UNIVERSAL HISTORY

72581

A COURSE OF LESSONS ON THE HISTORY OF THE WORLD FROM THE EARLIEST DATE TO THE PRESENT TIME

PREPARED FOR

THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION

BY

A CORPS OF SPECIALISTS CONNECTED WITH

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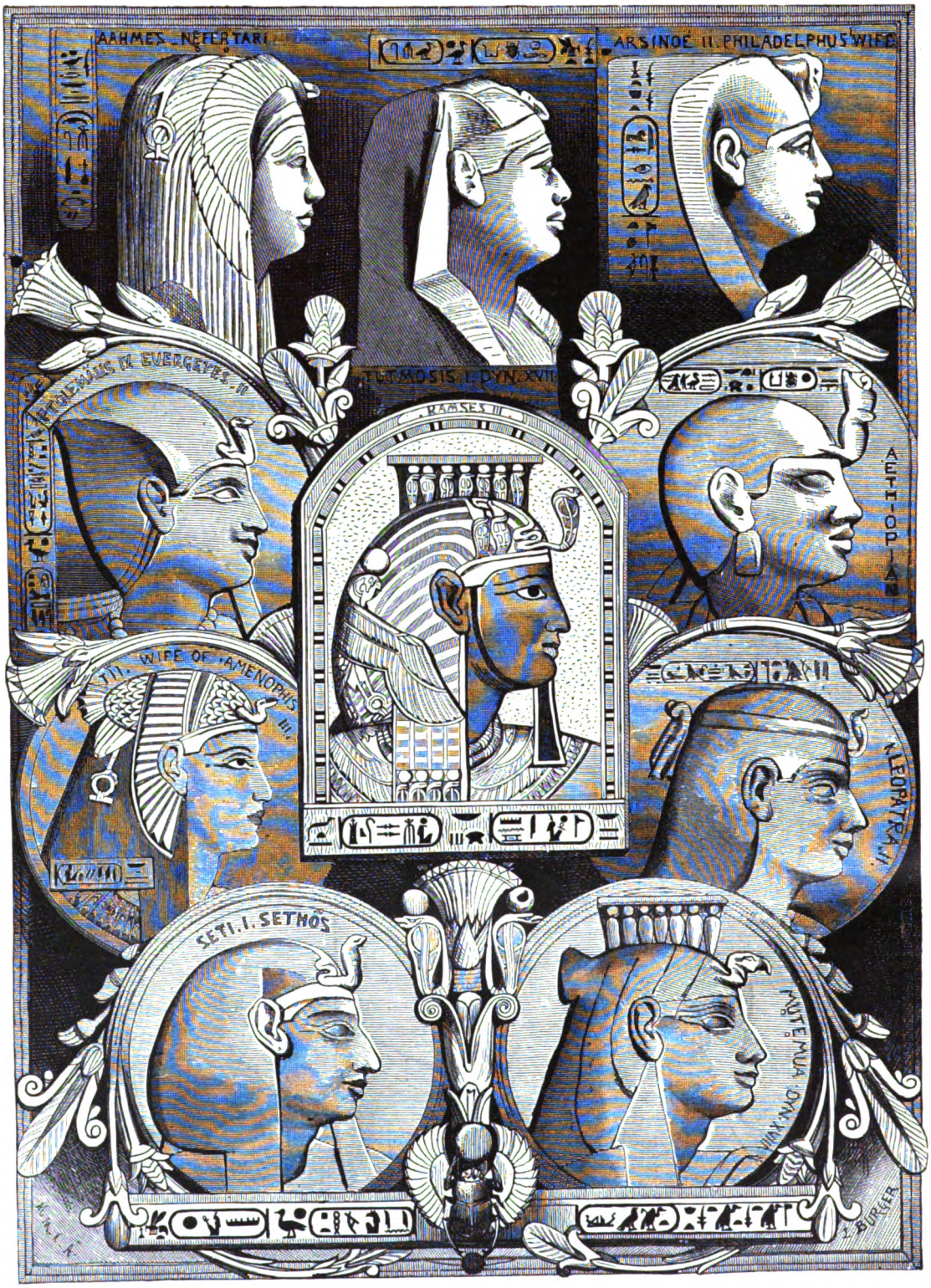

PORTRAITS FROM LIKENESSES OF THE TIME OF THE PHARAOHS.

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VOL. I NUMBER 1.



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THE ANCIENT EASTERN NATIONS

Covering the history of Egypt, Ethiopia, Chaldea, Assyria, Babylonia, Hebrews, Phœnicians, Medo-Persians, China and Japan.

WITH EXTENSIVE QUOTATIONS FROM EMINENT AUTHORITIES

PREPARED BY

SAMUEL FALLOWS, D.D., LL.D.

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED

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1. INTRODUCTORY.

CLASSIFICATION OF RACES.

The races of mankind have been variously classified. Blumenbach makes five races—the Caucasian or white race; the Mongolian, or yellow race; the Ethiopian, or black race; the American, or red race; and the Malay, or brown race. It has been truly said that the history of the civilized world is the history of the Caucasian race. The only other nations which have attained to any degree of civilization have been several Mongolian nations, as the Chinese, the Japanese, the Ancient Parthians, and the modern Tartars, Turks, and Hungarians, and two American Indian nations, or Ancient Mexicans.



Akkadian Type of Features.



Semitic Type of Features.

ORIGIN OF RACES.

The language of the ancient Romans, Greeks, Medes and Persians, and Hindoos, seems to have had a common origin. In the same way the ancient Chaldees, Assyrians, Phoenicians, Hebrews, Arabs and Egyptians seem to have been related to each other.

The former of these languages is called *Aryan*, the latter *Semitic* and *Hamitic* while the Central Asian Tartar nomads have a language called *Turanian.*

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The Caucasian Race is divided into three great branches—the Aryan, Indo-European, or Japhetic; the Semitic, and the Hamitic. **The Aryan** branch includes the Brahmanic Hindoos, the ancient Medes and Persians, and all the European nations, except those belonging to the Turanian branch—the Laps and Fins, the Hungarians, the Ottoman Turks, and the Basques of Northern Spain. **The Semitic** branch comprises the Hebrews, the Arabs, and the ancient Syrians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Phoenicians, and Carthaginians, while the **Hamitic** branch included the Ancient Chaldees, Egyptians and Ethiopians.

The Aryans, in prehistoric ages, occupied that region of Central Asia in which was located the ancient City of Bactra, the Modern Balk, in Turkestan.

The increase in population led to the division of the Aryan branch into three sub-divisions, one crossing the Hindoo-Koosh and overspreading the plateau of Iran and laying the foundations of the great Median and Medo-Persian Empire; another moving southeastward across the Indus and becoming the ancestors of the Brahmanic Hindoos; and a third migrating into Europe in successive hordes, as represented by the Pelasgic, Celtic, Teutonic and Slavonic nations. The Pelasgians settled in the Grecian and Italian peninsulas and founded the Greek and Roman nations. The Celts spread over Western Europe, embracing the Spanish peninsula, Gaul and the British Isles, and became the ancestors of the ancient Spaniards and Gauls, and the Welsh, Irish, and Highland Scotch. The Teutons occupied Central Europe and the Scandinavian peninsula, and became the progenitors of the Goths and Vandals, and the Modern Germans, Danes, Swedes, Norwegians, Hollanders and Anglo-Saxons. The Slavonians overspread portions of Europe, and are represented by the ancient Sarmatians and the modern Russians, Poles, Bohemians, Servians, Bulgarians, Bosnians and Croatians. Clare compiles the following interesting table:



Head of Statuette Showing Oblique Eyes.



Female Head.

BRANCHES OF THE HUMAN RACE.

I. Aryan or Indo-European Branch:
  1. Hindoos.
  2. Medes and Persians.
  3. Hellenes or Greeks.
  4. Latin, or Romanic Nations.
    1. Ancient Romans.
    2. Italians.
    3. French.
    4. Spaniards and Spanish Americans.
    5. Portuguese and Brazilians.
    6. Flemings, or Belgians.
    7. Roumanians.
  5. Germanic or Teutonic Nations.
    1. Germans.
    2. Danes.
    3. Swedes. } Scandinavians.
    4. Norwegians. }
    5. Dutch, or Hollanders.
    6. English and Anglo-Americans (Anglo-Saxon).
    7. Scotch Lowlanders.
    8. Norman French.
  6. Celtic Nations.
    1. Ancient Britons, Gauls and Spaniards.
    2. Irish, Welsh and Scotch Highlanders.
    3. Bretons (West of France).
  7. Slavonic Nations.
    1. Russians.
    2. Poles.
    3. Bohemians.
    4. Servians.
    5. Bulgarians.
    6. Bosnians.
    7. Croatians.

II. Semitic Branch.
  1. Hebrews or Israelites.
  2. Arabs.
  3. Syrians.
  4. Assyrians and later Babylonians.
  5. Phoenicians and Carthaginians.

III. Hamitic Branch.
  1. Chaldees or early Babylonians.
  2. Egyptians and Ethiopians.

N.B.—Particular attention is called to the unique plan followed in the preparation of this outline; no text books are necessary to obtain a fair understanding of the subject. The extensive foot notes, gleaned from many sources, give information which ordinarily would require hours of time and access to a public library to find On the last page is a bibliography of valuable works for those who may wish to read more extensively. The large figures indicate daily lessons.

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EGYPT.

2. PHYSICAL FEATURES.



Papyrus.

1. **Topography.**—The White Nile takes its rise from the great lakes and tablelands lying under the equator, and gathers its waters from the slopes of mountains whose gorges are filled with glaciers and whose summits are covered with snow. Plunging from the highlands it passes through a country of swamps and morasses, and infinite jungles, and thickets of bamboo and sycamores, to finally enter a region of grassy plains, interspersed with tropical forests, and occasionally broken into hills. The Blue Nile takes its rise far to the south-east, out of the tablelands of Abyssinia, and joins the White Nile at Khartoum. The country now begins to take on the peculiar character of Egypt, which in general appearance is remarkably uniform. Upper Egypt is in a rich state of cultivation, but very narrow and bounded by mountains of no great height, which rarely take the form of peaks. The Delta is a level plain richly cultivated and varied alone by the lofty dark-brown mounds of ancient cities, and the villages situated in groves of palm trees.

2. **Position.**—In situation, natural strength and great resources, the political advantages of Egypt can hardly be over-estimated. Egypt lies in the very route of the trade between Europe and Asia, and between Africa and the other two continents. "It is the gate of Africa, and the fort which commands the way from Europe to the East Indies."

The natural ports of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean have always been sufficient for its commerce, which that great inland water-way—the Nile—has greatly augmented. This inhabited country, guarded by deserts and intersected in lower Egypt by branches of the Nile and canals, and in Upper Egypt closely hemmed in by the mountains on either side, is difficult to reach and to traverse; at the same time its extreme fertility makes it independent of supplies from other lands, and thus easier to defend. Hence no wonder that the ancient Egyptians became wealthy and powerful and that the country still prospers, in spite of Turkish misrule, under the semi-protectorate of the English government.

---

2. PHYSICAL FEATURES.

1. **Topography.**—The northern coast of Egypt is low and barren, presenting no feature of interest, and affording no indication of the character of the country which it bounds. It is a barrier, generally of sand-hills, but sometimes of rock, for the most part wholly destitute of vegetation, except where grow a few wild and stunted date-palms Immediately behind are desolate, marshy tracts or extensive salt lakes, and beyond, the fertile country.—*Britannica.*

The African coasts, though washed on three sides with oceans, are nowhere indented with great bays and inlets. . . . Northern Africa is a mountainous district occupying the space between the Sahara and the Mediterranean. Near the western extreme the peaks of the Atlas range rise to the region of perpetual snow. . . . Looking out towards the Mediterranean, opens the valley of the Nile, the largest in Africa and the most fruitful in the world.—*Ridpath.*

2. **Position.**—In shape Egypt is like a lily with a crooked stem. A broad blossom terminates it at its upper end; a button of a bud projects from the stalk a little below the blossom, on the left hand side. The broad blossom is the Delta, extending from Aboosir to Tineh, a direct distance of a hundred and eighty miles, which the projection of the coast, the graceful swell of the petals, enlarges to two hundred and thirty. The bud is the Fayoum, a natural depression in the hills that shut in the Nile valley on the west, which has been rendered cultivable for many thousands of years by the introduction into it of the Nile water through a canal known as the "Bahr-You-souf." The long stalk of the lily is the Nile valley itself, which is a ravine scooped in the rocky soil for seven hundred miles, from the first cataract to the apex of the Delta, sometimes not more than a mile broad, never more than eight or ten miles. No other country in the world is so strangely shaped, so long compared to its width, so straggling, so hard to go over from a single centre.—*Rawlinson.*

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3.

3. **Divisions.**—Ancient Egypt was divided into three geographical sections—Upper Egypt in the south; Middle Egypt in the center; and lower Egypt, or the Delta, in the north. The chief city of the south was the "hundred-gated Thebes," the ruins of which extend for seven miles on both banks of the Nile. The Southernmost points of Egypt were Syene and the Island of Elephantine, in the Nile. The leading city of Middle Egypt was Memphis, famous for its ruins and in the vicinity of which existed the famous Labyrinth and great Pyramids of Ghizeh—the most imposing monuments ever erected by human hands. The Delta was in ancient times thickly studded with cities, including, on the western side the famous Greek city of Alexandria. This city in the later days of antiquity was the metropolis of Egypt and the commercial center of the civilized world, besides at the same time being the seat of learning and civilization.



Foreign Captives Making Bricks at Thebes.

4. **Climate.**—In no other country do the same climatic conditions exist as in Egypt. The temperature hardly varies as much as fifty degrees during the year, while for eight months refreshing winds temper the heat. In upper Egypt rains and snow are impossible and clouds are never seen, while further down the valley an occasional cloud floats southward. The atmosphere is remarkably dry and clear, except on the sea-coast, and the climate equable. The heat is extreme during the greater part of the year and the winter comparatively severe in its cold.

3.

3. **Divisions.**—The country of old was divided into two parts—*Upper Egypt*, as it is now called, with *Thebes* for its principal city, extending from the first cataract, near *Syene*, to the Memphian district; and *Lower Egypt*, embracing the rest of the country on the north, including the Delta. The two divisions were marked by differences of dialect and customs. The country was further divided into *nomes* or districts, about forty in all, but varying in number at different times. They were parted from one another by boundary stones. Each had its own civil organization, a capital and a center of worship.—*Fisher.*

4. **Climate.**—The climate of the Nile valley is warm and dry. In southern Egypt the heat is excessive In northern Egypt several causes combine to give a lower summer temperature. In the desert tracts the air is much drier than in the Nile Valley itself, with greater alternations of heat and cold. In summer the air is suffocating, while in winter the days are cool and the nights actually cold. Heavy rains and violent thunderstorms are frequent at this season. At certain seasons green herbage and flowers cover the torrent beds after the water has flowed into the Nile; but the solar heat and the *Khamseen*, or hot desert wind, wither the herbage and flowers at other seasons.—*Clare.*

At present the only rain that ever occurs in Egypt is that brought over the lowland to the west by a cyclone from the Mediterranean. At Thebes a storm occurs but once in about four years, and light rain almost as rarely. At Cairo there is generally one heavy storm in the winter, and one or two showers in addition. On the coast of the Mediterranean rain is frequent. It is because of the almost entire absence of rain that no vegetation whatever is found on the desert rock formations to the east and the west of the valley of the Nile.—*Britannica.*

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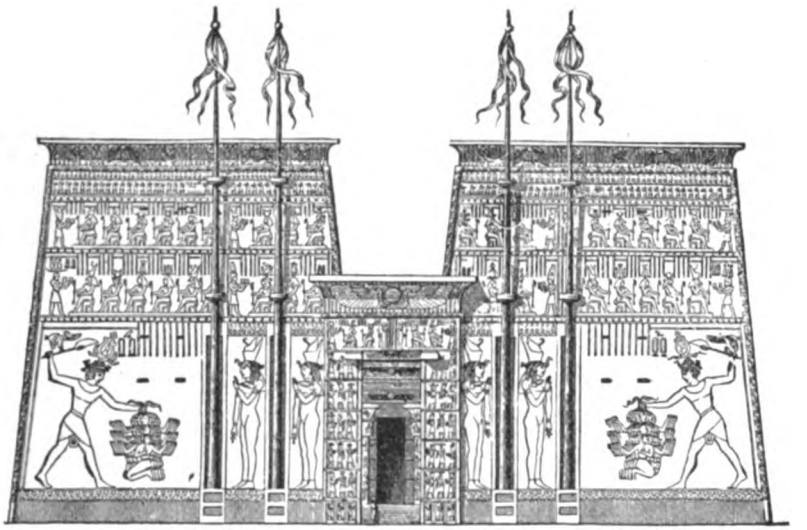
4.

4. **The Nile.**—From the remotest antiquity it has been said that Egypt "is the Gift of the Nile." No artificial methods of renewing the soil could possibly equal what nature has here gratuitously provided in the deposits from the annual overflows of this renowned river. When these floods have subsided the fields are again left dry and are covered with a rich mud. The husbandman has only to sow the seed and gather in the harvest, since the soil requires little or no labor. These overflows have thus caused this famous land, in the midst of surrounding deserts, to become one of the most fertile regions of the globe and, in consequence, the granary of antiquity. No wonder that the ancient dwellers of Egypt regarded these floods with feelings of awe and superstition!



Sculptured Façade of the Temple of Edfu.

The cultivable land of Egypt, which probably did not exceed 5,500 square miles, must be regarded as wholly the deposit of the Nile.

4.

4. **The Nile.**—*Sources.*—The source of the Nile has had in all ages the fascination of mystery, and has been a fruitful theme for conjecture. It was reserved for modern explorers to ascertain that it takes its rise in equatorial Africa, in the two great lakes, the *Albert* and *Victoria Nyanzas.*—*Fisher.*

The great Victoria Nyanza lies in a zone where rain falls all the year round.

Valley.—The Nile is the only river in the world which is considerably larger in its upper course than it is towards its mouth. From the junction of the Atbara to its mouth, a distance of 1,680 miles, it receives no tributary. On the contrary, for every mile of its course, it waters are diminished by evaporation, by absorption in the soil, and by the system of irrigation which extends the whole distance. The river gets less and less in size as it flows through this rainless land, to the soil of which it supplies, by countless irrigation channels, more water than rain would supply.—*Britannica.*

The whole length of the land is shut in between two ranges of hills, roughly parallel at a mean distance of about twelve miles. During the earlier ages, the river filled all this intermediate breadth, and the sides of the hills, polished, worn, blackened to their very summits, still bear unmistakable traces of its action. Wasted and shrunken within the deeps of its ancient bed, the stream now makes a way through its own thick deposits of mud.—*Maspero.*

Arable Soil.—Only the immediate valley of the Nile is arable soil, and this is a very narrow strip, which between Assuan and the Delta never exceeds fifteen miles in width, and at places is only two miles wide. In the Delta there is a far wider stretch of cultivable land, owing to the fact that the Nile here divides into numerous branches, but even here all the land is not available for cultivation, owing to numerous great swamps and large lakes.—*Wendel.*

Annual Floods.—The tributaries of the Upper (White) Nile begin to rise in April, and continue in flood to September or October. The White Nile at Khartoum begins to rise in May, gains two or three feet by July or August, and reaches its maximum, six feet, in September.

The Blue Nile at Khartoum rises rapidly in July and reaches its maximum, 17½ feet, by August 20th. The decline of the Blue Nile is slower than its rise; it takes eighty days to lose the gain achieved in fifty-one days. The Atbara for 150 miles above its junction with the Nile is a wholly dry water-course from March to June. Baker, in 1861, saw it rise, in the night of June 22d, from nothing to a stream 500 yards wide and from 15 to 20 feet deep.—*Britannica.*

The Delta.—In antiquity the greater part of the Delta was swamp and meadow land; and its chief value lay in the fact that it was a good grazing country, and that its swamps and lakes made fine hunting grounds, abounding as they did in all sorts of aquatic birds. The lakes were full of fish, so that fishing was added to grazing and hunting, and thus the country possessed considerable resources even before agriculture became profitable. It is well known that Egypt owes this strip of good land to the Nile.—*Wendel.*

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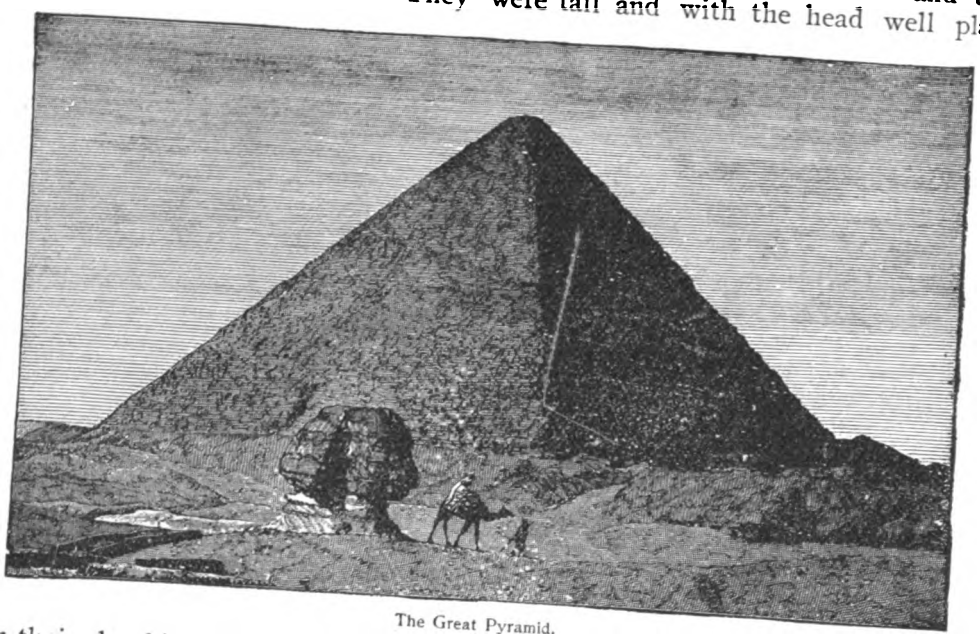
5. INHABITANTS.

1. **Origin.**—Some have maintained that the Egyptians were of Ethiopian origin, but this seems not to have been the case. The features and language of the Egyptians seem to connect them with the Aryan and Semitic branches and it is probable that at least the upper and middle classes were Asiatic immigrants into the Nile Valley. They are believed to have been kindred with other races of South-western Asia, such as the primitive Chaldæan, and the Southern Arabs.

2. **Features.**—The Egyptians resembled the modern Arabs in form and their Syrian neighbors in features. They were tall and with the head well placed



The Great Pyramid.

upon their shoulders, their movements were graceful and dignified. Their frames were spare and in color the men were brown and the women yellow. The forehead was straight but low, and the hair was usually black and straight. They were mild in their general character, polished in their manners, cleanly in their habits, religious and obedient by nature, and in consequence were a healthy, hardy people.

3. **Population.**—Estimates of the population of the Ancient Egyptians vary from five millions to seven millions.

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5. INHABITANTS.

1. **Origin.**—"We must conclude that Syria or Arabia was the cradle of the Egyptian nation."—*Clare.*

2. **Features.**—In physical form the Egyptians were closely allied to the Asiatic people with whom they were ethnically related.—*Ridpath.*

3. **Population.**—The present population is remarkable for the diversity of races it exhibits . . . The chief body consists of the free, proud offspring of Arabia (Bedouins). They love to clothe themselves in bright and gay-colored attire instead of the blue blouse of the Tellah; round their heads they wind a bright-colored cloth which hangs down over their shoulders behind; their naked feet carry thick sandals. These Yembauyeh are generally connected with the shipping, especially as owners, captains and sailors. The Egyptians are most important numerically; they are the petty traders, artisans and porters, though many are also excellent sailors, or have become merchants or ship owners. The greater number have come from Upper Egypt, only the younger having been born in the place There are also a number of Copts among them. Of genuine Turks there are only the governor and a few officials. . . . The negro slaves form an essential constituent in the population, acting mostly as sailors. . . . To those are to be added the almost black Adahdeh.—*Klunzinger.*

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY.

The origin of the Egyptians is an interesting question for investigation. From a good cyclopedia determine the different theories and assign each to individual members for further study, and later, call for reports.

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6. POLITICAL HISTORY.

Egyptian history has been divided into three distinctive periods. Until the subjugation of Egypt by the Shepherd Kings, the country was ruled by a series of dynasties. The Shepherd Kings burned cities, destroyed temples, and massacred or enslaved the inhabitants. After a long humiliation, the people rose against the barbarians who, by a desperate contest, were driven from Egypt. Then began the



Ethiopian Princess in Car Drawn by Oxen.

new Empire, the most brilliant in all Egyptian history, and for the next eight centuries Egypt remained a single united kingdom. Sculpture and architecture reached their highest perfection.

Royal women were held in higher esteem in Egypt, than in any other ancient monarchy. Since its conquest by the Persians, Egypt has been successively under the sway of the Persians, the Macedonians, the Romans, the Saracens, the Mamelukes, and the Ottoman Turks.

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6. POLITICAL HISTORY.

1. **The Old Empire.**—B.C. 3000—1900. The early Egyptians believed that there had been a time when their ancestors were savages and cannibals, dwelling in caves in those ridges of sandstone which border the Nile Valley on the east; and that their greatest benefactors were Osiris and Isis, who elevated them into a devout and civilized nation, eating bread, drinking wine and beer, and planting the olive. The worship of Osiris and Isis, therefore, became prevalent throughout Egypt, while the several cities and provinces had each its own local divinities. Gods, spirits, demi-gods, and *manes*, or the souls of men, were the first rulers of Egypt. This is merely an ancient way of saying that the earliest history of Egypt, as of most other countries, is shrouded in ignorance and fabulous conjecture. – *Thalheimer.*

At a very early period Egypt was highly civilized, but not united, for it consisted of many petty states governed by priests. As one state became more powerful, it swallowed up its neighbors, and grew into a kingdom which finally embraced the whole country.—*Editor.*

2. **The Middle Empire, or that of Shepherd Kings.**—B.C. 1900-1525. Some have supposed that the pyramids were erected by these Shepherd Kings, but the best authorities describe the race as rude, ignorant and destitute of arts, as compared with the Egyptians, either before or after their invasion; and after the long deluge of barbarism was swept back, we find religion, language, and art kept, doubtless, and cultivated in seclusion by the learned class precisely as they were before the interruption. A gap of nearly four hundred years occurs in Egyptian history, between the Old and the New empires, during which the Holy City of Thebes was in the hands of barbarians; the annals ceased, and the names of the kings, either native or foreign, are for the most part unknown. —*Clare.*

3. **The New Empire.**—B.C. 1525-525. B.C. 1525 Amosis led a revolt which expelled the Hyksos, and founded the eighteenth dynasty at Memphis. Several queens were highly honored. The people were prosperous, but the captive Hebrews were oppressed. Thothmes III built many palaces; Seti re-conquered Syria; and his son, Rameses the Great, gained victories in Europe, Asia, and Africa. In the reign of Menephthah, the Israelites were led out of Egypt by Moses. Under the twentieth dynasty, the art, enterprise, and power of Egypt declined. The twenty-first dynasty was composed of priests; the twenty-second, of soldiers. The twenty-fourth was overthrown by Sabaco the Ethio ian; the twenty-fifth, which he founded, was, in turn, reduced by the Assyrians. After thirty years' subjection, Egypt was delivered and united by Psammitichus, with the aid of foreign troops Necho, his son, was successful in many naval and military enterprises, but was defeated at last by Nebuchadnezzar, in the battle of Carchemish. Apries was deposed by the same King, and Amasis came to the throne as a viceroy of Babylon. His son Psammenitus, was conquered by Cambyses, and Egypt became a Persian province.—*Thalheimer.*

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7. CIVILIZATION.

