandson of the foregoing king................ " 1377–1399

Robert Bruce.—"Edward was preparing for a joint parliament of the two countries at Carlisle, when the conquered country suddenly sprang again to arms under Robert Bruce, the grandson of one of the original claimants to the crown. The withdrawal of Balliol gave new force to his claims. The discovery of an intrigue which Bruce had set on foot so roused Edward's jealousy that Bruce fled for life across the border. In the church of the Grey Friars at Dumfries he met Comyn, the Lord of Badenoch, to whose treachery he attributed the disclosure of his plans, and after the interchange of a few hot words struck him with his dagger to the ground. Bruce, for very safety, was obliged, six weeks after, to assume the crown in the Abbey of Scone."

The new Scotch war thus begun was crippled by the death of Edward I. in 1307, and under his son Edward II. the English lost their hold on Scotland. The battle of Bannockburn, 1314, was the decisive victory of Bruce. "For centuries after, the rich plunder of the English camp left its traces on the treasure and vestment rolls of castle and abbey."

Edward II., 1307–1327, lacked the force of his father, and his reign is filled with the successful resistance of the barons to the rule of his ministers and favorites.

Under Edward III. troubles with France caused the final abandonment of Scotland, in 1339.

Reign of Edward III., 1327–1377.—The loss of Normandy, of Brittany and other provinces under John, had left the English kings still masters of part of the inheritance of Eleanor of Acquitaine; of Guienne, Gascony, and the Limousin (p. 195). For these provinces the English kings owed feudal homage to the French sovereigns. The tendency of the French kings to absorb the feudal provinces under royal government thus made them hereditary foes of England.

The Anglo-French Wars.—The outbreak of the war with France under Edward III., in 1339, was really caused by this French jealousy, which led France to take advantage of the Scotch wars for acts of open or concealed hostility. Philip IV. had seized Guienne during the war of Edward I. in Scotland. Edward III. now laid claim to the French throne, but his claim was simply a form of declaring war.

Claim of Edward III. to the French Throne.—Edward III. was grandson of Philip IV. by his mother, and as a measure of war claimed the French throne against Philip VI. (king since 1327), grandson of Philip III. Philip VI. was farther removed, but on account of being in the direct male line, he was the legal French heir. (Genealogy, p. 196.)

Treaty of Bretigny.—Soon after the brilliant English victory of Crécy, in 1346, Calais was also taken, and four years after the English victory of Poitiers, in 1356, the treaty of Bretigny was concluded. By this treaty the English claim to Normandy and Brittany, and to the French throne, was abandoned, 1360. But the possessions of Southwestern France, generally comprised under the title of Guienne, were given to the English, not as feudal fiefs, which they had been hitherto, but as absolute possessions (map, p. 200).

Notwithstanding this treaty, under Charles V. the Wise, successor of the French king John who had been made prisoner at Poitiers, the French national spirit renewed the war. The English were practically cleared from France for the time being. Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne alone were still held. The Black Prince, the English hero of the wars with France, died before his father.
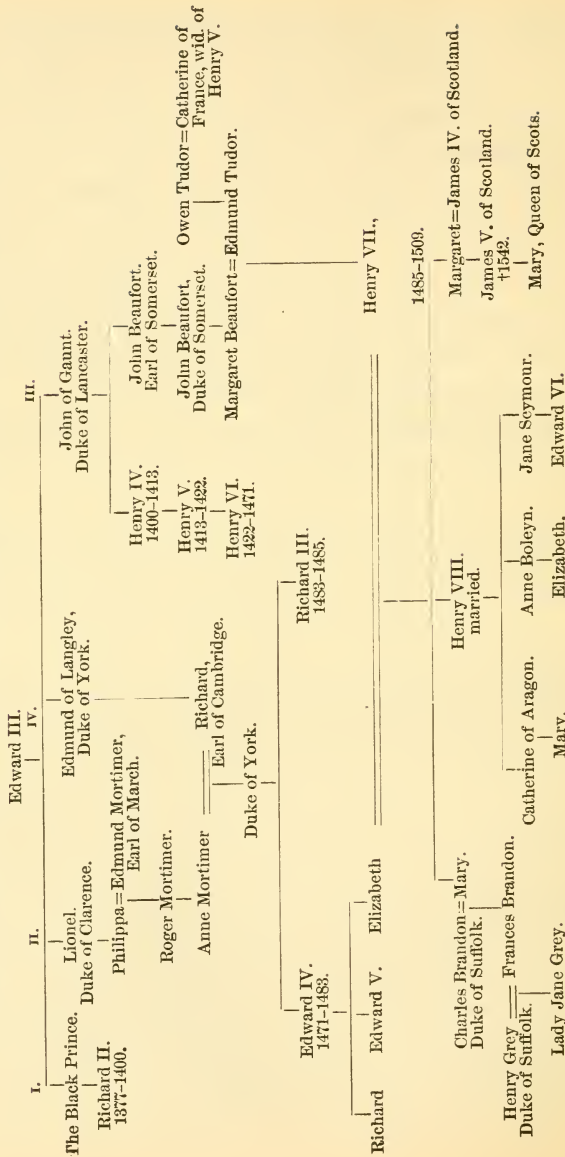
Richard II., 1377–1399, son of the Black Prince, came to the

throne just at the moment when public dissatisfaction with the disasters abroad was aggravated by taxes laid to prosecute the war. Thus was occasioned the popular rising under Wat Tyler, 1381. The serfs and peasants who supported this revolt had no hostility to the king personally, and by his bold and shrewd management the insurrection was suppressed. But " the brilliant abilities which Richard II. shared with the rest of the Plantagenets were marred by fitful inconstancy and a mean spirit of revenge." Henry of Lancaster, the eldest son of the late king's brother (John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster), had been by this temper unjustly driven into banishment. For the expense of a campaign in Ireland (p. 329) his inheritance was confiscated at the death of his father.

Henry of Lancaster, taking advantage of Richard's absence in Ireland, landed in Yorkshire with a small band. This rapidly increased, so that when the king returned to England his cause was already lost. The personal resentment of Henry of Lancaster was supported by the general discontent of the nation, especially excited by Richard's peace policy toward France. The king was deposed in 1399, dying, probably by violence, in the next year.

Civilization.—" Gradually the higher classes became more refined. The use of spices in cookery gave new relish to their food; glass windows, earthen vessels, coal fires, and candle-light added to the comfort of their homes; but furniture was still scanty. The use of tiles instead of thatch improved their dwellings. The leading merchants dealt in wool. Even the kings did not disdain this trade. The value of money is shown by wages. Haymakers got a penny a day; carpenters, twopence; and masons, threepence. The courtiers wore a coat half blue, half white, with deep sleeves; trousers reaching to the knee, stockings of different colors, and shoes with toes so long that they were fastened by golden chains to the girdle. A close hood of silk, embroidered with strange figures of animals, enclosed the head. The ladies wore a towering head-dress like a mitre, some two feet high, from which floated a whole rainbow of gay ribbons. Their trains were long; their tunics of many colors. They wore two daggers in a golden belt, and rode to the tournament and the forest on steeds of fiery spirit. The tournament was still the first of sports; but there were also tilting at the ring, when knights strove at full horse-speed to carry off on the point of a leveled lance a suspended ring, and tilting at a wooden figure, which, swinging on a pivot, bore with outstretched arm a wooden sword. He who struck fairly in the centre was untouched; but if the lance struck too much on one side, the awkward tilter caught a sound blow from the wooden sword as he rode past the whirling image (p. 180). The great pastime of the lower classes was archery.

GENEALOGY SHOWING THE RIVAL CLAIMS OF YORK AND LANCASTER AND THEIR UNION UNDER HENRY VII.

Edward III.

I.   II.   III.   IV.

I. The Black Prince. — Richard II. 1377–1400.

II. Lionel. Duke of Clarence. — Philippa = Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March. — Roger Mortimer. — Anne Mortimer = Richard, Earl of Cambridge. — Duke of York. — Edward IV. 1471–1483; Richard III. 1483–1485. — Richard, Edward V., Elizabeth.

Edmund of Langley, Duke of York.

III. John of Gaunt. Duke of Lancaster. — John Beaufort. Earl of Somerset. — John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset. — Margaret Beaufort = Edmund Tudor. — Henry IV. 1400–1413; Henry V. 1413–1422; Henry VI. 1422–1471.

Owen Tudor = Catherine of France, wid. of Henry V.

Henry VII., 1485–1509.

Margaret = James IV. of Scotland. — James V. of Scotland. †1542. — Mary, Queen of Scots.

Henry VIII. married. — Catherine of Aragon. Anne Boleyn. Jane Seymour. — Mary. Elizabeth. Edward VI.

Henry Grey Duke of Suffolk. = Frances Brandon. — Charles Brandon = Mary. Duke of Suffolk. — Lady Jane Grey.

FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH KINGS OF THE 15TH CENTURY.

Henry IV. had been made king by the party in favor of war with France, but various revolts during his reign, especially that of the Percies (the Earl of Northumberland and his son Henry Hotspur), and of Wales under Owen Glendower, kept him busy at home.

Henry V. took up the war which was needed to support the popularity of the House of Lancaster. France was divided by the internal party quarrels of Orleanists and Burgundians (p. 201). The French king, Charles VI., was insane. The surrender of Acquitaine was offered, but Henry was bent on the reconquest of Normandy. The English victory of Azincourt, 1415, was no less brilliant than those of Crécy and Poitiers. The English had already conquered Normandy when the assassination of the Duke of Burgundy on the bridge of Montereau (p. 202), in the presence of the Dauphin (whom he had met there under flag of truce) threw the Burgundian party into an English alliance. Having possession of the mad king, the Burgundians married his daughter Catherine to Henry V., declaring him French regent and next in succession. (Treaty of Troyes, 1420.)

Henry VI., 1422–1471, but nine years old when his father died, was the heir of these pretensions, and was afterwards actually crowned king of France at Paris. In this closing period of the Anglo-French wars, when the fortunes of France appeared at lowest ebb, the heroism of Joan of Arc and the new national spirit of

the French freed their country by degrees of the invader, at whose mercy it had appeared to be. In 1454 Guienne was finally and entirely lost by the English. Calais was the only remnant of their possessions in France.

Rivalries of York and Lancaster.—The unsuccessful conduct of the foreign war created a discontent at home which found an outbreak in the Kentish rebellion, headed by John Cade, 1450. Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, whose maladministration had caused this rebellion, resumed his place at the head of the royal council after its force was spent. In the childlessness of the king this Duke, son of an illegitimate son of John of Gaunt, appeared to be aiming at the crown, although excluded from succession by the act of Parliament which recognized the House of Lancaster. His ambition was favored by the fact that the regencies owing to the minority of Henry VI. were now replaced by regencies owing to incapacities by sickness.

The Duke of York opposed the ambition of Somerset. He was son of Anne Mortimer and Richard, Earl of Cambridge, and claimed to be heir presumptive by descent from Edmund of Langley, fourth son of Edward III. (p. 372). He was made Protector during a malady of the king by Parliament. The recovery of the king caused the restoration of Somerset. A struggle ensued between the two Dukes. The Duke of Somerset (Edmund Beaufort) was slain at St. Albans, 1455. The title passed to his brother (John Beaufort).

Wars of the Roses.—Meantime, to Henry VI. had been born a son. Hence a new claim of the Duke of York, as the son of Anne Mortimer and descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, second son of Edward III., to be the legitimate king instead of Henry VI. (While York had expected to succeed the king, this claim to supplant him had been held in reserve.) The white rose was the badge of York, the red rose the badge of Lancaster. The contests of York and Lancaster are therefore known as the "Wars of the Roses." Their general result was the self-destruction of the feudal baronage of England. They lasted thirty years, from 1455 to 1485.

With Edward IV., son of the Duke of York, who finally supplanted Henry VI. in 1471, thus began, by this self-destruction of the barons, the period of royal absolutism in England. Richard III., 1483–1485, the brother of Edward IV., usurped the crown at his death, but held it only for two years. His rule was statesmanlike, but the murder of his nephews (Edward V. and his brother) in the Tower of London deprived him of national sympathy. Slain in the battle of Bosworth Field, 1485, he gave place to a sovereign who united the claims of York and Lancaster.

Henry VII., 1485–1509, grandson of Jŏhn Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, was the only surviving Lancasterian, *i. e.*, descendant of John of Gaunt (p. 372). He married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., thus settling all difficulties of succession. The use of artillery gave him complete ascendency over feudal insubordination.

Knights of the 15th Century. Design of the period.

William Caxton.—In the reign of Edward IV. William Caxton introduced the printing press into England, 1476. Caxton's own accounts show us the uncertainties still existing in his time in the use of English.

" Common English that is spoken in one shire varyieth from another so much, that in my days it happened that certain merchants were in a ship in Thames, for to have sailed over the sea to Zealand and for lack of wind they tarried at Foreland and went on shore for to refresh them. And one of them, named Sheffield, a mercer, came into a house and asked for meat and especially he asked for eggs. And the good wife answered that she could speak no French. And the merchant was angry, for he also could speak no French, but would have had eggs, but she understood him not. And then at last another said he would have eyren, then the good wife said she understood him well. Lo, what should a man in these days now write, eggs or eyren ? "

Ladies' Head-dress ; 15th Century.
(*Elizabeth Woodville, wife of Edward IV.*)

The testimony of language proves that the whole period from the Norman Conquest to Henry VII. (1066-1485) was required to unite the Norman-French and Anglo-Saxons in the nation of modern English. Before William the Conqueror English was Anglo-Saxon, that is a dialect of German approaching the Dutch. After the conquest French was long the only language of polite society and literature. Henry II. and Richard I. did not know English. The amalgamation of the two tongues was fairly advanced in the time of Chaucer's Canterbury Tales (14th century), but all public documents were in French till the time of Henry VII. (They were in Latin from William the Conqueror to Henry III.)

The birth of English literature, as regards its matter, was in the districts bordering on Wales. Geoffrey of Monmouth (time of Henry I.) gave to England the stories of King

Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, fables which had been carried to Brittany by fugitive British, and were then returned to Wales (p. 307).

SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS OF THE 16TH CENTURY.

Henry VII. (Tudor Line) . . . . A. D. 1485–1509
Henry VIII., son of the foregoing . . . . " 1509–1547
Edward VI., " " " " . . . . " 1547–1553
Mary, sister " " " . . . . " 1553–1558
Elizabeth, sister " " " . . . . " 1558–1603

Henry VIII., 1509–1547, was the second king of the Tudor line. This line is so called from Owen Tudor, a Welsh knight, who married the French widow of Henry VI. and was paternal grandfather of Henry VII.

Period of Charles V.—In the active development of the 16th century maritime discovery, assisted by the mariner's compass, was enlarging the conception of the world. Italian cultivation was spreading over Northern Europe. The art of printing was widening the field of knowledge. Modern State governments were replacing the disorderly violence of feudal institutions. England, under these influences, played her part in the wars and diplomatic controversies of the period of Charles V. and Francis I. Her alliance was alternately sought in the quarrels of these princes, and her importance increased from this position of third party and make-weight in Continental affairs. The celebrated tournament of the Field of the Cloth of Gold, 1520, on occasion of an alliance between Henry VIII. and Francis I., indicates the general luxury and extravagant display of the time and its new sources of wealth.

King's College Chapel, Cambridge ; 1479–1515.

The contemporary Lutheran schism now exerted an unhappy influence over England. Henry VIII. had written a book against Luther, for which Pope Leo X. gave him the title of "Defender of the Faith," nor did he in the matter of Church doctrine appear later as the par-

tisan of novelty. His temper, however, was stubborn, and he did not distinguish his position as an almost absolute ruler of England—a position to which here as elsewhere the anti-feudal and popular tendencies were favorable—from a position of spiritual insubordination to the Head of the Church. His wife, Catherine of Aragon, was a daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. She was first married to Henry's elder brother Arthur, who soon after died.

The Act of Supremacy.—A Papal dispensation had allowed Henry to marry his brother's wife. The absence of male heirs is said to have created conscientious scruples in the king's mind as to the validity of such a marriage, notwithstanding the dispensation. The king, however, with some inconsistency, did not doubt that a divorce under Papal dispensation would be valid. This he could not obtain. A passion for Anne Boleyn, one of the ladies of his court, thus led Henry VIII. to separate his kingdom from its religious subordination to the Roman Pontiff. The Act of Supremacy, 1534, made the English sovereign head of the English Church. Henry did not hesitate to execute the death penalty on those who refused to swear allegiance under the new forms—for instance, on Sir Thomas More, his former minister, " in the general opinion of Europe the foremost Englishman of his time."

The separation of England from the Roman Church was prompted by the royal anxiety for a divorce, and had nothing to do with even the pretense of a " reformation," but it opened the doors for the overthrow in England of the forms and of the faith of the Church. For the time being, however, the death penalty was inflicted equally on those who denied Transubstantiation and on those who denied the king's supremacy.

During the ascendency of Henry's minister, Thomas Cromwell, who succeeded Cardinal Wolsey (his first great minister), the suppression of monasteries and destruction of shrines was carried on with ruthless hand, as a means of filling the treasury of a king who still inflicted the death penalty for denial of the Real Presence. It even happened that a " Sacramentary " (denier of Transubstantiation) was burned with the wood of a statue from a shrine.

Throughout the reign of Henry VIII. the Mass was retained, although a year before his death the substitution of an English Communion Service had been proposed.

After the execution of Anne Boleyn on a charge of infidelity, Henry had married Jane Seymour, who died after the birth of a son. He then married, successively, Anne of Cleves, from whom he was divorced; Catherine Howard, who was beheaded for infidelity, and Catherine Parr, who outlived him. By these three

later wives he had no children.   His daughter Mary was the child
of Catherine of Aragon ;   his daughter Elizabeth was the child of
Anne Boleyn.

Edward VI., 1547–1553, was a youth without genius or de-
cided character, who died before any influence in the government
was allowed him.   England was governed by his uncle and guardian,
the brother of Jane Seymour.   The " Protector " owed his title of
Duke of Somerset and his power to this relationship.   From his
rule dates the institution of the Protestant forms of worship in
England.

The **English Reformation.**—The position of the Protector was without the stability
of royal hereditary right, and required a party support. "The hope of support from the
Protestants united with Somerset's personal predilections, in his patronage of the innovations
[in religion] against which Henry had battled to the last. Priests were permitted to marry ;
the new Communion, which had taken the place of the Mass, was ordered to be administered
in both kinds; an English Book of Common Prayer, the Liturgy, which with slight alterations
is still used in the Church of England, replaced the Missal and Breviary, from which its con-
tents are mainly drawn, 1548.* The power of preaching was restricted, by the use of licences,
to the friends of the Primate, Cranmer. While all counter arguments were rigidly suppressed,
a crowd of Protestant pamphleteers flooded the country with vehement invectives against the
Mass and its ' superstitious ' accompaniments. The assent of the nobles about the court was
won by the suppression of chantries and religious guilds, and by glutting their greed with the
last spoils of the Church. German and Italian mercenaries were introduced to stamp out the
wider popular discontent which broke out in the East, in the West, and in the Midland Coun-
ties. The Cornishmen refused to accept the new service, ' because it is like a Christmas Game.'
Revolt was everywhere stamped out in blood ; but the weakness which the Protector had shown
in presence of the danger, and the irritation caused by the sanction he had given to the agra-
rian demands of the insurgents, ended in his fall. He was forced by his own party to resign,
and his power passed to the Earl of Warwick, to whose ruthless severity the suppression of
the revolt was mainly due. The change of governors, however, brought about no change of
system. The rule of the upstart nobles who formed the Council of Regency became simply a
rule of terror. All that men saw was religious and political chaos, in which ecclesiastical
order had perished, and in which politics was dying down into the squabbles of a knot of
nobles over the spoils of the Church and the Crown. But while the courtiers gorged them-
selves with manors, the treasury grew poorer. The coinage was debased. Crown lands to the
value of five millions of money [*i. e.*, twenty-five millions of dollars] had been granted away
to the friends of Somerset and Warwick. The royal expenditure had mounted, in seventeen
years, to more than four times its previous total."—(*Green's " Short History of the English
People." The extracts are condensed from pages* 364, 365, 366, 367.)

---

* "The most beautiful portions of the English Prayer Book are translations from the
Roman Breviary."—*Froude's History of England.*

In the reign of Mary, 1553–1558, the Catholic worship was restored by almost unanimous vote of the Parliament, and the authority of the Pope over the English Church was re-established. But the marriage of Mary with Philip II. of Spain roused the national English jealousy of foreign interference and damaged her personal popularity. Her reputation with later times has been much injured by her persecution of the Protestants. Among many others who suffered death by this persecution, was Archbishop Cranmer, who had himself, during the reign of Edward VI., inflicted death by fire on those who denied the divinity of Christ.

Calais, the last English possession in France, was lost at the close of this reign, 1558 (p. 266).

Lady Jane Grey.—At the opening of Mary's reign the Protestant party had attempted to revise the provisions of the will of Henry VIII. regulating the succession. Lady Jane Grey, grand-daughter of a sister of Henry VIII., had been proposed in her stead. The ambition of the Protector, Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland (who succeeded Somerset in 1549), had procured the marriage of Lady Jane Grey with one of his sons, Guildford Dudley, and the signing by Edward VI. of a will in her favor. Lady Jane Grey was proclaimed Queen by Northumberland's influence, but the temper of the people rebelled against this usurpation. Northumberland was obliged by public sentiment to abandon the cause of his daughter-in-law, and she was confined in the Tower.

A second rising, headed by Lady Jane Grey's father, on announcement of Mary's proposed marriage with Philip II., caused the execution of the unfortunate lady, and of the lords whose ambition had placed her in a false position. Her learning and goodness, and her own innocence of ambitious designs, have excited much sympathy for her unhappy fate.

Elizabeth, 1558–1603.—According to the will of Henry VIII., Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth were all made heirs to the throne, and the latter succeeded her sister without opposition. She had been educated in the Protestant faith, and soon after her accession the Protestant party was again brought into power, and the Protestant worship was re-established.

Elizabeth refused the title of Head of the Church, opposed the marriage of clergy, and favored many usages of Catholic worship which were obnoxious to the Protestants, such as altars, candles, crosses, and images, but her character was worldly, her predilection for Catholic forms a matter of sentiment rather than of religious feeling, and it was her policy not to disaffect the powerful English Catholic party.

The acknowledged legitimate successor of Elizabeth was Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, grand-daughter of Henry Eighth's sister Margaret (p. 372). The English Catholic party, in expectation of Mary's succession, viewed with less repugnance the government of Elizabeth.

Mary Queen of Scots was brought up in France ; her first

Mary Queen of Scots.
(*From a portrait of the time.*)

husband was Francis II., who died in 1560 (p. 266). She then returned to Scotland and married her cousin, Lord Darnley. The marriage, made for state reasons, was an unhappy one. Darnley murdered Rizzio, her Italian State Secretary, in Mary's own presence. The mysterious assassination of Lord Darnley, and Mary's sudden (perhaps compulsory) marriage with his presumed murderer, the Earl of Bothwell, were followed by her imprisonment in Lochleven Castle, 1567. Thence she fled, in 1568, to England, and placed herself in the hands of Elizabeth for safety.

For eighteen years she was kept in captivity. Being not only legal heir, as all conceded, but also, in view of Elizabeth's illegitimacy, the legally existing queen in Catholic estimation, there was every probability that her party would at once place her on the English throne, if she were allowed her freedom. If, on the other hand, Mary's life were sacrificed, there would no longer be a Catholic successor in prospect, and an immediate revolt of the Catholic party against Elizabeth was then to be expected. Hence her long captivity. But this captivity was a constant invitation to plots and revolts against the government, and to this state of things she finally became a victim.

The execution of the Queen of Scots in 1587 for alleged complicity in the " Babington " conspiracy was the signal for all the disturbances of Elizabeth's later reign.

The sentence reached Fotheringay on the 7th of February. Mary listened, as it was read to her, with an unmoved countenance. "My lords," she said, "the day has arrived at last long expected by me, and long desired; for what better end can I look for than to give up my life for my faith? Nevertheless, as to the death of the Queen, your sovereign," she continued, placing her hand, as she spoke, on a Testament that lay on the table, "listen to my last words. I call God to witness, I never sought it, I never imagined it."

The Spanish Armada.—The rage of Elizabeth at the agents who had obtained from her the death-warrant against Mary has been generally viewed as hypocrisy, or as a feminine and momentary remorse. It is more likely that her political foresight as to the consequent peril for herself is the explanation. For it was not till 1588 that Philip II. despatched his famous Armada; although English privateers had harassed Spanish commerce and made war on the Spanish colonies for over twenty years, with Elizabeth's connivance,
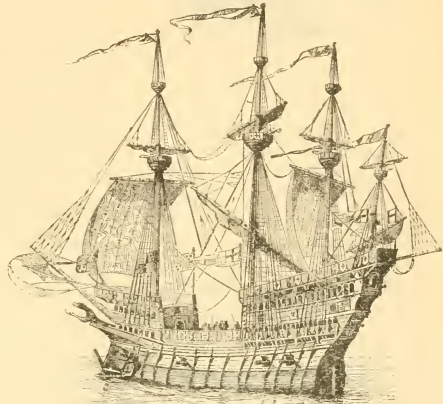
English Man-of-War; 16th Century.
(*From a drawing by Holbein.*)

and without any sort of apology or reparation.* The Armada was destroyed by the superior sailing qualities of the smaller, more easily handled English vessels, and by the elements.

The Irish Revolt.—But no sooner was the danger passed than the revolt of the Irish Catholics absorbed the energies of Elizabeth (p. 332). For the rest of her reign three-fourths of the English annual income had to be devoted to the Irish war.

Elizabeth's last years were miserable and friendless. She had refrained from marriage lest the birth of a Protestant heir should endanger her own hold on the throne by rousing the Catholic party to her overthrow.

---

* Detailed accounts of these piracies in Froude's "History of England."

The Elizabethan period of English Literature boasts the names of Marlowe, Ben Jonson, Spenser, and Shakespeare.
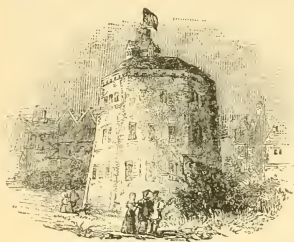
Shakespeare's Globe Theatre.
(*From an old engraving.*)

The dramas of Marlowe are distinguished by rugged force and virile power.

Ben Jonson exhibits in his dramas the influence of the Latinity of Italian classic learning.

Spenser's Faerie-Queen shows the poetic word-capacities of English speech in most wonderful flexibility and rhythm.

Shakespeare combines all these qualities with his own matchless human comprehension of human grandeur and human weakness.

Lord Francis Bacon began his career in the time of Elizabeth, but belongs more especially to the time of James I., when scientific pedantry was beginning to replace poetic inspiration. The contributions of this learned man to philosophy are more highly rated by his countrymen than by the critics of continental Europe.

Civilization.—" Brick and stone were beginning to be used in the houses of the great, and glass windows became common. The poor lived in hovels made of wattles plastered over with clay. The fire was in the middle of the floor, and the smoke escaped through a hole in the roof. This was the case in all houses until the reign of Henry VII., when chimneys began to be built. The floors were commonly of clay strewed with rushes. In early Tudor reigns a straw pallet, a coarse sheet and rug, and a log of wood for a bolster, were commonly used. The man who lay on a pillow of chaff was thought luxurious. Servants lay on bare straw. Before Elizabeth dishes and spoons were wooden; then pewter platters and silver or tin spoons came into use among farmers and those of the same class. About 1580 coaches were introduced: before that time ladies rode on a pillion behind their chief servants, whom they held by the belt.

" Hops were now first grown in England. Cabbages, cherries, gooseberries, plums, apricots, and grapes might now be seen in English gardens. Potatoes were brought by Sir Francis Drake from Sante Fè in America. They were introduced into Ireland by Sir Walter Raleigh. Raleigh also brought tobacco from the West Indian island Tobago, and taught the English its use.

" The country folk wore a doublet of russet-brown leather. The court fashions were, like those of our own day, always changing. Queen Catherine Howard introduced pins from France : and, as these were expensive at first, a separate sum for this luxury was granted to the ladies by their husbands. Hence the expression 'pin-money.' The farthingale was introduced from Spain in Mary's reign. It was a large hooped petticoat. Ruffs of plaited linen were worn by both sexes on the neck and wrists.

" During this period the ladies often joined in the chase and shot at the game with arrows. Hawking was beginning to decline, for the gun was coming into use. Bear-baiting and bull-baiting were sports of the highest in the land. The principal country sports were archery, foot-races, and various games of ball.

" Christmas was the great season of sports. From the sovereign to the beggar, all England then went a-mumming in strange dresses and masks May-day was another festive season in Old England. Green branches were pulled immediately after midnight, a lord and lady of May were chosen, and dances were kept up around a May-pole crowned with flowers."

IMPORTANT DATES OF ENGLISH HISTORY, SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

James I. of England (and VI. of Scotland), the son of Mary Queen of Scots and Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, was the first of the Stuart line in England. The Presbyterian Calvinists, led by John Knox, ruled the Lowlands of Scotland after Mary's flight to England. James had thus been brought up in the Protestant faith. His accession marks an important point in history—**the union of the Scotch and English Crowns**. The parliaments of the two nations were not united till a century later.

James was a pedant, but a man of learning. His person and manners were not engaging, but he was not lacking in shrewdness. It was said of him that he was the wisest fool in Europe.

Aside from the Gunpowder Plot discovered in 1605, a conspiracy in which misguided Catholics were involved and which aimed at the overthrow of the government by blowing up the Houses of Parliament, the two great features of James's reign are the Ameri-

can Settlements and the development of a "High-Church" and a "Puritan" party.

English colonies in America.—After the discoveries of the American continent, it was the Spaniards who, through the 16th century, colonized America. Their energies were devoted to the islands of the West Indies, to Mexico and Peru. On the North American continent only Florida had been colonized by them.

On the other hand, at the opening of the 17th century France and England, whose fishing vessels had for some time visited the coasts of Newfoundland, began to make settlements in America.

Captain John Smith made the beginnings of a colony in Virginia in 1606. A little earlier, 1603, the French began to establish settlements in Canada, and a little later, 1620, the English began to settle Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

The first English colony sailed from Holland, a band of Brownists (Congregationalists or Independents, founded by Brown, reign of Elizabeth), who had settled there for free worship. But the rapid rise and increase in number of this Plymouth Colony resulted from the persecutions of the English Puritans under the son and successor of James.

Charles I., 1625–1649, inherited from his father the division

Costume of the 17th century. Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I. (P. 272.)

in the English Church, and the theory of the "divine right of kings." This theory was necessary to bolster up the institution of a political Church supremacy. No sooner had the English Church come into existence than sectarian divisions began to disturb it. The Puritans, earnest but often uncultivated people, often, but not always, from the lower orders of society, were offended by the hollowness of the forms which the English High Church made obligatory.

The Catholics were persecuted, but Puritans were forced to submit to external forms borrowed from the Catholic. The famous Archbishop Laud modeled

the English Church on a basis closely resembling the modern Ritualistic Episcopal ceremonial.

Charles I. met his first decided repulse in his attempt to extend this Church system over Scotland. The Scotch Presbyterians refused to use the English Prayer Book, and rose in arms. To subdue them the king needed armies and money. To procure this money he resorted to methods of taxation, by "ship-money," which were unusual and calculated to arouse popular discontent.

Ship-money was a tax originally levied in the maritime counties for coast defense, and extended by Charles to all England. The House of Commons, of Puritan tendencies, seized on the question of money supplies as a means of crippling the king in his religious policy. This parliamentary opposition was strengthened, supported and magnified by the Scotch revolt.

The Bill of Rights, 1628.—Thus was forced from the king his consent to the famous Bill of Rights, by which no money supplies could be raised without parliamentary consent, the most important feature of the modern English Constitution. From this moment until his death, Charles I. never abandoned his attempts to reverse this arrangement, and to rule without parliamentary advice and supplies.

Cavaliers and Roundheads.— Hence his wars, supported by the " Cavaliers," the party of the court aristocracy, against the Parliament and Puritan party of the " Roundheads " (so-called from their cropped hair—the Cavaliers wore the hair long). These wars, between 1642 and 1649, owed their

Coin, with Head of Cromwell.

successful issue for the Puritan party to the military genius of Oliver Cromwell, and to the alliance of Scotland.

The Execution of Charles I. in 1649 was the result of a long course of diplomatic duplicity and double dealing on his part, which

convinced the Puritan leaders that as long as the king was alive he would never abandon intrigue.

It need not weaken our sympathy for the fate of the king to understand that his violent death was the result of a determined conflict between two irreconcilable methods of government, the Parliamentary and the Absolute form, of which the former was most suited to the genius of the English

The Commonwealth.—Between 1649 and 1660 the government of England was in form a Commonwealth, *i. e.*, a Parliamentary Republic, but in substance it was a despotism under Oliver Cromwell (till 1658), supported by a strong division of public sentiment. The despotic rule of Cromwell produced, however, a new revolution of public sentiment after his death, and a restoration of the Stuarts in 1660.
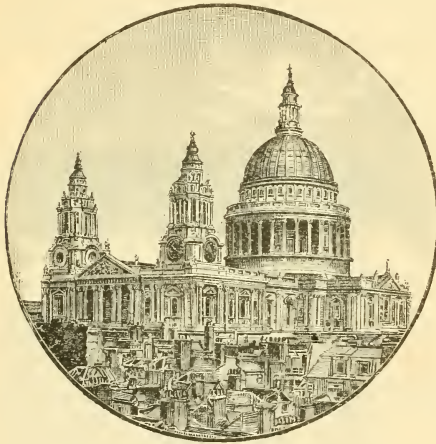
New St. Paul's, London. Begun 1675.