1. **Intellect and Morals.**—The Egyptians were a people of great intellect and in art exhibited wonderful powers. Theoretically they had a high moral standard but practically they were very lax. The women, to say the least, were immodest and in their writings the men boasted of immoral practices. Drunkenness and luxurious living were common vices among both sexes, and among the upper classes sensual pleasure and amusement seemed the end of existence.

2. **Government.**—In form the Egyptian government was a theocratic Monarchy. The earliest movements indicate a powerful local aristocracy holding hereditary functions. Women were eligible to the throne.

3. **The King.**—*The King* was considered the earthly representative of the Deity. He was the head of the national religion, the civil and political head of the State, and his duty was to preside over the sacrifices and pour out libations to the gods. His body was considered sacred and his office was hereditary, although he was not an absolute ruler, being curtailed by the power of the priesthood.

4. **The Priests.**—The priests performed no secular duties and to them belonged one-third of the land. They were the favored class, the holy order, the mainstay of the natural religion, and to them was intrusted the conducting of ceremonies and sacrifices, and the work of education, and the general culture of the people.

5. **Physicians.**—The peculiar practices of the people caused medicine and surgery to be much studied, and hence the Egyptians in these particulars were second only to the Greeks.

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7. CIVILIZATION.

1. **Intellect and Morals.**—The Ancient Egyptians were a people of great power and vigor, but without the passions and caprices of most European tribes. The constitution of the race was at once elastic and conservative, energetic and restful, obedient and pertinacious. It was a race self-conscious without egotism, haughty without disdain, laborious without great motives, ambitious without enthusiasm, warlike without the spirit of conquests.—*Kidpath.*

2. **Government.**—When the king was simply the first among equals, Upper Egypt was divided into thirty administrative departments of different grades, each having its nomarch or governor, who stood as the leader in everything—chief judge, district chief, military commander, tax collector, architect, treasurer, etc. As judge he was also the priest of Mut, the goddess of truth. . . . A new order came in during the period of the new Kingdom. The nomarch surrendered all his functions to military officials, appointed by the king, to look after his interests, and to gather the taxes in kind, peaceably or forcibly, as the case might be. . . . The chief judge was a man of high standing, a prince or noble, or perhaps a priest Beneath him were several grades in the office. Several officers sat as a court and before them complaint was made, prosecution and defense heard and by them judgment pronounced or referred to the king, according to the gravity of the complaint.—*Gillett.*

3 **The King.**—*His Sacred Character.*—A bodyguard protects the monarch; he shows himself to the people only in stately processions. All who approach him prostrate themselves at his feet. He is the descendant of the gods. The Pharaohs are even looked upon as gods incarnate. They are clothed with all power on earth. When they die they go to the gods, and rites of worship are instituted for them. *His Rights and Duties.*—The king is supreme; under him are the rulers of the two halves of the kingdom. He creates the army and appoints its generals. The whole strength of the kingdom is given to him for the erection of the temples which he raises to the gods, or of the stupendous pyramid which is to form his sepulcher. The nobility make up his court; from them he selects his chief officers of state—his secretary, his treasurer, his inspector of quarries, etc.—*Fisher.*

4. **The Priests.**—*Their Mode of Life.*—The priesthood possessed great authority in the state and were the "power behind the throne." So far as the sovereign was concerned they used their power wisely and well. Their habits of life were simple and moderate Their diet was plain in quality, and they abstained from fish, mutton, swine's flesh, beans, peas, garlic, leeks and onions, which were articles of food among the common people. They bathed twice a day and twice during the night, some of the more strict in water tasted by their sacred bird, the ibis, to make sure of being purged of all uncleanness. Their abstinence, purity and humility, and their reputation for learning, enabled the priests to hold the people in religious, political and mental subjection.

By their knowledge of physical science they could frighten and terrorize the superstitious and ignorant lower classes by optical illusions and other tricks. By their power to try the dead they could decide the fate of any man, from the king to the swineherd, by refusing him a passport to the outer world. The priests prescribed the religious ritual of every Egyptian, from the king to the meanest of his subjects —*Clare.*

5. **Physicians.**—The universal practice of embalming was exercised by the physicians, thus enabling them to study the effects of various diseases by examining the body after death. Asiatic monarchs sent to Egypt for their physicians and the fertile soil of the Nile valley furnished drugs for the whole ancient civilized world. Even in our own time the characters used by druggists to denote drams and ounces are the Egyptian ciphers adopted by the Arabs.—*Clare.*

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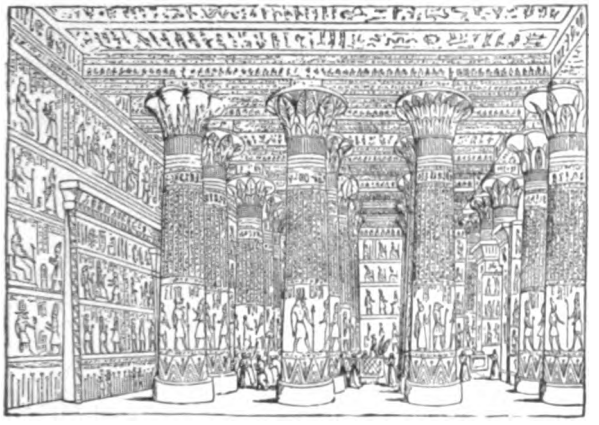
6. **Agriculture.**—Egypt was an agricultural country. The tilling of a soil of unexcelled richness, annually watered and renewed by the river, was the natural policy for the prosperity of the country. The methods of the Egyptians, however, were crude. Wheat was the most important field-produce, but the date-palm, the vine, and other fruit trees were cultivated. The gardens were often extensive and laid out with great formality.

7. **Commerce.**—Building, stone-cutting, weaving, furniture-making, chariot-making, glass-blowing, pottery, metallurgy, boat-building, were the most important, though by no means all, of the trades. The builders worked in wood, stone and brick.



Portico and Temple at Esneh.

8. **The Army.**—The army consisted of foreigners and Egyptians, the latter having certain lands allotted to them. It consisted of two main divisions, a chariot force, in which each chariot contained an archer and a charioteer, and was drawn by two horses; and a force of foot soldiers, chiefly heavy infantry, armed with shield and spear, sword, axe or mace; and light infantry, with bow, axe and slingers.

9. **Embalming.**—It is said that more than four hundred million mummies of human beings were made in Egypt. According to Clare the most improved method cost, per corpse, in our money, about a thousand dollars; an inferior method about four hundred dollars, and the lowest price, for the poorest class, a still lower and more moderate sum.

8.

6. **Agriculture.**—Most of the agricultural laborers in Egypt were hired laborers working on the estates of others under the supervision of brutal overseers. Their utensils were crude.—*Editor.*

The land was owned in large estates by the nobles, who were possessed of multitudes of serfs and of cattle. They had in their service also, artisans, oarsmen and traffickers. The centers of industry were the numerous cities.—*Fisher.*

In the tomb of Ranni, a military man, is represented a visit of inspection paid by a proprietor to his farm. He is distinguished by an ornamental collar and a long garment, and has in one hand a sceptre or mace, in the other the staff which among the Egyptians marked the higher classes. Two servants follow him, one carrying his bow and quiver and a stool, the other his slippers. Before him goes a writer with a roll and writing instruments; two herdsmen bring in the cattle, one of whom throws himself prostrate before his master, and the other is evidently repeating to the writer the tale of cattle, sheep, goats and swine which are under his charge. An inscription above records the number of each—cattle, 122; rams, 300; goats, 1,200; swine, 1,500. In a tomb near the pyramids. 860 asses, 974 sheep, 834 oxen, 220 cows and 2,234 goats are numbered as the property of the occupant.—*Kenrick.*

7. **Commerce.**—Commerce (at present) is facilitated by an extensive railway system, nearly all owned by the government. The Nile and the larger canals are navigated by steamers as well as by freight boats. Egypt has a large trade with Eastern Soudan and other parts of the interior of Africa, and the slave trade was carried on till virtually wiped out by English influence and effort. Cotton, sugar, pulse, wheat, ivory, gums, oil-seeds, and senna are exports. Petroleum, timber, iron and coal are the principal imported staples. The trade with Mecca and Central Africa by caravan is extensive.—*Lippincott.*

8. **The Army.** — *War-Chariots.* — The war-chariots formed the most important part of the Egyptian army, and were used instead of cavalry. These chariots were mounted on two wheels, and were very carefully made.—*Clare.*

Archers.—The Egyptians were the most skillful archers of antiquity. Their bows were the most powerful, and their arrows, drawn to their ear, were the best aimed of those of all ancient nations. —*Editor.*

Weapons.—The heavy arms of the Egyptian infantry were a spear, a dagger, a short sword, a pole ax, a battle ax, a helmet and a shield.—*Clare.*

Enemies slain —Enemies who laid down their weapons on land and sued for mercy were usually spared. . . . In order to ascertain the number of slain among an enemy's army on the battle-field (*they*) mutilated them, cutting off and carrying to the camp the right hand, the tongue or some other portion of the body.—*Clare.*

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9.



Blue Glass Bottle.

10. **Arts.**—Among the Egyptians sculpture and painting were subservient to architecture, the latter of all arts claiming the first place. Temples were not built to contain statues, but statues were set up to adorn temples and the sculptures and paintings were used for decorations. Life after death was the idea of the Egyptians and hence the construction of lasting tombs. Decoration was subordinated to commemoration, and thus every building was both religious and historical in its purposes.

11. **Science.**—The Egyptian knowledge of astronomy is attested by their cycles for the reckoning of time, and of geometry by their architecture. The hardening of bronze tools likewise shows considerable knowledge of chemistry and metallurgy.

12. **Sculpture.**—Ancient Egyptian sculpture includes statuary, reliefs, and *intaglios*, or representations by cutting the forms into stone or marble, and was designed to illustrate the religious faith of the people. Hence their statuary was distinguished for massiveness and strength, or grandeur and sublimity, rather than for beauty.

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9. ARTS.

10. **Architecture.**—The architecture of Egypt was at first very simple, but it seems that at least before B.C. 2000 most of the different architectural forms were developed All decorative forms were derived from the vegetation of Egypt, the lotus flower and button, the palm branches, the papyrus. . . . Among architectural figures the sphinx takes the first place. . . . All temples consisted of a shrine before which a number of rectangular courts, colonnades, halls and pylon or tower-like buildings were constructed. . . . Whether the gigantic blocks, hardly mastered by modern engineers, were moved by skillful machinery, is doubtful; the combined forces of thousands seemed to have placed them in position. The character of the private architecture was opposed to the solidity of the public buildings, being light structures of wood and sun dried brick.—*International Cyclopedia.*

11. **Science.**—*Glass* bottles containing red wine are represented on monuments more than 4,000 years old, by far the earliest examples of glass in existence being of Egyptian origin. They had their own secrets in coloring which the best Venetian glass-makers of today are unable to discover. So delicately ornamented are some of their mosaics that some of the feathers of birds can be made out only with a lens, and from this fact we conclude that some means of magnifying was known to them. *Steel* was in use B C. 2200—pictures representing butchers as sharpening their knives on bars of steel are in existence. *Gold* rings, bracelets, armlets, necklaces, earrings, vases and statues were common B C. 2000—cups being often beautifully engraved and studded with precious stones. *Silver* and gold wire were, about the same time, woven into cloth and used in embroidery, and objects of art were sometimes made of silver. *Bronze* instruments, made by them, though buried for ages and since exposed to European climates, are still smooth and bright.

They understood the art of imparting elasticity to bronze or brass, and overlaying bronze with a rich green by means of acids. *In weaving* they have never been surpassed, linens having been found which, in touch, are comparable to silk. *Pottery* of many varities exist, and the early use of fine colored enamels, afterwards brought to such perfection, is shown by the enameled clay plaques in black, white and greenish blue which decorated the doorway of certain pyramids.

The relation of time, the decimal system of numbers, weights and measures, the geographical divisions of the country, and the divisions of the year into 365 days, and also three periods of four months of thirty days each, and also, into twelve months, were known as early as B.C. 2000.—*Editor.*

12. **Sculpture.**—Sculpture had arrived among the Egyptians at a high degree of mechanical perfection. The hardest materials, granite, serpentine, breccia and basalt, were wrought by them with a precision and finish which the modern artists admired without being able to explain. This branch of the art had already been perfected at the early period of the erection of the Pyramids. In the scenes of common life portrayed in the grottoes, though the drawing is generally incorrect and the laws of perspective neglected, there is a freedom and even playfulness which we should not otherwise have known to belong to the Egyptian character. Their humor even runs into caricature. In one of the royal sepulchers at Thebes we see an ass and a lion singing and accompanying themselves on the phorminx and harp. Another is a burlesque of a battle-piece. A fortress is attacked by rats and defended by cats who are mounted on the battlements. The rats bring a ladder to the walls and prepare to scale them, while a body armed with spear, shield and bow protect the assailants, and a rat of gigantic size in a chariot drawn by dogs, has pierced the cats with his arrows and swings round his ax in exact imitation of Rameses dealing destruction on his enemies. In a papyrus of the Museum of Turin, a cat is seen with a shepherd's crook watching a flock of geese, and a cynocephalus playing on the flute.—*Kenrick.*

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13. **Education.**—The schools of Egypt were ecclesiastical and our obligations to the priests of the Nile are very great. They were a source of enlightenment to surrounding nations. Not only Moses, but those who were most active in stimulating the nascent energies of Greece were trained in the wisdom of the Egyptians. Education became secular in countries where the priesthood did not exist as a separate body, and thus Greece in making famous the literature of Alexandria was only repaying a debt incurred centuries before.

14. **Writing.**—The full hieroglyphic pictorial writing was developed from a more ancient purely phonetic form. It made use of consonants only, and consisted of signs representing twenty-one consonants. In developing this simple method of writing, word-symbols were introduced, such as the picture of a goose in place of the proper phonetic signs for the word goose. By introducing a great number of such picture signs, the fully developed hieroglyphic system was made.



Canaanitish Immigration into Egypt.
(*From the Tombs of Beni Hassan.*)

15. **Rosetta-stone.** — During Bonaparte's invasion of Egypt, 1798, a French engineer named Boussard, discovered, near the Rosetta mouth of the Nile, a stone on which was an inscription in three different languages, one of which was in Greek. From this, the art of deciphering the language of the Egyptians became known. The stone is now in the British Museum.

10.

13. **Education.**—The "public schools" of Egpyt were open to all-comers, and the son of the artisan sat on the same bench with the son of the noble, enjoyed the same education, and had an equal opportunity of distinguishing himself. . . . . There was, in fact, no obstacle to prevent the son of a laboring man from rising to the very highest positions in the administration of the empire.—*Rawlinson.*

14. **Writing.**—*Method of Recording.*—There is hardly one of all the monuments of the Nile valley which does not bear some inscription, and in that dry atmosphere they are wonderfully preserved; an immense number of closely written papyri has also been found, and even in the vessels used by the people there were not infrequently inscriptions; so it happens that at the present day we have a very considerable mass of ancient Egyptian literature. A building almost as large as the British Museum might be filled with copies of all the known inscriptions in portfolios, etc , and of the rolls of papyrus preserved under glass. Every kind of literature except the dramatic is known to us as having existed among the ancient Egyptians; and it is to the hieratic writings particularly—that is to say, writings in the old sacerdotal dialect, usually on papyrus, with peculiar abbreviated signs - that we owe our intimate knowledge of their literature.—*Ebers.*

15 **Rosetta-stone.**—The "Rosetta-stone" has on it three inscriptions, two of which are in Egyptian and the third in the Greek character and language. This last contains a sacerdotal decree or proclamation in honor of Ptolemy V (Epiphanes I) who reigned from 204-181 B.C., and it ends with an injunction that the said decree is to be engraved on a tablet of hard stone in three characters: the hieroglyphic, the demotic (or popular), and the Greek, and thus to be preserved in each of the great temples.—*Ebers.*

QUESTIONS.

What may be said of the intellectual qualifications of Egyptians? Moral qualities? What powers were exercised by the King? How were trials conducted? What was thought in regard to the sacred character of kings? What was the mode of life of the priest? How did his powers compare with the King? What special function was assigned to physicians? Why? From whom do we indirectly get the druggist's characters? Name the principal products of the soil? What may be said of the representations for tombs? How are lands owned? What of their methods of agriculture? State the methods of warfare? How were the enemy's slain treated? What were the special features of architecture? What was the rank of sculpture? Give a few examples of their caricatures? What is the character of modern schools? From what was the hieroglyphic language developed?

Give the history of the "Rosetta-Stone"? In what ways do we find Egyptian history recorded? How has this record been preserved? What do you think of its reliability as historical evidence?

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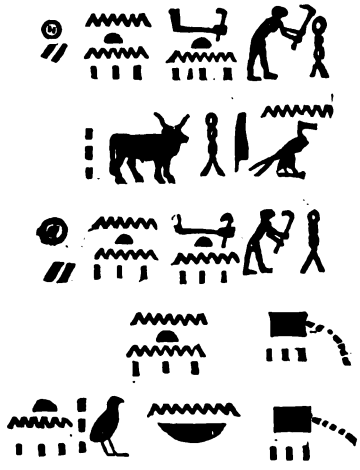
11. MYTHOLOGY AND RELIGION.

1. **Character.**—The Ancient Egyptians believed in one supréme being, self-existent, self-producing, the creator of heaven and earth, called the double being, as the parent of a second manifestation. To their local divinities certain attributes of this supreme deity were given, as though they were mere personifications. Thus every town had its local divinities, and eventually its sacred animals. As the animal worship was associated with higher ideas by the union of an animal's head with the body of a man in the figures of the divinities, so were the local divinities connected with the monotheistic idea of intermediate forms.



Song of Threshers to Oxen.

2. **Transmigration.**—The Egyptians believed that happiness in the future depended on our conduct here; that the soul after making the circuit of transmigration through the animal kingdom would return to the body from which it departed.

3. **Ceremonies.**—With the Egyptians the greatest ceremony was the funeral. The period of mourning began at death and usually lasted seventy-two days. After the embalming, with its attendant ceremony, the mummy was placed on a sledge and often taken to the river, or sacred lake, which was crossed in a sacred boat. Before the right of burial was permitted every one was judged before a legal tribunal. After the burial and at stated times, offerings were made and ceremonies performed, and the chief inscription begged the passer-by to say a prayer for the good of the inhabitant of the tomb. The Egyptians were beyond question the most pious of all the nations of antiquity.

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11. MYTHOLOGY AND RELIGION.

1. **Character.**—In very early ages, the Egyptians appear to have been under the most powerful priestly domination. Their religion was gloomy and brutal, and thus the highest of man's faculties became debased, while his physical ingenuity and talents alone were cultivated. The priests were believed to have power over the destinies of the departed, and to be capable of transferring their souls into the bodies of animals, according to the doctrine of transmigration. The fate of the soul was believed to remain associated with that of the body; and it was only when the latter decayed that the spirit was supposed to seek another dwelling place. Hence came the great attention which the higher classes in Egypt paid to the embalming of the dead, and the preservation of those mummies which are among the wonders of the world. The bodies of people who died thousands of years ago have been carefully preserved by chemical preparations, wrapped up in folds of fine linen, and inclosed sometimes in several coffins of richly decorated wood. Portraits frequently accompany these relics of mortality and jewels and other valuable things have been deposited with them. The feeling that they thus showed respect for their departed relations is apt to be destroyed by seeing mummies of cats and other animals carefully preserved. This was connected with their degrading polytheism. Their gods were at first represented as gigantic human beings; but apparently extending the range of their worship to the animals sacrificed, the Egyptians bowed down before the most hideous mixtures of the brute and the human form. Thus with all their ability, they possessed no enlightenment of soul.—*White.*

Their fundamental doctrine was that God is one, unrepresented, invisible. But as God acts upon the world, his various attributes or modes of manifestation were represented in various forms. As the Creator, he was Phtha; as the Revealer, he was Amun; as the Benefactor and the judge of men, he was Osiris; and so on through an endless list of primary, secondary, and tertiary characters; which to the uneducated became so many separate divinities Some portion of this divine life was even supposed to reside in plants and animals, which were accordingly cherished and worshiped by the ignorant. . . . The people, then, believed in eight gods of the first order, twelve of the second, and seven of the third; but each of these was worshiped under many titles, or as connected with different places.—*Thalheimer.*

The Egyptian was taught to pay a religious regard to animals. In one place goats, in another sheep, in a third hippotami, in a fourth crocodiles, in a fifth vultures, in a sixth frogs, in a seventh shrew-mice, were sacred creatures, to be treated with respect and honor, and under no circumstances to be slain, under the penalty of death to the slayer. And besides this local animal-cult, there was a cult which was general. Cows, cats, dogs, ibises, hawks, and cynocephalous apes, were sacred throughout the whole of Egypt. . . . Inhabitants of neighboring villages would attack each other with the utmost fury if the native of

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one had killed or eaten an animal held sacred by the other.

In any house where a cat or dog died, the inmates were expected to mourn for them as for a relative. Both these and the other sacred animals were carefully embalmed after death, and their bodies were interred in sacred repositories.—*Rawlinson.*

Religion among the people.—Their writing was so full of sacred symbols as to render it almost useless for any other purpose. Literature, science and art were branches of theology and worship. The most common labors of daily life were constantly interrupted by some reference to priestly regulation. The future fate of every Egyptian was perpetually before him, so that he only lived to worship the gods. When the sun set it seemed to die; when it arose, it seemed a symbol of the resurrection. Religion penetrated so deeply into the people's habits that it became an instinct. It was of all polytheism the last to give way to Christianity, retaining its votaries as late as the sixth century of the Christian era.—*Clare.*

2. **Transmigration.**—The Egyptians were the first to maintain that the soul of men is immortal; that after the death of the body it always enters that of some other animal which is born; and when it has passed through all those of the earth, water and air, it again enters that of man, which circuit it accomplishes in 3,000 years.—*Herodotus.*

Book of the Dead.—Copies of the chief work of the Egyptian religion, well known as the "Book of the Dead," are particularly abundant here (Museum at Boolak). They have commonly been found on mummies, among the wrappers and bandages in coffins; chapters of this work occur too on the walls of tombs and the sides of sarcophagi and on small articles of the furniture of the dead. . . . This work has rightly been called a traveler's guide for the departed soul in its wanderings in the nether world. The most perfect copy extant . . . is at Turin and the most remarkable and interesting chapter of it is the 125th, in which a representation of the judgment of the dead in the nether world is generally introduced. The departed soul stands by the side of a balance; in one scale his heart is placed, in the other a figure of Truth. Anubis and Horus watch the weighing, which is satisfactory when the heart and statue of Truth balance each other. Thoth-Hermes declare the result, and restore the heart to the justified soul that has been found true. Osiris, as president of the subterranean court of justice, opposes the justification of the dead man who must declare himself innocent of as many crimes as there are bystanders assisting at the judgment, namely, forty-two. These forty-two asseverations, each of them beginning with "I have not," are set forth in the 125 chapter of the text, and afford us the quintessence, as it were, of the moral principles of the Egyptians, which show a close affinity to the Mo aic law. It is only by a study of the "Book of the Dead" that we found it possible to fathom the basis of the Egyptian theology and doctrine of eternity.—*Ebers.*

3. **Ceremonies.**—*Embalming.*—The ceremonies consisted of a sacrifice, similar to those offered in the temples, vowed for the deceased to one or more gods; incense and libation were also presented; and a prayer was sometimes read, the relations and friends being present as mourners. They even joined their prayers to those of the priest; and embracing the mummied body, and bathing its feet with their tears they uttered those expressions of grief and praises of the deceased, which were dictated by their feelings on so melancholy an occasion. . . . These rites were administered at intervals as long as the family paid for their performance. . . . It was not unusual to keep mummies in the house. . . . Many months often elapsed between the ceremony of embalming and the actual burial —*Wilkinson.*

9. *Object of Embalming.*—It is even supposed that the Egyptians preserved the body, in order to keep it in a fit state to receive the soul which once inhabited it, and that their tombs were decorated so richly in order to be ready for their owners on a future occasion. But this is contradicted by the fact of the tombs being sold to later occupants; and by animals being also embalmed, the preservation of whose bodies was not ascribable to any idea connected with the soul; and the custom arose rather from a sanitary regulation for the benefit of the living, and from that feeling of respect for the dead which is common to all men.—*Wilkinson.*

Believing that the soul survives death, the Egyptians linked its weal with the preservation of the body, from which they could not conceive its destiny to be wholly dissevered. Thus arose the universal practice of embalming, and of presenting at intervals offerings of food and drink to the departed.—*Fisher.*

Methods.—They commence by extracting the brain from the nostrils by a curved-iron probe, partly cleansing the head by these means, and partly by pouring in certain drugs; then making an incision in the side . . . they draw out the intestines. . . . Having cleansed and washed them with palm wine, they cover them with pounded aromatics; and afterwards filling the cavity with powder of pure myrrh, cassia, and other fragrant substances, frankincense excepted, they sew it up again. This being done, they salt the body, keeping it in natron during seventy days, to which period they are strictly confined. Then . . . they wash the body, and wrap it up entirely in bands of fine linen smeared on their side with gum. . . . The relations then take away the body, and have a wooden case made in the form of a man, in which they deposit it; and when fastened up they keep it in a room in their house, placing it upright against the wall.—*Wilkinson.*

Mummies.—Pettigrew classifies mummies as follows: I Those with the ventral incision. II. Those without any incision. Of the first there are two classes, viz.: those preserved by balsamic matter and those preserved by natron. Those without the ventral incision are, also, of two kinds, viz.: salted, and filled with bituminous matter less pure than the others, and those simply salted.

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY.

1. What were the principal influences in the development of the moral qualities of the Egyptians? 2. The history, growth and methods of Egyptian courts. 3. The history, growth and influences which lead to the belief in the sacredness of the King. 4. The influences which lead to the acquired powers of priest. 5. The drug trade of Ancient Egypt. 6. The status and history of caste in Egypt. 7. The history of the influences which caused the lands to come into the possession of the nobles. 8. The special privileges of the army 9. The rank of Egyptian architecture. 10. The rank and character of Egyptian sculpture and painting. 11. The methods of progress made in the study of hieroglyphics.

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12.



Egyptian Mummies.

1. **Temples.**—Clare informs us that "the Egyptian temples surpassed in grandeur all other architectural monuments in the world. The temple of Amun, in the fertile oasis of Siwah, in the Libyan desert, was one of the most celebrated oracles of antiquity. Near this temple, in a grove of palm-trees, rose a hot spring, the Fountain of the Sun, whose bubbling and smoking were believed to betoken the Divine presence."

2. **Tombs.**—Nowhere is the feeling of the Egyptians with respect to death and the future state so forcibly impressed as in the tombs of the kings, and in the sepulchres themselves. Here the long, dark passages, and lofty chambers, on whose walls we see the awful punishments of the wicked and the rewards of the good, fitly unveil the most secret mysteries of the Egyptian religion.

12.