The Restoration of Charles II., 1660–1685. —Experience proved that parliamentary government could not exist in England without a king. Hence the compromise, tacitly made, by which the Restoration was procured, and the son of Charles I. was made king. From the Stuart Restoration dates the existence of the English " Dissenters." The Puritan clergymen were turned out of their livings to the number of two thousand, about a fifth of the English clergy. The king's own temper was tolerant, but he was controlled by the Parliament in matters of religion. A **Test Act** was passed, requiring adhesion to the Church of England as condition of holding civil or military office.

The character of the king was frivolous, and yet he was not lacking in sense. A courtier suggested as an epitaph the following:

> Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
> Whose word no man relies on;
> Who never said a foolish thing,
> And never did a wise one.

"It is true," said Charles, "my deeds are my ministers', my words are my own."

Charles II. never defied his Parliament, although his own tastes and policy were generally in opposition to its tendencies. His alliances with Louis XIV. and French sympathies have made him generally odious to English historians. Charles died in the Catholic faith, although he never openly had professed it.

James II., 1685–1688, who succeeded his brother, had publicly embraced Catholicism when Duke of York. He was a man of upright but cold and unsympathetic nature. His absolutist tendencies, hateful to the nation in general, and exerted without reflection or policy in the Catholic interest, provoked a revolution by which the Stadt-holder of Holland, William Prince of Orange, obtained the throne of England for himself and his wife Mary, the king's daughter. James attempted to regain his throne with Irish assistance, but was defeated in the Battle of the Boyne, 1690.

The Revolution of 1688 was the turning point in the formation of the modern English Constitution. By it the "Habeas Corpus" Act, passed in 1679, and violated by James (the act which led to his downfall), became a recognized feature of the Constitution. This act forbids the imprisonment of an English subject without process of law. But the most important change was that by which the income of the king and the pay of the standing army were made dependent on the annual vote of the Parliament. Annual parliaments were thus made necessary, and the king became dependent on them. This arrangement soon led, in following reigns, to another,—government by a Ministry, which carries out the measures of the majority of the House of Commons, and which changes with the change of this majority. Thus the stability

of monarchy was united with the mobility of popular govern-
ment.   ʻ

Science and Literature.—In the reign of Charles II. the studies in Science and Natural
History, which Bacon's Philosophy favored, made great progress. The name of Sir Isaac
Newton, 1642–1727, represents the discovery of the law of gravitation.

In this reign appeared the " **Paradise Lost** " of **John Milton,** the poet of Puritan
England. His poem is the work of a noble and high-minded man, whose learning and mastery
of poetic form were remarkable. Milton's English is especially pure and vigorous. A later
poetic contemporary of Milton, living over into the 18th century and the reign of Anne,
was **John Dryden.**

American Colonies.—Throughout the whole 17th century, following the settlement of
Massachusetts in 1620, the English continued to gain ground in America. New Hampshire,
Connecticut, Maryland, Rhode Island, North Carolina, New Jersey, New York, South Carolina
and Pennsylvania, were all settled in the 17th century.

Conquest of Jamaica.—During the time of the Commonwealth, Jamaica was conquered
from Spain. It is still an English possession.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Elizabeth died.   James I. succeeds........... .... **A. D.** 1603
French Settlements in Canada after this date ....   "   1603
Gunpowder Plot...   "   1605
Captain John Smith in Virginia............................. ....   "   1606
Henry IV. of France assassinated.   Louis XIII. succeeds...........................   "   1610
Shakespeare died........ ....   "   1616
Thirty Years' War began................ ....   "   1618
Puritans in Massachusetts.. ......   "   1620
Francis Bacon died................................ ....   "   1626
Bill of Rights.. ....   "   1628
Civil Wars between Charles I. and his Parliament after. ....   "   1642
Peace of Westphalia.... ....   "   1648
Execution of Charles I.   Cromwell in Ireland.... ....   "   1649
Restoration of Charles II.   Majority of Louis XIV....................... ....   "   1660
Great Fire of London........................... .. ..   "   1666
Molière died...................... .. ..   "   1673
Milton died......... .. ..   "   1674
Habeas Corpus Act.. ....   "   1679
Corneille died........ ....   "   1684
Charles II. died.   James II. succeeds............................ ....   "   1685
James II. replaced by William III..... ....   "   1688
Battle of the Boyne................................ ....   "   1690
Racine died.. ....   "   1699

IMPORTANT DATES OF ENGLISH HISTORY. SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Union of Scotch and English Crowns	A. D.	1603
Death of Shakespeare	"	1616
Bill of Rights	"	1628
Execution of Charles I	"	1649
Restoration. Test Act	"	1660
Habeas Corpus Act	"	1679
Revolution of	"	1688

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS OF THE 18TH CENTURY.

William III, of Orange	A. D.	(1688)–1702
Anne, sister of Mary	"	1702–1714
George I. of Hanover	"	1714–1727
George II., son of the foregoing	"	1727–1760
George III., grandson of George II	"	1760–(1820)

THE STUART LINE, CONNECTED WITH WILLIAM OF ORANGE AND THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

Henry VII.

Margaret.=James IV. of Scotland.

James V.

Mary Queen of Scots.=Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley.

James I.

Charles I.   Elizabeth. == Frederick, Elector Palatine, the "Winter King."

Mary.   Charles II.   Anne Hyde.=James II.=Mary of Modena.

Sophia=Ernest Augustus of Hanover.

William III. of Orange.====Mary.   Anne.
James Francis Edward Stuart, The "Old Pretender," 1688–1766.

George I.

George II.

Prince of Wales.

Charles Edward Stuart, the "Young Pretender," 1720–1788.

George III.

William III. owed his election as English king to his marriage with James II.'s daughter, to his own descent from Charles I. whose daughter Mary was his mother, and also to his position as head of the Protestant party in Europe. Since France was allied with the cause of the Stuarts, it was necessary for England, in expelling them, to enter the anti-French alliance which William had organized before becoming an English sovereign (pp. 255, 281). William III., on his part, used England as one more agent in his continental schemes. Hence the English share in the War of the Spanish Succession, 1700–1713 (pp. 241, 254, 284).

The reign of Anne, 1702–1714, is distinguished by the Legis-

Queen Anne.

lative Union of Scotland with England—the union, that is, of the parliaments. This queen inherited the policy of William III., and the English share in the War of the Spanish Succession begun by him.

Lord Marlborough, whose victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, and Malplaquet are famous, was the controlling mind in English politics till his loss of power in 1711. This was the prelude to the Peace of Utrecht.

The conditions of this peace are mentioned at pp. 256, 284, —among them the **English acquisition of Gibraltar, the key of the Mediterranean**, and therewith the naval ascendency in the Mediterranean, which England has always since retained. By the same treaty France abandoned the cause of the Stuarts and recognized the **Hanoverian Succession**. This was already in prospect through the failing health of Anne and the absence of direct heirs.

By an Act of Settlement, made in 1701, the succession was to pass from Mary and Anne, in default of heirs, to the House of Hanover. A daughter of James I. had married the Elector Palatine of Germany (the Winter King, p. 247). The daughter of this marriage became the wife of a Hanoverian Elector, Ernst August, and the mother of the Hanoverian English king George I. (See Genealogy.)

The party divisions of "**Whigs**" and "**Tories**" now first became prominent. The Tories affected the cause of the Stuarts, as the cause of legitimacy and hereditary right. The Whigs were the moderates, the supporters of the existing order and of the Hanoverian succession. In later times, when the Stuart cause was no longer in question, the names were still retained. In our own time the Tories are supposed to represent the strict conservative ideas and reactionary tendencies; the Whigs are the moderate liberals.

George I., 1714–1727, Elector of Hanover, united a German principality with an English kingdom—a union which continued till the accession of Queen Victoria (1837), and which largely explains the later continental wars of England down to the time of Bonaparte.

George II., 1727–1760, was, like his father, German in tastes and nature, caring little for England, and content to play the role of a constitutional king controlled by his ministry. For twenty-one years, 1721–1742, England's government was managed by the great Whig Minister, Sir Robert Walpole.

Walpole's policy was to assist agriculture, commerce and manufactures by keeping the country at peace. His rule was as uneventful as it was conducive to prosperity. But this prosperity made England grasping and ambitious. Her merchants were jealous of the riches to be derived from trade with the Spanish colonies, from which they were excluded by the general colonial policy of the time. Thus Walpole was finally driven from power, in 1742, by a war party which had already, in 1739, forced the country to declare war on Spain.

The War on Spain.—After the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, both Spain and France were governed by the French Bourbon family. Although these countries were sometimes at variance, their sympathies were generally allied, especially in questions of their foreign colonies. England was jealous of the French settlements in Canada and of French enterprise in developing the territories reaching from the Great Lakes to the mouth of the Mississippi, and the war on Spain indicated a general colonial policy of attack on the possessions of the Bourbons.

War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748.—The declaration of war on Spain in 1739 was followed in 1740 by the war of the Austrian Succession (p. 256), and England, already involved in broil, could not preserve the neutrality which Walpole had proposed. Since Eng-

land was the rival of France and Spain, she was the natural ally of Maria Theresa. By England's advice Silesia was ceded to Frederick in 1742 (p. 257), thus disposing of one enemy. English subsidies gave victory to the Austrian armies elsewhere. But after the fall of Walpole (in 1742), who had opposed the policy of war in general and confined himself to the protection of the Austrian power, England, in alliance with Austria, changed to a general policy of attack on the French and Spanish Bourbons.

The success of the English-Hanoverian and Austrian alliance threatened so great an aggrandizement of Austria, that Frederick in 1744 allied himself with France, while Austria combined with Russia for the partition of Prussia. In 1745 the French, to cripple England, aided a landing of the Stuart Pretender, Charles Edward, grandson of James II., in Scotland. Although a victory at Preston Pans, won by his Highlanders, and a second victory at Falkirk, in 1746, had no results (his expedition into England was a failure), England was forced by this attack in the rear to ally herself with Frederick of Prussia and to withdraw from the alliance with Austria. Thus was vindicated Walpole's previous policy of peace with France, which had protected England from the attacks of the Stuarts. The war on the Continent ended in 1748, with a mutual restoration of conquests, in the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle between France and Austria, Frederick retaining Silesia.

The Seven Years' War.—This peace was really a truce only. Spain and France, joined in a "family compact," were now aroused by the hostility of England to anticipate further attacks. By a sudden turn of policy, Austria, no longer threatened by these countries, joined with them as a means of recovering Silesia. Thus the interest of Prussia to hold Silesia against Austria, united with the interest of England to supplant the Spaniards in their own colonial commerce and to resist the progress of France in the Ohio Valley. From the Mississippi French traders had worked up the basin of the Ohio; and the crest of the Alleghanies now set a bound to the previously undefined limits on the west of the English American colonies. Thus came about the outbreak of a war in America which set the whole of Europe in flames.

The beginning of the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763, was the English expedition under General Braddock against the French post, Fort Duquesne, established at the fork of the Alleghany and the Monongahela where they join in the Ohio. The name of Pittsburg, on the site of Fort Duquesne, commemorates the activity of the minister, William Pitt (the Earl of Chatham), who now directed the destinies of England.

On the continent of Europe, Prussia, supported by the money of England, contended against the coalition of France, Saxony, Austria, and Russia (p. 257). The withdrawal of Russia from this alliance at a critical moment saved Prussia, and the Peace of Hubertsburg, 1763, once more secured to her the possession of Silesia. By the peace of the same year at Paris, Spain ceded Florida to England (a cession not permanent), and **France ceded to England Canada and the Mississippi Basin**—(to Spain her claims west of the Mississippi). France abandoned all right to military settlements in India.

British Empire in India.—From this Seven Years' War dates, therefore, the British Empire in India, founded by Robert Clive.

In the time of Elizabeth an East India trading company had been organized, but during the century following, only three small trading posts had been acquired—Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta. During the War of the Austrian Succession the French, at this time more powerful in India than the English, attempted to expel the latter. Clive, who was a clerk of the English Trading Company, entered its military force, and overthrew the French ascendency in Southern Hindoostan. Recalled by ill-health to England, he returned to India at the opening

of the Seven Years' War, and by the victory of Plassey, in 1757, gave the East India Company the practical mastery of Bengal. In 1760 he established securely the English influence in Southern Hindoostan.

In 1773, Warren Hastings, a clerk promoted by Clive, was made Governor-General of India, and by his conquests and combinations laid the foundation of British rule over the whole country.

George III., 1760-1820, was grandson of the last king. The peace of 1763 had been owing to the new king's opposition to the military ardor of Pitt. George III. was a man of narrow character but upright intentions. His personal prejudices had much to do with the next important feature of English history—the loss of the American colonies.

The most important cause of this separation was the cession to England, in 1763, of the French American territories, as result of the Seven Years' War. As long as the French territory hemmed in the English Americans on the north and west, and French power could unite the Indian tribes against the English colonies, these felt the need of English assistance and protection. Relieved from this pressure, the colonies were able to stand alone, and accordingly assumed the independent attitude in opposition to British taxation which brought about the American Revolution, 1775-1783. (The more obvious and direct causes generally mentioned are sufficiently known.)

The American Revolution.—Once more the earlier hostility of England, after Walpole's time, to the French and Spanish Bourbons had here its effect. It was the alliance of France and Spain, after 1778, with the American colonies that turned the balance in their favor

William Pitt, 1759-1806.

and secured the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown. The naval

victories of Admiral Rodney saved England any further humiliation in the Treaty of Paris, 1783, than the loss of the American colonies. Florida was re-ceded to Spain.

By the outbreak of the French Revolution, in 1789, which owed at least its external impulse to the rise of the American Republic, England was drawn into a new series of Continental wars. The second William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, was the great English minister at this time. Some mention of these wars will be found in the sections relating to the French Revolution and to Bonaparte. The sections for the contemporary Irish history will also be supplementary for this period. The reign of George III. continued beyond the limits of the century.

Literature.—The 18th century is a distinguished one in English literature. The poet Dryden has been already mentioned. **Dean Swift** was a vigorous controversial writer. The "Spectator" essays of **Addison** and **Steele** are still quoted for their good diction. **Pope,** as a poet, well represents the general character of his time, refined but artificial. These names belong to the earlier part of the century, to the reigns of Anne and George I. In the middle period of the century flourished **Daniel Defoe,** author of "Robinson Crusoe"; **Richardson** and **Fielding,** the novelists; **Dr. Johnson,** essayist and critic; **Oliver Goldsmith,** poet and dramatic author; and **Laurence Sterne.** To the latter part of the century belong the historians **Robertson, Hume, Gibbon,** the political economist **Adam Smith.**

The Methodists.– From the year 1738, when John Wesley became widely active as a preacher, dates the rise of the Methodists. "Wesley considered himself a member of the Church of England, and the body he had formed as a lay society dependent on it."—*Green.*

John Howard, philanthropist and prison reformer, was active after 1774.

The steam-engine was developed into a practical, mechanical force by James Watt in 1765.

GENEALOGY OF THE HANOVERIAN LINE (*Continued*)

George I.
|
George II
|
Frederick, Prince of Wales.
|
George III.

George IV.	William IV.	Edward,=Victoria of Saxe-Coburg. Duke of Kent.	Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland. King of Hanover after 1837 till 1851.
	Prince Albert ══ Queen Victoria. of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.		George IV. of Hanover, Died 1878. (Hanover conquered by Prussia, 1866.)
	Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, born, 1841.		
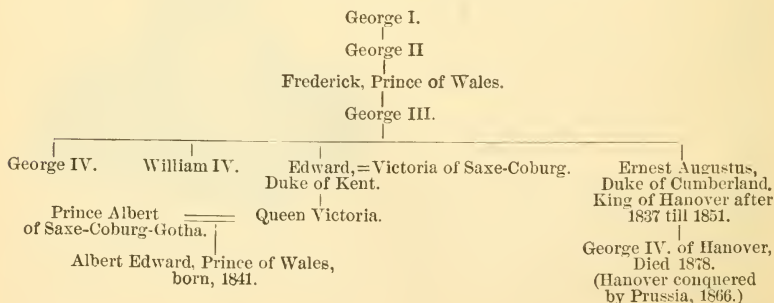
CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH HISTORY IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

War of the Spanish Succession begins.................................... ....A. D. 1700
William III. died. Anne succeeds .... " 1702
Union of Scotch and English parliaments....................... ... . " 1707
Peace of Utrecht. Gibraltar to England. France abandons the Stuarts.... .... " 1713
Anne died. George I. of Hanover succeeds................ .... " 1714
Walpole's ascendency till 1742, after. . . .. " 1721
George I. died. George II. succeeds......... .... " 1727
War on Spain declared.................... .... " 1739
England leagued with Austria till the Pretender's invasion........................ . " 1746
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Conquests mutually re-exchanged, but Prussia keeps Silesia. " 1748
Seven Years' War. England supports Prussia on the Continent. Contests French
    ascendency in India and America, after .... " 1756
Peace of Hubertsburg and Peace of Paris. England gains Canada and the Mississippi
    and Ohio Basins, and founds her power in India............................. " 1763
War with the American colonies.................... ... . " 1775
Peace of Paris. England loses the American colonies....................... .... " 1783
England heads the European Coalitions against France till 1815, after............ ... " 1793

IMPORTANT DATES REHEARSED.

Peace of Utrecht. End of the Spanish Succession War.. ....A. D. 1713
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. End of the Austrian Succession War .... " 1748
Peace of Paris and Hubertsburg. End of the Seven Years' War...................... " 1763
Peace of Paris. End of the American Revolution.................. .... " 1783
England heads the Coalitions against France....................................... " 1793

NINETEENTH CENTURY.

ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS OF THE 19TH CENTURY.

George III............. ....A. D. (1760)–1820
George IV. .... " 1820–1830
William IV.............. . ... " 1830–1837
Victoria............... .... " 1837

The English Sovereigns.—The reign of George III. lasted
nominally till 1820, but attacks of insanity made it necessary, in
the later part of his reign, to establish a Regency of his son. This
son succeeded as George IV. in 1820, reigning till 1830. His
brother, William IV., followed, reigning till 1837.

Queen Victoria, his successor, was daughter of the third son of George III., the Duke of Kent. The fourth son of George III., the Duke of Cumberland, became king of Hanover at her accession, thus separating Hanover from England. In 1866 Hanover was conquered by Prussia, and united with this State (p. 299). The important features of England's internal

Houses of Parliament, London.

history, in the early 19th century, were Catholic Emancipation, and the reform of the Representative system. For England's share in Continental history at this time, see pp. 293–297.

Measures of Reform.—The Catholic Emancipation Bill, admitting Catholics to seats in Parliament, was passed in 1829. It had been long deferred by the personal opposition of George III. In 1832 the Reform Bill broke down the so-called rotten-borough system. By this system many of the largest towns had been left without representatives, while places which had lost their importance and population, or which had been given members because they could be controlled by personal influence, were allowed seats in the House of Commons.

Foreign Events.—The close of the wars with Napoleon, after 1815, left England at peace until 1853, when she leagued with France to support Turkey against the attacks of Russia. This war in the Crimea, begun 1854, ended in a triumph for the allies, 1856. It was followed in 1857 by a mutiny in India of the native troops in English pay (Sepoys). After the suppression of the revolt the government of India was transferred from the East India Company to the English sovereign.

A new Reform Bill, passed by Mr. Disraeli (later, Earl of Beaconsfield) in 1867, extended the franchise by conditions which admitted large numbers of the working classes. For the later Reform Bill of Mr. Gladstone see Irish history.

The year 1850 witnessed the restoration of the Catholic Hierarchy of England, and two years later the first provincial synod of the English bishops was held at the College of Oscott.

The most important features of English history in the 19th century are her immense manufacturing and commercial prosperity, and the power of her colonial empires in **India, Australia,** and **Canada.**

On the other hand, sources of constant expense and annoyance are found in small foreign wars with barbarous nations to "preserve the prestige" of the British crown. Recent wars with Abyssinia, with Dahomey, and with the Dutch Boers of South Africa, come under this head.

A second source of trouble lies in the English jealousy of Russian advance in Asia, where the Russians, in approaching the boundaries of India, are supposed to threaten the security of the Indian Empire. It is undoubtedly true that if the Hindoos should become seriously disaffected, a foreign European power on the frontier would tend to promote trouble.

The third cause of trouble for England lies in the agitation and dissatisfaction of her Irish subjects. The sources of this dissatisfaction are indicated in the Irish history.

CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH HISTORY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Slave-trade abolished.. A. D. 1807
Battle of Waterloo. English participation in the Congress of Vienna............... " 1815
Death of George III.. " 1820
First Steamboat on the Thames.... .... " 1822
Catholic Emancipation................................. .... " 1829
Death of George IV.. . ... " 1830
First Railway opened............................. .... " "
Reform Bill.. .... " 1832
Slavery abolished in the Colonies........................... .... " 1833
Death of William IV. Accession of Queen Victoria........... .... " 1837
Penny Post..................................... .... " 1840
Electric Telegraph first practically worked.. .... " 1847
Catholic Hierarchy restored.. " 1850
First Great Exhibition... .... " 1851
Crimean War, 1854 to...... .... " 1856
Sepoy Rebellion............. .... " 1857
Submarine Telegraph to America...... .... " 1858
Extension of the Franchise by D'Israeli......... .... " 1867

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE ON ENGLISH HISTORY.

FIRST REVIEW LESSON.

What German Principality was separated from English rule by the accession of Queen Victoria?

When was Hanover united with England? (P. 391.)

What large increase of territory had Hanover obtained about that time? (P. 262.)

Who was the founder of the House of Hanover? (Pp. 161, 162.)

By what relationship did the House of Hanover obtain the English crown? (P. 389.)

Name the English sovereigns of the House of Hanover?

Name, by reference to the table (p. 397) or otherwise, important events in the reign of Victoria? In the reign of George IV.? Of George III.? Of George II.?

When did George I. begin his reign?

Who was the last of the Stuart sovereigns? (P. 390.)

When did she die? (P. 389.)

Whose daughter was she?

Who preceded her?

What was the foreign policy of her predecessor? (P. 390.)

When was the Dutch Republic founded? (P. 246.)

What important war during the reign of Queen Anne?

What did England obtain by the Treaty of Peace? (Pp. 390, 284, 260.)

What did she gain by the Seven Years' War? (P. 392.)

What influence had this gain in promoting the American Revolution? (P. 393.)

Where was the beginning of the Seven Years' War? (P. 392.)

What Continental power was at this time allied with England?

How far was Hanover (Brunswick-Lüneburg) from Prussia? See map for 1748, p. 256.

What province was Austria endeavoring to reconquer from Prussia? (P. 257.)

In what war was England the ally of Austria? (P. 391.)

Why did she abandon this alliance? (P. 392.)

When did the Stuart Pretender land in England? (P. 392.)

Why had Walpole favored an alliance with France? (P. 392.)

SECOND REVIEW LESSON.

In whose reign did Walpole's ministry begin? (P. 391.)

What colonial policy did England pursue after his time? (P. 391.)

Who assisted the American colonies to obtain independence? (P. 393.)

When were the American colonies first settled by the English? (P. 384.)

Why did they grow rapidly by later emigration? (P. 384.)

In whose reign?

Who was the first Stuart king of England? (P. 383.)

What are the most important events of his reign?

Why did an English party oppose the government of Charles I.? (P. 384.)

Why did he need money?

Why was the Bill of Rights passed? When?

What is the date for the Peace of Westphalia ? (P. 250.) For the execution of Charles I. ? For the accession of Louis XIV ? (P. 276.)

What French sovereign was the contemporary of Charles II. ? (P. 276.) Of James II ? What battle defeated the effort of James II. to regain his throne ? (P. 387.)

What feature of the English Constitution dates from the time of William of Orange ? (P. 387.)

What relation was he to Charles I. ? (P. 389.)

What French Minister was the contemporary of Cromwell ? (P. 276.)

Who was the mother of James I. ? (P. 389.)

When did she die ? (P. 380.)

How long before the Spanish Armada ? (P. 381.)

What trouble had Elizabeth after the Spanish Armada ? (P. 381.)

What part of the 16th century is taken up by the reign of Henry VIII. ? (P. 376.)

Mention some contemporary Continental events. (P. 239.)

What French reigns correspond to that of Elizabeth ? (P. 264.)

What Spanish reign corresponds to hers ? (P. 241.)

What English reigns correspond to that of Charles V. ? (P. 376.)

Who was the father of Henry VIII. ?

What wars were closed by his accession ? (P. 375.)

In what century ?

How caused ?

THIRD REVIEW LESSON.

Who was the first Lancasterian king ? (P. 373.)

Name the Lancasterian kings ? (P. 373.)

When did Richard II. die ? (P. 371.)

To what line does he belong ?

Whence the name of Plantagenet ? (P. 364.)

What other name have the Plantagenets ? (P. 364.)

Who was the first Plantagenet ? (P. 364.)

What French possessions were ruled by the Norman kings before him ? (P. 363.)

What French possessions did he add ? (P. 364.) Note that Anjou, at this time, included Touraine.

Who first lost a portion of those provinces? (P. 365.)

Why ? (P. 365.)

Date the Magna Charta ? (P. 365.)

What made the English Norman Barons dissatisfied with John ? (P. 366.)

Who was the French contemporary of Henry III. ? (P. 189.) Of Edward I. ? (P. 189.)

Why were the French kings antagonists of the English at this time ? (P. 370.)

Who assisted the Scotch in the time of Edward I. ? (P. 370.)

What war did this cause ? (P. 370.)

When was the Peace of Bretigny ? (P. 370.)

What difference did it make as to English possessions in France ?

In whose reign were these possessions finally lost? (P. 374.)

What English king lost favor by failing to prosecute the French war ? (P. 371.)

What relic does England preserve of her old French possessions ? (P. 365.)

FOURTH REVIEW LESSON.

By what conquest was the Anglo-Saxon period of English history ended ? (P. 362.)

What relation were the Normans to the Danes ? (P. 362.)

When did Danish attacks on England begin ? (P. 359.)

What assisted Danish power in England ? (P. 359.)

Who assisted the rise of Wessex ? (P. 358.)

What Anglo-Saxon State preceded Wessex in greatness ? (P. 358.)

What Anglo-Saxon State preceded Mercia ? (P. 356.)

When does the greatness of Northumbria begin ? (P. 355.)

When did Roman missionaries first convert the Anglo-Saxons ? (P. 355.)

Was this the first establishment of Christianity in Britain ?

When were the British first Christianized ? (P. 353.)

Who overthrew the British Christianity ? (P. 354.)

How long was the Roman rule of Britain ? (Pp. 352, 353.)

How long was the Anglo-Saxon period ? (Pp. 353–362.)

When does the modern English language begin its existence ? (P. 375.)

Of what languages is it composed ?

Who was the first national king of England ? (P. 366.)

How many English kings were also French barons ? *Ans.* All between William the Conqueror and Henry III., inclusive.

Name these kings.

When was the feudal relation of the English kings to the French kings finally severed ? (P 370.)

Map Studies.—England under the Romans, see p. 116 (where, however, only a small portion of the island appears).

England under the Anglo-Saxons, pp. 140, 154, 156.

England under the Normans and French Angevins (or Plantagenets), pp. 182, 200.

England in the 16th century, p. 228.

England during the wars of Charles I. with the Parliament, p. 250.

England in the 18th century, pp. 254, 256. Notice the section map.

England in the 19th century, pp. 292, 296, 298, 300.

Observe the use of the same color for England and Hanover at p. 254 and later maps.

SCANDINAVIA.

PAGAN PERIOD, TO A. D. 1000.

Denmark, Norway, and Sweden have been comprised, since the time of the Romans, under the general term of Scandinavia. They were peopled before the Christian era by a race of the Germanic family which still spoke a common language in the 8th century after Christ. The early literature and forms of this language have been best preserved in Iceland, because this country, of all those peopled by the Scandinavians, has been most isolated and unin fluenced by change.

The Scandinavian countries were undoubtedly frequented by Phœnician traders in early antiquity. They were visited by the Greek voyager Pytheas of Marseilles in the 4th century B. C. They were chiefly known to the Romans by the amber found on the shores of the Baltic, which was highly prized by the Roman ladies.

In the early Middle Ages the Scandinavians were known as Northmen or Danes. As Northmen we hear of their settlement in France. In England

Stone Implements of early Scandinavia.

they appear as Danes   In Ireland they were known by the latter name, and also as Ostmen (men from the east). The Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, who settled earlier in England, belonged to the same branch of Germanic race, and the territory left vacant by them in Sleswick-Holstein and Jutland, was simply repeopled by other "Danes" of the same family. To the Scandinavian branch of the Germans belonged also the Goths of the German invasions. The divisions of East and West Goths (Ostrogoths and Visigoths) existed before their migration from the southern part of Norway and Sweden.

The main occupation of the Scandinavians, down to the year 1000 A. D., was piracy. After this date, they gradually became Christianized and fixed inhabitants at home or in the settlements made elsewhere before this time.

Navigation.—As implied in the length and number of their voyages, the shipbuilding art was carried to high perfection. A nearly constructed galley, in perfect preservation, surrounded with all carpenter's tools and shipbuilding accessories, has recently been unearthed and is now preserved near Christiana.
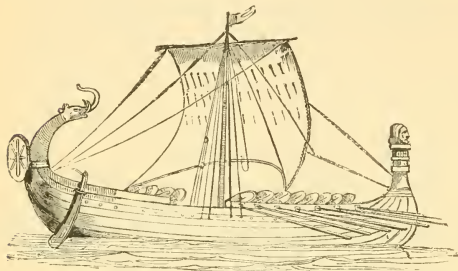
Norman Ship. From a Tapestry of the 11th Century.

Characteristics.—The Northmen believed that their chief divinity, Odin (Woden), was to be propitiated by gold, and this was one cause of their piratical expeditions. Their treasures were often buried with them. A wild and ferocious bravery was a national characteristic. Certain warriors, to show their contempt for life, made a practice of fighting in their shirts (sarks) and were called Bersekers (bare-sarkers). Another custom was the "holm-gang" (holm, an island), the practice of resorting to some small and untenanted island in order to fight out a quarrel to the death. From the word "vik," a bay, was derived the word "viking," that is, to go out on a piratical excursion; and the sea-marauders were thence called Vikingar. From the same word, "vik," are derived names of English towns ending in "wick." Nautical terms in English are mainly of Danish origin.

The Paganism of the Scandinavians was like their national character—a mixture of cruelty and imaginative mysticism. Human sacrifices were habitually offered as late as the 11th century. Influences of Phœnician Moloch-worship are very apparent, although the Scandinavian mythology has many points of contact with the ancient Greek and other Aryan religions, and had the same origins.

Viking Swords. Museum of Bergen.

Sagas.—Much attention was paid to genealogies, history, and mythological poetry. Narrations on these subjects were called Sagas. The Sagas were recited from memory by the bards or Skalds.

Government.—The Scandinavian countries were divided into a multitude of petty kingdoms, until the general divisions of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark became gradually recognized as separate kingdoms in the 9th and 10th centuries A. D.

The migrations from the Scandinavian countries, recorded in order of time, begin with those of the Goths, who left their own country to settle above the Danube in the 3d century A. D. (p. 133). The Anglo-Saxons left Sleswick, Holstein, and Jutland in the 5th century A. D. (p. 354). Mixed bands of Nor

wegians, Swedes and Danes were engaged in constant piratical attacks on all shores of Europe from the close of the 8th to the close of the 11th century.

Regnor Lodbrok, king of Denmark, led in person the first attacks on England (the first recorded by English annals). In 793 he sacked Lindisfarne, and was killed in Northumbria the following year, after which his kinsmen made permanent settlements in Yorkshire. The Scandinavian chronicles claim conquests in Northumbria a century earlier. Beside the settlements in Ireland (p. 321), Norwegian Northmen also ruled Man, Anglesea, the Hebrides, the Orkneys, the Shetlands, and the Faroe Islands—after 800. Scotland did not regain the Hebrides and Orkneys till 1262, nor the Shetlands till 1470. Swedish Northmen ruled **Russia** after 862. The dynasty of the Northman Rurik continued there till 1598.

The Norwegian king Harold Fair-haired, after 863, exerted himself to repress piracy on his own shores. This led discontented freebooters to migrate to **Iceland**—first visited by Northmen two years earlier—and to **France** (legal possession of Normandy, 911). From Iceland **Greenland** was settled after 983, and **America** after 1003. French Normans ruled **Naples** and **Sicily** after 1059, and **England** after 1066.

The body-guard of the Byzantine Emperors was also composed of Northmen (the "Varangians") largely drawn from Sweden. It was the passing of these warriors through Russia, to and from Constantinople, which led the way to their rule in Russia above mentioned.

In 826 a Danish prince who took refuge in exile with Louis the Pious at Ingelheim, was baptized with his family. At the emperor's instance, Anscarius, a monk of Corvey, then undertook a mission to the pagans of Scandinavia. He became the first Apostle of the North, and its Patron Saint.

St. Anscar labored constantly in Denmark and Sweden until his death, 865, against incredible difficulties and obstacles. As first Archbishop of Hamburg (founded by Charlemagne), he worked with his own hands at making ropes and nets for subsistence until the town was burned by the pagan Danes. His mission was the first effort to struggle with a barbarism which for nearly two centuries longer generally resisted Christianity.