1. **Temples.**—The greatest of all Seti's work was his pillared hall at Karnak, the most splendid single chamber that has ever been built by any architect, and even in its ruins, one of the grandest sights that the world contains. Seti's hall is three hundred and thirty feet long, by one hundred and seventy feet broad, having thus an internal area of fifty six thousand square feet, and covers, together with its walls and pylons, an area of eighty-eight thousand such feet, or a larger space than that covered by the Dome of Cologne, the largest of all the cathedrals north of the Alps.—*Rawlinson.*

No language can convey an idea of its beauty and no artist has yet been able to reproduce its form so as to convey to those who have not seen it, an idea of its grandeur. The mass of its central piers, illumined by a flood of light from the clerestory, and the smaller pillars of the wings gradually fading into obscurity, are so arranged and lighted as to convey an idea of infinite space; at the same time the beauty and massiveness of the forms, and the brilliancy of their colored decorations, all combine to stamp this as *the greatest of man's* architectural work, but such a one as it would be impossible to reproduce, except in such a climate, and in that individual style, in which and for which it was created —*Fergusson.*

2. **Tombs.**—Already the tomb was more important than the house; and while every habitation constructed for the living of men of the time has utterly perished, scores of the dwellings assigned to the departed still exist, many in an excellent condition. They are stone buildings resembling small houses, each with its door of entrance, but with no windows, and forming internally a small chamber generally decorated with sculptures. The walls slope at an angle of seventy-five or eighty degrees externally, but in the interiors are perpendicular. The roof is composed of large flat stones. Strictly speaking, the chambers are not actual tombs, but mortuary chapels. The embalmed body of the deceased, encased in its wooden coffin, was not deposited in the chamber, but in an excavation under one of the walls which was carefully closed up after the coffin had been placed inside it. The chamber was used by the relatives for sacred rites, sacrificial feasts, and the like, held in honor of the deceased, especially on the anniversary of his death and entrance into Amenti. The early Egyptians indulged, like the Chinese, in a worship of ancestors. The members of a family met from time to time in the sepulchral chamber of their father, or their grandfather, and went through various ceremonies, sang hymns, poured libations, and made offerings, which were regarded as pleasing to the departed, and which secured their protection and help to such of their descendants as took part in the pious practices —*Rawlinson.*

Pyramids.—The pyramids of Egypt are vast artificial structures, most of them of stone, scattered at irregular intervals along the western valley of the Nile. The largest, best known, and most celebrated, are the three pyramids of Ghizeh, situated on a platform of rock about one hundred and fifty feet above the surrounding desert, near the ruins of Memphis. . . . The largest of these, the famous pyramid of Cheops, is a gigantic structure, the base of which covers a surface of eleven a res. The sides of the base correspond in direction with the four cardinal points, and each measures at the foundation seven hundred and forty-six feet. The perpendicular height is about four hundred and eighty feet.—*Wilson.*

QUESTIONS.

What was held with reference to transmigration? Did this have anything to do with embalming? Why did the Egyptians embalm the bodies of animals? What was the Egyptian idea of a God? How were the various attributes represented? How did some come to worship animals and even plants? What was the feeling in regard to sacred animals? How was the ceremony connected with embalming conducted? How much importance was attatched to it by the Egyptians? Give the substance of Rawlinson's statement in reference to Seti's hall? What was Fergusson's estimate? Give the substance of Eber's statement in reference to the "Book of the Dead"?

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CHRONOLOGY OF EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

Explanations.—The Roman numbers refer to dynasties. The first place mentioned under each dynasty was its capital. All dates are B.C., and adopted from Ridpath. Clare makes comtemporary dynasties as follows: From 2700 to 2400, I and III; from 2450 to 2220 the early part of IV. and II. and V.; from 2220 to 2080, the remainder of II. and VI., IX. (in part) XI., and middle of V.; from 2080 to 1900 the remainder of V. and IX. and the XII., XIV., XV. and XVI.; from 1900 to 1600 the VII. and XIII., X. and XVII.

I. This (Abydos) —— – 3892. 8 kings. Memphis founded. Temple of Phthah built. Citadel of Memphis built. The oldest of the pyramids — Kokome — built. Writings of King Aleta, on anatomy.

II. This 3892–3639. Passage of a law making woman equally eligible to the crown.

III. Memphis 3639–3338. 9 kings. Buildings first made with hewn stone. Invention of geometry and astronomy by King Sasychis, who, also, organized the worship of the gods. Law enacted allowing mummies as security for debts.

IV. Memphis 3338–3124. 3 kings. Khufu inaugurated the epoch of pyramid building. About 70 were erected including the three pyramids of Ghizeh. Khufu prepared a part of the "Funeral Ritual." Khafra builds the Sphinx.

V. Memphis, 3123–2840. 9 kings. Decline in power and architecture. One of the oldest works in Egyptian literature—a treatise on moral duties — written by Prince Ptah-hotep. Among the hieroglyphics are pictures of the reed pen and inkstand; five different plows, and the making of butter and cheese.

VI. Elephantine, 2840–2744. Beginning of foreign wars of conquests. Decline in architecture and sculpture. Pepi reigns ninety five years. Copper mines of Arabia and peninsula of Sinai worked.

VII Memphis, 2744–2592. Uneventful.

VIII Memphis, 2592–2522. Uneventful.

IX. Heracleopolis, 2674–2592. Uneventful.

X. Heracleopolis, 2565–2522. Uneventful.

XI. Thebes, 2522–2423. Uneventful.

XII. Thebes, 2423–2380. Country irrigated by canals. Sculpture and architecture practiced with old time zeal. Construction of the labyrinth of 3,000 rooms. Lake Moëris used for irrigation.

XIII. Thebes, 2380–2136. 13 kings. Social and civil disturbances. Break in monumental records. Capture of the country by the Hyksos.

XIV. Xoïs, 2167–2136.

XV., XVI, and XVII. Under the Hyksos or Shepherd Kings.

XVIII. Thebes, 1684–1591. Egypt united and power restored. Ruined temples restored. Introduction of the horse and the war chariot. Soldiers made prominent. Temple of Amun-Ra built. Happy reign of Queen Hatasa. Capture of Nineveh.

XIX. Thebes, 1591–1443. House of Rameses reigns. Seti erects the Hall of Columns at El-Karnak. Rameses II. builds first war-vessels ever constructed by the Egyptians. Also monuments are built. Menepta – the Pharaoh of the Exodus of Israel — reigns. Hebrews remain 240 years. Naval battles are pictured and 400 war vessels are built. The great wall on the East is built to protect against the Syrians and Arabs.

XX. Thebes, 1343–1269. Decline of power. Settlements from foreign countries become common.

XXI. Tanis, 1269–1091. Dynasty of Priests. Psiuen-sau gives his daughter in marriage to Solomon.

XXII. Bubastes, 1091 to 961. National decay continued.

XXIII. Tanis, 961–787. This dynasty held the throne of Lower Egypt for a great period.

XXIV. Sais, 787–729. The energies were revived but finally overcome.

XXV. (The Ethiopians ruled) 729–716. Series of petty wars and strifes.

XXVI. Sais, 716–685. Foreigners including Ethopians, Ionians, Carians, Phoenicians, Hebrews, etc., make settlements. The Egypt of the Pharaohs was dead. Wars with Nebuchadnezzar.

XXVII. (The Persians) 685–525. Egypt overthrown by Cambyses, King of Persia.

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SIDE LIGHTS ON EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

Respect for Old Age.—The Egyptians particularly inculcated respect for old age; and the fact of this being required even towards strangers, argues a great regard for the person of a parent. Like the Israelites and the Lacedoemonians they required every young man to give place to his superior in years, and, even if seated, to rise on their approach.—*Wilkinson.*

Patriotism.—The Egyptians were particularly remarkable for their great love for their country, which is also inherited by their successors. They considered it to be under the immediate protection of the gods, and the center of the world. They even called it the "world" itself, and it was thought to be the favored spot where created beings were first generated, while the rest of the earth was barren and uninhabited.—*Wilkinson.*

Education of Youth.—"They knew," says Plato, "that children ought to be early accustomed to such gestures, looks and notions as are decent and proper, and not be suffered to hear and learn any verses and songs, than those which are calculated to inspire them with virtue. They consequently took care that every dance and ode introduced at their feasts and sacrifices should be subject to certain regulations."

Marriage and Treatment of Women.—Diodorus affirms that part of the agreement entered into at the time of marriage was, that the wife should have control over her husband, and that no objection should be made to her *commands* whatever they might be.

On this Wilkinson remarks: "Though we have enough to convince us of the superior treatment of women among the Egyptians as well from ancient authors as from the sculptures that remain, it may be fairly doubted if those indulgences were carried to the extent mentioned by the historian or that *command* extended beyond the management of the house and the regulation of domestic affairs."

But the concession shows that some of the ideals of some of the representatives of "the New Woman" were realized among the ancient people.

The marriage of brother and sister was permitted by Egyptian law.

Stealing.—The Egyptians had a singular custom respecting theft and burglary. Those who followed the *profession* of thief gave in their names to the chief of the robbers and agreed that he should be informed of everything they might thenceforward steal, the moment it was in their possession. In consequence of this the owner of the lost goods always applied by letter to the chief for their recovery; and having stated their quality and quantity, the day and hour when they were stolen and other requisite particulars, the goods were identified, and on payment of one-fourth of their value, they were restored to the applicant in the same state as when taken from his house. The advantage of this plan was that anyone outside of the profession thus stealing would be at once brought to time and severely punished according to the Egyptian law.

The salary of the chief of robbers was not merely derived from his own demands upon the goods stolen or from any voluntary contribution of the robbers themselves, but was probably a fixed remuneration granted by the government as one of the chiefs of police.—*Wilkinson.*

Dentists.—The Egyptians paid great attention to health, and so wisely, says Herodotus, was medicine managed by them, that no doctor was permitted to practice any but his own peculiar branch. It is a singular fact their dentists adopted a method not very long since practiced among us, of filling teeth with gold, proofs of which have been obtained from some mummies of Thebes, thus showing incidentally that Wendell Phillips was correct in saying that many arts which are supposed to be modern, were simply the restoration of "the lost arts" known to the ancients.

Ventilation.—In his lecture upon "The Lost Arts," Wendell Phillips said, referring to the inner chamber of the great pyramid of Cheops which had a shaft reaching to the outer air through the apex of the pyramid: "Those old Egyptians knew how to ventilate their tombs, and we moderns do not know how to ventilate our houses."

ANTIQUITY OF EGYPT.

BY ANDREW D. WHITE, LL.D., L.H.D.,

Ex-President of Cornell University.

Mena.—The evidence of a vastly longer existence of man in the Nile Valley than could be made to agree with even the longest duration accorded by modern chronolgy, is now seen to be overwhelming. Manetho, the Egyptian scribe at Thebes in the third century B.C., assigned a longer duration to human civilization than that which accords with the chronologies of modern writers. The first of the Egyptian kings, of whom mention is made upon the monuments of the Nile Valley, is Mena, or Menes. Manetho has given a statement according to which Mena must have lived nearly 6000 years before the Christian era.

Tablets of Kings.—Among the monuments which the scholar who visits Egypt beholds are those which contain the sculptured tablets giving the list of kings. Each shows the monarch of the period doing homage to the long line of his ancestors. Each of these sculptured monarchs has near him a tablet bearing his name. That great care was always taken to keep these imposing records correct is certain; the loyalty of subjects, the devotion of priests and the family pride of kings were all combined in this, and how effective this care was, is seen in the fact that kings now known to be usurpers are carefully omitted

The three great Egyptologists of our time concur in putting the period known as the reign of Mena at about 5000 years B.C. Mariette, the eminent French authority, puts the date at 5004 B.C., and with this the foremost English authority, Professor Sayce, agrees; Brugsch, the leading German authority, puts it at about 4500 B.C.

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We have it, then, as the result of a century of work by the most trained Egyptologists, and with the inscriptions upon the temples and papyri before them, both of which are now read with as much facility as many medieval manuscripts, that the reign of Mena must be placed close upon 7000 years ago.

Remote Civilization.—There are some other important facts revealed by the Egyptian monuments; the first of these is that which struck Sir Walter Raleigh, that even in the time of the first dynasties in the Nile Valley a high civilization had already been developed. Take first man himself: We find sculptured upon the early monuments types of various races—Egyptians, Israelites, Negroes and Libyans—as clearly distinguishable in these paintings and sculptures of from four to six thousand year ago as the same types are at the present day. No one can look at these sculptures upon the Egyptian monuments or even the facsimiles of them as given by Lepsius Prusse d'Vennes, without being convinced that they indicate even at that remote period a difference of races so great that long previous ages must have been required to produce it

Social Condition.—Take next the *social condition* of Egypt revealed in these early monuments of arts; they force us to the same conclusion; they show that a very complex society had even then been developed. We not only have a separation between priestly and military orders, but agriculturists, manufacturers and traders, with a whole series of subdivisions in each of these classes. The early tombs show sculptured and painted representations of a daily life which even then had been developed into vast wealth and a variety of grades, forms and usages.

Political and Military Condition.—Take next the *political* and *military* condition: The celebrated inscription of Prince U. ah as far back as the sixth dynasty speaks of the Maksi negroes as a force levied by tens of thousands for the Egyptian army just as the British Government today makes levies from the interior of Africa as soldiers, because they cannot rely upon the Egyptians.

Engineering.—Take next *engineering:* Here we find very early operations in the way of canals, docks and great public edifices, so bold in conception and thorough in execution as to fill our greatest engineers in these ages with awe The quarrying, conveyance, cutting, joining and polishing of the enormous blocks in the interior of the great pyramid alone, are the marvel of the foremost stone workers of our century.

Architecture.—As regards *architecture*, we find not only the pyramids which date from the earliest period of Egyptian history and which are to this hour the wonder of the world for size, for boldness, for exactness and for skillful contrivance, but also temples with long ranges of colossal columns, wrought in polished granite with wonderful beauty of formation, with architraves and roofs, vast in size and exquisite in adjustment, which by their proportions tax the imagination and leave the beholder to ask whether all this can be real.

Sculpture.—We have not only the great Sphinx of Gizeh, so wonderful by its boldness and plastic character, dating from the very first period of Egyptian history, but we have ranges of sphinxes, heroic statues and bas relief, showing that even in the early ages this branch of art had reached an amazing development. As regards the perfection of these, Lübke, the most eminent German authority on plastic art, referring to the early works in the tombs about Memphis, declares that as monuments of the period of the fourth dynasty they are an evidence of the high perfection to which the sculpturd of the Egyptians had attained. Brugsch declares that every artistic production of those early days, whether picture, writing or sculpture, bears the stamp of the highest perfection in art. Maspiro, the most eminent French authority in this field, while expressing his belief that the sphinx was sculptured even before the time of Mena, declares that the art which conceived and carved this prodigious statue was a finished art; an art which had attained self mastery and was sure of its effects; and Sir James Fergusson, the highest English authority, declares "We are startled to find Egyptian art nearly as perfect in the oldest periods as in any of the later."

Decorative Art.—Take next *decorative* and especially *ceramic* art As early as the fourth and fifth dynasties we have vases, cups and other vessels showing exquisite beauty of outline and a general sense af form equal to Etruscan and Grecian work of the best periods.

Astronomy.—Take next *astronomy.* The four sides of the great pyramid built in the very earliest period of Egyptian civilization, was adjusted to the cardinal points with the utmost precision. The day of the equinox can be taken by observing the sunset across the face of the pyramid, and the neighboring Arabs adjust their astronomical dates by its shadow.

Medical Science.—As regards *medical science* we have the Reilin papyri, which although of a later period, refers with the greatest specification to the medical literature of the first dynasty.

Archæology.—So too, as regards *archæology*, the earliest known inscriptions point to still earlier events and buildings, indicating a long sequence of previous events. Then when we consider the slow growth of ideas in the earliest stages of civilization as compared with the later, we find that the results of development in art, science, laws, customs and language must have required a vast period before the time of Mena for their development.

Period before Mena.—As to the length of the period before the time of Mena, there is, of course, nothing exact. Manetho gives lists of great personages before that dynasty, extending over 24,000 years. Bunsen, one of the most learned of Christian scholars, declares that not less than 10,000 years were necessary for the development of civilization up to the point where we find it in Mena's time. No one can claim precision for either of these statements, but they are valuable as showing the impression of vast antiquity made upon the most competent judges by the careful study of those remains.

No unbiased judge can doubt that an immensely long period of years must have been required for the development of civilization up to the state in which we there find it. The investigations in the bed of the Nile in connection with the rate of earth deposit by the Nile, warrant the conclusion that man existed in that valley thousands on thousands of years before the longest time admitted by our sacred chronologists; and then as if to make assurance doubly sure, a series of archæologists of the highest standing, French, German, English and

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American, have within the past twenty years, discovered relics of a savage period of vastly earlier date than the time of Mena prevailing throughout Egypt. These relics have been discovered in various parts of the country from Cairo to Luxor, in great numbers They are the same sort of prehistoric implements which prove to us the existence of man in so many other parts of the world at a geological period so remote that the figures given by our chronologists are but trivial.—*Popular Science Monthly*, June 1890.

Engineering.—Edouard Naville, in a paper read before the Victoria Institute quite recently, giving the historical results of excavations at Bubastis, which probably is identical with the Pi-Beseth of Ezekiel 30: xiii-xviii, says: "In excavating buildings like the Temple of Bubastis it is impossible not to be struck by the facility with which the old Egyptians carried enormous blocks of granite from the quarries of Assooan to localities in the Delta, which undoubtedly were then more accessibie than now, but which could only be reached at the cost of so much labor.

"We know what the difficulties are in our time of steam engines and railways. My friend Count de Hulst might write a book on all the troubles he experienced in the ungrateful task of transferring monuments of a total weight of about a hundred tons from Tel Basta to an English steamer in Alexandria; but in the time of the ancient Egyptians, at least tens of thousands of enormous blocks, colossal statues weighing near nine hundred tons, obelisks, etc., were taken out of the quarries of Assooan, floated down the Nile and dragged through the marshes of the Delta where they adorned the temple of San, Bubastis or Behbeit. I can assure you that when I unearthed the magnificent columns of Bubastis I did not know which was most to be admired, the perfection of the work or the power of the men who, with scanty and imperfect mechanical means, had achieved such stupendous results."

Pre-Historic Race in Egypt.—The excavations of the winter of 1894 in Egypt have brought to the knowledge of the world a race whose existence on Egyptian soil was barely suspected a few months ago. Their monuments may be traced from the fourth to the twelfth dynasties; they cover an area of about 100 miles, from Abydos to Gebelen: they were a tall and powerful race approaching the Libyans and Amorities in type. The art of embalming was unknown to them, nor did they practice incineration Like the early inhabitants of the Cyclades and of Mycenæ, they buried their dead in open quadrangular pits, the head turned to the south, the face to the west. The number of loose bones and skulls found lying on the floor proved that a single grave enclosed more than one body. The funerary furniture consists of copper implements, adzes, needles, harpoons. etc , and flints notable for fine workmanship, together with a variety of stone vases and beads made of cornelian, lapis-lazuli serpentine and glazed stone, including vases of burnt clay without number. The pottery is either polished red in some fantastic or animal shape like that of the troad or light brown with twisted handles. The pieces are all hand-made and although exhibiting a great variety of trade marks there is no sign or token hat can be referred to the Egyptian script.—*Prof. M. Flinders Petrie.*

Pertinacity of Races.—Professor Rudolph Virchow, the distinguished German scientist, says: "I thought that I could obtain some evidences of the change of the Egyptians in historic time, by comparative investigation of the living with the remains and likenesses of the dead. I return with the conviction that so far as historical and prehistoric evidences reach, so far as man has been discovered, ancient Egypt and its neighboring lands have not essentially changed their populations.

"If Menes really existed, he certainly saw negroes; for their ancient wall pictures portray the negro and his unmistakable physical individuality. The Egyptian of today possesses just the form of the ancient Egyptian. The only difference that has appeared is that between Brachycephalic (short headed) man of the old empire, and the Dolichocephalic (long headed) and the Mesocephalic (medium size headed) man of the new empire. At all events the definite proof is given that no change of type for at least thirty-five centuries has taken place.—*Journal of Transactions of the Philosophical Society of Great Britain, 1893.*

NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

By Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

Author of "Hindu Literature" and "Persian Literature." President Illinois Woman's Press Association.

Ahasuerus.—The Ahasuerus of the Book of Esther has been definitely identified as Xerxes I. In a recent personal letter from Prof. A. H. Sayce on this subject he says: "Thanks to the decipherment of the cuneiform inscriptions, ... the old attempts to identify the Xerxes (Ahasuerus) of Esther with Darius, or Artaxerxes, can never be renewed "

Ancient Parchment.—A parchment scroll containing the Book of Esther in Hebrew without points has been recovered from the tomb of Absalom in the Valley of Jehosaphat. General C. W Darling, who was fortunate enough to obtain this valuable document, writes to "Biblia" on the subject as follows. "The characters are perfect and written evidently with great care, as well as skill, and the ends of the cylinder upon which the scroll is rolled are turned apparently with a lathe. The lathe was known in early times, and its invention has been ascribed to Theodore of Samoa, 740 B.C."

Origin of Egyptian Civilization.—While a fierce conflict is being waged in the world of letters upon this subject, a personal letter from Dr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, the noted Egyptologist, becomes a matter of public interest. He says of earlier work: "I have had a splendid ten weeks' dig at Coptus, and cleared out all of the temple site. . . . . This is the first touch with the pre historic in Egypt on any inhabited site. *It shows that the Egyptians came in from the Red Sea. as I had supposed* "

Since the above was written, Dr. Petrie has found unmistakable traces of a new race of men.

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entirely unrelated to anything that was before known of Egypt. (See Side Lights.)

Greek Alphabet in Egypt.—A late discovery by Dr. Petrie, showing the use of the Greek alphabet in Egypt, explains the presence of some Greek words in the Book of Daniel.

Coptic Churches.—Prof. Sayce, writing from Egypt, speaks of two subterranean Coptic churches which have been recently discovered Such subterranean buildings must be of early date, as they imply that the Christians had to conceal themselves in order to escape persecution.

Early Schools of Letters.—Prof. A. H Sayce has proven to the world by actual physical demonstration that alphabetic writing and the habit of historic work had existed in the regions occupied by the Israelites and their ancestors, for centuries before the Exodus. Therefore the contents of the Old Testament Books may have been handed down in writing from those times

Homer in Egypt.—Perhaps one of the most astonishing results of Egyptian exploration is the finding of fragments of Homer. Among the Petrie Papyri published by Prof. Mahaffy a few years ago was an early fragment of the Iliad which in the space of thirty-six lines had five hitherto unknown lines in addition. And now Egypt has produced papyrus fragments of Homer in which there are thirteen hitherto unknown lines.

Nimrod.—Prof. A. H Sayce writes from Assuan: "I think I have fou d Nimrod in th · cuneiform inscriptions. His full name was Nazi Murudu the Kassu, and he was the contemporary of the father of the Assyrian king who restored Ni eveh and founded Calah about fifty years before the Exodus. So Moses seems to have been right after all." (Biblia, Aug. 1895.)

PHILOSOPHY OF EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

1. **The Double Origin** of the Egyptian seems apparent. The generous qualities of the Shemite were constantly being perverted by the inferior impulses of the Nigritian. The bright element of the Nigritian character was strangely darkened by the gloomy shadow of the Shemite The Egyptian religion provided for the vulgar a suitable worship of complex idolatry, but for those emancipated from superstition it offered true and even noble conceptions. They were singularly mirthful, delighti g in music and the dance, and so given to caricature that even in the representation of a funeral ceremony the artist could not omit a ludicrous incident.

2. The lack on the part of the Egyptian of that sturdy will-power so marked in the Hebrews is easily accounted for when we consider the natural advantages of the country. Here man need have bu· little anxiety for his future well-being. Agriculture was so precise that it might be pronounced a mathematical art. The pulse of its life giving artery - the Nile – makes but one beat in a year The climate demanded for the most part a vegetable diet and but little clothing was required

3. Where agriculture is certain there man first becomes civilized. Peru is the Egypt of the Western Continent, and strange to say, on both hemispheres, civilization commenced in rainless countries

4. Up to B.C. 670 the inhabitants of Egypt rigorously excluded themselves from all other people—even in this respect exceeding ancient Japan and China. Under the most violent persecutions of Cambyses, Egypt clung to her ancient customs. For the king to secure the aid of foreign soldiers was often to invite mutiny on account of the jealousy of the Egyptian soldiers. When the Egyptians mingled with foreigners – and not till then – their power and skill declined.

5. The idea of permanency seemed to pervade every belief, notwithstanding the fickleness of the average Egyptian. The priests affirmed that after death and trial the good were dismissed to the Elysian Fields, and the wicked condemned to transmigration. Nothing was ever annihilated and to die was simply to assume a new form No other country can offer such noble and enduring edifices to their gods. "The granite statues," says Draper, "have outlived the gods. . . . The pole star itself is a new-comer to them. . . . They have stood while the heavens have changed."

6. Both the domestic and foreign policy of Egypt were completely changed by the invasions of the Hyksos. Previously, invasions and discoveries were not attempted. Now the canal between the Nile, at Bubastis, and the Red Sea, at Suez was opened, and the circumnavigation of the African Continent was actually accomplished, while navigators were dispatched to determine the source of the Nile. Foreign conquests, also, were undertaken, probably for the purpose of procuring timber for ship building

7 According to Schlegel "The intellectual eminence of that people was in its scientific profundity—in an understanding . . . that sought to penetrate by magic into all the depths and mysteries of Nature . . . In all the natural sciences they were the masters of the Greeks."

8. Astronomy, history, architecture, sculpture and other acquirements were developed as a result of the religious habits of the Egyptians. The rising of the Nile coincided with the rising of the Dog-Star Sirius, and hence to them the latter was the cause This took place every 360 days and thus the priests placed before the tomb of Osiris every morning 3 0 vases of milk, each commemorating one day. Also they noticed that the daily tides for the Red Sea were connected with the movements and position of the sun and moon Hence, astronomy became a part of their religion, and the heavenly bodies being considered attributes of the deity, were studied and followed with religious faith, fervor and exact ess.

9 The i fluence and power of an all prevading religious faith, or national belief, is amply illustrated in the history of the Egyptians. Every day - yea, every hour - their religion permeated their being and was a guiding star in all their works. No hardship, however great, no argument backed by the best of reason, if, in their estimation, opposed to the doctrine of their religion, c uld lessen their efforts. So great was their faith that Cambyses in a single battle was enabled to defeat the Egyptians by placing before his army cats, dogs and other animals sacred to the Egyptians.

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13. ETHIOPIA.



Lotus.

1. **Geography.**—The ancient Ethiopians lived in that portion of the Nile Valley south of Egypt, now known as Nubia and Abyssinia. In the southern part are a number of fertile islands, chief of which is Meroë—to which the term "Ethiopia" proper is restricted. The soil was as fertile as the richest portion of Egypt, but navigation on the Nile was impeded by cataracts and rapids and the windings of the river.

2. **Political History.**—Their government was a monarchy, in many respects similar to the Egyptian government. The capital was at Napata on the Nile. An Ethiopian dynasty (the twenty-fifth of Egypt) reigned in Lower Egypt. Meroë was conquered by Cambyses, B.C. 530.

3. **Religion.**—Their religion, ceremonies and practices, including embalming, was similar to the Egyptians. The people practiced circumcision.

4. **Civilization.**—Some have maintained that the Egyptians obtained the first impulses of their civilization from the Ethiopians, but the reverse seems to have the case. The southern builders were only second-rate imitators of the Egyptians. The highest civilization was mostly confined to the Island of Meroë.

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13. ETHIOPIA.