Beginnings of Denmark.—Nearly contemporary with the death of St. Anscar is the accession of Gorm, after 860, the first Danish king who united the countries of later Denmark ; viz., the Peninsula of Jutland, Zealand, Funen, and adjacent islands, and the adjoining coast-provinces of Southern Sweden, Skaania, Halland and Bleking. (These Swedish provinces were generally Danish till 1658.) Gorm's Norwegian contemporary was the Harold Fair-haired already mentioned. Sweden being more remote, is less known; but this is also the time when the Swedish Varangians founded the Northman dynasty in Russia, 862 A. D.

MEDIEVAL PERIOD, A. D. 1000-1500.

Christianity first began to be firmly established under the Dane Canute the Great, 1014–1035, during whose reign the Scandinavian countries were united with each other and with England (p. 361). When separated again at his death, Denmark continued to be the most conspicuous country, because most nearly in contact with civilizing influence.

The great time of Medieval Denmark was the age of the Valdemars, from the middle of the 12th to the middle of the 13th century (Valdemar I., 1157–1182 ; Canute VI., 1182–1202 ; Valdemar II., 1202–1241).

To the time of Valdemar I. belongs the famous Danish Archbishop Absalon. His efforts raised to importance Copenhagen, the present capital of Denmark. By his care also have been preserved the popular tales and folk-lore of Denmark. Under his direction was written, to this end, the work of Saxo Grammaticus, a monk of Sorœ, near Copenhagen. From Saxo Grammaticus, through French transmission, Shakespeare drew the story of Hamlet ; and in this author, who wrote a century before William Tell, is found the story of the father shooting an apple from his child's head. It is told of a freebooter named Palnatoke, contemporary with Sweyn, the father of Canute. The sister of Canute VI., Ingeberg, was married to Philip II. of France. Pope Innocent III. protected her from desertion by this king.

The Wends.—The Valdemars were active in combating a nation which, in piracy and pagan barbarism, rivaled the Scandinavians of earlier time, the Slavonic Wends of the Island of Rugen and of Pomerania. Valdemar II. was also commissioned by Pope Honorius III. with the subjugation of the Pagan Finnic populations of Esthonia, where Revel was founded by the Danes.
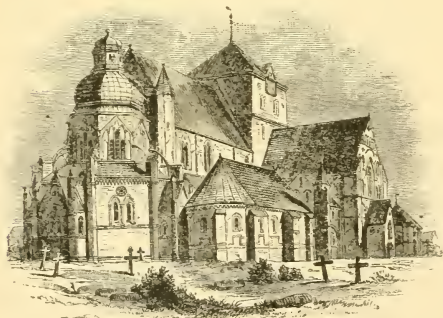
Cathedral of Drontheim, 13th century.

It was at this time that the **Sword Brothers,** founded 1201 by the Bishop of Riga, and given the Order of the Temple by Pope Innocent III., began their crusading mission against the Pagan Lithuanic population of Courland and

Livonia. In Prussia Proper the same task was undertaken, after 1225, by the Order of the Teutonic Knights. The two brotherhoods were united as the Teutonic Order, 1237, and subsequently also held Esthonia.

The 12th century is marked for Sweden by the conquest of Finland, after 1154 (retained till 1809), and the first beginnings there of Christianity.

In the 13th century Norwegian rule was extended to Iceland (till then a Republic), and to the Greenland colony (extinct in the 14th century).

At the close of the 14th century Norway, Sweden, and Denmark were united under one government by the **Union of Calmar, 1397.**

SCANDINAVIA, AFTER A. D. 1500.

Oldenburg Dynasty.—This Union of Calmar was permanent for Denmark and Norway till 1814. These countries were ruled, after 1448, by a German dynasty—the House of Oldenburg—a Principality bordering the western bank of the Weser where it enters the German Ocean.

Vasas in Sweden.—The Union of Calmar was rather nominal than real for Sweden till 1520, after which date Gustavus Vasa, a Swedish noble, estab lished once more a separate dynasty. The expenses of the war, by which Sweden was separated from Denmark, led Vasa to supply his exhausted treasury by levying on the property of the Church, for which the contemporary Lutheran schism offered an excuse. In Denmark and Norway, also, Lutheranism was favored and largely introduced by the influence of selfish political and personal motives ; the temptation of sudden wealth to be gained for king and nobles.

SCANDINAVIA, AFTER A. D. 1600.

In the 17th century the Scandinavian countries played a prominent part. Christian IV. of Denmark was engaged against Austria in the early part of the Thirty Years' War (p. 247). In its second period Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden was the leading opponent of Austria, and the Swedes remained in Germany till the Peace of Westphalia, 1648.

By the acquisition of the Bishoprics of Bremen and Verden in this Peace, Sweden controlled the commerce of the Weser and Elbe. By the acquisition of Western Pomerania she controlled the Oder. The entire mastery of the Baltic was secured, with the Provinces of Carelia and Ingria, ceded by Russia, 1617, Peace of Stolbova, and of Esthonia and Livonia, ceded by the Peace of Oliva, made with Poland in 1660. (Poland had obtained these provinces through the dissolution of the Teutonic Order after 1570.)

Poland was ruled at this time by a Catholic branch of the Vasas, and the wars with this state, ended by the Peace of Oliva, resulted from claims of the Polish Vasas to the Swedish throne. Two years earlier, the Peace of Roeskilde with Denmark had given Sweden the provinces of Skaania, Halland, and Bleking, 1658.

An interesting episode of Swedish history in the 17th century is the abdication and conversion to Catholicism of Queen Christina, daughter and heir of Gustavus Adolphus. Her cousin and successor was Charles X., who was succeeded by a son and grandson of the same name.

Charles XII. of Sweden was only fifteen when he became king in 1697. His youth and presumed inexperience tempted Russia, Poland, and Denmark to combine for the overthrow of the empire so largely built up at their expense. Denmark opened the war, and was forced in one short campaign to make a humiliating peace by the treaty of Travendal, 1700.

Peter the Great's Russian army of 63,000 men was next beaten by 8,000 Swedes in the famous battle of Narva, 1700 (in Ingria). In this, as in all his battles, Charles XII. was foremost as personal combatant. The states of Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony and king of Poland (after the death of Sobieski, 1696), were next overrun. Frederick Augustus was deposed in Poland in favor of Stanislaus Leczinsky, a Polish noble. After spending five years in Poland, Charles turned against Russia. He was diverted from his march on Moscow by the proposals of the Cossack chief Mazeppa. Mazeppa was a Pole, and in youth the page of a nobleman whose anger he incurred. As punishment he was bound to the back of an unbroken horse, which was set free to roam at will. He was borne to the plains of the lower Dnieper, where he was rescued and cared for by the Cossacks.

Mazeppa offered to raise the Cossacks in favor of Charles XII. The Russian Tzar anticipated this projected revolt, and took such measures that only a small number of Cossacks and no provisions reached the Swedes. These were meantime exhausted by incessant marches over desolate territories, and by the terrible severity of Russian winter weather.

In the battle of Pultava, 1709, the Swedes were utterly defeated by Peter the Great, and Charles XII. took refuge in Turkish territory at Bender. He spent here several years, endeavoring to push Turkey into a Russian war. The Turks did declare war, but made an easy peace with Peter when his army was entirely surrounded by them on the Pruth in 1711. Charles did not abandon his hopes of rekindling the war till 1714; remaining in Turkey while his enemies in the North (now joined by Prussia, and the Elector of Hanover, soon to be George I. of England) were making constant progress.

In 1714 he returned to find the Swedish German possessions and the Baltic provinces almost entirely conquered. After an unsuccessful effort to hold Stralsund, he passed over to Sweden and continued war on Denmark by invading Norway. One motive of this campaign was to secure a base for an expedition against England in the cause of the Stuarts. The Swedish territory of Bremen and Verden had been conquered by Denmark in the absence of Charles XII., and was turned over to the Hanoverian state of George I. (king of England after 1714); hence this project. But Charles was killed at the siege of the Norwegian town of Friedrickshall in 1718. His military trophies and his uniform are still kept in Stockholm.

The result of his career was the overthrow of Swedish ascendency in North Germany, to be replaced by Prussia, and of Swedish control of the Baltic, to be replaced by that of Russia. Russia became mistress of the sea where twenty years before she had not a single ship, and of the Baltic provinces of Carelia, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia, a most important part of her modern territories. (Peace of Nystad, 1721.)

To Prussia was ceded that part of Swedish Pomerania commanding the Oder (the western part of Swedish Pomerania not Prussian till 1815, p. 300).

The increase of Hanover by the territories of Bremen and Verden was a most important one. The constant participation of England in the Continental wars and politics of the 18th century (War of the Austrian Succession, Seven Years' War, etc.), and also in the time of Bonaparte, is made clearer when we understand that the English king was sovereign of an important German province controlling the commerce of the Weser and Elbe.

Charles XII. is one of the most singular characters of history. His obstinate personal bravery and willing endurance of soldier hardship are without parallel. To his unbending hardihood he owed the most astounding successes and the most humiliating defeats.

"**When Frederick Augustus of Saxony** endeavored to obtain some mitigation of his humiliation from Charles, and the two monarchs met in the Swedish camp in Saxony, the Swede was in his usual homely garb—a coarse blue coat with gilt brass buttons, buckskin gloves that reached to the elbows, and a piece of black taffety tied round his neck for a cravat. Not a syllable was uttered on the subject of the journey. The conversation turned wholly on the king's jack-boots, which he told his royal guest he had worn constantly for six years, never laying them aside except when he went to sleep. . . . He mounted his horse thrice a day, rose at four in the morning, dressed himself with his own hands, drank no wine, sat at table only a quarter of an hour, exercised his troops every day, and knew no other pleasure but that of making Europe tremble." In the first war on Denmark, at the attack on Copenhagen, Charles landed his troops in small boats under heavy fire, and when driven back he reformed them in the water as though on parade, and led them forward to victory. At Narva the Swedes charged in a blinding snow-storm.

During his stay in Turkey, the Ottoman government, which had treated him with

great hospitality, furnishing money and supplies liberally, at length became wearied with his intrigues and caprices, and anxious to hasten his return. His allowance was retrenched, but this only made him spend with the greater profusion. His subterfuges and evasions made it obvious that force alone could accomplish what had been attempted in vain by more lenient means. A resolution of the Turkish State Council to that effect was conveyed to Charles. "Obey your master if you dare," said Charles to the bearer of the mandate, and began to adopt measures of defence, by employing his domestics in barricading doors and windows and throwing up regular entrenchments. These operations being finished, in which he assisted with his own hands, he sat down to chess and afterward went quietly to sleep, as if everything were in a state of perfect security, although his household was deprived of provisions and invested on all sides with an army of 26,000 Turks and Tartars. On the following morning, with cool intrepidity, he went through all the formalities of arranging a pitched battle. The cooks and grooms had their respective stations assigned them, while the defence of others was intrusted to his chancellor and secretary. After a desperate conflict, in which the Turks with much bloodshed were repulsed from the house, the Pacha, ashamed of sacrificing a whole army to capture a single individual, ordered the premises to be set on fire. The inmates, after trying to extinguish the conflagration with a cask of brandy, mistaken for a barrel of water, rushed like maniacs from the burning pile and attacked their assailants sword in hand. In this sally Charles fell, entangled with his spurs. The Turks sprang upon him instantly, and carried him by the arms and legs to the tent of their commander. No sooner was he completely over-mastered than the violence and irritation of his temper at once subsided. He even spoke of the "battle of Bender" in a strain of playful jocularity, and next morning he was found by his attendants sleeping on a sofa (having declined the luxury of a bed), bareheaded and in boots, his eyebrows scorched and his whole body covered with dust and blood. This episode occurred some time before the departure from Turkey.

After the changes which preceded or immediately followed his death, the Scandinavian countries occupy a subordinate place in history. Since the times of the Vikings, Norway was always of minor importance, on account of its rugged and barren territory. Denmark's position at the entrance to the Baltic gave her, however, an influential commercial position. The Sound dues, levied on passing foreign ships, ostensibly for the maintenance of light-houses, &c., were an important source of revenue.

In the times of the French Revolution and of Bonaparte, Sweden was generally a determined opponent of the French—at one time England's solitary ally. Denmark was in general an ally of the French or hostile to England.

Sweden's Loss of Finland.—By refusing to follow the Russian policy, after the Peace of Tilsit in 1807 (p. 295), of commercial exclusion toward England, Sweden was involved in a Russian war which cost her Finland, in 1809—a most important gain for Russia, as securing St. Petersburg. This loss to Sweden was not balanced by the union with Norway in 1814, which Denmark was obliged to cede in consequence of her misfortunes as ally of Bonaparte. Denmark was given in return the remaining portion of Swedish Pomerania, but immediately passed it over to Prussia for a sum of money and the small principality of Lauenburg, as addition to Holstein, making the Elbe her border on the south,

This boundary was not a permanent gain for Denmark, which, in 1866, lost the whole of Sleswick-Holstein to Prussia. Quite lately Iceland has been made independent.

Notwithstanding her recent misfortunes, Denmark is one of the best governed of modern kingdoms, and the standard of State education is exceptionally high.

The united kingdom of Norway and Sweden, confined to its natural boundaries and offering no temptation to foreign aggression, is a well-governed and peaceful State. Since about 1830 both this kingdom and Denmark have been ruled by constitutional monarchy. Absolute monarchy was, with some intermission, the government of both from the close of the 16th until the 19th century. This form of government was distinctly recognized as a protection for the lower orders against the nobility—an interesting parallel to the history of other states (p. 278). In Denmark the German Oldenburg line still continues (reigning king Christian IX.). In Sweden the present dynasty, represented by Oscar II., dates from the French General Bernadotte, who was elected Crown-prince in 1810, and became Charles XIV. in 1818.

Among distinguished men of science Denmark boasts the name of Tycho Brahe, astronomer of the 16th century (died 1601). He preceded and influenced the celebrated German astronomer Keppler, with whom he finally was personally associated in Prague. To Sweden belongs the name of Linnæus, Professor of Botany in the University of Upsala after 1742.

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

What general European war was contemporary with the campaigns of Charles XII.? (P. 254.)

What French and English sovereigns were his contemporaries? (Pp. 283, 395.)

What Russian sovereign? (P. 260.)

Mention contemporary sovereigns in time of Gustavus Adolphus, reign 1611-1632? (Pp. 270, 383.)

Who was English contemporary of Gustavus Vasa? (P. 376.)

What German emperor was contemporary of Valdemar I.? (P. 163.)

What Pope was contemporary of Canute VI.? (P. 404.)

What French king? (P. 189.)

How long after Charlemagne (p. 154) did Northman rule begin in Russia? In Iceland? (P. 403.)

Map Study.—For Danish possessions in Southern Sweden, noted at p. 403 (Skaania, Halland, and Bleking), see " Europe in the 12th century," p. 182.

See map at p. 200 for Rugen and Pomerania.

See " Europe in 1648," p. 250, for the following countries or provinces: Finland (southern portion), Carelia, Ingria, Esthonia, Livonia, Courland, Swedish Bremen and Verden (mouth of the Elbe), Swedish Pomerania, Oldenburg.

See the same map for the following localities: Hamburg, Copenhagen, Calmar, Oliva, Roeskilde, Travendal, Narva, Pultava, Bender, Frederickshall, Nystad.

Notice the section map for the lower Dnieper at p. 254.

SYNCHRONISTIC GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

DENMARK.	NORWAY.	SWEDEN.
Gorm, after 860. St. Anscar, +865. Settlements in England and Ireland before and after Gorm.	Harold Fair-haired, after 863. Iceland then settled. Normandy, 911. Greenland settled, 983. America settled, 1003.	Rurik in Russia, after 862. Varangians in Constantinople before and after this time.
Canute the Great, 1014–1035. Christianity established.	Canute the Great, 1014–1035. Christianity established.	Canute the Great, 1014–1035. Christianity established.
Age of the Valdemars, 1157–1241.	Iceland and Greenland ruled by Norway, 13th century.	Finland conquered, 1154.
Union of Calmar, 1397.	Union of Calmar, 1397.	Union of Calmar, 1397.
Oldenburg Dynasty after 1448.	Oldenburg Dynasty, after 1448.	Oldenburg Dynasty, after 1448.
Lutheran schism in Scandinavian countries, after 1520.		Vasas in Sweden, after 1520.
Christian IV. in the Thirty Years' War. 1625–1629.		Gustavus Adolphus, after 1611. Carelia and Ingria, acq. 1617, from Russia. Bremen, Verden, Pomerania, acq. 1648, from Germany. Skaania, Halland, Bleking, acq., 1658, from Denmark. Esthonia, Livonia, acq., 1660, from Poland. Charles XII., 1697–1718.
War with Sweden, Peace of Roeskilde, 1658, see opposite column. War with Sweden : no changes ; no reference in text. Peace of Copenhagen, 1660. War with Sweden, Peace of Travendal, in 1700. Denmark renews the war after Pultava, in alliance with Russia, Prussia, and Hanover. War closed by death of Charles XII. at Frederickshall.		Loss of German territories and Baltic provinces. Decline of Sweden.
Denmark the ally of Bonaparte. Loses, in consequence, Norway, 1814.		Finland to Russia, 1809.
Denmark acq. Lauenburg and the Elbe boundary, 1815. Loses Lauenburg and Sleswick-Holstein to Prussia 1866.	Union of Norway with Sweden. Line of Bernadotte, as Charles XIV., after 1818.	