1. **Geography.**—The population of this vaguely defined region was a mixture of Arabian and Libyan races with the genuine Ethiopian.—*C. F. Adams.* They are of an intrepid, impetuous and violent character, and are yet represented as loving and practicing justice.—*American Cyclopedia* Ethiopia was the name given by the ancient geographers to the country south of Egypt. It was often vaguely applied to the whole southern part of Africa, from the Red Sea to the Atlantic, or to speak more correctly, as far west as the knowledge of the ancients extended. . . . The people of Ethiopia were of the Semitic race, and spoke the Geez, a language allied to the Arabic. . . . At present the name sometimes designates Abyssinia and its surroundings, and sometimes applies in a vague way to a much larger and indefinite region of Central Africa.—*Lippincott.*

2. **Political History.**—*The political power* was vested in a priesthood, who comprised a caste. They chose the king from one of their own number and could take his life at pleasure in the name of their gods. The Ethiopian priests possessed such influence over the superstitious African tribes that a solitary priest at the head of a caravan was able to secure a safe passage of untold wealth through the countries occupied by the most ferocious savages. The temples, also, were a safe place for the deposit of merchandise; and here under the shadow of an inviolable sanctuary, people of hostile nations met to transact their business in absolute peace and security. . . . Whenever the Ethiopian priests became tired of their king they sent a courier with orders for him to die.—*Clare. The Ethiopian kings* seem to have been chosen from among the priests, and the order of succession gave the crown to the nephew of the king, the son of his sister; and in default of an heir, an election was made.—*American Cyclopedia The government* was a sacerdotal monarchy, the priests being the ruling class as in Egypt. The military power of the Ethiopian was celebrated by Isaiah (20: v) and other Hebrew prophets, and the sacred history records their invasion of Palestine.—*C. F. Adams.*

3. **Religion.**—The only gods worshiped by the inhabitants are Jupiter and Bacchus (Amure and Osiris), to whom great honors are paid. There is an oracle of Jupiter in the city, which directs the warlike expeditions of the Ethiopians; when it commands they go to war, and inwhatever direction it bids them march, thither straightway they carry their arms —*Herodotus.*

4. **Civilization.** — The connection between Egypt and Ethiopia was at all periods intimate, but the belief has become more prevalent that civilization ascended the Nile instead of descending it.—*C. F. Adams.* In summing up Ethiopian history it is well to note: 1. That the term Ethiopia is applied to an indefinite territory. 2. That the population was made up of mixed races whose origin was much in doubt. 3 That their civilization was derived probably from the Egyptians whom they resembled in manners, customs and religion. 4. That the nation is unimportant except when taken in connection with certain views held in reference to their connection with the Egyptians, Hebrews and Greeks.—*Editor.*

QUESTIONS.

Give the location and geographical features of Ethiopia? How related to Egypt? What were the special features of their religion? What was the source of their civilization?

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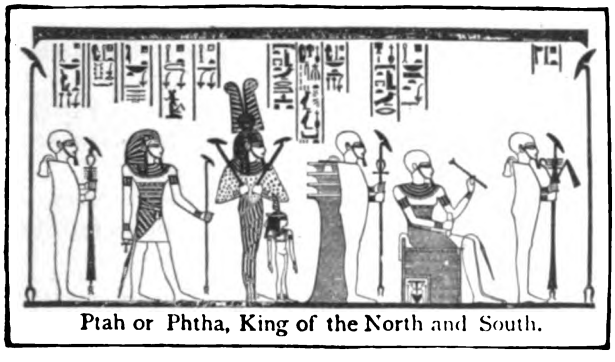
ASSYRIA AND BABYLONIA.

Under this head the following nations are usually treated:
1. The Chaldees, or Early Babylonians (Hamitic) B. C. 2400–1300.
2. Assyrians (Semitic) B.C. 1300–625.
3. Later Babylonia (Semitic) B.C. 625–538.

14. CHALDEA.

1. **Geography.**—The kingdom of Chaldea had its rise in the lower part of the rich alluvial plain of the Tigro-Euphrates basin and at the head of the Persian Gulf. This region is the only country in which wheat is known to be indigenous.

2. **Political History.**—The early history of Chaldea reveals little of marked interest or importance. The Mosaic account mentions Nimrod, the grandson of Ham, as the founder of the nation. The usual ups and downs of very ancient monarchies occurred till 1300 B.C., when the Assyrian conquest put an end to this most ancient Asiatic empire.



Ptah or Phtha, King of the North and South.

3. **Religion.**—The Chaldean religion was a gross polytheism—the heavenly bodies being objects of worship, each being represented by special deities. In every community was found a local divinity. Their gods and goddesses thus dwelling in the heavens, the ancient Chaldeans became renowned astrologers.

4. **Civilization.**—"Although the brilliant intellectual activity of Chaldea," says an eminent historian, "ceased more than three thousand years ago, and its massive architectural structures have slumbered in eternal repose beneath the sands and dust of more than thirty centuries, the grand mental triumphs of its venerable civilization yet remain, as a permanent legacy to posterity—the ground-work of the science and learning in which they have ever since been recognized as the pioneers—the wonder and admiration of the ages."

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14. CHALDEA.

1. **Geography.**—Chaldea is at first sight absolutely deficient in building materials of any sort. The land is alluvial, that is, formed gradually through thousands of years, of the rich mud deposited by the two rivers, as they spread into vast marshy flats towards the end of their course. Such soil, when hardened into sufficient consistency, is the finest of all for cultivation, and a greater source of wealth than mines of the most precious ore; but it bears no trees and contains no stone.—*Ragozin.* The winters of Chaldea are mild, frosts being light and snows unknown, while the summers are hot and dry, and heavy rains fall in November and December.—*Clare.* Its (wheat) tendencies to grow leaves was so great that the Babylonians used to mow it twice, and then pasture their cattle on it for awhile, to keep down the blade and induce the plant to turn to ear. Of all the countries we know of there is none so fruitful in grain.—*Herodotus.*

2. **Political History.**—In no other part of Babylonia is there such astonishing proof of ancient civilization and denseness of population.—*Loftus.*

The oldest city and first capital of the country was Ur. . . . Ur was situated at the mouth of the Euphrates, with the open sea beyond. . . . The oldest Chaldean cities were in the neighborhood of the Persian Gulf.—*Baldwin*

King Gudea.—(See SIDE LIGHTS, p. 29.)

3. **Religion.**—The Chaldean religion was . . . an astronomical worship. The twelve constellations of the zodiac were the sun's "twelve houses," and his proper abode was in the constellation of Leo. The planets likewise traversed twelve stages in their course, and each sign or "house" passed by any one of these celestial bodies, was regarded as a seat of divine power, while the planets themselves were considered gods. Thirty of the fixed stars were associated with the planets as "counseling gods;" and twelve others in the Northern

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heavens, and twelve in the Southern firmament, were designated "the judges." The twelve "judges" above the horizon controlled the destinies of the living, while the twelve below were the masters of the fate of the dead. Each of the twelve months of the year was assigned to one of the twelve great gods. . . . The seven days of the week were controlled by the seven great heavenly bodies—the sun, the moon, and the five planets then known. The hours were assigned to certain stars.—*Clare.*

4. **Civilization.**—The expansive plains of Babylonia possess such natural advantages for the study of astronomy that we cannot wonder at their having become the birth-place of that science. The remarkable dryness and regularity of the climate, the serenity of the sky, and the transparency of the atmosphere, particularly point to that region as admirably adapted for study and investigations of this nature.

Constellations of the eighth magnitude are distinctly visible to the naked eye, while between May and November meteors fall in countless numbers.—*Loftus.*

QUESTIONS.

Give the geographical features of the early Tigro-Euphrates basin? What were its advantages and disadvantages? Give a summary of the political history of the Chaldees? What was the character of their religion? Name some of the leading features of their civilization?

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15. ASSYRIA.

1. **Geography.**—*Position.*—Ancient Assyria embraced that portion of the Tigris-Euphrates valley north of Chaldea—the region now known as Kurdistan—the modern Kurds being the direct descendants of the ancient Assyrians.

The Soil was generally productive; and careful cultivation and irrigation brought luxuriant yields of various grains and vegetables. However, at present, owing to the plundering nomads, this region is now almost a wilderness.

The Climate is varied, but on the whole is cooler than in Chaldea because of mountain breezes. In portions of the country heavy rains, snows and dews fall during the winter and spring.

2. **Inhabitants.**—Much of the early history of the Assyrian is problematical. However, it seems likely that they were a Semitic tribe and originally dwelt in Chaldea. Personally they were brave and hardy, proud and violent, haughty and treacherous.

3. **Political History.**—The history of Assyria is divided into three periods:

1. *The Chaldean Period* to B.C. 1300. During this period the people were under the subjection of Chaldea. It is not known whether or not their migration from this country was voluntary, but it seems probable that in their new home they were at first governed by Chaldean viceroys.

2. *The Old Assyrian Empire* B.C. 1300–745. During this period Assyria was generally recognized as the ruling power of the Tigris-Euphrates valley. This prosperity continued under various rulers until the ending of the Calah line of sovereigns (B.C. 781), when a rapid decline began, terminating later in the overthrow of Nineveh, their capital and principal city (B.C. 745).

3. *The New Assyrian Empire* B.C. 745–625. This is the golden period of Assyrian history and its numerous kings, with long names difficult to pronounce, made many successful conquests. Sennacherib, the son of the usurper Sargon, takes rank as one of the most warlike. The gigantic palace, covering more than forty-eight acres, built at Nineveh by him, attests his skill as an architect. Assyria continued to plunder and overrun her foreign neighbors until she in turn was invaded by the Scythians. Now her power began a rapid decline and the invasion of the warlike Medes completed her downfall (B.C. 625). Having changed masters many times the country is now a part of the Turkish province of Kurdistan.

4. **Religion.**—The Assyrians were less religious than the Egyptians; representatives of the sun, moon and planets were conspicuous among their gods. Their religious system was borrowed from, and was well-nigh identical with, that of the Chaldees. They possessed a group of gods of various degrees of importance, but none so high as to be regarded as the supreme god.

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5. **Civilization.**—They brought the elements of their science and literature, including their cuneiform writing, from Chaldea. Among the Assyrians, castes did not exist and much attention was given to literature, science and the various arts. Nineveh possessed a large library, including the writings of her time and collections from previous ages.

15. ASSYRIA.

1. **Geography.**—The name Assyria was first applied to the district of Western Asia, extending along the east bank of the Tigris, where stood Nineveh, its capital. But in its widest sense, as expressing the empire over which the Assyrian monarchs held rule, it included not only the territory between the Armenian and Kurdistan mountains, watered by the Tigris and the Euphrates, but in a general sense the whole district between the Indus and the Mediterranean Sea.—*White.*

2. **Inhabitants.**—The cradle of Asiatic history and civilization was the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. This region was early occupied by Semitic and Hamitic tribes The civilization which grew up in the Tigris-Euphrates valley was almost as ancient as that which arose in the Nile Valley. There is an actual date in Chaldean history as far back as 2234 B.C.; while authentic Egyptian history—the period of the pyramidal builders . . . antedates this by only two centuries B.C. 2450.—*Clare.*

3 **Political History.**—The Babylonian and Assyrian empires were despotisms of the most absolute kind, with an exclusive priestly class to mould the minds of the masses into an attitude of superstitious and slavish submission to the rule of sheer strength. . . . The savage cruelty of the punishments was what might be expected in Eastern despotisms. . . . A king gives the following horrible details of the punishment of a rebellion: "I killed one out of every two, I built a wall before the great gate of the town, I flayed the chiefs of the rebellion and I covered the wall with their skins. Some were immured alive in the masonry, others were crucified or impaled along the wall. I had a great many flayed in my presence and covered the wall with their skins."—*Verschoyle.*

4. **Religion.**—The religion of the Chaldean rested on the basis of the old Akkadian worship. There was homage to demons, powerful for good or evil, who were brought together into groups, and were figured, now as human beings, now as lions or other wild animals, or as dragons and that sort of monsters. Of the great gods, *Anu*, the god of the sky, was the father and king of all. The peculiarity of the Babylonian religion is the identification of deities with the heavenly bodies. *Sin*, the moon god . . . at the outset had the highest rank. *Bel*, or *Baal*, however, a Semitic divinity, elsewhere the god of the sun, was in Babylonia the god of the earth, and particularly of mankind. *Ea* was the god of the deep and of the under world. The early development of astrology and its great influence in old Babylon were closely connected with the supposed association of the luminaries above with the gods.—*Fisher.*

5. **Civilization.**—The attainments of the early Babylonians in mathematics and astronomy were far beyond those of the Egyptians. They divided the year into twelve months, and arrived at the signs of the ecliptic or zodiac. The week they fixed at seven days by the course of the moon. They divided the day into twelve hours, and the hour into sixty minutes. They invented weights and measures, the knowledge of which went from them to the other Asiatic nations. Architecture, as regards taste, was in a rude state. In pottery, they showed much skill and ingenuity, and invented the potter's wheel. In the engraving of gems and in the manufacture of delicate fabrics - linen, muslin and silk—they were expert. Trade and commerce, favored by the position of Babylon, began to flourish. As regards literature, the libraries of Nineveh and Babylon, at a later day, contained not a few books translated from the early Akkadian language. Among them are the "Izdubar legends", in which is contained a story of the flood that resembles in its essential features the account in Genesis.—*Fisher.*

QUESTIONS.

Give the position, soil and climate of ancient Assyria? How would these conditions influence the people? Where did they originally dwell? To what race did they belong? How may their political history be divided? Give the leading features of each reign? Give the source and character of the Assyrian religion? What was the source of most of their manners and customs? How did their civilization compare with the Egyptians'?

16. LATER BABYLONIA.

1. **Extent.**—The Assyrian Empire having fallen was now apportioned to its conquerors. Assyria proper was assigned to the Medes. The Kingdom of Babylon, Susiana, the valley of the Euphrates, and the whole of Syria, were merged into the Later Babylonian Empire, under king Nabopolassar.

2. **Political History.**—The foreign relations of Babylon were now peaceful, and Nabopolassar enjoyed a tranquil reign of twenty-one years. The reign of Nebuchadnezzar, son of Nabopolassar, which followed "marks the era of Babylonian greatness." During his rule the kingdom of Judah was extinguished, Tyre, after a seige of thirteen years, fell, and Egypt was made tributary to Babylonia. Thus having secured peace Nebuchadnezzar now began the era of splendor which charac-

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terizes Later Babylonia. The captive Hebrews, Egyptians, Phoenicians, Syrians, and others furnished an exhaustless supply of slave labor, and at the same time inaugurated an epoch of debauchery on the part of the Babylonians. After the death of the king, and the successive reigns of several lesser monarchs, Babylonia was overthrown by Cyrus, the leader of the Medes and Persians, during a drunken revelry of the court, the city being temporarily left in control of prince Belshazzar, the son of king Nabonadius.

3. **Religion.**—Excepting certain minor and peculiar fluctuations in the position of certain gods, the religion of the Later Babylonians was identical with that of the ancient Chaldees—their predecessors in the same country.

4. **Civilization.**—The Semitic element, constituting so large a proportion of the inhabitants of Babylonia, naturally causes us to look for a people of great enterprise on both sea and land. Like their Phoenician brothers they carried on extensive commerce, engaged in manufacturing, and made internal improvements which caused the city of Babylon to rank as one of the great cities of the world—reaching "five or six times the size of the present city of London." Among its remarkable features were two palaces, the temple of Bel, and the walls of Babylon, in connection with which were the "Hanging Gardens," the latter constituting a vast pleasure ground. Their building material consisted of sun-dried and kiln-burned brick put up with bitumen, or more commonly, lime-cement. Considerable progress was made in the industrial and mechanical arts. Among the sciences, astronomy claimed most attention, while great progress was made in music.

16. LATER BABYLONIA.

1. **Extent.**—*The later Babylonians* were a mixed race, as were the early Chaldeans, from whom they were mainly descended. The Chaldeans of the First Empire were chiefly a mixed Hamitic, or Cushite, and Turanian race, with a slight in er mingling of Semitic and Aryan elements. But the Babylonians of the later period – called Chaldeans by the Hebrew prophets – were still more of a composite race, on account of the colonization of foreigners in Babylonia, in accordance with the policy of the kings.—*Clare.*

Character of the Babylonians.—(See SIDE LIGHTS, p. 29.)

2. **Political History, Nebuchadnezzar.**—Whether we regard the vigor and success of his wars, or the glory of his capital, or his prestige as a civil ruler, his reign must be considered one of the most illustrious of ancient history. It was at this time that the great palaces and temples arose, that the Walls were built, that the Hanging Gardens were reared for the Median wife of the king. It is hardly too much to say that the chief renown of the Babylonians as a nation is referable in a large degree to the personal energy and kingcraft and warcraft of Nebuchadnezzar.—*Ridpath.*

3. **Religion.**—The early Chaldeans and their successors in the same country – the later Babylonians – worshiped the same gods in the same temples and with the same rites, and had the same cosmogony, the same religious symbols, and the same priestly costume. . . . In later times the temples and the idols were more magnificent, music was more extensively employed in the ceremonial, and corruption concerning priestly impostures and popular religious customs made some advance, but in other respects . . . the religion of both periods was the same in the objects and the mode of worship, in the theological ideas entertained and the ceremonial observances and practices.—*Clare.*

4. **Civilization.**—Babylonia herself, so far as we know, drew her stores from no foreign country. Hers was apparently the genius which excogitated an alphabet—worked out the simpler problems of arithmetic—invented implements for measuring the lapse of time, conceived the idea of raising enormous structures with the poorest of all materials, clay, discovered the art of polishing, boring, and engraving gems, reproduced with truthfulness the outlines of human and animal forms, attained to high perfection in textile fabrics, studied with success the motions of the heavenly bodies, conceived of grammar as a science, elaborated a system of law, saw the value of an exact chronology, in almost every branch of science made a beginning, thus rendering it comparatively easy for other nations to proceed with the superstructure. To Babylon, far more than to Egypt, we owe the art and learning of the Greeks. It was from the East, not from Egypt, that Greece derived her architecture, her sculpture, her science, her philosophy, her mathematical knowledge—in a word, her intellectual life. And Babylon was a source to which the entire stream of Eastern civilization can be traced. It is scarcely too much to say that, but for Babylon, real civilization might not even yet have dawned upon the earth. Mankind might never have advanced beyond that spurious and false-form of it which in Egypt, India, China, Japan, Mexico and Peru, contented the aspiration of the species.—*Rawlinson.*

QUESTIONS.

What was the relation of Later Babylonia to Chaldea? Assyria? Give the leading features of its political history? How do you account for the cosmopolitan character of the people? Was this an aid or disadvantage to the nation? What were the characteristics of Nebuchadnezzar's reign? Briefly compare the religion of the Chaldees, Assyrians and Babylonians? Civilization?

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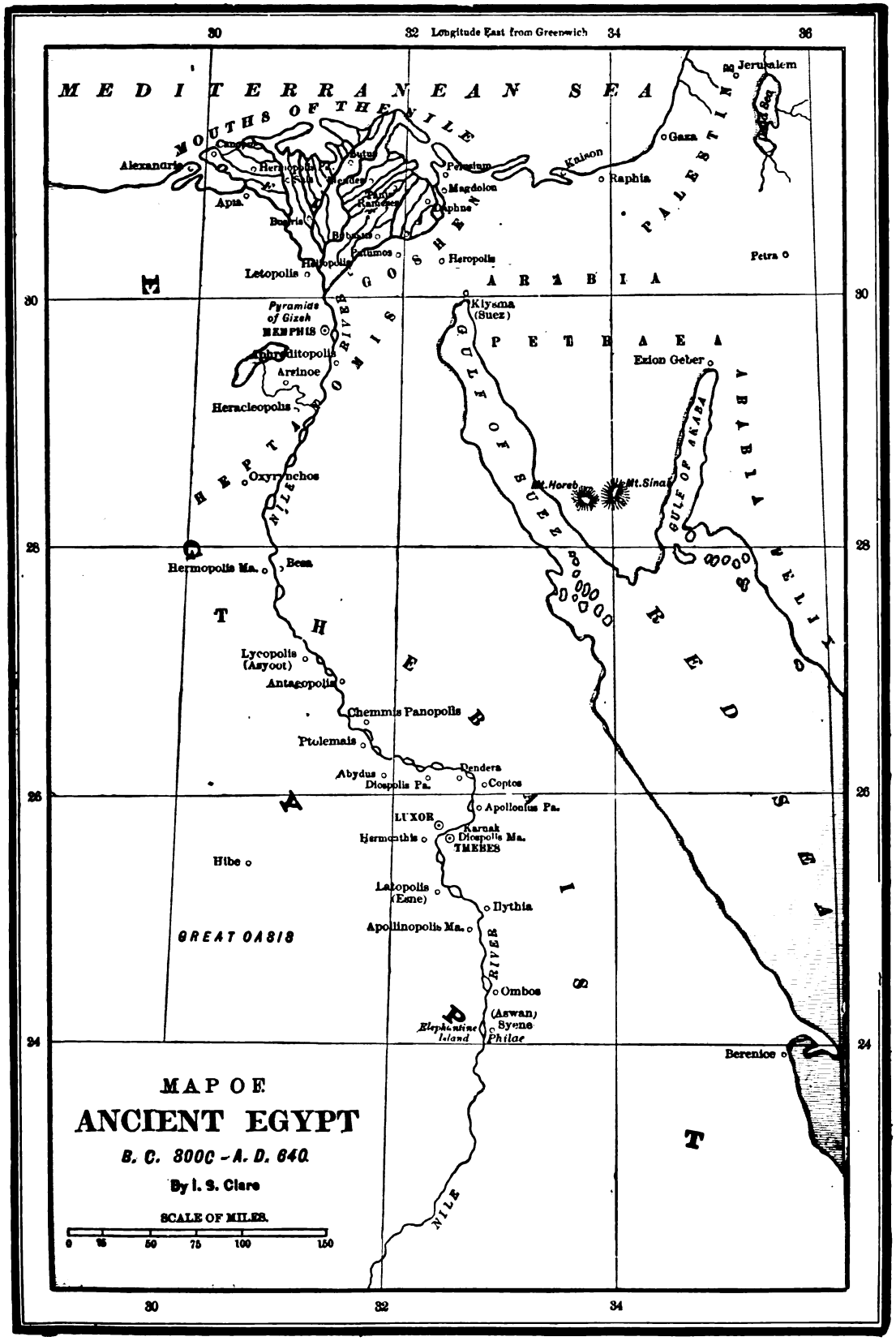

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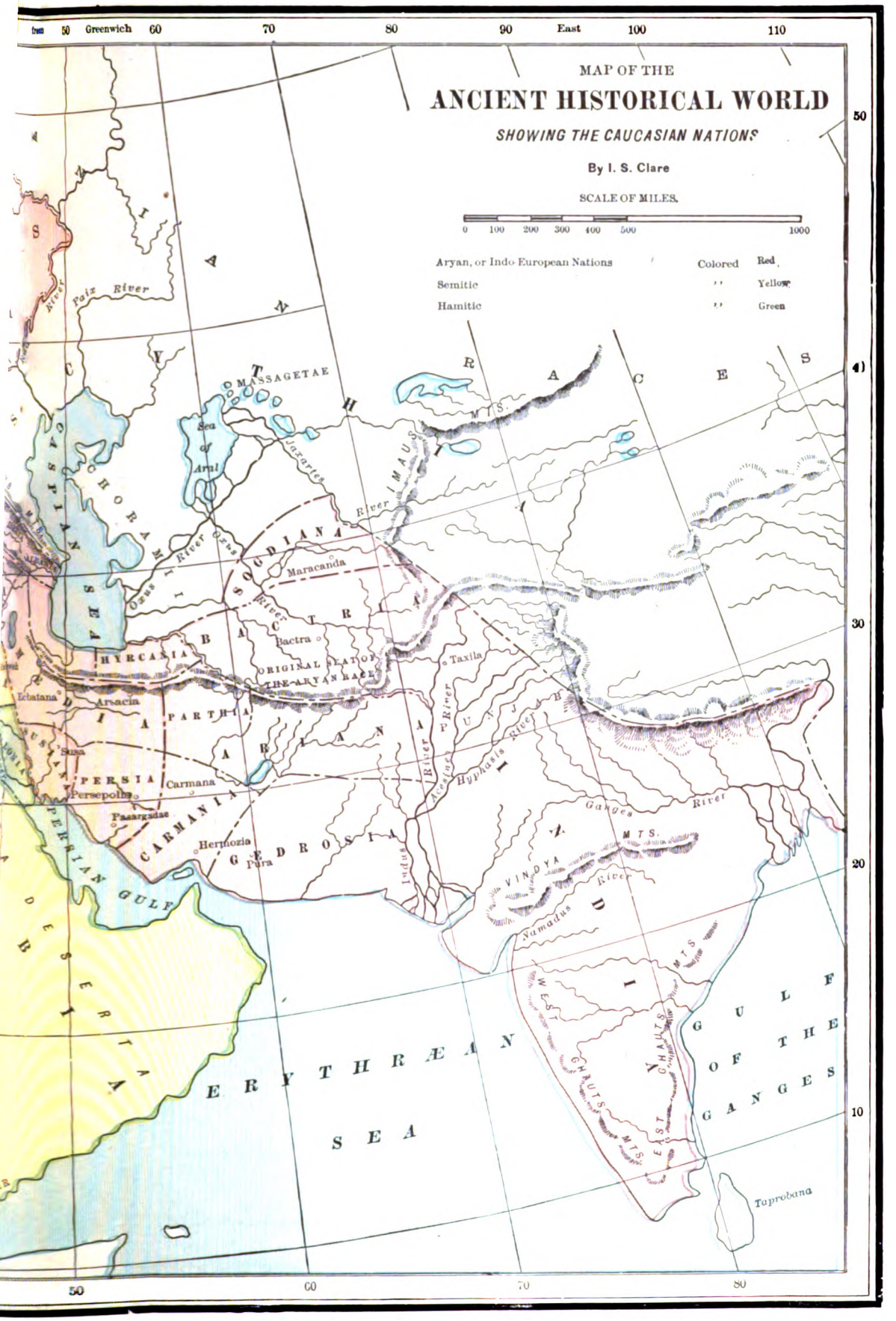

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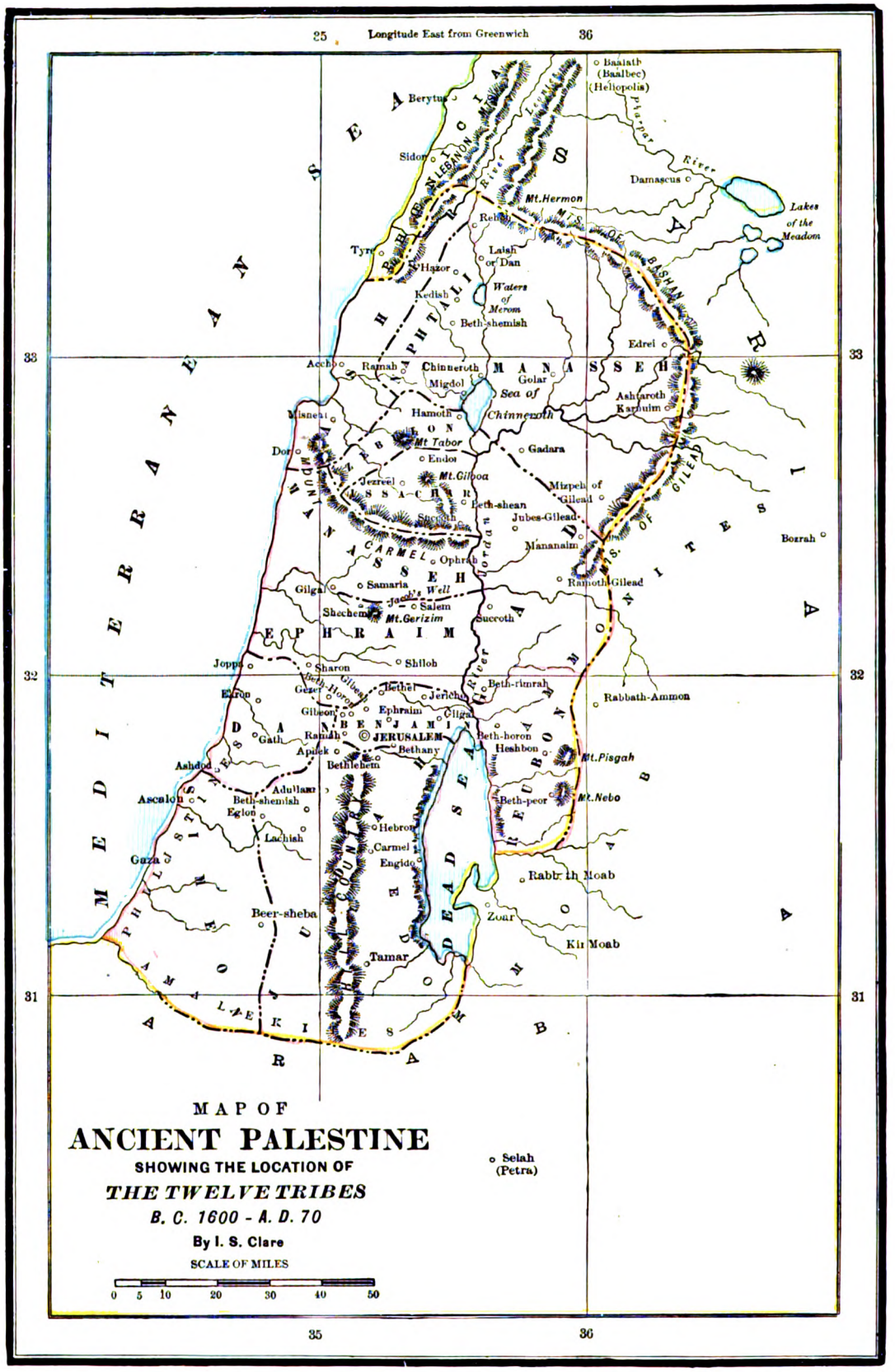

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SIDE LIGHTS ON THE HISTORY OF

ASSYRIA AND CHALDEA.

Mr. Theodore G. Pinches, of the Department of Assyrian Antiquities of the British Museum, has an interesting article in the Journal of the Philosophical Society of Great Britain for 1894. From this paper, which is prepared from a thorough scientific standpoint, we are able to glean the following interesting "Side Lights."

Character of the Babylonians.—It is difficult to say whether we ought to make any distinction between the Babylonians and the Assyrians. There was probably a slight difference between them. The Babylonian seems to have been less warlike than the Assyrian; that is all. The Babylonian was warlike too, when the occasion demanded it.

The Babylonian was a keen trader, careful in money matters, ever ready to drive a hard bargain. He lent money out at an interest of about twenty per cent per annum and took substantial



The Figure with the Plan.
(King Gudea.)

security, as a rule, for the same. In later as in earlier times, too, he dearly loved a lawsuit. Unlike the nations of modern times, he seems early to have adapted himself to foreign rule. Whether his kinsman the Assyrian did so or not, we do not know. Three excellent points, however, did the Assyrian possess. Painstaking in study, he early became a learned man in his own particular way, but better than this, he was kind-hearted, respectful and considerate to his parents and steadfast in friendship.

One of the most interesting texts bearing upon this is now in New York in the Wolfe collection, which was obtained by Dr. Hayes Ward in Babylonia. It is a will in which a man named Nabu-sum-Iddina, whilst leaving certain slaves and the produce of certain lands to his wife Tabbutu, takes care also to make provision for his mother. Day by day and year by year as long as she lived she was to receive a certain quantity of grain, fruit, etc , as well as meat and poultry. Sustenance of the parents, indeed, seems to have been regarded as an obligation.

Object of the Study of Assyriology.—Toiling among the dusts of ages, we Assyriologists fulfill in our domain, and as far as we may, that dictum which says that mankind's own true study is man. But mankind's own study is not man only but everything that pertains to him. A student of Assyriology, therefore, not only tries in his special line to answer all questions concerning him, his origin in his native land, his history, his surroundings, his thoughts, his feelings and his religion, but he studies his language too, and tells of his joys and sorrows. Day by day the quest goes on, and the clouds obscuring the vista are little by little cleared away, and the time will doubtless come at last when the wide domain of Assyriology will have yielded up as far as may be its secrets, and the history of the human race and of civilization will present there no gap.

King Gudea.—Upon an extensive waterway which unites the Tigris and the Euphrates are found a series of hillocks or mounds, of which the number known as Telloh, marks the position of an ancient Babylonian temple or royal palace. M. Ernest (De Sazec), Vice-Consul of France at Bassorah, recently discovered at this spot some most important early Babylonian remains. He found a statue, without the head, of King Gudea, one of the most renowned kings of the ancient Akkadian line.

The inscription which is given upon this statue is divided into nine columns with a total of about three hundred and sixty-six lines of writing, containing, in the main, a description of the materials of which the temple was built.

Babylonian Types.—The two types of the Babylonians were the Akkadian and Semitic. Of the two, the Akkadian was by far the nobler.

The Akkadian type left its impress on the outward form of the Babylonian nation and through that on the Assyrian and also on the temperaments of the two peoples.

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17. HEBREWS.

1. **Early History.**—Abraham, a native of "Ur of the Chaldees," became the founder of several Semitic nations, among them the Hebrews and Arabs. Leaving the ancient land of the Chaldees, and after residing in Haran, Abraham came into Mesopotamia, where his people received from the inhabitants the name "Hebrew," meaning "strangers from the other side." After sojourning in the Syrian desert, and tarrying for some time at Damascus, he came into Canaan—the "Promised Land." After a time, and on invitation of Joseph, Abraham's grandson, the Hebrews settled in Egypt.

2. **Political History.**—*Period of Exodus and Wanderings from Egypt*, B.C. 1250-1320.—At first the Egyptians favored the Hebrews, but owing to their increase in numbers and prosperity, Rameses, the great conqueror and tyrant, overworked and otherwise oppressed them. This treatment not accomplishing the desired end, all Hebrew male children were ordered to be cast into the Nile, as soon as they were born. Moses the law-giver organized and successfully led the Hebrews out of Egypt into Palestine. After the deaths of Moses and Joshua, internal dissensions distracted and alienated the different tribes from each other. Their resultant sufferings were so great that the people became penitent, and implored Jehovah to send them a deliverer. Judges were thus appointed.

Period of Judges.—The fifteenth and last judge of Israel was Samuel, under whose rule the Israelites enjoyed a peace and prosperity which they had never before known. But the people, ascribing their past misfortunes to want of union, became dissatisfied, and Jehovah authorized Samuel to proclaim Saul king of Israel.

The United Kingdom.—Saul, David and Solomon each reigned forty years.

Saul was a man of vigor, courage and energy, but impulsive and vacillating. Disobeying the command of Jehovah as given through Samuel, Divine protection was withdrawn and David was anointed king.

David soon proved himself a great warrior and conqueror and was the greatest and most powerful monarch that ever reigned over the Hebrew nation. The prosperity of his reign was interrupted by domestic calamities due directly to the evil of polygamy which David had introduced into the kingdom. David's death left to his people the proudest name in their history.

Solomon's reign was the most splendid period of Hebrew history and his enterprise and luxury gave a wonderful impulse to commerce. The rarest products of Europe, Asia and Africa found their way to Jerusalem, but the greatest of the wonderful works of this remarkable man was the erection of the Grand Temple to Jehovah. On the succession of Rehoboam, Solomon's son, ten of the tribes revolted, and thus there became two Hebrew states.

The Divided Kingdoms.—The Kingdom of Israel embraced the ten tribes under Jeroboam and his successors, who were idolaters. The whole period was one of continued turmoil. With the "Assyrian Captivity," the history of the "ten tribes" is ended, and they are still known as the "Lost Tribes."

The Kingdom of Judah embraced the two tribes of Judah and Benjamin, and retained the national religion. Nebuchadnezzar captured, pillaged and burned the temple and carried most of the people into the seventy years' "Babylonian Captivity."

Babylonian Captivity and Return.—During this captivity Cyrus the Great overthrew the Babylonian Empire, and the dominion of the latter was absorbed by the great Medo-Persian Empire. Cyrus became ardently interested in the Hebrews and permitted them to return to their own land. The ancient territory of Judah was now called Judæa and its inhabitants were named Jews.

3. **Religion.**—The Hebrews recognized Jehovah as their God and in this respect their religion stands pre-eminent.

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4. Civilization.—The Hebrews did not excel in art, since their religion excluded all visible representations of Diety. Further, their nomadic habits led to agriculture rather than to architecture. Neither were they proficient in science.

17. HEBREWS.

1. **Early History.**—Abraham . . . became the father of a group of nations. Of his twelve sons, Joseph was an object of jealousy to the other eleven, by whom he was sold to a caravan of merchants on their way to Egypt. There, through skill in interpreting dreams, he rose to high dignities and honor in the court of Pharaoh, and by his agency the entire family were allowed to settle on the pasture land of *Goshen* in northern Egypt. Here in the neighborhood of Heliopolis, for several centuries, they fed their flocks. From Israel, the name given to Jacob, they were commonly called *Israelites.*—*Fisher.*

The Hebrews remained in the fertile land of Goshen for over two centuries and multiplied so rapidly that the family of seventy persons which had entered Egypt with Jacob grew to be a nation of almost three million people. They constituted a people distinct from the Egyptian, having their own language, manners, religion and patriarchal government. Although they had somewhat departed from the monotheism of Abraham, Isaac and Jacob, they never adopted the Egyptian polytheism. They were governed directly by their own patriarchal chiefs who were responsible to the Egyptian king for the collection of taxes imposed upon the Hebrew colony.—*Clare.*

2. **Political History.**—It is the marvel of history that this little people (Jews), beset and despised by all the earth for ages, maintains its solidarity unimpaired. Unique among all the people of the earth, it has come undoubtedly to the present day from the most distant antiquity. The Jew had fastened his love upon the heights of Zion, and like an elastic cord, that love broke not, but only drew with the more force as the distance became great. When the grasp of the captor weakened, that cord, uninjured from its long tension, drew back the Hebrew to his former home.—*Hosmer.*

3. **Religion.**—When it (Hebrew nature) has been directed towards heavenly objects, it has constituted the most fervent piety which the world has ever seen. They grasped heavenly things so vividly that even their bodily senses seemed to lay hold of God and the angels.—*Hosmer.*

4. **Civilization.**—*The Mosaic Laws* were mild far beyond the spirit of the age. The cities of refuge modified the rigors of the custom of personal retaliation, and gave to all the benefits of an impartial trial. Land could not be sold for more than fifty years, and the debtor could always expect on the Jubilee to go back to the home of his fathers. Usury was prohibited. For the benefit of the poor, fruit was left on the tree and grain in the field, the law forbidding the harvest-land or vineyard to be gleaned. Cruelty to animals was punished, and even the mother-bird with her young could not be taken.—*Mrs. Steele.*

Hebrew Literature.—The literature of the Hebrews is essentially religious in its whole motive and spirit. This is true even of the historical writings. The marks of the one defining characteristic of their national life—faith in Jehovah and in his sovereign and righteous control—are everywhere seen. Hebrew poetry is mainly lyrical. Relics of old songs are scattered through the historical books. In the *Psalms*, an anthology of sacred lyrics, the spirit of Hebrew poesy attained to its highest flight. Examples of the didactic poetry are the book of *Job* and books like the *Proverbs*, composed mostly of pithy sayings or gnomes. Nowhere, save in the *Psalms*, does the spirit of the Hebrew religion and the genius of the people find an expression so grand and moving as in the *Proverbs*, of whom *Isaiah* is the chief.—*Fisher.*

Education.—Learning was held in high esteem. All the Jews received what we should call a "common school education." With this, the Levites, the hereditary teachers, blended instruction in the sacred history, the precepts of religion, and their duties to God and their country. Every boy was compelled to learn a trade. Ignorance of some kind of handicraft was discreditable, and the greatest scholars and statesmen had some regular occupation. After the captivity, education seems to have been made compulsory.—*Mrs. Steele.*

In summing up Hebrew history as a whole, we notice: 1. That in geographical extent, the Jewish state was but a limited domain, the whole country being only 100 miles long by about 50 miles wide; 2. That compared with the great Oriental empires . . . its political importance was slight; 3. That the Jewish people contributed little to ancient civilization, so far as regards art, science or politics. . . . It was given that people to influence the world, in an entirely different way, namely, through spiritual truths and moral ideas embodied in sublime form by bards and sages.—*Swinton.*

SUBJECTS FOR STUDY.

1. The distinctive features of the Hebrew Commonwealth. 2. The history of the Babylonian Captivity. 3. The most marked features of the Hebrew nation. 4. The splendor of the reign of King Solomon.

QUESTIONS.

What are the chief points in the early history of the Hebrews? How came the Hebrews to go to Egypt? How were they treated? Give the leading facts of the Exodus? Give a résumé of the period of the judges? The United Kingdom? The Kingdom of Israel? The Kingdom of Judah? The Babylon an Captivity? How did the Hebrews rank in civilization? What seems to have been the chief influence in their history? What are some of the characteristics of their history?

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SIDE LIGHTS ON THE HISTORY OF THE HEBREWS.

The Pharaoh of Joseph.—Edouard Neville, in his excavations at Bubastis, states: "In a part of the temple exacavated at Bubastis, I discovered on a door post a very large cartoeche containing the name of Apepi, the same who had been found by Mariette at Tanis quite recently. In the first hall not far from the great statues, I discovered the first part of his name, what is called his standard. Apepi was a powerful king although he was one of the last Hyksos." We are interested particularly in him because the Byzantine chronographer Syncellus relates that Apepi was the king in whose reign Joseph rose to the high position described in Genesis. According to the Christian tradition Apepi was the Pharaoh of Joseph and I see no reason to question that statement of Syncellus or the truth of the Christian tradition.

"The Hyksos Kings and the Hebrews."—It is probable that the fact of the Hyksos kings being Mesopotamians led them to look favorably upon the Hebrews who had the same origin It is well known that Abraham and his family, and especially Jacob, were from Mesopotamia and they considered themselves as strangers in Canaan. "An Aramean ready to perish or wandering was my father," says the author of Deuteronomy. The tradition lasted down to the time of Josephus. It is natural that the Egyptians should have felt towards the Hebrews the same antipathy as towards their rulers, who had the same origin as the Hebrew and who were hostile to the Egyptian gods."

EDOUARD NEVILLE

Journal of Philosophical Society of Great Britain, 1892.

SIDE LIGHTS ON EGYPT, BABYLONIA, ETC.

ANCIENT WRITING OF THE EGYPTIANS, BABYLONIANS, ASSYRIANS AND ISRAELITES.

BY PROF. A. H. SAYCE, LL. D., F.R.S.
(University of Oxford, 1895.)

THE OLDEST BOOKS at present known to us have come from Egypt and Babylonia. In Egypt they were generally written upon papyrus, in Babylonia upon clay. The papyrus was carefully cultivated and no less than eight different kinds of paper were made from it, of varying quality. The paper was made by cutting the soft pith of the stalk into slices, laying them crosswise one over the other, and then uniting them by means of pressure.

In Babylonia papyrus was scarce, while clay was plentiful, and clay was accordingly employed as a writing material. It was moulded into tablets of various sizes, but usually of oblong shape, and while it was still soft the cuneiform characters of Chaldæa were impressed upon it with a reed or metal stylus. In Babylonia the tablet was then baked in the sun; in Assyria this was done in the kiln, holes being first drilled through the clay to permit the escape of any superfluous moisture.

The characters impressed by the reed or stylus necessarily consisted of marks resembling wedges; hence the name of cuneiform or "wedge-shaped," which has been given to them. With such writing materials it was impossible to draw a circle or curved line; curves therefore became angles, one end of the line being thick while the other was thin For writing on papyrus, on the contrary, a reed pen and ink were needed; and the characters accordingly tended to be curvilinear instead of angular. The use of papyrus was generally reserved for the hieratic or running hand of ancient Egypt, the hieroglyphic or pictorial characters being engraved on stone, metal or wood. For cursive writing the pen and ink were better adapted

Clay and papyrus, however, were not exclusively employed, the one in Babylonia, the other in Egypt. There are notices in the cuneiform literature which show that papyrus was also used as well as clay, though the damp climate of Babylonia and Assyria have prevented any fragments of it from surviving. In Egypt leather or parchment was used at times; indeed, we hear of a document of very early date which was written on a prepared skin. The classical belief that parchment was first employed for writing purposes at Pergamus in the second century before our era was incorrect.

All kinds of literature were represented both in papyri and clay tablets. History and geography science and romance, letters and accounts, legal deeds, theology and philology, all alike found a place in them. They were not only the books of the ancient Oriental world, they were also its letters, its legal documents and its note books. They were stored in libraries and archive chambers, or deposited in great earthenware jars which were the equivalents of our modern safes

How papyrus could be employed for the purposes of correspondence we can easily understand, but that clay should have been commonly used for the same purpose would, a short time ago, have been thought incredible. And yet we now know it to have been a fact. One of the largest and most important collections of ancient letters ever brought to light is that which has been found at Tel-el-Amarna, in Upper Egypt; it consists entirely of clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform characters, and written for the most part in the Babylonian language. The letters were sent to the Egyptian Court from the Kings of Babylonia and Assyria, of Mesopotamia, Cappadocia, and northern Syria, as well as from the governors and "protected" princes of Canaan, and they belong to the century before the Exodus. They prove that at that period the language and syllabary of Babylonia were the common medium of literary intercourse throughout Western Asia, and that the cuneiform characters had not as yet been superseded in Palestine by the letters of the Phœnician alphabet.

The date of the introduction of this alphabet cannot be fixed at present. The oldest known examples of it are to be found in a Phœnician inscription dedicated to the Baal of the Lebanon, which is assigned to the tenth century B C , and the famous Moabite Stone erected by Mesha the younger, contemporary of Ahab. Both inscriptions show that the alphabet must have been in use for some time both in Phœnicia and in Moab, and that the forms of the letters were not always the same in the two countries.

The Phoenician alphabet was also the alphabet of Israel. The earliest Israelitish inscription is one which has been discovered in the tunnel of Siloam at Jerusalem, and is at least as early as the reign of Hezekiah.

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PHOENICIA.

18.



Box in Berlin Museum

1. **Geography.**—Phoenicia occupied a mere strip of land west of Palestine and Syria and between Mount Lebanon and the Mediterranean Sea—a district of very moderate extent—comprising a distance of rather more than two degrees of latitude.

2. **Inhabitants.**—They were a sea-faring people of great boldness, and by consummate forethought, long endurance, and brave voyages, they succeeded in reaching lands where other people would not venture. They extended their dominion, and established trading-posts far and near, and made the waves highways to influence and wealth.

3. **Political History.**—Politically Phoenicia never aspired to great power—in fact was never compactly organized—and hence her kingdom did not attract great attention. She seems to have willingly, at various times, paid tribute to Assyria, Babylonia, Persia, Egypt, Greece and Rome. Her people were maritime and were constantly engaged in the missionary work—as it were—of introducing and exchanging the products as well as the manners and customs of other nations.

4. **Religion.**—The Phoenicians were religious in the sense that all ancient nations were worshipers, but they never reached that high plane demanded by their knowledge of commerce. The sensual features of their religion were made prominent, and savage elements were introduced. Indeed it was a religion more adapted to foster than to check lust and cruelty.

5. **Civilization.**—*Commerce.*—The Phoenicians were the merchant princes of the ancient world. The term "Ships of Tarshish," so named from one of their Spanish settlements, came to signify vessels of acknowledged prowess and capable of making long voyages. Tyre was considered a link between the East and the West.

Government.—The Phoenician cities, for the most part, seem each to have been ruled by its own hereditary monarch, who was always, by law, confirmed by the people. The cities were often united in a league, mostly under the direction of one or more of the stronger cities. The king sometimes combined in his own person the office of high-priest.

Literature.—Excepting Greek and Latin, no language was so widely known throughout antiquity as the Phoenician. The literature at first seems to have been chiefly of a theological nature. The authors were accounted the gods themselves. But later times furnish us examples of many other forms of composition.

Inventions.—Glass-making, embroidery and purple-dyeing, arithmetic and measure and weight, were all probably inventions borrowed from other nations. Possibly the same thing is true of the Phoenician alphabet. Yet these people have undisputedly the scarcely inferior merit of having brought to perfection and communicated these arts to all the nations of the Mediterranean basin.

Colonies.—The Phoenicians were the first colonizing nation of antiquity and among other colonies planted the powerful city of the Carthaginians. *Carthage* was situated on the north coast of Africa not far from the modern city of Tunis, and in the ancient world was a kingdom of power and greatness, for four hundred years holding its own against the preponderance of Greece and Rome.

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18. PHOENICIA.

1. **Geography.**—A narrow strip of territory separates the mountains of Syria and Palestine from the Mediterranean. Of this belt the northern part, west of Lebanon, about 150 miles long, varies in width from five to fourteen miles. In some places the cliffs approach close to the sea. This belt of land was occupied by the first of the great maritime and commercial people of antiquity, the Phoenicians. Their language was Semitic, closely akin to Hebrew.—*Fisher.*

2. **Inhabitants.**—Trogus . . . places the oldest seat of the Phoenicians on . . . the Dead Sea . . . and says that driven thence by an earthquake, they reached the coast, and founded Sidon. This earthquake Bunsen has ingeniously identified with that which destroyed Sodom and Gomorrah, and with which Genesis itself connects the migration of Lot . . . In historical times the Phoenicians called themselves Canaanites, and their land Canaan the latter applying equally to the coast which they themselves held and the inland islands which the Israelites occupied.—*Britannica.*

3. **Political History.**—Phoenicia was successively subject to Assyria, in the 9th century; to the Babylonians, under Nebuchadnezzar, at the close of the 7th century; to the Persians, under Cambyses, towards the close of the 6th century and to the Greeks, under Alexander the Great, in the 4th century B C Still later it was absorbed in the universal dominion of Rome 63 B.C. The greatest period of Phoenician history was during the five hundred years from the 11th to the 6th century B C —*Swinton*

4. **Religion.**—The two triads of Hannibal's oath to Philip of Macedon—Sun, Moon and Earth, and rivers, meadows, and waters, contained the objects on which all Phoenician worship is based. Rivers were generally sacred to gods; trees to goddesses; mountains, too, were revered as nearer than other places to heaven; and . . . meteoric stones were held sacred as divine messengers. . . The Phoenicians do not set up . . . statues of the gods, but symbolic pillars of stone, or, in the case of the queen of heaven, of wood. If an actual image was used likeness to man was avoided by fantastic details; the god had two heads or wings, or some animal emblem, or was dwarfish. . . . The sacrifices were of oxen and other male domestic animals—as expiatory offerings also stags—and for minor offerings, birds. Human sacrifices were exceptionally offered by the state to avert great disasters; the victim was chosen from among the citizens and must be innocent, wherefore children were chosen, and by preference first born or only sons.—*Britannica.*

5 **Civilization.** — *Commerce.* — Through the hands of Phoenician merchants "passed the golden pearls of the East, the purple of Tyre, slaves, ivory, lions' and panthers skins from the interior of Africa, frankincense from Arabia, the linen of Egypt, the pottery and fine wares of Greece, the copper of Cyprus, the silver of Spain, tin from England, and iron from Elba" . . . At the instigation of Necho, king of Egypt (611-605 B.C), they are said to have made a three years' voyage round the southern cape of Africa.—*Fisher.*

Government. Phoenicia, although consisting of a very small tract of land, never constituted one state or kingdom; and has therefore, no individual history. It contained several cities with their contiguous territories, and among these leagues were formed, by which means the supremacy was secured to the more powerful cities. Each city had its own distinct government and sovereignty, the league being rather federal than national in its character. The city of Sidon was for sometime at the head of the Phoenician cities. It was probably the oldest commercial city in the world. Its first king was Sidon, the son of Canaan. —*Dean.*

Literature.—According to the uniform and explicit testimony of Greek and Roman antiquity, the art of alphabetical writing was brought into existence, or first diffused, by the Phoenicians. . . . It is said also that the Phoenicians had an extensive literature. It could not be otherwise with the most enlightened people of antiquity. Not one book, or fragment of a book, in the Phoenician language, however, has been preserved. —*Baldwin.*

Colonies —As early as the 9th century B.C., the . . . Phoenicians had founded on the north coast of Africa the colony of Carthage. . . . They had gone even further; they had made their way beyond . . . the strait of Gibraltar, and had sailed from the Mediterranean Sea into the Atlantic Ocean. There they had founded the city of Ga'des (now Cadiz). Sailing over the Atlantic, their merchants sought the southern part of the British Islands to procure tin from Cornwall. In the eastern seas the Phoenicians had made establishments on their Arabian and Persian Gulfs, whence they traded with India and Ceylon and the coast of Africa Thus we see that the Phoenicians were navigators, merchants, and planters of colonies, several centuries before the Greeks rose to any note in the world.—*Swinton.*

QUESTIONS.

How did Phoenicia compare with other countries in geographical advantages? Political history? Religion? Civilization? Give the leading features of her commerce? Colonization? Give the location of Carthage? Give a summary of its political history? How did Carthage at one time rank in civilization? With what countries did they wage war? What results?

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19. MEDES AND PERSIANS.

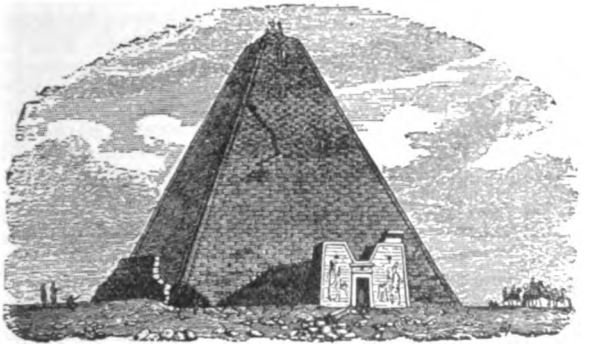
1. **Geography.**—The Medes were of Aryan descent and were a powerful nation as early as B.C. 2300—long before Abraham migrated from Ur of the Chaldees. They "occupied an extensive region south and southwest of the Caspian sea, east of Armenia and Assyria, north of Persia proper, and west of the great salt desert and Parthia."

In early times and until the rule of Cyrus, Persia was a comparatively small kingdom, lying on the northeast of the coast of the Persian gulf.

2. **Political History.**—Under the leadership of Cyrus, the son of Cambyses, king of Persia, the hitherto powerful kingdom of the Medes was overthrown by the small kingdom of Persia (B.C. 558). Cyrus now became the founder and ruler of the great Medo-Persian Empire, and the leader of the dominant power in Western Asia. Babylonia, Susiana, Syria, Phoenicia, and Palestine gradually succumbed to his rule and thus the supremacy of the Semitic civilization, which had a history of nearly two thousand years, was transferred to the Aryan race, which ever since has swayed the destinies of mankind in every sphere of human activity. The inhuman Cambyses, son of Cyrus, succeeded the latter. He secretly put to death his brother, brutally treated his subjects and terminated his wicked reign by killing himself.

Darius next became ruler (B.C. 521) after putting to death Pseudo-Smerdis, who had ursurped the throne. Darius at once restored the Zoroastrian religion and granted the Hebrews aid, including money, cattle, corn, etc., for the purpose of rebuilding the Temple of Jerusalem. He immediately directed his attention to the subjugation of numerous revolts—which owing partly to religious beliefs bnt probably more to loose organization—appeared in almost every province. Peace being secured, his great empire was thoroughly organized and strengthened, and Scythia and Macedonia were made subject provinces. The latter part of his reign is notable on account of his attempt to subjugate the Greeks and the subsequent defeat of the Persian army at Marathon by Miltiades, commander of the Athenians.

Xerxes, the son of Darius—and a direct descendant of Cyrus the Great—next succeeded to the throne. After four years' preparation, Xerxes found himself at the head of an army of two million soldiers, organized for the purpose of invading Greece. This great army was repulsed at the famous pass of Thermopylæ, but by a flank movement, the day was saved to the Persians, notwithstanding the brave defense of the Spartans under the now renowned king Leonidas. The Persian forces at other points were not even so successful as at Thermopylæ and Greece was abandoned.



Pyramid of Assur in Nubia.

Under the atrocious and exceedingly immoral reign of Xerxes, the Persian empire now began its decline, and after a series of uneventful reigns, finally succumbed to the mighty power of Alexander the Great (B.C. 331).

3. **Religion.**—The religion of the Persians was an important step in advance. They believed the doctrine of Zoroaster, who, while not claiming to be a prophet, was regarded as a personage possessing supernatural powers. His belief was a monotheistic religion; one god over all was the doctrine promulgated. However, even Zoroaster believed that a series of minor deities existed.

4. **Civilization.**—Both Medes and Persians were of direct Aryan descent and their manners and customs were practically identical. In sculpture and architecture they

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displayed no marked skill, but in religious ideas they were second only to the Hebrews; and were "distinguished for their courage, energy and honesty." The chief difficulty with the Persians was the fact that their habits of life and surroundings led to leisure and consequent indulgences.