RUSSIA AND POLAND.

BEFORE THE TARTAR CONQUEST.

The first accounts of Eastern Europe are found in Herodotus, whose knowledge was drawn from the Greek settlements in the Crimea, around the Sea of Azof, and along the northern coast of the Black Sea. Beyond these Greek colonies lay the Scythians—some wandering, some agricultural—and other savage tribes.

It is probable that the ancestors of the modern Russians formed a portion of this population. But nothing is known of them until after the disturbances and displacements caused by the German migrations, when the Slavonian peoples are found reaching into Germany as far as the Elbe (p. 154).

To the Slavonian family belong, beside the tribes afterward subdued or expelled in this part of Germany, the Tzechs of Bohemia, the Servians and Bulgarians, the Poles and the Russians.

In the 9th Century A. D., when our knowledge of Russian history begins, the Russian Slavonians were centred in the territory in which the Dniester, Dnieper, southern Dwina and Ilmen take their rise. The Finns extended over Northern Russia, above the upper Volga and its tributaries. The lower basin of the Volga on the west side, and the basin of the Don, were peopled by mixed Finnish and Turkish tribes. East of the lower Volga and in the country of the Ural river were Turks or Tartars.

During the course of Russian history the Slavonic element has generally assimilated or swallowed up the once widely extended Finnish and Tartar populations. These, however, were not all entirely barbarian. The Empire of the Khazars, mixed Finns and Turks, in and above the Crimea and covering the lower valleys of the Dnieper and Don, was in the 9th century a flourishing State.

Although the lower Dnieper was thus held by a foreign power, it was the

channel by which civilization came from the Byzantine Empire (pp. 135, 136) to the Russian Slavonians. Their rulers, on the other hand, came from the north—from Sweden (p. 403). Swedish Northmen, familiar (as Varangians, p. 403) with the Slavonic country, as the route to Byzanz, were invited by the disorganized and jarring tribes to rule over them. A band headed by Rurik accepted the invitation, 862. (The Swedes were called by the Finns " Russ," hence the word Russia.)

Rurik established himself at Novgorod on the Ilmen ; by its connection through Lake Ladoga and the Neva, an important port of Baltic commerce. His son Igor made Kief, on the Dnieper, his capital. Igor's widow, Olga, succeeded him, and visited Constantinople, where she became a Christian convert.

Russian painting of the Madonna at Vladimir.
(*Twelfth Century.*)

The beginnings of Christianity in Russia date, then, after the middle of the 10th century. (Igor died 945.) They came from Byzanz, so that the Russians belong to the Greek Church. The relative barbarism of modern Russia results not only from the disadvantages of climate and position, but also from the inferior vitality of the Eastern Church, whose forms she adopted ; while Poland and Bohemia, as converts to Roman Catholic Christianity (p. 158), were thus connected with Western civilization.

The Northmen of Russia engaged in frequent warfare both for and against the Byzantine state, and the accounts of the Normans in France and elsewhere give us a fair idea of their character.

In the 11th century the Norman ruling family was intermarried with many of the West European states, The Grand Prince Jaroslaf sheltered the sons of Edmund Ironsides (p. 363). His reign (till 1054) was the glory of Kief, " the city of four hundred churches."

After this time the habit of dividing the state among the heirs of the prince, and the feudal tendencies of the age, broke Russia into a number of principalities, but all were ruled by descendants of Rurik. Besides Novgorod and Kief may be named Pskof on the Peipus, Smolensk on the Dnieper, Tver on the upper Volga, Riazan on the Oka, and Vladimir on the Kliazma. The towns on the upper Volga and its branches were at this time the advanced posts of Russia against the Finnish populations on the east, and were especially developed by Vladimir the Great, 12th century.

Kief, on the other hand, declined; because the Khazars had been replaced in the 10th century by the barbarous Patzinaks, who interfered with the commerce on the Dnieper. Kief was afterwards incorporated with Galicia, and then passed with that originally Russian province to Lithuanian Poland for many centuries. The ascendency of Kief was replaced after 1169 by that of Vladimir on the Kliazma (a branch of the Volga), capital of the principality of Souzdal.

From the Grand Princes of Souzdal, or Vladimir, descend the later Princes of Moscow. This town has its name from the Moskwa, tributary of the Oka, and sub-tributary of the Volga. Meantime the powerful commercial republic of Novgorod, ruling over the whole of northern Russia, had developed a semi-independence only held in check by its dependence on Souzdal for corn.

FROM THE THIRTEENTH TO THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Mongol Invasion.—By the colonies established on the upper tributaries of the Volga the Russian Slavonians were beginning to win their way as colonists down the valley of this river beyond Nijni Novgorod, when a Tartar invasion from Mongolia enslaved Russia for two hundred years. Dschingis Khan (p. 168) had extended his power from the territories north of China over Turkestan and into Europe. The Tartars were wandering herdsmen belonging to the same race as the Huns of Attila (pp. 142, 145), absolute barbarians, cruel in character and repulsive in manners and appearance.

In 1224 a Tartar army invaded the country of the Pelovtsi, barbarian successors of the Patzinaks in the basins of the Don and lower Dnieper. These begged help of their enemies, the Russians of Galicia. Help was accorded, but the united armies were defeated on the Kalka, a small river flowing into the Sea of Azof. Notwithstanding this victory, the Tartars turned back to Asia, and were absent thirteen years, engaged in the conquest of China. When they returned, in 1237, it was by way of the Volga. They marched to within fifty miles of Novgorod, destroying everything in their path. They then turned south to sack Kief and ravage Galicia. At the call of this province Pope Innocent IV. summoned Christendom to arms. The
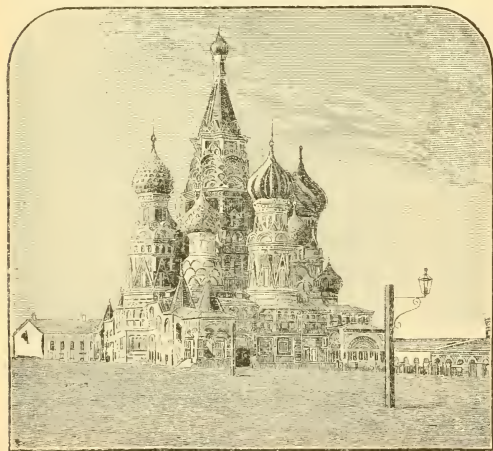
Tartars, although victorious, were checked at Liegnitz in Silesia, and at Olmütz in Moravia by the Bohemians and Moravians. They were turned back by the approach of a German army and the news of their emperor's death in China.

They continued to hold all Russia in tribute and subjection, but remained as settled conquerors in the country of the lower Volga, reaching as far north as the city of Kasan. They were known as the "Golden Horde," and after 1260 were independent of the great Mogul (whose seat was on the Amour or in China). The Tartars of the Golden Horde became converts to Mohammedanism after 1272.

Lithuania and Poland.—While Russian power was broken on the east by the Mongols, much territory on the west was absorbed by Lithuania, and then joined with that state to Poland. The Lithuanians (an Aryan nation) belonged originally in the basin of the Niemen, reaching on either side toward the Vistula and the (southern) Dwina. In the 13th century they attained political unity. In the 14th century (first Christianized after 1345) they pushed south over the intervening Russian territory to the conquest of Galicia, and as far as the Dnieper and the Crimea. In 1386 this Lithuanian state was united with Poland (by marriage) under the Jagellons. In 1410, by the battle of Tannenberg, the Teutonic Order was crushed,

Church of St. Basil. at Moscow.
(*Built by Ivan the Terrible.*)

and Lithuanian Poland was extended to the Baltic, dividing the knights in Prussia from those in Livonia. With some intervals of separation before 1501, Poland and Lithuania were finally united after that date, and became an elective monarchy after 1569.

The Princes of Moscow.—Among the subject Russian princes under the Mongol yoke, those of Moscow raised themselves to power by farming the capitation tax levied by the Tartars (to which end was made a census of the whole peo-

ple), and by using Tartar assistance in their contests with other Russian princes. During the 14th and early 15th centuries was thus gotten together a territory reaching from Tver to the neighborhood of Kasan and from the upper valley of the Don to the latitude of Lake Onega.

Ivan III. the Great, 1462–1505, is the sovereign under whom Russia escaped the Mongol slavery. He refused the tribute in 1480. He reconquered from Lithuanian Poland, Russian territory to the Desna and Soja (eastern branch of the Dnieper), and subjected Novgorod with its immense territories. Ivan III. married Sophia Palæologus, niece to the last Byzantine emperor, an alliance arranged by Pope Paul II. From this time Russia has conceived herself the heir of Byzanz (conquered by the Turks in the preceding reign, 1453), and hereditary enemy of the Turks. The double-headed eagle crest of modern Russia was adopted by Ivan, who added to the Russian eagle that of East-Rome. Many Greeks and Italians came into Russia with the Princess Sophia, and did much to bring the country nearer to the civilization of Western Europe.

Ivan the Terrible.—Following the reign of Vassili Ivanovitch, 1505–1533, comes Ivan IV. the Terrible, 1533–1584. He conquered the Tartar khanates of Kasan and Astrachan, giving to Russia (for the first time) the whole course of the Volga. The Cossacks of the Don also subjected themselves. With his son and successor, Feodor Ivanovitch 1584–1598, ended the line of Rurik.

Serfdom.—A Russian noble, brother-in-law of Feodor, put to death the heir Dmitri and usurped the throne. To this Boris Godounoff is ascribed the measure by which serfdom became general. The binding of the peasants to the soil as serfs was intended to protect the small landholders, on whom fell the burden of military defence. Serfdom was intended to secure them from losing the laborers needed to work their farms, against the competition of wealthy landholders able to pay a higher price for labor.

House of Romanoff.—The death of Boris Godounoff was followed by disorders and disturbances to which Poland and Sweden contributed, 1605–1613. From these troubles Russia was rescued by Michael Romanoff, 1613–1645, the grandfather of Peter the Great.

Under his son Alexis Michailovitch, 1645–1676, through a Cossack rebellion against Poland, Kief and the country of the lower Dnieper (known as the Ukraine) were reunited with Russia. The Cossacks of this country north of the Black Sea were nomad marauding soldiers, largely composed of refugee serfs. They were engaged in constant border warfare with the Tartars of the Crimea, and as the protectors of the Polish or Russian frontiers were tolerated and accorded more or less independence. Although now much diminished in numbers, the Cossacks still furnish the Russian army with an effective light cavalry.

Alexis was succeeded by three children—Feodor Alexievitch, 1676–1682; his daughter Sophia, Regent, 1682–1689; and Peter the Great, 1689–1725.

Map Study.—Russian Slavonians in the 9th century, p. 154. Poland and Grand Duchy of Vladimir, p. 182. Poland and Lithuania, pp. 200, 228—united as an Elective Monarchy, pp. 250, 256. For localities and rivers, see map of modern Russia.

PETER THE GREAT AND LATER SOVEREIGNS.

The significance of Peter the Great's reign for Russia will be apparent by noting the course of her rivers and the position of her territories so far enumerated. From Europe in general Russia was separated by the bleak plains of Lithuania and Poland. The mouth of the Dnieper was in the hands of the Crimean Tartars, who were subjects of the Ottoman Turks. So also were the mouth of the Don, and the Sea of Azof. By the Volga and the Caspian Russia was connected only with Asia. Ingria and Carelia (since 1617), Livonia and Esthonia (since 1660), belonged to Sweden (p. 405); thus Russia was entirely cut off from the Baltic. Her only intercourse with Europe was by means of Archangel and the White Sea, which, on account of the ice, is open to navigation only from June to September.

To civilize Russia it was necessary to open the Baltic. Hence Peter the Great's participation in the wars on Charles XII. The victory of Narva was entirely barren for Charles. During his absence in Poland, Peter had already founded St. Petersburg, 1703, as a Russian capital, replacing Moscow, which should keep open communication with Europe. By the Peace of Nystad, 1721, securing Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, and Carelia to Russia, her supremacy in the Baltic was assured. (Compare frontier, at pp. 250, 300.)

In opening up the Black Sea, Peter was less fortunate, but this was of less consequence. He took Azof, the key of the Don, in 1796; but lost it after his campaign against Turkey on the Pruth, 1711.

Character of Peter the Great.—Peter's greatness was not simply that of a states-manlike conqueror. At his accession he hurried to Archangel and learned to be a practical sailor, in order to encourage his countrymen in marine enterprise. He served as bombardier in the campaign on Azof, and marched on foot as a captain in the triumphal procession on return to Moscow, in order to give an example of military subordination and discipline. In 1697 he started for Holland, learned the trade of a ship-carpenter, dressed in workman's clothes in Saardam, took lessons as a workman in manufacturing paper and ropes, and also studied a little medicine and surgery. In England he spent three months in learning shipbuilding, and returned home by way of Vienna, where he studied the military art. Revolts in his absence against European innovations led him to wage war on the long beards of the Russians, the symbol of their conservative prejudices, for to shave the beard was sacrilege. Therefore he caused the beards to fall, and with his own hand shaved several of his lords. With the same terrible earnestness he even acted as executioner, beheading some of the ringleaders of the military mutiny which caused his return. Even his death was characteristic. To rescue a boat in distress he threw himself into the icy water of Lake Ladoga, thus contracting a fatal cold.

The first Emperor of Russia, the founder of St. Petersburg, forgot to build himself a palace. "His favorite residence of Peterhof was like the villa of a well-to-do Dutch citizen."

The people have preserved his memory in their songs and traditions.   They delight in repeating " he worked harder than a peasant."

The life of Peter shows the absolute dependence of Russia on the personal will of the sovereign, partly a result of Eastern and Tartar influence, but also a result of the Byzantine ideal of government.   Until his time, the head of the Russian Church had been the Patriarch of Moscow. The suppression of the Patriarchate for a Synod, of which the Tzar is really master, dates from Peter.

RUSSIAN SOVEREIGNS SINCE THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Ivan III	A. D. 1462–1505
Vassili Ivanovitch	" 1505–1533
Ivan IV	" 1533–1584
Feodor Ivanovitch	" 1584–1598
Boris Godounoff	" 1598–1605
Interregnum	" 1605–1613
Michael Romanoff	" 1613–1645
Alexis Michailovitch	" 1645–1676
Feodor Alexievitch	" 1676–1682
Sophia as Regent	" 1682–1689
Peter the Great	" 1689–1725
Catharine I	" 1725–1727
Peter II	" 1727–1730
Anne Ivanovna	" 1730–1740
(Ivan VI.)	
Elizabeth Petrovna	" 1741–1762
Peter III	" 1762
Catharine II	" 1762–1796
Paul I	" 1796–1801
Alexander I	" 1801–1825
Nicholas I	" 1825–1855
Alexander II	" 1855–1881
Alexis	" 1881

GENEALOGY OF RUSSIAN SOVEREIGNS AFTER PETER THE GREAT.
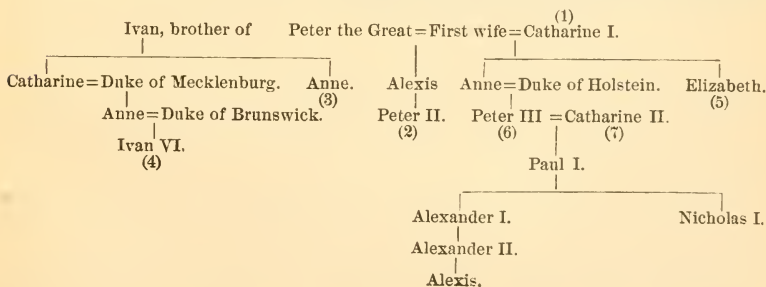
SUMMARY OF RUSSIAN SOVEREIGNS SINCE PETER THE GREAT.

Catharine I., 1725-1727.—Peter the Great's second wife—a Livonian peasant and widow of a Swedish dragoon. She saved the army of Peter on the Pruth in 1711, when at the mercy of the Turks, by sending her own jewels and all she could collect from the Russian officers as a present to an influential official of the Grand Vizier. Notwithstanding her humble origin, she was crowned empress in the lifetime of Peter, and ruled successfully after his death.

Peter's son Alexis, by his first wife, was detected in conspiring against his reforms, and perhaps in plotting his father's overthrow. He died mysteriously, during the judicial inquiry into his crime. The son of this Alexis became—

Peter III., 1727-1730.—A short reign, showing the increase of Germanizing tendencies at the court—no direct male heir.

Catharine I. and Peter had two daughters—Anne (who married the Duke of Holstein, and had a son, afterward Peter III.) and Elizabeth. The Council of State wishing to increase its power, and hoping to gain more favor from indirect heirs, set aside these descendants and chose a daughter of Peter's brother Ivan. She reigned as—

Anne Ivanovna, 1730-1740.—Germanic tendencies continue. Polish Succession was 1733-1738. War with Turkey, 1736-1739 (p. 428).