19. MEDES AND PERSIANS.

1. **Geography.**—Modern Persia occupies the western and larger half of the great elevated plateau, rising between the valleys of the Indus and the Tigris. This plateau, generally termed the Iranian, may be described in relation to the general mountain system of the old world, as a section and southern spur of that great dividing range, which forms the backbone of the Europe-Asiatic continent.—*Goldsmid.*

2. **Political History.**—At this remarkable epoch, a combination of circumstances occurred, which is unparalleled in history, either ancient or modern. Besides the prophets of Israel, there flourished about the same time, Confucius in China, Zoroaster in Persia, and Solon in Greece—all great reformers and seers, whose names will live in grateful remembrance while the world lasts.—*Alison.* *Cyrus*, though a brilliant general, was not a statesman. The looseness of his organization occasioned no little trouble for his successors *Darius*, profiting by the lessons taught him by the numerous revolts of his subjects, established the first real empire in all history. He divided his kingdom into twenty provinces, called *Satrapies*, the governors of which were styled *Satraps*. He substituted definite and fixed burthens, instead of variable and uncertain calls, and established a variety of checks and counterpoises among the officials to whom the king delegated his powers, thus tending vastly to the security of the monarch and to the stability of the empire. Uniformity was secured by establishing the same machinery of administration in all portions of the empire, and not by abolishing national differences.

The conquered nations were encouraged to retain their respective languages, customs, manners, religion, laws and modes of local government. The supreme power of the empire was the same over all the provinces. The satrap was entrusted with the collection and transmission of the revenue, the administration of justice, the preservation of order, and the general supervision of the affairs of the satrapy. The satraps were appointed or dismissed by the king, and held office for no definite period, being subject to removal or death at any moment, without formality. They were despotic, being vested with a portion of his majesty. They exercised the power of life and death over those under their jurisdiction and assessed tribute on the towns and villages in their respective satrapies. Fear of removal or execution was generally the only restraint upon their tyranny.

The empire also had a uniform military system, order being maintained by numerous large garrisons of Median and Persian troops quartered on the inhabitants. The amount of tribute was everywhere fixed in money and in kind, which each satrap was required to furnish to the crown, and, in addition, such commodity or commodities, for which it was noted. Taxes were collected on lands, water used for irrigation, fisheries salt-works, mines, quarries, etc., such being usually considered government property.

Officers, related to and commissioned by the crown, annually inspected each province and leading cities were connected by a system of post-houses, each being the distance from an adjacent post that a horse could gallop over, without stopping, where couriers and relays of horses were maintained. Messengers traveled by night and by day, and the conveyance was so rapid that it was often compared to the flight of birds. Darius—from whom the term *Daric* probably derived its name—also coined money.—*Edited from Clare.*

3. **Religion.**—With the fall of Babylon perished "an ancient, widely-spread, and deeply venerated religious system," as represented in the Assyro-Babylonian polytheism. Although this religion retained its votaries for some time, it was no longer a prevailing system, supported by the resources of the state and enforced by civil authority over a wide expanse of territory, but "it became simply one of the many tolerated beliefs, exposed to frequent rebuffs and insults, and at all times overshadowed by a new and rival system, the comparatively pure creed of Zoroaster."—*Clare.* *Zoroaster*, a highly moral person, saw evil as a hateful power, very present and real, and to be fought with forever. To him good and evil represented everything in nature. A fearful elemental and spiritual war is forever going on around us, and we are to be soldiers of the good. We have to fight on the side of Ormazd, King of Light, against Ahriman, Prince of Darkness. In the present age there will be no end to this terrific war, in which all the powers of the universe are engaged, on one side or the other. But in the last days, after this age has come to an end, good will triumph, and all evil disappear, transformed into purity, truth and love. The religion of Zoroaster then may be considered as the primitive religion which had passed up through a polytheism like that of the Vedic system into a dualism, where it was long arrested, chiefly by the vast influence of this great prophet.—*Clarke.*

QUESTIONS.

What was the relative standing of the Medes and Persians before the overthrow of the Medes? Define the territory of each? Compare the reigns of Cyrus, Darius and Xerxes, noting the personal character, warcraft and statesmanship of each? What do you regard as the most important event of each reign? Who was Zoroaster? What was his doctrine? How did it compare with earlier religions? State the leading points in connection with the civilization of the Medes and Persians?

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20. THE HINDOOS.

1. **Geography.**—The country of the Hindoos includes that part of India, or the East Indies, formerly called the peninsula within the Ganges, which extends from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya mountains. The more strictly continental portion lies between these mountains, and the Nerbudda river. The mountains, plateaus, lowlands, forests, rivers, and wastes are each developed on a grand scale, giving the country varied superficial features.

2. **Inhabitants**—*Origin.*—It seems probable that the people from which the genuine Hindoos descended were Aryans and must at some period have inhabited the central plain of Asia, from which they emigrated into the northern parts of Hindoostan.

Features.—"Their diversities in appearance, character, habits, and language," says a writer, "are now as great as those which exist among the various nations of Europe. In general, the figure is slight, graceful, and admirably proportioned, but muscular and athletic on the high tablelands; the face is oval and the features regular; the eyes and hair are black; the skin is soft and polished; the complexion varies from the deepest olive to a light transparent brown."

Population.—The population of British India is about 191,500,000, and of the native states 50,000,000, making a total of over 240,000,000 for the entire country.

3. **Political History.**—Their history may be conveniently divided into three periods.

1. *From the earliest times to the Mohammedan Conquest, 1001 A.D.*—Much of the history of this period is unknown. Most of the records are closely interwoven with their sacred myths and writings. It was during this period that Buddha, a reformer, arose, and gave the modification of Brahmanism, known as Buddhism. Darius (B.C. 518), Alexander (B.C. 326)—and many others invaded and overrun Hindoostan at various times during this period.

2. *The Mohammedan States.*—Almost all of India fell under Mohammedan dominion (1001 A.D.). Their system was bitterly opposed to idolatry. They introduced their new ideas and somewhat improved notions of statesmanship and organization, and planted Moslems all about the country, but did not convert the indigenous people, except those of eastern Bengal.

3. *European Conquest.*—The Portuguese were the first nation of Europe that obtained dominion in Hindoostan (1498). They soon monopolized the commerce, but as rapidly lost their dominion to the English, Dutch and French, about the beginning of the seventh century. About 1858 the country passed under the control of the British crown.

4. **Religion.**—The so-called Vedic hymns, being addressed to the gods, exhibit the earliest glimpses of the Hindoo religion. In them caste, in its latest sense, was unknown. Their religious beliefs have undergone many modifications, but are all founded upon the Vedas, which are four in number. *Brahmanism* represented the priestly craft, who were not merely depositories of the sacred books, but for twenty-two centuries dominated the Hindoos. From the sixth to the eighth century. Buddhism arose, and the two systems, for more than a thousand years, existed as popular religions. Modern *Hindooism* may be said to be the joint product of both.

5. **Civilization.**—In astronomy, metaphysics and medicine the Hindoos attained marked skill. The useful and fine arts reached a considerable degree of perfection, while their architecture has been but little studied by competent judges.

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20. HINDOOS.

1. **Geography.**—There are plains of the richest alluvial soil, intersected by a net-work of grand streams, refreshed seasonally with abundant rains, bathed in the intensest sunshine, and clothed with bright green verdure; there are sandy or stony tracts, flats of hard baked clay, where the mirage is often observed, and there are salt morasses, the haunts of porcupines and vast flocks of aquatic birds —*National Encyclopedia.*

2. **Inhabitants.**—The prehistoric Aryans . . . were dwelling in Central Asia . . . some three thousand years before Christ. They must have dwelt there long enough to develop a language, which became the mother tongue of all the Indo-European languages. They were a pastoral people, but not nomads, as they had fixed habitations. They had oxen, horses, sheep, goats, hogs and domestic fowl. Herds of cows fed in pastures, each owned by a community, and each having a cluster of stables in the center. The daughters of the house were the dairy-maids. The food was mainly the products of the dairy and the flesh of the cattle. The cow was a most important animal, and its name was given to many plants, and even to the clouds and stars, wherein many fancied heavenly herds to be passing over the firmament. —*Clare.*

3. **Political History.**—The one word India covers 1,000 different things. India is a common name to 100 different nations, 100 different sects and castes, to 100 stages of civilization. There is no such thing as one uniform Hindoo people, and there never has been such a uniform, Hindoo people. . . . India displays all stages of civilization.—*Reich.*

4. **Religion.**—Brahmans . . . are the sacerdotal caste, and have the most absolute authority. Brahmanism is the most extended religion on the face of the globe; and it is even claimed that the Hindoo religion, in its several forms, is adhered to by more than half the people of the world.—*Schmucker.* Buddhism, though it is a reaction against the Brahmanic hierarchy, is, in fact, an outgrowth of Brahmanism. It rests upon the so-called dogma of the transmigration of the soul, and the Buddhist, like the Brahman, seeks for deliverance from the endless succession of re-births. . . . It aims at attaining, not union with universal spirit, but . . . non-existence. . . . It makes even the supreme Brahma subordinate to a perfect saint. It differs from Brahmanism as primitive Christianity differed from the Jewish hierarchy, by rejecting outward works . . . as marks of holiness, and seeking it in gentleness, in purity of heart and life, in mercy and self-denying love for a neighbor. . . . He adopts the doctrine that men are born, in lower or higher castes, determined by their sins or good works in a former existence, but he teaches, at the same time, that, by a life of purity and love, by becoming a spiritual man, everyone may obtain at once the highest salvation —*Tiel. Buddhism.*—The Buddhist maintained that there is nothing either divine or human, either animal, vegetable, or material, which is permanent. This is true of the mightiest of gods, as much as of the tiniest material atom. Everything is sure to pass away. A thing may last for thousands of years, or for only a second, but in every case as soon as there is a beginning, there, also, begins at that moment to be an ending. In the lower classes of things we find form, and in the higher, mental qualities, and the union of these makes the individual. Every person or thing or god is therefore a compound—what the Buddhists call a *Confection.* In each individual the component parts are ever changing, so that it is never the same for two consecutive moments. There can be no individuality without a putting together; there can be no putting together, no Confection, without a Becoming; there can be no Becoming without a becoming different; and there can be no becoming different without a dissolution, a passing away, which sooner or later will be inevitably complete. —*Edited from Rhys-Davids.*

5. **Civilization.**—An indigenous form of municipal government of great antiquity is an interesting feature in the social life of the Hindus. Each of the *villages*, meaning thereby a district of varying extent analogous to a township, is under the jurisdiction of a head inhabited, called the *Potail.* He acts as chief magistrate, arranges disputes, sees to the collection of the taxes, and appoints the *chokeydars* —watchmen or police. Several other functionaries are recognized as of public utility, as the priest, the school master, the musician, and the dancing girl, all of whom are paid at the expense of the community. Under this simple form of municipal government the inhabitants have lived from time immemorial. The boundaries of the village have been but seldom altered; and though the villages themselves have been sometimes injured, and even desolated by war, famine, and disease, the same name, the same tenants, and even the same families have continued for ages. —*National Encyclopedia.* The *Sanskrit* name of the cow is *go*, plural *gâvas*, and this short radical we find running with the modifications consequent on the character of each, through most of our languages; old German *chuo*, modern German *kuh*, English *cow.* The Slavic branch has preserved it, like a great many others, in the form most resembling the original. Thus, Old Slavic has *govyàdo* a herd. Modern Servian *Govedar*, a cow herd; Russian, *govyàdina*, beef, the flesh of cows and oxen; then *gospodin*, master; *gospod(i)*, the Lord; *gospodar*, the title given to South Slavic rulers. all meaning originally "master of cows." —*Kagozin.*

QUESTIONS.

Give the geography of Hindoostan? What may be said of the origin of the Hindoos? Population? Into how many periods does their history naturally divide itself? Outline the status of Brahminism? Buddhism? Hindooism? How do the Hindoos rank in civilization? What may be said of their early municipal government? What position did the common domestic cow occupy?

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21. CHINA.

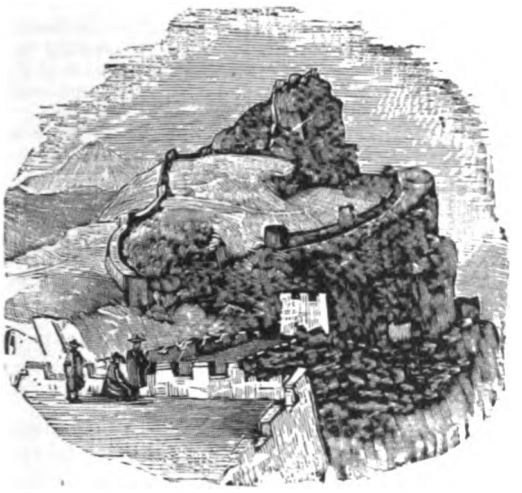
1. **Geography.**—China, including its tributary states, extends from north of the sea of Japan to the river Sibon—nearly 2,300 miles. China proper is about 1,200 miles in length and almost as much in width, and has an area of nearly 1,300,000 square miles.

The climate is extremely variable for different portions of the nation.

2. **Inhabitants.**—China proper has a population of 383,000,000 souls, while its dependencies have, in addition, some 21,180,000 people; yet it is said that its commerce does not equal that of Switzerland.

3. **Political History.**—The early history of China dates far back into the fabulous periods of history, and a discussion of it here would involve much useless speculation. Giles makes six dynasties as follows:

I. **The Chows** (B.C. 1122-250). The Chinese had, previous to this dynasty, developed the art of writing, used money, instituted the right of marriage, cultivated music, both vocal and instrumental, practiced painting, charioteering and archery, as much then as now. The reign of this dynasty from beginning to the end was involved in trouble with the vassal state of Ch'in. It was during this period the use of both given and surnames came into use. Also a university was founded and slavery became a regular domestic institution. In the fifth century B.C. lived Confucius, the great Chinese teacher.



Chinese Wall.

II. **The Hans** (B.C. 200-A.D. 200). During this period 300,000 men were sent against the Huns; the Great Wall—now so famous—was built, and the general literary conflagration, known as the "Burning of the Books," was enacted—the Emperor in order to impart a "fresh stimulus to literary efforts" ordered the destruction of all existing books. This period is further noted for its revival of literature; the introduction of Buddhism and Judaism—the latter perishing after a time.

III. **The T'angs** (A.D. 600-900). It was during this period that we detect the first traces of the art of printing. It is also the age of Buddhism and Chinese poetry, and the introduction of Mohammedanism. According to Giles, "paper money was first introduced," and "the modern Court Circular and daily record of edicts, memorials, and so forth, commonly known as the *Peking Gazette*," was first issued.

IV. **The Sungs** (A.D. 960-1280). While this was a period of general progress, but few innovations were attempted. Of the religions Buddhism, Taoism and Confucianism each had its votaries. The grand canal from Cambaluc to the extreme southern portion of China was completed.

V. **The Mings** (A.D. 1370-1650). The prosperity of the empire continued during this period. The Portuguese first appear, and among other things introduced opium. Also attempts were made to establish the Romish Church by Jesuit missionaries. The "Imperial library was estimated to contain works, written and printed, amounting to a total of about 1,000,000 books in all."

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VI. **The Ch'ings (A.D. 1650 —.)**—This still extant dynasty was founded by the Manchu Tartars, who had been called in to assist against rebels in the South and then seized the throne. The practice of shaving the head except the queue was then first enforced as a badge of conquest. Since the close of the Eighteenth Century commercial relations with England and France have led to wars with each of those countries. The T'ai-ping rebellion that had for twelve years threatened the existence of the government was suppressed in 1864 by the English officer since known as Chinese Gordon.

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21. CHINA.

1. **Geography.**—The word China . . . was no doubt introduced in the west from the nations of Central Asia, who, in speaking of the Chinese, use the term Jin, Chin, Sin, Sinae and Sinestae. These names were probably derived from the powerful Tsin family, which held sway over the northwestern part of China as early as 770 B.C. . . . The names which the Chinese use in speaking of themselves are various. The common one is *Chung K'woh*, "Middle Kingdom"; the term middle signifying not only that they are the geographical center of the world, but also the center of light and civilization. Another name is *Chung-Hwa-Kwoh*, "Middle Flowery Kingdom"; flowery presents the idea of beautiful, cultivated, refined. The term *Tien-Hwa-Kwoh* and *Tien-Choa*, "Heavenly Flowery Kingdom," and "Heavenly Dynasty," are sometimes used, the word "Heavenly" presenting the Chinese idea that the Empire is established by the authority of heaven, and that the Emperor rules by Divine right. This title has given rise to the contemptuous epithet applied to this race by Europeans, "The Celestials." —*Nevius.*

2. **History.** — From that day (206 B.C.) to this, with occasional interregnums, the empire has been ruled on the lines laid down by *Chi Hwang-ti* the first Emperor of China (246 B.C.). Dynasty has succeeded dynasty, but the political tradition has remained unchanged, and though Mongols and Manchus have at different times wrested the throne from its legitimate heirs, they have been engulfed in the homogeneous mass inhabiting the empire, and instead of impressing their seal on the country have become but the reflection of the vanquished.—*Douglas.*

22.

1. **Religion.**—China, with its cognate neighbors—Mongolia, Manchuria, Corea and Japan—presents a condition unknown elsewhere, viz.: that of the religious compound, where only the official ministers of the three religions, Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism, belong exclusively to each, while the laity resort in turn to either one according to special need. Chinese religion previous to the Sixth Century was a graduated polytheism with *Tien*, "Heaven," at the head, various nature-deities below, and ancestral spirits at the bottom. The morally providential character of all these supernatural beings is beyond doubt the dominant one. In the Sixth Century lived both Confucius and Laotse, two of the greatest men of all time, and founders respectively of Confucianism and Taoism. Confucius reaffirmed the old religion, especially the belief in Heaven. He was reasonably agnostic and deeply reverential towards the supernatural, studious and benevolent towards man. Contemned during his life-time, he has for twenty-two centuries ruled the life of China as its "uncrowned king." Laotse was superior even to Confucius, but too mystical to be accepted by his practical nationals. His mysticism was perverted, and combined with older beliefs into Taoism, which is characterized by polytheism, magic, and divination, not without a utilitarian morality. Buddhism was imported from India in the first century A.D., since when it has been alternately favored and persecuted. It complemented the two native religions by its explicit doctrines of the future life and of salvation for it.

2. **Civilization.**—The Chinese are in temperament phlegmatic, mild, calm, unimaginative, practical. As with other Oriental peoples, polygamy with its attendant domestic slavery — for concubines must be bought — is the hereditary curse of China, while filial piety has proved the mainstay of its virtue. The gaze of the Chinese is directed backwards to the ideals of a supposed golden age, and hence in part the strenuous opposition to all innovations from the Occident. Education is not general and is solely literary, with the Fine Classics, all written prior to the Sixth

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Century B.C., as the text books. There is no press, no professions of law, medicine or divinity, and of course no franchise. Science remains at its empirical stage. The chief occupation is agriculture. Domestic animals are eaten only when sacrificed, which is rarely. Political corruption is general, and progress is obstructed, if not even reversed.

22.

Religion.—Thereafter, be (Shun) sacrificed specially, but with the ordinary forms to Heaven; sacrificed with reverent purity to the Six Honored Ones; offered their appropriate sacrifices to the hills and rivers; and extended his worship to the host of spirits. . . . *I Yin* again made an announcement to the king, saying: "Oh! Heaven has no partial affection;—only to those who are reverent does it show affection." The way of Heaven is to bless the good, and make the bad miserable. It sent down calamities on the house of *Hsia*, to make manifest its guilt. . . . There is no invariable model of virtue;—a supreme regard to what is good gives the model of it. There is no invariable characteristic of what is good that is to be supremely regarded;—it is found where there is a conformity to the uniform consciousness.—*Selections from the Shu King, "Book of History," being contemporaneous records from the Twenty-Second Century, B.C. Sacred Books of the East, III.*

Confucius.—The Master said, "Is virtue a thing remote? I wish to be virtuous, and lo! virtue is at hand."

Ki Lu asked about serving the spirits of the dead. The Master said, "While you are not able to serve men, how can you serve their spirits?" *Ki Lu* added, "I venture to ask about death." He was answered, "While you do not know life, how can you know about death?" . . . When one cultivates to the utmost the principles of this nature, and exercises them on the principle of reciprocity, he is not far from the path. What you do not like, when done to yourself, do not do to others.—*Translations from the Lun yu, by J. Legge.*

Laotse.—The *Tao*, "Absolute," is hidden, and has no name; but it is the *Tao* which is skillful at imparting to all things what they need and making them complete. . . . To those who are good to me, I am good; and to those who are not good to me, I am also good;—and thus all get to be good.—*Translations from the Taote King, Sacred Books of the East, XXXIX.*

Civilization.—The Chinese have no game of active skill which brings opponents into direct conflict, as in rackets, cricket, football, etc.

In the administration of justice the same lax morality as in other branches of government exists, and bribery is largely resorted to by litigants, more especially in civil cases.

But the greatest blot on Chinese administration is the inhumanity shown to both culprits and witnesses in criminal proceedure. Tortures of the most painful and revolting kind are used to extort evidence, and punishments scarcely more severely cruel are inflicted on the guilty parties.

So many are the disabilities of married women, that many girls prefer going into Buddhist or Taoist nunneries, or even committing suicide, to trusting their future to men of whom they can know nothing but from the interested reports of the go-betweens.—*Douglas.*

The government does not value education for its own sake, but regards it as means to an end. The great end is the repose of the State; the instruments for securing it are able officers, and education is the means for preparing them for the discharge of their duties.—*Martin.*



Image of Confucius.

Chief among the literary achievements belonging more strictly to native enterprise at this period is the gigantic encyclopedia in over twenty-two thousand books, only one copy of which, and that imperfect, has survived out of the four that were originally made. Allowing fifty octavo pages to a book, the result would be a total of at least 1,100,000 pages, the index alone occupying no fewer than 3,000 pages.—*Giles.*

QUESTIONS.

State the leading events of each dynasty? How do the Chinese name China, and why? Describe the religious compound? What was the attitude to religion of Confucius? What was Taoism? What did Buddhism teach the Chinese? Why do the Chinese not progress? What is conspicuously absent from Chinese civilization?

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23. JAPAN.

BY EDMUND BUCKLEY, A.M., PH.D., UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

1. **Geography.**—Japan proper consists of three large islands, the main island, Shikoku, and Kyushu, together with a multitude of small ones. The Kuriles, Yezo, Luchus, Bonins, and (lately) Formosa all belong to Japan, but, except the Luchus, are inhabited by unrelated peoples. Hardly twelve per cent of the total area of 147,000 square miles is cultivable, the rest being mountainous and often volcanic. Our term Japan and the Japanese *Nihon* or *Nippon* are alike corruptions of the Chinese *Jih-pen* "sun-origin," in reference to the eastward location of Japan.

2. **Inhabitants.**—These now number over forty millions, with males nearly half a million in excess of females! The Japanese sprang from two related Mongolian tribes that entered Japan from Korea, fifth to second century B.C., and expelled the aboriginal Ainus.

3. **History.**—Legend makes *Jimmu Tenno* the first human emperor of Japan in 660 B.C.; really about 100 B.C. From the third century A.D. Chinese culture filtered in, and in 712 A.D. the still extant *Kojiki* "Record of Ancient Matters," was written. The conversion of the nation to Buddhism, in the sixth and seventh centuries A.D., exercised manifold and deep influences on its whole subsequent career. Thus it introduced *inkyo*, the retirement to solitude and meditation on passing middle age. This was perverted by ambitious ministers to their own ends, in that they caused the Mikado to abdicate on attaining maturity, and then administered the government in the name of his infant-successor. Thus it often happened that three Mikados were contemporaneous. The periods of Japanese history are better characterized by these actual rulers than by the nominal emperors, though the succession of these never failed or changed. One imperial line for a thousand generations is the boast of Japan in face of the faithless changes of dynasty made by the Chinese and Europeans, and it is indeed beyond compare the oldest reigning family in the world.



A Japanese General.

670–1050 A.D. The *Fujiwara* family controlled the state while the court devoted itself to religion and literature.

1050–1205 A.D. The *Taira* and *Minamoto* families alternately attained the ascendancy by power of arms, and thus established feudalism. The *Minamoto* finally prevailed and *Yoritomo* received the title Shogun, which continued in use until 1868.

1205–1338 A.D. The *Minamoto* ruled. The fleet sent by Kublai Khan to conquer Japan was repelled. No attack has been made upon Japan since that time.

1338–1565 A.D. The *Ashikagas* filled the shogunate. They sank from patrons of the arts into victims of effeminacy, and the country fell into disorder from which it was rescued only by Hideyoshi, who furthermore invaded Korea in 1592-1598.

1598-1868 A.D. The shogunate was held by the famous *Tokugawa* family, founded by *Ieyasu*, the greatest ruler of Japan. Roman Christianity, which had been introduced by Saint Xavier in 1549, and had run a stormy course from implications with politics, was finally swept out by persecution in 1637, and the foreign priests banished or slain. No Japanese was allowed to leave the country, and only the Dutch were allowed one small colony in it. Then began an intense nationalistic movement which abjured the Confucian classics for ancient Japanese literature, Buddhism for the native Shinto faith, and finally the shogunate for the ancient institution of the Mikados. In this spirit was secured in 1868 the downfall of the then Shogun, who had opened certain ports to the trade of the United States and leading

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European powers. But the purpose of continued seclusion for Japan was thwarted by the gifted *Satsuma* and *Chōshū* clans, who as ministers of the Mikado, inaugurated and completed that splendid series of political, industrial and social reforms which has won the admiration of the world, and made New Japan.

23.

1. **Geography.**—The coasts are generally rocky, and extremely irregular, being broken up with numerous romantic inlets. They are deficient in good harbors, and from their exposure to frequent typhoons are the scene of numerous shipwrecks A mountainous chain of considerable elevation traverses the whole insular series in the line of its greatest extent, many of its higher summits remaining clothed in snow for several months, and some of them throughout the year.—*National Encyclopedia*

2. **Inhabitants.**—The distinctive originality of the Japanese is manifest in the exercise of the esthetic faculty. The love of beauty in nature or in art is common to all classes. And we may expect much from such a people, as they advance in the recognition of moral worth and noble ideas. As yet they have no national literature in the proper sense of the word. Their literature . . . illustrates their limitless imitative power, but there is nothing to show that they have the power of mental initiative in politics, ethics or philosophy. —*Halsey.*

3. **History.**—The Emperor . . . is declared to be the sovereign head of the empire, exercising executive power, with the advice and assistance of cabinet ministers, who are appointed by, and are responsible to him. He can declare war, make peace, and conclude treaties. He has a privy council, which when consulted by the Emperor deliberates upon important state affairs. The legislative power is exercised by the Emperor, with the consent of the Imperial diet. Every law requires the consent and approval of the Emperor . . . This Japanese Legislature is divided into two bodies—a House of Peers and a House of Representatives.—*Atlas of the World.*

24.