A second daughter of Ivan, named Catharine, had married the Duke of Mecklenburg. Their daughter Anne married the Duke of Brunswick (Genealogy). The son of this marriage had been

declared the heir of Anne Ivanovna, as Ivan VI. A revolution, however, placed on the throne the daughter of Peter the Great and Catherine I.—

Elizabeth Petrovna, 1741-1762.—An able sovereign. Time of the Austrian Succession and Seven Years' Wars. Succeeded by—

Peter III., 1762, son of Peter's daughter Anne and the Duke of Holstein. His rule was unpopular, and was overthrown by a revolution which made his wife Sophia of Anhalt-Zerbst empress. (Peter III. died mysteriously.) She reigned, adopting a new name, as—
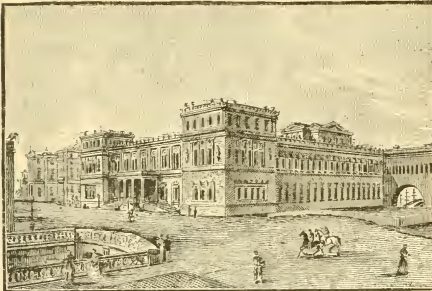
Palace of the Hermitage, St. Petersburg.
(*Built by Catharine II.*)

Catharine II., 1762-1796.—Divisions of Poland (p. 418). Two wars with Turkey. A remarkably able sovereign. French tendencies at the court. Followed by her son—

Paul I., 1796-1801.—A determined enemy of the French Revolution, but an enthusiastic admirer of Bonaparte, with whom he allied himself. His death was a severe blow to Napoleon. His son followed—

Alexander I., 1801-1825.—Prominent in the coalitions against Bonaparte till Peace of Tilsit, 1807; then ally of Bonaparte till 1812; afterwards most active toward his overthrow.

Nicholas I., 1825-1855.—Brother of the last Tzar. A rigid martinet and disciplinarian,

but not badly disposed ruler. (He forbade his subjects to violate the Chinese law against the opium traffic, while the English made three wars to force this drug on the Chinese.) He died of grief at the result of the Crimean War (p. 298). His son succeeded.

Alexander II., 1855-1881.—Famous for his liberation of the Russian serfs in 1861. His assassination by the Nihilists placed on the throne his son, the ruling Tzar Alexis. Russian " Nihilism " has some support from the old Russian antagonism to the foreign innovations introduced by Peter the Great and his successors, but it is essentially only the Russian name for the party of anarchy and socialism now becoming rampant all over Europe.

TERRITORIAL HISTORY OF RUSSIA AFTER PETER THE GREAT.

During the 18th century important additions in Europe were made at the expense of Turkey and Poland. War with Turkey from 1768 to 1774 (Catharine II.) closed with the Peace of Kainardji, giving Russia control of the ports commanding the Don and Sea of Azof, and preparing the way for the acquisition, 1783, of the Crimea and the control of the Black Sea. (Compare section map, p. 254, with map, p. 298.)

A second war with Turkey, 1787-1792 (Catharine II.), gave Russia, by the Peace of Jassy, the river Dniester as boundary, thus gaining entire control of the Dnieper. (Compare as above.)

The three partitions of Poland, 1772, 1793, 1795 (Catharine II.), carried the Russian boundary on the west to the Niemen and Bug, a branch of the Vistula. Russia only gained at this time territories which once belonged to her in the Middle Age, and were afterwards conquered by Lithuania, but Poland proper was divided by Austria and Prussia, associates in this national crime, by her assistance. (Compare Russian frontier at pp. 256, 292. The Bug is marked at p. 300; another river of the same name at p. 254.)

Later Acquisitions.—Finland was conquered from Sweden in 1809 (Alexander I). Bessarabia (the country between Dniester and Pruth) and the mouths of the Danube were taken from Turkey in 1812 (Alexander I.). The portions of Poland given to Austria and Prussia by the second and third partitions were united by Bonaparte after 1807 (Peace of Tilsit) as the Duchy of Warsaw. The Duchy of Warsaw was united to Russia by the Congress of Vienna, 1815, but under separate government. (Compare maps, pp. 292, 296.) Discontent of the Poles at this arrangement led to the revolt of 1830, after which the Duchy of Warsaw was united directly with Russia and very harshly treated, especially since the rising of 1863.

By the Crimean war, 1853-1856 (Nicholas I.), the Danube mouths were lost, all fortresses and arsenals on the Black Sea were to be abandoned, and no Russian ships of war were to be allowed there. These last conditions of the Treaty of Paris have been disregarded by Russia since the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871.

In consequence of the Bulgarian massacres in 1876, Russia declared war on Turkey, and her armies reached the walls of Constantinople. Only some territory in Armenia, with the important fortresses of Batoum and Kars in Asia Minor, were ceded Russia. The power of Turkey in Europe was, however, almost entirely crippled.

TERRITORIAL ADVANCE IN ASIA.

In the reign of Ivan IV. (died 1584), Russian explorers had passed the Ural Mountains into Siberia. Before the end of the 16th century the Russian possessions in Asia reached

to the Obi and Irtych, by which trade was opened with Bokhara. By the end of the 17th century the Russian possessions in Asia reached to the Pacific and took in Kamschatka, whither Peter the Great sent an exploring expedition. Thus far only the territory drained by rivers flowing into the Arctic Ocean was ruled and colonized. During the 18th century no permanent advance was made in Asia. In the 19th century Russia has conquered the Caucasus, and her territory now reaches in Asia Minor beyond the Araxes. On the Pacific she gained in 1858 the country of the Amour, from China; and in 1875 the Island of Saghalia, from Japan. Alaska, occupied in 1822, was ceded to the United States in 1875. Acquisitions begun in Northern Turkestan after 1844 have resulted in gaining Tashkent, 1865, Samarcand, 1868, Khiva, 1873, and Khocand, 1875.

The approach of Russian territory to the British frontier in India on the side of Afghanistan by the Sir Darja (Oxus), which flows into the Sea of Aral, and forms in its lower course the valley and Khanate of Khiva, has much excited the solicitude of Great Britain, and has been lately a fertile source of diplomatic controversy and state jealousy. The wars lately waged by England in Afghanistan have been intended to anticipate and head off the Russian advance. On the other hand, late Russian expeditions against the Turcomans of the Tekke Oasis are intended to establish new points of foothold on the Afghan frontier. The Oxus flowed, in ancient times, into the Caspian, but was turned off into the Sea of Aral by a dike constructed by the Turcomans. One object of the Russians is, by cutting the dike, to turn the river into its old channel, thus restoring the ancient water communication between the heart of Asia and Central Russia by way of the Volga. A canal connecting the Volga and the Don would, by way of the Black Sea and Danube, establish Russia as a powerful rival of England in the commerce between Europe and the East.

SUMMARY OF RUSSIAN HISTORY.

Rurik, 862.

Power of Kief, till the middle of the 12th century.

The principality of Souzdal then takes the lead till the Mongol (Tartar) invasions.

Mongol power over Russia from 1224 to 1480. The western provinces of Russia are conquered by Lithuania and so united with Poland.

The Grand Princes of Moscow (originally a town of Souzdal) threw off the Mongol yoke in 1480, under Ivan III. Territorial increase on the west and on the north (Republic of Novgorod).

Ivan IV. adds the Khanates of Kazan, 1552, and Astrachan, 1554 (basin of the lower Volga), and the country of the Don.

Peter the Great, central date 1700, adds the Baltic provinces and so opens Russia to Europe.

Catharine II. adds Lithuanian Poland and the Crimea, after 1772.

Alexander I. adds Finland 1809, and the Duchy of Warsaw after 1815.

The Russian advance in Asia, which had reached Kamschatka about 1700, begins to approach the British possessions in India, after 1844, by the rivers entering the Sea of Aral.

SYNCHRONISTIC QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

How long after the Treaty of Verdun was Rurik's power in Russia established ? (P. 155.)

Who was German emperor at the death of Jaroslaf the Great (Glory of Kief), 1054 ? (P. 163.)

How long is this date before the Norman conquest of England ? (P. 362.)

What century ends the Crusades ? (P. 191.)

With what century begins the Mongol rule in Europe ? (P. 169.)

Of what territories will you deprive modern Russia to understand its size in the time of Ivan III. and before his conquests ?—*i. e.*, enumerate all acquisitions since Ivan III.

How long before the death of Ivan III. was Charles V. born ? (P. 228.)

Who was Germanic emperor at the accession of Ivan IV. ? (P. 239.)

When did the dynasty of Rurik end ? (P. 415.)

Who was English sovereign then ? (P. 379.)

Who was Spanish sovereign ? (P. 241.)

What Russian Tzar made serfdom general ?

Who emancipated the serfs ?

Who was English king at the accession of Michael Romanoff ? (P. 383.)

Who was English king at the accession of Peter the Great ? (P. 387.)

Who was French king at this time ? (P. 281.)

What general European war was waged in the reign of Peter the Great ? (P. 254.)

What Prussian king was contemporary with Catherine II. ? (P. 259.)

ARABS AND TURKS.

THE MOHAMMEDAN ARABS.

Until the age of Mohammed, born 569, the Peninsula of Arabia is known to history mainly through the spices and incense which it exported from the earliest times. Although relatively unknown, the coasts of Arabia possessed a high degree of civilization. The Bedouin or wandering Arabs of the interior desert were then, as now, barbarian, and are to be distinguished then, as now, from the settled and commercial Arabs.

From contact with Christians and Jews, the Arabs gradually became superior to their original paganism, and this progress was formulated and made general by Mohammed, a self-styled prophet.

The Mohammedan era is calculated from the year A. D. 622, when the prophet was driven for the time being to fly from Mecca (the " Hegira "), but also found the faith and constancy of his followers equal to the test thus imposed on them. He died ten years later.

His cardinal doctrine was the belief in one God, in opposition to the previous Arab polytheism ; but submission to the will of God was conceived by him and by his followers in a way which led to stagnant indifference to the evil Christians are bidden to combat. Many objectionable, and some laudable doctrines and teachings were advanced by this man. As in all other human religions, this one also exhibits its good or evil aspect according to the individual or national temperament and surroundings. It is known that Mohammed himself was subject to epileptic fits, which he conceived to be divinely inspired trances, and it is not necessary to suppose him a conscious impostor. His teachings, given out in disjointed and fragmentary utterances, and written down on palm leaves and pieces of bone in his lifetime, were collected after his death in the Koran.

The personality and self-confidence of Mohammed inspired his nation with a zeal for its new faith which launched it on the most remarkable religious war known to history. All nations were to become converts or be put to the sword, except Jews and Christians, "the peoples of the Book." These, according to the Koran, were to be allowed life and liberty if they paid tribute.

Egypt, Syria, and North Africa were wrested from the Byzantine Empire about the middle of the 7th century A. D. (p. 150, and map, p. 154). Spain was conquered from the Visigoths at the opening of the 8th century. Toward the east the Mohammedan conquests reached into India.

The rulers of the Mohammedan world were called Caliphs. They combined spiritual and temporal authority till the middle of the 10th century, when they lost their temporal power.

The first four successors of Mohammed were Abu Bekr and Omar, his fathers-in-law, and Othman and Ali, sons-in-law of the prophet. The sons of Ali, who were murdered, were conceived by some to be the next legal successors—hence a sect called the Shiites (to which the Persians have always belonged) denying the authority of the later Caliphs.
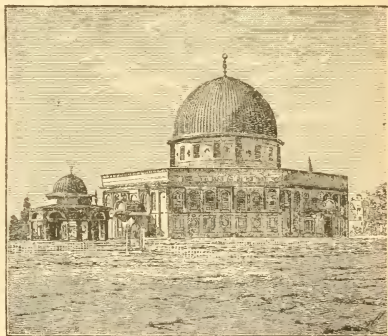
The Ommaiads.—The orthodox Mohammedans or Sunnites, whose leading modern representatives are the Turks, acknowledged

The Mosque of Omar, Jerusalem.
(*Originally a Christian Church of the 4th Cent.*)

as next Caliph, in 661, Moawiyah, founder of the line of the Ommaiads; seat at Damascus.

The Abbasides.—The Ommaiads were overthrown, in 750, by Abbas, founder of the Abbaside Caliphs; seat at Bagdad. An Ommaiad named Abderrhaman, who escaped to Spain, founded there, in 756, an independent power— the Caliphate of Cordova (map, p. 154).

Various independent dynasties rose soon after in various parts of the Mohammedan world, paying more or less homage to the Bagdad Caliphs, till these were overthrown by the Mongols in 1258 (see contemporary accounts of the Mongols in Russian History).

The Arab Civilization had reached its highest pitch in the centuries after Mohammed. Through the culture and literature of East-Rome, of which three provinces—Syria, Egypt and North Africa—were in Arab hands, they rivaled that heir of ancient Rome in material civilization and in knowledge.

The Turks.—In the time of Arabian decay which preceded the Mongol desolation of western Asia, the Turkish tribes of the steppes east of the Caspian, who were converts to Mohammedanism, became first the military defenders and then the rulers of the Mohammedan countries. It was the oppres-

sion of the Christians and Christian pilgrims in Syria by the Turks which led to the Crusades. These Turks were called from their first leader, the Seljuk Turks. Their most important State was a large part of Asia Minor wrested from Byzanz. The Crusaders who marched by way of Constantinople had to encounter this Sultanate of Iconium (map, p. 182) before reaching Syria.

SUMMARY OF DATES.

Mohammedan era................................... .A. D. 622
Four successors of the Prophet to.............. ... ... " 661
Ommaiad Caliphs (Damascus) to........ .... " 750
Abbaside Caliphs (Bagdad) to........................ " 1258

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

How far did the Arabs extend their conquests on the east?
How far on the west?
What Byzantine provinces were included in these conquests?
What people—converts to Mohammedanism—finally replaced the Arabs as military rulers in the eastern countries?
What invasion overthrew the Abbaside Caliphs of Bagdad?
What Anglo-Saxon State was ascendant in the time of Mohammed?
How long before 622 did Roman missionaries land in Kent?
What battle in 732 prevented the Mohammedans from conquering western Europe? (P. 150.)
What Abbaside Caliph was contemporary of Charlemagne? (P. 155.)
What Byzantine province was mainly conquered by the Seljuk Turks?
What caused the Crusades? (P. 183.)

THE OTTOMAN TURKS.

The Tribe of Othman.—The Turks now known to us in Turkey are not the Seljuk Turks. The Sultan of Iconium took into his service, in the latter part of the 13th century, a band of 440 Turkish horsemen, who had wandered with their families, first from Turkestan east of the Caspian to the Euphrates and then into Asia Minor. They were commanded by Ertoghrul. His son Othman gives the name to the "Ottoman" Turks of modern times. From the Seljuks was borrowed their symbol, the Crescent.

Ertoghrul and Othman were made lords of a territory in Northwest Asia Minor, bordering the remnant of the Byzantine territory. By the death of the last Sultan of Iconium, Othman became the most important Turkish chief of Asia Minor, after 1307, and reigned till 1326. He was buried at Brussa, con-

quered from Byzanz in the year of his death. His tomb existed as a noted shrine of the Turks till our own time, when it was destroyed by fire. His sabre is still used in investing a new Sultan.

Othman's son Orchan reigned from 1326 to 1359. By 1336 his power was firmly established over all Northwest Asia Minor, from which the East-Romans were by this time expelled, and in 1356 the Turks set foot in Europe on the Thracian Chersonese. They came as allies of a claimant of the Byzantine throne and remained as allies of the Byzantine Emperor, making constant headway by the feuds and divisions in his State. Under Orchan were organized the Janissaries, the first standing army known to Europe. They were recruited by a forced annual levy of one thousand Christian children, who were then educated as Mohammedans. This levy was continued annually till 1673.

Amurath I. crossed the Hellespont in 1360, one year after his accession, took Adrianople in 1361, defeated a Christian army of Servians, Bulgarians and crusading allies on the river Maritza, near Adrianople, in 1363, subdued the Servians (Slavonians, Greek Church) after 1376 ; crossed the Balkans in 1389, and perished in the Turkish victory on the plain of Kossova, in Servia, in that year. Bulgaria and Wallachia were made Turkish tributaries as result of this victory. Bulgaria was peopled by Slavonian Greek Christians. Like Servia, it was at times included under Byzantine rule, at times independent—and in this latter condition when conquered by the Turks; for the Byzantine Empire had begun to fall in pieces before the Turkish conquest.

Bajazet I. succeeded his father. The flower of French and Hungarian chivalry was destroyed by him in the famous battle of Nikopolis on the Danube in 1396, and Greece was then made Turkish to the Isthmus of Corinth (Athens, Turkish, 1397).