4. **Religion.**—The condition of the "religious compound" described under China, belongs also to Japan, with Shintoism in the place of Taoism, these being the respective folk-faiths. Before the introduction from China of Confucianism and Buddhism in the sixth century, Shintoism was of course the sole religion. Buddhism was dominant from the seventh to the seventeenth centuries. Confucianism governed education and ruled the intellect of the country from early in the seventeenth century, until its displacement by western agnosticism and ethics in our own day. The recent revolution involved a temporary revival of Shintoism. Confucianism and Buddhism suffered little change at the hands of the Japanese. Only two points call for notice. First, the intense nationalism of the Japanese required that its Confucianism make feudal fealty instead of filial piety its chief virtue, and that its Buddhism adopt the deities of Shintoism into its pantheon. Secondly, in 1203 A.D., *Shinran Shonin*, an earlier Martin Luther, made innovations on Buddhism in striking accord with Protestant principles. The Shin sect he thus founded is now the largest and most vital in Japan. Shintoism is a primitive faith in *kami* "superiors," who are either nature-deities, such as *Amaterasu* of the Sun, and *Susanō* of the Storm-cloud, besides the spirits of animals, trees, mountains, etc., or ancestral deities, such as *Kasuga* and *Ieyasu*, besides the ancestral spirits belonging to each family. *Amaterasu* sent down from heaven her grandson *Ninigi* to rule Japan, and by him was founded the Imperial Line. Consequently religion and loyalty coincide, and the enactments of the Mikado are the commands of God. What a Shintoist should do is obey these enactments, and for the rest, follow the dictates of his heart, which is by nature good. Equally primitive and



Great Bronze Statue of Buddha.

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picturesque are the rituals which state to the deities the ground or condition upon which the offerings are made to them.

5. **Civilization.**—The chief occupations of the Japanese are agriculture and fishing. The social system was feudal. Rich and poor are alike remarkable for sedateness and courtesy, cleanliness and kindness, patriotism and estheticism. On the shady side must be mentioned untruthfulness, vanity, unreliability and materialism —not the philosophic or religious kind, but practical, a want of ideality in principles and purposes. Science was of the Chinese order and vanished at the sight of Western science, demonstrated superior by its incomparable control over nature. In general, the Japanese are the French of Asia, but aspire to become the English. Christian missions have made excellent progress, and that not limited to the lower classes. The art of Japan won instant recognition from Occidental nations, as a unique and wonderful thing, and is now everywhere patronized besides the Græco-Modern. It is purely decorative, while western art is also representative. Its aim is sense-delight, whereas, western art seeks also truth, a memorial, or an ideal. It therefore dispenses alike with perspective, chiaroscuro and symmetry, and thus produces, not a picture, but a decoration, an impression, an isolated "bit" of delight. Its symmetry in particular has opened to the West a new world of beauty-form. The Japanese line is equally easy and strong, due to the habit of writing and drawing from the elbow instead of from the wrist. The common art-themes are birds, insects, fishes, trees and flowers, depicted with marvelous skill, and not at all "still life," but instinct with motion. The human figure—always clothed—has never been treated other than conventionally, and then but seldom. Individuality is marvelous. Japanese work is unexcelled in wood and ivory carvings, metal work and cloisonné, faience and porcelain, weaving and embroidery, while in lacquer it reigns supreme. Japanese art never proceeded to the higher, representative, intellectual and emotional art, and never attempted the "human form divine." "It was great in small things, but small in great things." Japanese literature is distinguished for its exquisite ode of thirty-one syllables, reflecting the poet's mood in an aspect of nature, and for its lyric-drama, developed, as was the Greek, from a religious choric dance.

24.

4. **Religion.**—*Descent of Ninigi from Heaven, according to the Kojiki* So then *Amatersu O Mikami* and *Takayi no Kami* commanded *Ninigi no Mikoto;* and he, leaving the Heavenly Rock-Seat, pushing asunder the eight-fold heavenly spreading clouds, and dividing a road with a mighty road-dividing, set off floating shut up in the Floating Bridge of Heaven and descended from Heaven onto the peak of Kuzifura which is Takachiho in Tsukushi.—*Translated by B. H. Chamberlain.*

Loyalty and Duty, according to Motoöri, eighteenth century.—*Amaterasu* never said, "Disobey the Mikado, if he be bad," and therefore, whether he be good or bad, no one attempts to deprive him of his authority. He is the immovable ruler who must endure to the end of time, as long as sun and moon continue to shine. In ancient language the Mikado was called a god, and that is his real character. Duty, therefore, consists in obeying him implicitly, without questioning his acts. —*Translated by E. Satow.*

5. **Civilization.**—They seem to me like a soft reflection of Latin types, without the Latin force, and brilliancy, and passion.—*L. Hearn.* The land of gentle manners and fantastic arts.—*Sir E. Arnold.* The charms that the cultured western mind finds in the world of fancy and romance, in questions themselves, irrespective of their practical bearings, is for the most part unintelligible to the Japanese.—*W. Dening.* Foreigners residing long in Japan find their standard gradually change, and see, to their own surprise, that their countrywomen look ungainly, fierce, aggressive and awkward among the small, mild, shrinking, and graceful Japanese ladies.—*Miss Bacon.*

Art.—It is true, and strange as true, that the Japanese have apparently never sought to overstep the limits of a purely decorative art, and have thus stopped short of the art-developments of other nations. Whether this limitation may be from some organic defect, or is merely a result of their neglect to study the human figure and master the difficulties of rendering the fine harmony of line and proportion seen in greatest perfection there, it is difficult to determine. Certain it is, they have never advanced so far. They have always been content to treat the human figure in a conventional style, not much in advance of the Egyptian rendering, and quite incompatible with good drawing.—*Sir R. Alcock.*

QUESTIONS.

How much of the land of Japan is cultivable? Whence did Japan derive its culture? What influence had Buddhism upon Japan? What policy did Japan adopt in consequence of Roman missions? Describe Shintoism? State the traits of the Japanese? Characterize Japanese art? How are religion and law related in Shintoism?

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SUMMARY.

ANCIENT EASTERN NATIONS.

Ethiopia.—*The people* were of Hamitic origin. *Position*, south of Egypt, and probably restricted to the island of Meroe. *Their Government* was a monarchy similar to Egypt and fell B.C. 530 *The religion* was similar to the Egyptian. *In civilization* only second rate imitators of the Egyptians.

Chaldea.—*The people* belonged to the Hamitic race. *Position*, the lower part of the Tigro-Euphrates basin. *Date*, from B.C. 2400 to 1300. *Their Government* was a monarchy, and overthrown B.C. 1300 by the Assyrians *Their religion* was a gross polytheism. *In civilization* they are recognized as the pioneers, more especially in astronomy.

Assyria.—*The people* were of Semitic origin and are described as brave, haughty and treacherous. *Position*, north of Chaldea, in the region now known as Kurdistan. *The soil* was generally productive. *The climate* was varied. *The political history* is divided into three periods, viz., (1). The Chaldean period B.C.—— to 1300; (2). The Old Assyrian Empire B.C 1300 745; (3). The New Assyrian Empire. *The religion* was for the most part identical with the Chaldeans. *The civilization* was borrowed from the Chaldeans. *Castes* did not exist.

Later Babylonia.—*The people* were cosmopolitan but mostly Semitic. *The extent* of the kingdom included Susiana, Syria and the valley of the Euphrates. *The political history* is one of the most splendid of ancient history. *Nebuchadnezzar* captured Judah, Tyre and Egypt, and with these and other subjects built two palaces, the temple of Bel, the walls of Babylon with their "Hanging Gardens," and other monuments of greatness. *Their religion* was very similar to the Chaldeans. *In civilization* they made great progress.

Medes and Persians.—*The people* were of Aryan descent and B.C. 530 were united under the Persian empire. *Their position* was between the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf. *Their political history* is one of great importance. *Cyrus* conquered Persia and subjected many other nations, was a great warrior but not a statesman as is attested by the looseness of his organization. *The supremacy* of civilization was now transferred from the Semitic to the Aryan race. *Darius* subdued many revolts, was a warrior and a statesman. *The first real* empire of ancient times was now organized. *Xerxes* was a warrior but immoral. He invaded Greece at the head of an army of two million soldiers; was defeated by Alexander and the Babylonian empire fell B.C. 331. *Zoroastrianism* was their religion. It was monotheistic and an important step in advance. *In civilization* they were distinguished for their religion and for energy and probity.

Phoenicia.—*The people* were of Semitic origin. *Position*, west of Palestine. *Their political history* was not important. *Their religion* was more adapted to foster than to check lust and cruelty. *In commerce* they were the merchant princes of the world. *The Phoenician city* was ruled by its own monarch. *The King* combined in his person the office of high-priest. *Their language* was widely known. *The literature* was mostly of a theological nature. *Inventions* were extensively used but mostly borrowed from other nations. *In civilization* they were easily the leaders of antiquity. *Carthage*, one of their colonies, held its own for four hundred years against Greece and Rome.

Hebrews.—*Abraham* of Ur, the oldest Chaldean city, becomes the founder of the Hebrew nation. *Joseph* settles his people in Egypt. *Moses* leads them out of Egypt into Palestine. *The period of the Judges* followed, including the reigns of Deborah and Samuel. *Saul*, *David* and *Solomon*, each served as king for forty years. The *Kingdom of Israel* was captured by the Assyrians, and the *Kingdom of Judah* by Babylonia. *Judea* was the name now given to the ancient territory of *Judah*, and its people were called Jews. *The religion* of the Hebrews stands pre eminent.

The Hindoos.—*The people* are of Aryan descent. *In appearance*, character, habits and language there is great diversity. *Position*, the more continental portion between the Himalaya and the Nerbudda river *The population* is about 240,000,000 souls. Their political history is divided into three periods, viz., (1). From the earliest times to the Mohammedan conquest (1001 A.D); (2) The Mohammedan States; and (3) European conquests. *The Brahmanites* represent the priestly class. *Buddhism* arose during the sixth century. *Modern Hindooism* is the joint product of Brahmanism and Buddhism. *The civilization* constitutes one of the most interesting subjects for study of modern times.

China.—*The people* belonged to the Turanian race. *The territory* proper includes nearly 1,300,000 square miles. *The population* is 383,000,000. The climate is extremely variable. *The early history* is largely speculative. *The political history* is divided into six dynasties, viz., (1). The Chows (B.C. 1122 250); (2). The Hans (B.C. 200-200 A.D.); (3). The T'angs (A.D. 600-900); (4). The Sungs (A.D. 960-1280); (5). The Mings (A.D. 1370-1650); (6). The Ch'ins (A.D. 1650 ——.) *The religions* are Buddhism, Confucianism and Tao ism. *Their civilization* has remained comparatively stationary.

Japan.—*The people* are of Mongolian origin. *Position*, some 3,000-4000 islands in the Pacific Ocean east of China. *Their earliest authentic history* dates about B.C. 660. *The government* is vested in an Emperor and two legislative bodies—the House of Peers and House of Representatives. *In the Chinese-Japanese War*, Japan was successful. *Shintoism* was the primitive religion. *In civilization*, the Japanese, in modern times, are noted for rapid progress.

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Abusir (a'boo-see'r.)—A small Egyptian town.

Acca'dian.—A language of early Babylon antedating the Semitic language.

Anu'bis.—An Egyptian deity, son of Osiris and Isis. During the 4th dynasty he presided over funeral rites and embalming of the dead instead of Osiris, whose name did not appear till the 6th dynasty.

Ara'bia.—The country inhabited by the Arabs; a division of the Semitic race.

Arme'nia.—An extensive country of Western Asia, which is now divided between Turkey, Russia and Persia. Its people were probably of Aryan descent.

Ar'yan.—A technical term applied to that great family of language which extends from India to Europe. Synonymous with Indo-European, Indo Germanic, Japhetic, Sanskritic, Mediterranean, etc.

Assuan (As swan').—Assouan or Asswan, a town in Upper Egypt on the Nile.

Babylon.—The Greek form of Babel "the gate of god." It was on the Euphrates on the ancient site of which stands the modern town of Hillah.

Bedouins (bed'oo eens).—The nomadic Arabs of Syria, Arabia and northern Africa.

Brah'ma.—Brahm, according to the mythology of the Hindoos, is said to have given birth to Brahma, Vishnu and Siva; and to have allotted to the first the province of creating. From Brahma sprung Brahmanism.

Buddha (bood'da) or Boodha.—The originator of Buddhism.

Cairo (Ki 'ro).—The modern capital of Egypt.

Cheops (Ke'ops).—The name of the Egyptian king who built the pyramid of the same name. In building 100,000 men were employed 20 years.

Confucius (Kon fu'shē ius) or Kung fu-tse, the first being the Latinized form of the latter. He was born B.C. 551 and was the author of Confucianism.

Copts.—Descendants from the ancient Egyptian stock. They are Jacobites in their creed. Probably named from Captos, an ancient Egyptian city.

Core'a, or Korea, comprises a small peninsula with a small portion of the continent to which it is attached.

Cushites (Kush'-it).—A name applied to the decendants of Cush, the son of Ham.

Euphra'tes.—A river of Asiatic Turkey.

Faience (fa'ēäns').—Glazed earthenware decorated in color. Named from Faenza, Italy, the place of original manufacture.

Fayoum (fī'-oom).—Fayoom, Faioom, Fayum or Faioum. A province of Middle Egypt.

Gizeh (ghee'zeh).—Gheezeh, Ghizeh, Gizeh, Geezeh or Jizeh. The pyramids of Egypt in the vicinity of the town of the same name.

Hin'doo or Hindu.—A member of the native Aryan race of India.

Hor'us.—An Egyptian divinity. The god of civilization and the arts.

Hyk'sos.—The Shepherd Kings who invaded Egypt from Syria and Arabia.

I'bis.—The Egyptian Ibis was an African bird, 30 inches in length, and covered with white and black plumage.

Isis.—Wife and sister of Osiris and mother of Horus. The cow was sacred to her and her emblems are a cow's horns, a disk supporting a throne and a lotus staff, and a sistrum. She taught agriculture and the arts to man.

Irān'ian.—Relating to Iran, the original name of Persia.

Khar'toum or Khartoom.—An important town of Africa on the Blue Nile.

Lac'quer.—The tough, solid varnish of the Japanese, with which ornamental objects are made.

Lib'yaen.—A country of indefinite extent but occupying the region immediately west of Egypt.

Mikā'do.—The hereditary sovereign of Japan, the term being restricted to the Emperor himself.

Mongō'lian.—An inhabitant of Mongolia. In a wider sense one of the yellow people of Asia.

Moslem (Moz'lem).—A name applied to themselves by the believers in Mohammedanism.

Nin'eveh.—The ancient capital of the Assyrian Empire, formerly located on the banks of the Tigris.

Nippon (Nif'fon), Niphon or Nipon.—A name applied to the principal island of Japan, but more properly to the whole Empire. The word Japan is a corruption of Nippon.

Osi'ris.—The most popular Egyptian god. He was slain and became judge of the dead. He was the god of light, health, verdure, agriculture and generation.

Parthia.—A country of ancient Asia. The people were an off-shoot of the Scythians and were the most celebrated horsemen in the world.

Pekin' or Peking.—The capital of China.

Pū'nic wars—A series of wars in which the Romans and Carthaginians were engaged for more than three centuries. The term *Punic* was applied to the Carthaginians by the Romans, meaning a *reproach.*

Sheyks or Sheik (Shīk or Shek.) The head of an Arab tribe or religious organization.

Shintō'.—A species of ancestor worship as practiced by the Japanese.

Si'don (Saida or Seida).—The most ancient of Phoenician cities.

Susia'na.—An ancient province of Persia answering to the modern Kurdistan.

Syene (si een').—A city on the southern frontier of Egypt towards Ethiopia.

Syr'ia.—A division of Asiatic Turkey including Palestine.

Tael.—(Tāl).—A Chinese coin equivalent to $1.40 in United States money.

Thebes (Theebz).—An ancient capital of Egypt, which extended for seven miles along both banks of the Nile.

Thoth (Hermes)—The child of Knepp was the equivalent of the Greek Hermes, god of Knowledge.

Typhoon'.—A violent whirlwind, occurring in Chinese seas. Often meaning whirlwinds of any kind.

Ty'phon.—An ancient god of mythology, the father of winds. Supposed by some to be identical with the Egyptian Set, who represented physical evil.

Vē'das.—The ancient sacred literature of the Hindoos constituting their most ancient writings. Comprised in four collections, viz., *Rig veda, Yajur-veda, Sama veda.* and *Atharva-veda.* These are often called the *Vedic Sanskrit* as distinguished from later *classical Sanskrit.*

Yez'o (Yesso or Jesso).—The most northerly of the four principal islands of the Japanese empire. Estimated area 62,500 square miles.

Zoroas'ter.—The legislator, prophet and reformer of the time of Darius or earlier, and author of *Zoroastrianism.*

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ALLEGED WONDERFUL MODERN DISCOVERIES

BY

WILLIAM F. WARREN AND DR. LE PLONGEON.

PARADISE AT THE NORTH POLE.

A STUDY OF THE PREHISTORIC WORLD. EDITED FROM THE WORK ON "PARADISE FOUND"

BY WILLIAM F. WARREN, S.T D., LL D.,

(President of Boston University.)

PART I.

IN the preface to this deeply interesting book, which has elicited the greatest interest among thinkers and scholars, the learned author says: "This work is not the work of a dreamer, neither has it proceeded from a love of learned paradox, nor yet is it a cunningly devised fable, aimed at particular tendencies in current science, philosophy or religion It is a thoroughly serious and sincere attempt to present what is to the author's mind the true and final solution of one of the greatest and most fascinating problems connected with the history of mankind. The question may be asked, Why has not a true solution of the problem been given before? Is not the suggestion that the pristine Eden was at the Arctic Pole, one of the most incredible of all wild and willful paradoxes? The answer to this question is found in the fact that only within the lifetime of our own generation has the progress of geological discovery relieved the hypothesis of fatal antecedent improbability. Many of the most striking of the alleged proofs of the theory, both in the physical and in the anthropological domain, are precisely the latest of the conclusions of these most modern of all sciences Forty years ago this book could not have been written. Fifteen years ago the most interesting and cogent of the arguments given would have been lacking.

The interest which centers in the probable home of the human race was never greater than to-day. Other questions may become antiquated; this one never will be, and the greater the progress in the modern world, the more urgent is the necessity of finding a valid solution. "If we do not have the proper starting point of human history," Dr. Warren contends, "the historian, the archaeologist and the paleontological anthropologist are all working in the dark. The ethnologist, the philologist, the mythograph r, the theologian, the sociologist cannot construct a stable edifice of thought without the knowledge of the mother region and the prehistoric movements of the human race."

The writer of this book is a man laden with the cares of a laborious executive office, yet he has found time to investigate this deeply fascinating subject and to give the results in a most readable and attractive form to the world.

With regard to the place of the beginning of human history there have been numberless opinions Christian and Jewish theologians have in all ages differed, and irreconcilibly differed, as to the location of the cradle of the human race. Some of the fathers and theologians of the early church following the allegorical method of Philo, interpreted the whole narrative of Genesis as a parable, setting forth spiritual things; and some of the transcendental writers of the so-called "metaphysical" school of teaching and healing, are disciples in spirit of this great writer. Eden, in his opinion, was not a place, but a state of spiritual blessedness. The four rivers were not rivers, but the four cardinal virtues

The majority, however, of the church fathers held to the historic character of the narrative and to the strictly geographical locality of Eden Some of them put the Garden in the far East beyond all lands inhabited by man; others that it was within or under the earth or in the regions of the dead. Others held that it was neither on or below the earth, but high above it in the third heaven or in some way associated with the moon

Tertullian placed Eden in the Southern Hemisphere and thought the Torrid Zone was the flaming sword turning every way. Luther rejected all attempts to locate the primeval garden and averred that the deluge had so changed the face of the earth and the course of its original rivers, that all search was fruitless. Calvin just as confidently affirmed, however, that the writer of the Genesis narrative located the Garden of Eden near the mouth of the river Euphrates.

In Smith's Bible Dictionary the problem is abandoned as probably insoluble. In the great German Encyclopedia of Herzog it is declared to be a bit of mythical geography In the chief Roman Catholic Cyclopedia, the Garden of Eden is placed in a vague, indeterminate way between Eastern Asia and the indefinite north In other prominent cyclopedias, the whole story in Genesis is declared to be a myth.

Stress, however, has been placed upon the fact narrated in Genesis 2: x xiv, that, in the account of the rivers, the name of the fourth river is given as Euphrates It has been said that "surely in the name of the fourth river we have *one* undeniable landmark. However impossible it may be to identify all four of the rivers of Eden, the very mention of the Euphrates restricts the location of the Garden to some part of the region drained by that river."

In answer to this, however, it may be said that some Biblical critics have expressed doubt as to the genuineness of the phrase, and Mr. Granville Penn, an earnest defender of the Bible, considers the whole passage an interpolation. The Hebrew name of the river Euphrates is from the older form Buratti or Purattu, a word which is believed to signify "the broad" or "the deep". It was a general description of the river, just as we might say of several brooks, "broad brooks," or of creeks, "broad creeks". Obry, a learned French-

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man, says that in ancient times Phrat or Euphrates was the name of one or possibly two rivers of Persia Gerald Massay says "there is a very sacred river in Hwida called the Euphrates or Eufrates."

Dr. Warren suggests that people coming into a new country love to name their new rivers and towns after the loved and sacred ones they have left in the elder home; thus the Thames of New England or of Canada perpetuates the memory of the Thames of old England. Henry Bradley says "it is very seldom indeed that a river has no namesakes." It is, therefore, very possible that the Phrath or Euphrates of Mesopotamia may have been named for some elder river of the antediluvian world, wherever that may have been; and various learned writers believe that this was the case.

Upon a mutilated fragment of an ancient Assyrian inscription there are descriptions of the visible and invisible world, mixed up together, and in which the river of the "Life of the World" is designated by the name Euphrates. So one might very justly conclude that it will not do to take the term, Phrath or Eu-frata, as always and everywhere referring to the historic river of Mesopotamia.

Eminent scientific authorities have located the home of the race in latitude ranging from Greenland to Central Africa, and in longitude from America to Central Asia The two hypotheses which seem to command the widest and weightiest support are, first, that which locates the Edenic Garden in the submerged prehistoric continent under the northern portion of the Indian Ocean; the other that it was in the heart of Central Asia. Haeckel, Caspari, Peschel and many others support the former. Darwin and Lyell with others, seem favorable to the same location or to one in the adjoining portion of Africa.

But comparative theologists, mythologists, and archæological ethnographers have of late very strongly been inclined to place the cradle of mankind on the lofty plateau of Pamir in Central Asia We may mention among the prominent names holding to this view those of Lassen, Burnouf Ewald, Renan, Obry, D'Eckstein, Hofer, Senart, Maspéro, Lenormant, etc , but the latest writers on the question by no means concur in the opinion regarding the two locations just mentioned. Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch claims the site to be on the Euphrates between Bagdad and Babylon.

It has been difficult to account for the first appearing of human beings in America without supposing that there was a closer land connection in the inter tropical region between the eastern and western hemispheres than now exists. This difficulty has led quite a number of ethnologists to believe in the lost Atlantis, which included perhaps the Canary and Madeira Islands, or the Azores, or land then found to the north or south of them, and to locate in it the fountain head of the streams of population which flowed both into the old and the new world. M. Beauvois locates the Eden of ethnic traditions in America, and ascribes to the Celtic race no small influence upon the Greco Roman mythology in the development of such ideas as those pertaining to the "Garden of the Hesperides," the "Isles of the Blessed," etc.

J. Klaproth, Gobineau, and others have advocated the hypothesis that the cradle of the race is to be sought in America. A minister of the gospel, resident in Wisconsin, gravely advocated the theory that the Garden of Eden was located near Trempealeau, Wisconsin, a few miles distant from Winona, Minnesota, on the banks of the Mississippi River. But a huge work just issued from the press, by an English writer, claims that if there be an earthly original for the heavenly Eden, it will be found in equatorial Africa. So it is evident that the naturalists and the ethnologists, the comparative mythologists, the theologians, etc., have not yet solved the problem.

As Dr. Warren states, "the mother region of the human race is as elusive and Protean as are any of the terrestial Edens of theology or of legend or of poetry. Thus far all search has been fruitless. Paradise is indeed lost. The explorer cannot find it, the theologian and the archæologist with the rest have all sought it in vain. Representative voices out of every camp are heard confessing utter ignorance as to the region where human history began. 'The problem,' says Professor Ebers, 'remains unanswered.'"

Dr. Warren states, therefore, that it would seem as if nearly every imaginable site for the Eden of Genesis had been proposed, examined and found unavailable. One, however, remains—a region of rarest interest in astronomical, physcial and historical geography, the natural center of the only historic hemisphere. It seems remarkable, he says, "that it should be left to the closing years of the nineteenth century to bring forward and seriously to test the proposition, THAT THE CRADLE OF THE HUMAN RACE, THE EDEN OF PRIMITIVE TRADITION, WAS SITUATED AT THE NORTH POLE IN THE COUNTRY SUBMERGED AT THE TIME OF THE DELUGE." But this is the hypothesis which Dr. Warren, in this book of nearly five hundred pages, examines and maintains to be the only tenable hypothesis on the question. He subjects the hypothesis to an eightfold test:

"First: *General Geogony;* or the Science of the Origin of the Earth.

Second: *Mathematical or Astronomical Geography:* Particularly its teachings as to the inhabitableness or uninhabitableness of the circumpolar region with respect to light.

Third: *Physiographical Geology:* Particularly its teachings as to the probability or improbability of the former existence and subsequent submersion of the circumpolar country.

Fourth: *Prehistoric Climatology:* Particularly with reference to the temperature at the Pole at the time of the beginning of human history.

Fifth: *Paleontological Botany.*

Sixth: *Paleontological Zoology.*

Seventh: *Paleontology, Anthropology* and *Ethnology;* and Eighth: *Comparative Mythology,* viewed as the science of the oldest traditionary beliefs and memories of mankind."

Covering these fields of knowledge, as Dr Warren does, in great detail, we shall find that he claims to give us a much more complete and convincing verification of his hypothesis than is at all usual in matters of prehistoric research. This we shall consider in another chapter.

(*To be continued.*)

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CENTRAL AMERICA THE CRADLE OF MAN'S PRIMITIVE TRADITIONS.

DR. LE PLONGEON'S DISCOVERIES IN YUCATAN.

Edited From Review of Reviews, July, 1895.

Scattered throughout the forests of Yucatan are the ruins and remains of large cities and of stupendous edifices, which were formerly the temples of the gods and the palaces of kings, the walls of which are covered with inscriptions, bas reliefs, and sculptures, which surpass in harmony of design and excellence of execution, those of Egypt and of Babylon.

Dr. le Plongeon, after long, laborious study, found a key to the hieroglyphics in which innumerable mural inscriptions on these ruins are written. This language was spoken by the Mayas who anciently inhabited Yucatan, and which is now spoken in almost its pristine purity, by their descendants, the fierce and warlike tribes known as the Quiches, who dwell amidst the fastnesses of the mountains in Guatemala, and who have maintained their independence against all invaders.

This Maya language, Dr. le Plongeon claims, is one of the very oldest tongues known to us, quite as old as the Sanskrit, if not still more ancient. Its most remarkable feature is its practical identity with the ancient Egyptian language. Many of the words and characters have a precisely similar meaning in the two languages. "Stranger still the initial letters of the Maya names for the various objects which constitute the Egyptian alphabet are the very letters so represented."

It would seem, therefore, that both of these people derived their language from a common source, or that one of them learned the art from the other.

A few MSS. of the Mayas escaped the destruction which overtook the rest through the fanatical efforts of Bishop Landa, who accompanied the Spanish invaders.

The most important of these is the Troano MS, which is in the British Museum.

Dr. le Plongeon claims to have succeeded in translating it. From it we learn that in ancient times Yucatan was called "Mayax," which means "the first or primitive land." In the manuscript are illustrations of visitors to the two chief cities, who are depicted as bearded men like the ancient Assyrians

Dr. le Plongeon claims that the story of Cain and Abel is told on the sculptures and mural paintings. King *Can* who appears to have been the founder or restorer of the ancient cities of Yucatan, had three sons and two daughters Prince *Aac* was the second son, Prince *Coh* the youngest son.

By the Maya law the youngest son was to espouse the oldest daughter. Prince *Aac*, jealous of his brother and desiring his sister-wife, slew Prince *Coh*.