The battle of Nikopolis seemed to lay Christendom open to the Turks, but the Mongol desolators of Asia saved Europe. Bitter enemies of the Turks, the Mongols invaded Asia Minor under Timur-lenk (Tamerlane), whose empire reached from China to Central Russia. They defeated Bajazet I. and made him prisoner in the battle of Angora, 1402. Timur retired from Asia Minor to attack China, and died on the march. After a family feud lasting till 1413, the Turks once more, under Mahomet I., began to gather power.

His successor was Amurath II., 1421–1451, who crossed the Bosphorus, in 1440, by Genoese assistance, and defeated the Hungarian hero Hunyades at Varna in 1444. The Hungarian Hunyades and the Albanian Scanderbeg performed prodigies of valor against the Turks, and to their efforts is mainly owing the preservation of Italy and western Europe from invasion.

The next Sultan was Mahomet II., 1451–1481. He took Constanti-

nople in 1453 (p. 136), and proceeded then to overthrow the last remnants of Byzantine rule in the Peloponnesus and on the Black Sea. His advance on western Europe was checked at Belgrade, in 1456 by the heroic efforts of St. John Capistran, a Franciscan monk.

St. John Capistran.
(*From a portrait of his time.*)

A feud with the Genoese resulted in the Turkish conquest of Kaffa and the Crimea, 1475 (p. 227).

An attack on Rhodes failed in 1480, but in that year the Italian city of Otranto, the key of Italy, was captured by the Turks. Mahomet II. had threatened to feed his horse on the altar of (the old) St. Peter's Church, but his death spared Italy from invasion.

Bajazet II., 1481–1512, wasted his forces in feud with his own brother and son.

Selim I., 1512–1520, is renowned for the addition of Northern Mesopotamia, of Syria, and of Egypt to the Turkish states. These countries were conquered from the Mohammedan Mamelukes, a cavalry force recruited from slaves, whose chiefs had ruled Egypt since 1264. The Mamelukes had protected the successors of the Caliphs of Bagdad; and the power of the Caliph, as head of the Mohammedan world, was now transferred to the Turkish Sultan. To him were transferred, also, the sword, mantle, and banner of the prophet Mohammed, which are still preserved at Constantinople. The banner is borne before the army on occasions of urgent peril.

Solyman the Great, 1520–1566, raised Turkey to its highest power. He conquered, from Persia, Bagdad on the Tigris, which has ever since been Turkish, and received the allegiance of the Mohammedan states of North Africa —viz., Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli—thus almost making the Mediterranean into a Turkish lake.

Solyman took Rhodes from the Knights of St. John in 1522.

Don John of Austria.

In 1526 he defeated the Hungarians in the battle of Mohacz, and in 1529

besieged Vienna. The city was saved, but nearly all Hungary became Turkish (till 1699). In the reign of Solyman the Turkish artillery was the best in Europe, and his army was the most dreaded, but the Turkish power declined from his time. (See p. 233.)

Selim II., 1566–1574, degraded his reign by a degree of vicious self-indulgence remarkable even in a Turkish Sultan.

Cyprus was taken from the Venetians in 1571, but this loss was avenged in the same year by the famous naval victory of Lepanto, on the Gulf of Corinth. The Christian fleet was organized by Pope Pius V., the Venetians, and Philip II. of Spain, and was commanded by Don John of Austria (half brother of Philip II.). The fame of the battle of Lepanto
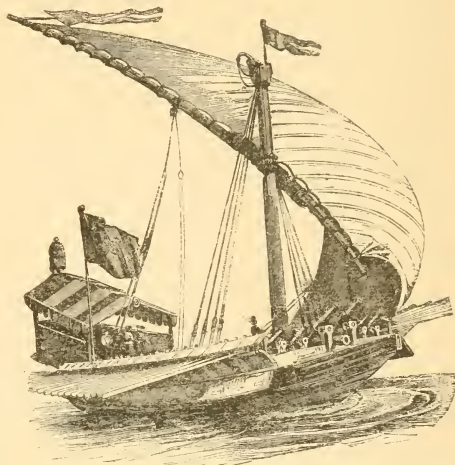
Papal Galley. Time of the Battle of Lepanto.

Shield presented Don
John of Austria by
Pope Pius V.

rests on the almost total destruction of the dreaded Turkish fleet by an inferior force, and on the confidence which this victory gave Christendom to continue its struggle with the infidels. Until this time all Mediterranean coasts were scourged by the Turkish corsairs, who carried off thousands of Christians to slavery (ten thousand were liberated from Turkish galleys at Lepanto).

Amurath III. began the practice of selling official positions, and the Turkish state consequently in his time already reached that degradation of official corruption and cruel oppression which still continues.

The first half of the 17th century, which witnessed the decay of Turkey, was also the time of the Thirty Years' War. Thus Europe could not profit by Turkish weakness. After 1656, a succession of vigorous viziers somewhat restored order and strength, and in 1663 war was declared on Austria in connection with a revolt in Austrian Hungary. An immense Turkish army marched on Vienna, and reached the Raab, but was defeated at St.

Gotthard by Montecuculli, a noted Italian general in Austrian service. This victory demonstrated that European discipline and military science were now far above the Turkish. A truce with Austria followed, during which Poland and Russia were at war with Turkey. The Polish general, Sobieski, won brilliant victories in this war, which prepared him for the glorious triumph of 1683 (p. 251).

The Turks had encamped around Vienna with an army numbering altogether nearly a million men. The city was defended by 11,000 soldiers. Sobieski, with 70,000 men, came to the rescue, and by brilliant generalship utterly routed the last Turkish army which seriously threatened to overpower Christendom.

Meantime, in 1669, Crete (Venetian since the Fourth Crusade) was won by the Turks, but the Venetians conquered the Peloponnesus. A succession of Austrian victories, won by Prince Eugene, carried the Austrians to the Danube, and resulted in the Peace of Carlowitz, 1699, by which all Hungary was regained (p. 251).

Austria had made peace in anticipation of the Spanish Succession War (p. 254), but in alliance with Venice resumed hostilities after 1715.

The Peace of Passarowitz, in 1718, gave back the Peloponnesus to Turkey, but carried Austria below the Danube. This acquisition was abandoned in 1739 by the Peace of Belgrade, ending a three years' war in which Austrian over self-confidence occasioned terrible reverses.

Meantime Russia was replacing Austria as the formidable rival of the Turks. Between the Turkish Tartars of the Crimea and the Cossacks of Southern Russia was waged a constant warfare which the respective authorities sometimes could not check and sometimes would not. (In 1570 an army of Crimean Tartars had even sacked Moscow.) When, with the accession of Peter the Great, the policy of extending Russia to the Baltic and Black Seas began, his first undertaking was an expedition, in 1695, against Azof, the port controlling the navigation of the Don. This conquest was abandoned after his disastrous campaign of 1711 on the Pruth (p. 416).

In the war just mentioned as closed by the Peace of Belgrade, Russia had taken active and successful share, but was obliged to abandon her conquests by the disasters of Austria. But the war between Turkey and Catharine II., opened 1768, resulted in the Russian acquisition of the Crimea, thus securing the Don. Important ports were acquired here by the Peace of Kainardji in 1774, and the entire occupation took place after 1783. A second war under Catharine II. carried Russia to the Dniester, thus securing the navigation of the important river Dnieper. (Peace of Jassy, 1792, p. 418.)

Times of the French Revolution.—In the complications and rapid changes of alliance among European states after the French Revolution and during Bonaparte's time, Turkey was entirely controlled by foreign countries, to whose jealousies she owes her later existence.

Beside the losses of territory so far noted, Servia obtained a position of semi-independence after 1804, since transformed into entire independence, 1878. Moldavia and Wallachia were governed by elective Hospodars subject to Russian approval after Catharine II., and only paid tribute to Turkey. Russia lost her protectorate over these provinces by the Crimean war. They were united as "Roumania" in 1859, and have been since governed by a prince of the Prussian House of Hohenzollern. Since 1878 they are no longer tributary to Turkey. The Roumanians claim descent (as their name implies) from Roman soldier colonists of the time of Trajan (p. 123).

The Greeks revolted against Turkey in 1820. Russia, France and England united to assist them, and the entire Turkish fleet was destroyed at Navarino, west coast Peloponnesus, 1827.

Greek freedom was secured by the Treaty of Adrianople in 1829 (p. 29). Since this time Greece is an independent kingdom, recently enlarged by the addition of Thessaly.

Egypt through the 18th century was but loosely connected with Turkey. Under the rule of Mehemet Ali, in the early 19th century, it threatened not only to sever connection with Turkey, but to conquer from her Syria and Asia Minor. In 1841 Egypt was made a hereditary possession of Mehemet Ali's family, subject only to tribute and to furnishing a war contingent to the Sultan.

The Crimean War (p. 298) gave Turkey a new lease of life by depriving Russia for a time of naval ascendency in the Black Sea.

But atrocious massacres in Bulgaria by Turkish Irregulars, 1876, so roused the sympathies of other Slavonians and of members of the Greek Church, that first Servia, then Russia declared war. The Russian army reached Constantinople, but was forbidden by Great Britain to occupy the city, and Russia was too exhausted to stand a new war with a fresh enemy.

The Treaty of Berlin, 1878, gave Russia only a slight increase of territory in Armenia (Kars and Batoum). Turkey in Europe was much diminished. Bulgaria, between the Balkans and Danube, was lost entirely. Eastern Roumelia, south of the Balkans, was made a semi-independent principality, subject to Turkish tribute and supervision. Bosnia was occupied by Austria. According to a secret clause of the Berlin treaty, Cyprus was occupied by Great Britain. Servia and Roumania were made independent, as noted on preceding page.

The little mountaineer State of Montenegro, on the Adriatic, has never been conquered by Turkish troops. It is a centre of constant active or smouldering guerilla war against them.

The Herzegovina is the mountain district (a portion of Bosnia) above Montenegro, nominally subject to Turkey, in which began the revolt which extended to Servia and Roumania after the Bulgarian massacres just mentioned (map, p. 300).

GENERAL ASPECTS OF LATER TURKISH HISTORY.

An important source of decay in the Turkish State, the sale of offices by the Sultan to recruit his private purse, has been mentioned. Another was the insubordination of the Janissaries who, after 1600, dethroned, assassinated, or terrorized over the Sultans at frequent intervals. The Janissaries were suppressed by Mahmoud II. in 1826, after a terrible struggle.

Another cause of decay was the habit, after 1600, of secluding the children of the Sultan in the palace instead of giving them posts of trust in the lifetime of the sovereign. This measure, intended to prevent family feuds, made the sovereign effeminate or imbecile, and threw all active part in the government into the hands of a Grand Vizier.

The countries held by the Turks in Europe were all inhabited originally by Christian populations. There are Armenian Christians in Asia Minor, Maronite Christians in Syria, and Kopts in Egypt. Besides the large numbers of Christians remaining in Asiatic Turkey they still form in European Turkey four-fifths of the population. These Christians in Europe—aside from the Greeks, of whom there are many in Turkey besides those in Greece—are nearly all Slavonians, and thus doubly allied, by blood and by religious sympathies, with Russia. Hence constant revolts and disturbances, tending to draw this country into war with Turkey. On the other hand, Austria discountenances Russian extension on the side of European Turkey, as tending to endanger her control of the mouths of the Danube. England objects to Russian control of Constantinople, as threatening to cripple her own hold on Asiatic commerce. Ger-

many does not wish to see Russia more powerful in Europe. Thus an entirely bankrupt and corrupt government continues to exist. Countries which in the time of the Romans and Greeks, of the Egyptians and Assyrians, were covered with prosperous and powerful cities, and still of the highest possibilities in the way of civilization, are desolate and depopulated.

The miserable condition of Turkish countries, aside from other causes of decay, results from a system of tax-farming by which contractors, for a certain sum furnished the Sultan, have unlimited power of oppression and extortion over the provinces. Land is uncultivated and trade idle, because wealth is only a summons for the extortions of the tax-collectors.

The Turks themselves are a naturally intelligent and well-disposed people, but corrupted by European and Eastern vices and mixed with a multitude of renegades who in all centuries have been the most depraved and vicious of their officials. Moreover, they are unfitted by religion and social habits to assimilate and adopt those features of European civilization which would bring them into sympathy with the subject European populations.

The Turkish language is Turanian (p. 32), but mixed with Arabic. In literature and poetry the Persians have served as their models.

Tobacco, although we cannot now imagine a Turk without his pipe, was first used after 1604. Coffee first appeared in Constantinople in the reign of Solyman the Great.

The character of Turkish government was doubtless superior in its prime to many other eastern despotisms, but it was usual, until 1600, for the new Sultan to put to death his brothers in order to forestall their rivalry. One of the Sultans thus killed nineteen brothers. The punishment of death was inflicted by many Sultans for the slightest offences. A Sultan of the 17th century put to death one hundred thousand persons. A Grand Vizier of the 17th century, renowned for his justice, put to death thirty-six thousand persons in five years. It is true that these executions were partly called for by the crimes and insubordinate violence of the Janissaries, but this does not better our conception of the Turkish State. In the time of Bonaparte it was still usual for Turkish soldiers to disperse after, or even before, victory, to collect the heads of their slain enemies.

QUESTIONS FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.

What nations were engaged in the wars closed by the various treaties mentioned in the summary on the next page?

What changes of territory were involved in each one of these treaties?

What was the leading feature of French and English history at the time of the battle of Nikopolis? (P. 198.)

From what time do you date the Byzantine Empire, overthrown in 1453?

Who married the Byzantine heiress soon after? (P. 415.)

Mention the sovereigns of Europe contemporary with Solyman the Great? (P. 239.)

What territory was gained by the Turkish victory of Mohacz? (P. 233.) When lost? (P. 428.) By what treaty?

What conquest roused Christendom to the triumph at Lepanto? (P. 427.)

What was the government of Cyprus at this time? (P. 427.)

When did the Turks lose Cyprus? (P. 429.)

Who was king of France when Sobieski defeated the Turks?

What gains were made by Russia at the expense of Turkey in the 18th century? (P. 418.)

What territories has Turkey lost in the 19th century? (Pp. 428, 429.)

SUMMARY OF TURKISH HISTORY.

Othman in Asia Minor after.........................A. D. 1300 ⎫
Turks first landing in Europe; reign of Orchan......... " 1356 ⎪
Amurath I. took Adrianople..................... ...... " 1361 ⎬ 14th Cent
He died in the victory of Korsova..................... " 1389 ⎪
Bajazet I.; victory of Nikopolis.......... .... " 1396 ⎭

Bajazet I.; defeat of Angora......................... " 1402 ⎫
Mahomet II. took Constantinople....... .... " 1453 ⎬ 15th Cent.
    "   "   the Crimea...... .... " 1475 ⎭

Selim I. conquered Syria and Egypt................... " 1517 ⎫
Solyman I. the Great took Rhodes............... ..... " 1522 ⎪
  "   "   "   victory of Mohacz............... " 1526 ⎬ 16th Cent.
  "   "   "   before Vienna................... " 1529 ⎪
Selim II. conquered Cyprus; was defeated at Lepanto... " 1571 ⎭

Turkish defeat on the Raab......................... " 1664 ⎫
Turks defeated before Vienna by Sobieski............. " 1683 ⎬ 17th Cent.
Peace of Carlowitz........................ .... " 1699 ⎭

Peace of Passarowitz............................... " 1718 ⎫
Peace of Belgrade.................................. " 1739 ⎬ 18th Cent.
Peace of Kainardji................................. " 1774 ⎪
Peace of Jassy..................................... " 1792 ⎭

Revolt of Servia after............................... " 1804 ⎫
Independence of Greece after........................ " 1829 ⎪
Semi-independence of Egypt after.................... " 1841 ⎬ 19th Cent.
Crimean War ends by the Peace of Paris.. .... " 1856 ⎪
Semi independence of Roumania after....... .... " 1859 ⎪
Peace of Berlin. (Conditions?)....................... " 1878 ⎭

Map Study.—Geographically the Ottoman Turkish countries were all portions of the Byzantine Empire, and Turkish history relates either to Turkish assimilation or to Turkish debasement of Byzantine civilization, therefore the sequence of maps for the Byzantine Empire should be examined. Its connection and identity with the Roman Empire should be also observed. See pp. 116, 140, 154, 156, 182, 200, 228. See maps of European Turkey at pp. 296, 298, and 300. At p. 293 are best indicated the dimensions of Bosnia, Servia, Wallachia, and Moldavia. At p. 300 see Montenegro. **Localities** are mentioned in the order of reference. Brusa, Adrianople, p. 296; Kossova, in Servia; Nikopolis, p. 298; Angora, in Central Asia Minor; Varna, p. 296; Belgrade, p. 256; Constantinople, p. 296; Kaffa and the Crimea. p. 296, section map; Otranto, see Tarent, p. 300; Mohacz, p. 228; Lepanto, Gulf of Corinth; Carlowitz, north of and near Belgrade; Passarowitz, p. 256; Jassy, p. 296; Navarino, p. 296.