Dr. le Plongeon claims that in the Maya language *Abel*, *Abal*, *Bâl-i* and *Balam* are identical words. *A*, contraction of *ah*, is the Maya masculine article "*the*." *Bal* is the radical of *Bal-am*, and *Balam* is even at the present day one of the names given by the aborigines of Yucatan to the *Yumil Kaax*, the "Lord of the Fields," the leopard, which they call *Coh* The leopard was the totem (the symbolical figure) of Prince *Cali*, *Aac's* victim, and as such it figures in the various mural paintings and bas reliefs.

The names *Cain*, *Sel*, *Sougriva* and *Aac*, all convey in the Maya language the idea of something belonging to or with an affinity for water: Thus, *Cain*, by Apocope *Cay* means in Maya a fish.

Queen Moo, after the death of her husband, built a magnificent mausoleum which has been explored by Dr. le Plongeon. She placed upon its summit the figure of a leopard, having the face and head of a dying man, and with three holes in the back, expressive of the manner in which he had been killed.

In the Troano MS. Dr le Plongeon asserts that an account is given of her subsequent migration to Egypt where she caused another monument to be erected to the memory of her husband, the famous Sphinx.

When Solon visited the Egyptian priests 600 years before the Christian era, they informed him that there was recorded in their archives, an account of a terrible cataclysm during which a great island, "the land of Mu," situated in the Atlantic ocean, disappeared beneath the waves in one day and one night in consequence of violent earthquakes and volcanic eruptions.

They stated that this awful occurrence had taken place 9,000 years before his visit to Egypt, and that all communications between Egypt and "the lands of the West" had absolutely ceased from the time of that terrible catastrophe.

The same fearful event was embodied in certain records by the priests of Mayax, which have been preserved and have come down to us, according to Dr. le Plongeon.

He found a relation of the disappearance of this island carved in intaglio upon the lintel of a doorway leading into a house which to this day is known as *Akab oib*, "the house of the dark or terrible writing."

The Troano MS. and another Maya MS. known as the *Cortex Cortesianas*, which Dr. le Plongeon claims to have translated, give a long account of the same event His translation is as follows:

"In the year of 6 Kan, on the 11th Muluc, in the month of Zac, there occurred terrible earthquakes, which continued without interruption until the 13th of Cheun. The country of the hills of mud, the land of Mu, was sacrificed; being twice upheaved, it suddenly disappeared during the night, the basin being continually shaken by volcanic forces. Being confined, these caused the land to sink and to rise several times and in various places. At last the surface gave way, and ten countries were torn asunder and scattered. Unable to withstand the force of the convulsions, they sank with their 64,000,000 of inhabitants 8,060 years before the writing of the book."

Thus there seems to be established the fact which is commemorated in the traditions of nearly every ancient nation that there formerly existed a great island continent in the midst of the Atlantic Ocean which was submerged during a great upheaval and earthquake convulsion of the globe. This destruction of the land of Mu was so terrible that the Mayas altered all their computation of time, in order to signalize the fact.

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The author of the Troano MS. symbolizes the vanished land by the figure of a black man of the negro type, indicating that the inhabitants of this lost continent were of a black-skinned race. It is singular also to notice that the early Spanish adventurers found on their arrival in Central America a black-skinned population, closely akin to the African negroes inhabitating the Isthmus of Panama.

But one of the most remarkable discoveries alleged to have been made by Dr le Plongeon is the identification of the letters of the Greek alphabet with the primitive roots of the Maya and the still more remarkable discovery that the Greek alphabet itself is a narrative of the destruction of the land of Mu. For instance, Alpha is divided into Al ppa ha, which means "Heavy break (the) waters." Beta, Be-ta, which means "Extending (over the) plain." Gamma, Kam ma, which means "(They) cover (the) land"

We are exceedingly anxious to know what our leading Greek scholars have to say regarding these statements of Dr. le Plongeon. The learned doctor claims that Yucatan is the mother country of Egypt and of India. He also reminds us that the Egyptians themselves looked upon "the lands of the west" as being the mother land of their gods and ancestors, and the fountain head from which their knowledge was derived. He also endeavors to show that the origin of the Cross is to be found in Yucatan. He also adduces many arguments to show that sacred mysteries were celebrated in Mayax from remotest periods with rites and symbols identical with those employed in connection with the sacred mysteries of India and Egypt. Not only so, but that the true origin of the mysteries of the East is to be found in this wonderful country. It seems that Dr. le Plougeon has gathered together an immense collection of notes and materials, including illustrations and diagrams, which await publication.

His discoveries seem almost too incredible for ordinary belief, but we must not be surprised at any announcement of new discoveries. The belief of the world may be revolutionized regarding the history of the past, as it has been in many fields of scientific research.

It is but just to say that Dr. le Plongeon was assisted in his most laborious and difficult task during the twelve years of his explorations in Yucatan by a brave, noble-hearted and accomplished wife. These two almost alone made the measurements of the monuments and palaces and took the almost numberless photographs which illustrate their discoveries.



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HOW TO CONDUCT LOCAL MEETINGS.

Many people are helpless in the use of books. To hunt up different questions from a dozen unfamiliar sources seems to them too intricate for any but specialists. They must know of the authors who will best repay their perusal and must be told of the faults and prejudices as well as the excellencies of each writer. They must see the relations of the data given whether considered in the contemporary or continuous way. They must be told how to use indexes and how to master the art of getting what they need out of books which they have not time to read thoroughly. People generally do not rightly use what books they have, and one of the greatest results to be attained in the work of the University Association, is that young people be shown how to work and study at home.

The success of **the local association** must depend largely upon the leader. He should possess every qualification necessary for a successful teacher, and should not only be acquainted with the subject matter of the syllabus used, but have some previous knowledge of parallel readings and necessary references. He should be constantly receiving assistance from every source, and be always ready and willing to suggest methods of work.

The leader should always remember that young people need constant guidance in home reading both in selecting authorities and in methods of study. A list of books and papers suitable for them should be kept, and five or ten minutes occasionally devoted to their discussion. The programme should be made out for at least three meetings in advance.

Assign short readings and require thorough work by having each member report something from outside sources of information. The local association is not a class and the exercises should be quite informal. Oftentimes an informal conversation upon the pages read will be best. Sometimes a paper may be read upon some personage or epoch or recent historical event. If members have access to libraries have them bring in facts beyond what the syllabus contains. Encourage all to ask questions and if they cannot be answered at once refer them to some one to look up for a future meeting.

Again, appoint some one to prepare **a synopsis of the entire lesson** and to answer questions propounded by others. Do not make the meeting a *recitation*, lest you destroy the zest of the reading. Remember that the whole object is to develop and elevate the taste for history and form the habit for reading so that the good done shall extend beyond the course given. Go over the readings in the natural order and review by means of tables, summaries, topics and abstracts, prepared by the members, and thus compel the use of dictionaries, cyclopedias, charts, maps, etc. Give variety to the exercises, and thorough investigation and extensive study to special subjects.

In reviewing, first correlate the data, each fact being considered as a link in a great chain. Then, taking a few of the most important facts, carefully compare them with similar data taken from the history of other peoples. For example, Abraham and his descendants were shepherds because of the luxuriance of meadows in the land wherein they dwelt; the Egyptians tilled the soil that they might sustain life. Shepherds are nomads, always looking for better pasture and water. Agriculturists move but little, hence the building of permanent abodes and the consequent skill in architecture which Egypt developed, while the Israelites accomplished naught in this way until they, in turn, formed cities and began the cultivation of the soil. Having by close research and careful contrasting, compared facts in this way we are then able to generalize and to see that the things which go to make up the history of a people are largely determined by natural conditions. We thus learn that history is a growth and a development.

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The exercises may be varied in the following manner:

(a) By selecting the most important work to be discussed at the meeting, leaving the rest to be read at home.

(b) By assigning each member a different line of work.

(c) By a pre-arranged talk or paper from some one while others make citations or give illustrations of prominent characters or subjects.

(d) By blackboard sketches, outlines, diagrams and rigid questioning by some one especially appointed. Have all the work stated in some concise and systematic way to be discussed and criticised by the members. Request each member to secure a scrap-book that all notes and references may be kept. Have a definite program something like the one given below:

PROGRAM.

(1.) **The members** should meet promptly around a table on which should be placed reference books, maps, and, if possible, an unabridged dictionary.

(2.) Roll call by the leader. Each member states what home reading he has done during the week. The reports may be brought in as follows:

(a) Essays.
(b) Abstracts.
(c) Select readings.
(d) Concise talks.
(e) Short discussions.

(3.) The leader and the members (a) propound questions with reference to the meaning and pronunciation of difficult words; (b) review any notes taken or information gleaned from other sources; (c) consider maps, charts, illustrations, or other helps; (d) open the query box.

(4.) Music and sociable. This should be short, pleasant and profitable.

(5.) Miscellaneous exercises.

(6.) The leader assigns work to each member, giving authors' volumes and pages where parallel subjects are best treated.

General Suggestions.—It is well to have a distinct outline of the lesson you would study or teach. Follow the simple headings under which our notes are arranged or the outlines suggested under, *How to Conduct Local Meetings*, or much better, make one for yourself. You will find crude outlines, backed by enthusiastic work, more interesting and successful than the most scholarly suggestions and notes followed with that implicit obedience so often observed. An outline map, however crude, if prepared on a large scale and with reference to the subject in hand and by the leader, or some earnest student, will prove far more effective than the most costly wall maps.

Hints for Study.—First, make a brief reading covering the particular subject studied, and then make a thorough study of some special topic. For example, suppose we are to take up Egyptian history. First fix in the mind certain cardinal points which suggest themselves in reading over the notes you find in the syllabus. Then taking some subject from *Suggestions for Study*, investigate it in all its bearings. Before accepting the statements of an author determine his methods, prejudices and opportunities for investigation. Compare conflicting statements. Remember that most of our briefer histories are compilations, more or less skillfully and judiciously made, and that often in order to get at the facts, we must search original sources.

Bibliography.—The unique plan on which the daily lessons are prepared with extensive quotations from standard authorities makes the purchase of text books unnecessary, but for those who wish to go further and do extensive reading, Clare's History of the World, 5 vols. or Ridpath's History of the world, 4 vols., both excellent reference works, are recommended. A reasonable amount of general reading may be obtained from the Standard Cyclopedias, more particularly the Britannica. "Thalheimer's Manual of Ancient History" is generally accurate and may be safely used as a work of reference. The maps are admirable. G. P. Fisher in "Outlines of Universal History" combines many excellencies not found in any other single volume. According to President Adams, Rawlinson's "Manual of Ancient History" has no equal in our language as a guide to the student in the thorough study of ancient history. As a representation of the manners and customs of the Egyptians, Wilkinson's "Manners and Customs of Ancient Egyptians" has no superior. For a further study of the different works on history one could not do better than to consult President C. K. Adams' "Manual of Historical Literature." Every local library, if not already in possession of this work, should procure it and see that readers always consult it before reading any other author. The character of the work, and the ability and experience of its author make it an invaluable guide to the librarian and leaders of local associations.

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..A FEW EARLY COMMENDATIONS..

The University Association has my best wishes and hearty endorsement. Its great and comprehensive plans deserve the cordial approval of those interested in the education of our people.

REV. JOHN HENRY BARROWS, CHAIRMAN,
Parliament of Religions, World's Congresses.

I have examined your plan and it seems to me that it ought to meet the approval of anyone who is interested in seeing our people generally engaged in some sort of systematic study. I hope you will succeed in enlisting a large number of people in the work of your Association.

JOHN W. COOK, PRESIDENT,
State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

I have read this statement to President Cook and find he has expressed my own opinions about the work proposed, and the feasibility of the plan of doing it.

EDWIN C. HEWETT, EX-PRESIDENT,
State Normal University.

I have given the University Association a careful investigation, and feel justified in giving the plan my unqualified approval. I know of no movement of our day that seems so well fitted to bring the best thought of the age into the American homes as this. The men who are the originators and managers of this work are a sufficient guarantee as to its real worth. J. F. KNIGHT,
Superintendent of Schools, La Porte, Ind.

A cursory study of the aim and work of the University Association impresses me with the importance of an organization that carries with it so much that is educational. It is systematic, brief, yet comprehensive.

W. T. BUSHMAN,
Superintendent of Schools, Van Wert, Ohio.

We, the Ministerial Association of Harrisburg, Pa., in convention assembled, Resolved: that after carefully examining the courses of systematic study, as laid down by the University Association, of Chicago, Illinois, do most heartily endorse the course of said Association, and thoroughly commend it to others. That for systematic arrangement of subject matter; for thoroughness of treatment, omitting unimportant details, placing this historical course of instruction at our very doors—so to speak—the University Association has no superior, and very few, if any, equals.

Signed: { REV. J. T. MORELAND, PRESIDENT.
H. C. C. ATWOOD, VICE-PRESIDENT.
REV. R. D. EPPS, SECRETARY.

To those desiring to pursue a course of reading in the history of the world, the University Association seems to present an excellent opportunity. The men engaged in the preparation of the work are well fitted for their task, and the plan appears to be delightfully and satisfactorily arranged.

FRANK B. COOPER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
Editor Iowa School Journal, Des Moines, Iowa.

I have examined the University Association course in history and find it an excellent one for more complete preparation in this especial line of work. I take pleasure in commending it to teachers and others desirous of advancement. W. A. McCORD,
Superintendent of Schools, Polk County, Des Moines, Iowa.

I have examined the plan of study suggested by the University Association and feel confident that it offers an excellent opportunity for systematic work, under guidance, to many who are denied the privilege of attending a higher institution of learning. The names of the director and instructors also invite confidence in this plan.

JOHN H. FINLEY, D. D., PRESIDENT,
Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.

We therefore, as an association, heartily endorse the method pursued by the University Association, and we furthermore take pleasure in recommending the course to all who may be desirous of acquiring a more thorough knowledge of history.

The Mechanicsburg, Pa., Ministerial Association,
J. M. RUNKLE, SECRETARY.

Chicago Inter Ocean;

Bishop Fallows and his associates are doing a grand work in this direction. The pursuance of useful knowledge is being promoted and the outlook is most encouraging, for this latest organized expression of that lofty sentiment. "Not things, but men."

Chicago Evening Post:

With good men at its head and an excellent corps of instructors, there seems to be no reason why the Association should not grow rapidly and soon demonstrate its advantages.

Cincinnati Times-Star:

The whole scheme is the natural outgrowth of the University Extension and Chautauqua idea, and can scarcely fail to enlist the most cordial co-operation among students everywhere.

Michigan School Moderator:

The Association deserves the co-operation of all interested in the cause of higher education. The names of the officers and instructors are sufficient guarantee that the movement is worthy of encouragement.

The Visitor.—Alexis, Ill.

The organization promises to be one of the best of its kind for literary and educational advancement ever organized in Alexis.

The Evening News.—Attica, Ind.

There will probably be 100 new names enrolled as charter members. This speaks well for Attica. Let the good work go on. Such an organization will result in the general good of the community, and in the higher standard of individual excellence.

..REPORTS FROM CENTERS..

Permit me to say that I feel greatly indebted to you for having introduced the University Association in our town, and made me acquainted with its work, privileges and benefits. Our class here numbers about forty and we have a regular attendance from twenty-five to thirty. They are all working and I believe feel as I do, that the Association is a most excellent thing and destined to grow and flourish, and not be a mere passing, vanishing pastime.

GERALD R. McDOWELL,
Superintendent of Schools, Kenosa, Wis.

"We had a large and pleasant meeting of the Association Monday evening. The local circles are all flourishing." MISS LULU DELAMERE, SECRETARY.
South Haven, Mich.

"We have a very interesting class. Meet regularly every week and are doing good work. We always have a good attendance, and as we have a Woman's Club and Chautauqua Circle in our small place, we think the University Association has taken wonderfully well."

MRS. A. G. REAUGH, SECRETARY, Savanna, Ill.

"The attendance is good and enthusiasm large at our meetings." DR. G. W. MILLS, SECRETARY,
Whitewater, Wis.

"We have certainly had a most delightful month and realized much genuine pleasure, as well as having derived much benefit from the work."

MRS. T. V. HARRISON, SECRETARY, Hebron, Ind.

"We have now forty members with a prospect of more later. We are especially pleased with the new lessons."

MISS WINNIFRED MILLER, SECRETARY, Lanark, Ill.

"We had our first regular meeting last evening, with an attendance of twenty-four. Every one is enthusiastic over the work. I will send you copy of program, which was printed in both local papers."

MRS. MAY E. DEANE, SECRETARY, Hartford, Mich.

"Our weekly meetings are very interesting. Personally, I am gratified with the pointed, concise and yet suggestive character of the lessons."

PROF. W. D. THOMAS, Milton, Wis.

"We have added three new members and two more will be voted on at our next meeting. We expect to meet in our own clubroom in a couple of weeks."

MISS GRACE WHARTON, SECRETARY, Winamac, Ind.

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The University Association

And World's Congress Extension

Its Plans, Purpose and Cost to Members

Origin. This Educational movement is the outgrowth of the famous World's Congresses, held in Chicago during the World's Columbian Exposition. These Congresses were attended by the leaders of thought from ninety-seven Countries. Thousands of lectures, essays, etc., were prepared by representative educators of the Nineteenth Century, bearing upon every department of human thought and progress.

It is the purpose of this Association to give the public an opportunity to participate in a series of intellectual entertainments founded upon the results of the World's Congresses. These valuable papers will be edited and presented to the members of the University Association, with their lessons.

Object. The object of the University Association is: To interest the people in the pursuit of useful knowledge. To bring to their homes and firesides the result of the profound study and investigation of the trained specialists in the different branches taught by them in the prominent colleges and universities of the country.

To carry on the work of self-culture by individual effort, or in local centers or organizations, along the lines of Normal School, University and World's Congress Extension.

To thus bring our Public Schools and the higher institutions of learning into close relationship with all classes of society, and in turn stimulate the attendance of students upon them.

To aid the teachers of our Public, Private and Parochial Schools in thorough and systematic preparation for their important duties.

Instruction. These objects will be carried out by lessons carefully prepared, as above indicated, by eminent College and University professors, enriched by notes, side-lights, incidents, biographies, recent discoveries, etc. These lessons will be issued monthly in large quarto form, each number containing the lessons for one month, with weekly review, aids, suggestions, etc., for class use, (same size and style as this issue), beautifully printed and illustrated, and will be mailed regularly to all members of the Association. Copious questions will accompany each lesson.

Where Association Centers are formed, a resident instructor will be selected by the Center, who will meet the members at stated times, and discuss and review the subjects studied. Quarterly examinations will be held by the local instructor.

At the close of each course of Study an examination will be held on questions furnished by the instructors. These questions will be sent from the Central office of the University Association to Local Deputy Examiners, who will conduct such examinations after the manner of the London University Examiners, or after that followed by Examiners for State Teachers' Certificates. Papers will then be sent to the home office where they will be passed upon by an Educational Committee.

Honors. Each Subscriber to the lessons of the Association will be presented with a handsome Certificate of Membership, duly signed by the officers of The University Association.

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The knowledge and discipline gained will result in a most desirable culture, and will be of invaluable service to all, and especially to the student, wishing afterwards to enter any School, College or University.

History. As the knowledge of History is fundamental and thus of the highest importance, it will be the first topic presented for study. The different periods of Universal History will be so fully set forth that an intelligent view may be gained of the whole subject without the purchase of reference books. This plan will be followed in the succeeding courses of Study. It will, however, clearly be to the advantage of all to consult reference books, if able to do so.

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PROGRESS

ISSUED MONTHLY BY
THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION
IN THE INTERESTS OF
UNIVERSITY AND WORLDS CONGRESS
EXTENSION



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J. W. Nicholson, A. M., LL. D.
President State University,
Baton Rouge, La.

Miss Marie A. Molineux, Ph. D.
West Roxbury, Mass.

W. Pope Yeamans,
Pres. Grand River College,
Gallatin, Mo.

Robt. B. Fulton, LL. D.
Chancellor University of Miss.

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THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION

COURSE IN UNIVERSAL HISTORY

THE GREEK PERIOD

COVERING THE HISTORY OF THE GREEK NATION, WITH EXTENSIVE QUOTATIONS FROM EMINENT AUTHORITIES

PREPARED BY

JOHN R. FICKLEN, A.M., B.Let., Prof. of History and Economics, Tulane University of Louisiana

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

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1. GEOGRAPHY OF GREECE.



IT is important to study the topography, position and climate of Greece before beginning its history; for all these had great influence upon the people.

1. **Topography.**—The surface has great diversity. There are high mountains, beautiful valleys, and well-watered plains. The country, which is about the size of Scotland, may be divided into Northern, Central and Southern Greece.

In the Northern division the most famous district is Thessaly, containing the highest mountain in Greece, Olympus (9,700), with the smaller peaks, Ossa and Pelion, and the Vale of Tempe. Olympus, on account of its height, was fabled to be the home of the gods, while Ossa and Pelion, so runs the story, were piled one upon the other by the giants in their vain attempt to overthrow the immortals.

Central Greece had eleven districts, of which the most famous were Phocis, Bœotia and Attica. In Phocis was the renowned oracle of Delphi; in Bœotia the city of Thebes, and in Attica the city of Athens. In the Peloponnesus was Corinth, one of the richest maritime cities of the ancient world.

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In Southern Greece, called Peloponnesus, the chief districts were Arcadia and Laconia. The former, cut off by mountains, was the home of a simple pastoral people. In Laconia was Sparta. Athens, Thebes, Sparta, Corinth and Argos were the great cities of historic Greece.

1. GEOGRAPHY.

1. **Topography.**—*Size and Shape.*—No country is more remarkable for the irregularity of its shape, its shores and its surface. Its northern portion, Hellas, stretches west northwest to east southeast for about 200 miles, gradually decreasing in breadth from Acarnania to Cape Colonna in Attica. Its southern portion, the Morea, is a peninsula, said to derive its modern name from its supposed resemblance to a mulberry leaf. It is united northeast to Hellas by the Isthmus of Corinth. The greatest length of the Morea, north to south, is about 140 miles; its breadth varies from 60 to 135 miles.

The surface of Greece is throughout mountainous, and scarcely any room is left for plains. Such of the latter as exist are principally along the seashore, or near the mouths of the rivers, or else are mere basins, once forming the beds of the mountain lakes, enclosed on all sides by mountains, or communicating with each other only by deep and narrow gorges. . . . The most extensive tracts of plain country are in west Hellas and on the northwest and north shores of the Morea. These are also the most productive parts of the country; but other very fertile, though small, plains are scattered through the east of Greece, as those of Bœotia, East Phocis, Marathon, and many others, which are still, as anciently, the granaries of the country. The most flourishing cities of antiquity . . . were situated in the midst or on the borders of these plains. *The mountains* belong to the Alpine system, being a continuation of the Julian Alps, so remarkable in their whole extent for their numerous grottos and caverns. . . . On entering Greece the Pindus chain is supposed to be nearly 7,700 feet in height. *Other peaks are higher*, including the celebrated Mt. Parnassus, a part of the central mountain chain. . . . A mountain chain runs through Euboea on its whole length nearly parallel to that of Pindus; its highest point, Mount Delphi, near its center, reaches the elevation of 5,725 feet.—*Zell.*

The rivers.—The whole of this country, which may be described generally as consisting of gray limestone, exhibits almost everywhere the same features. Less than half the land is even capable of cultivation; and of this land, of which a mere fracton is at present in use, a large portion probably even at the best of times lay idle. Of the mountains not a few are altogether barren, while others, if not well wooded, supply pasture for flocks when the lowlands are burnt up in the summer. If, again, these mountain masses, leaving room for few plains and even for few valleys of much length, raise barriers practically fatal to intercourse between tribes who in a plain country would feel themselves near neighbors, this difficulty is not removed or lessened by the presence of any considerable rivers. The Greek streams are for the most part raging torrents in winter and dry beds in summer; and the names Charadrai and Cheimarroi, commonly applied to them, attest the fury with which they cleave their way through the limestone rocks, when they carry off the mountain drainage in the rainy season.—*Cox.*

Relative Importance.—It is impossible to understand Greek history or Greek story without a clear knowledge of Greek geography; above all, the way in which sea, mountains and land, locked in each other, influenced the national temper, and developed fundamental differences of character. A multitude of brilliant granules without cohesion; a string of miniature states with no more internal connection than a string of beads that slide up and down a necklace, constituted the "Greece" of the ancients—a name originally belonging to a single tribe on the northwestern coast, and applied by the Romans indiscriminately to the inhabitants of the whole peninsula. For, though all these people whom we call "Greek," spoke generally the same language, with unimportant differences, possessed the same gods, and had the same sharp and mobile physiognomies; though they worshiped and fought and wrestled and built together, and were each and all characterized by the same gifts of head and heart; though they loved and hated and wedded, in common words, and had an ancestral pride that pointed back to a common origin, yet, in spite of all these bonds, in spite of common speech, common customs, common playgrounds common ancestry, they never did and never could form a lasting confederation like our *United States;* they never did and never could evolve a code or a system of legislation common to them all; and they never did and never could, even in the presence of the most imminent perils, constitute one state. Each must be by itself; each was a law and a world unto itself; each developed only the pronoun of the first person—I—till it rose into a gigantic and overshadowing selfishness, like the image in the vision of Daniel, and ended in the ruin and the desolation of Greece.

And much, if not all of this difference arose from the peculiar geography of Greece.—*Harrison.*

Chief Districts of Peloponnesus.—According to other authorities, the chief districts in importance were: (1.) *Laconia*, as the seat of Sparta. (2.) *Corinth*, greatest trading city, next in naval power to Athens, mistress of the Isthmus, manager of Isthmian (and Nemean?) games, cause of the Peloponnesian war, and of the Corinthian war of 394-387 B. C. (3.) *Argos*, leader of Greece till the rise of Sparta. (4.) *Elis*, because of the Olympic games. (5.) *Arcadia*, but in which were Muntineia and Tegea, and after 370 B.C. Megalopolis.—*Dr. Samuel Willard.*

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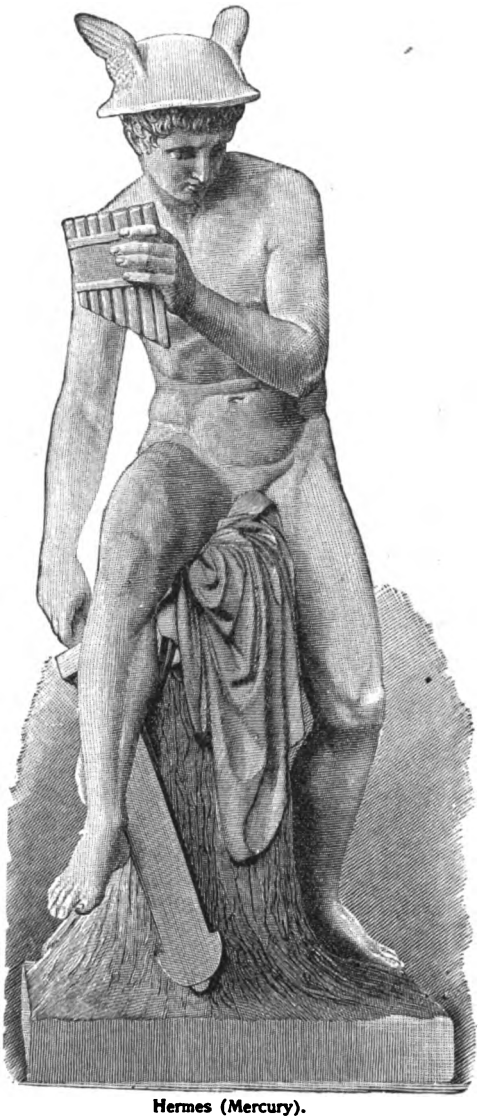
2.

2. **Position.**—The position of Greece in the Mediterranean between Italy and Asia was favorable to commerce. There were many excellent harbors and no part of the country was more than forty miles from the sea. Through commerce Greece came in touch with the Phœnicians and acquired not only wealth, but also the germs of her civilization. The Phœnicians had weights and measures, an alphabet, and knew how to dye cloth and work in metals. The Greeks had cereals, wool and timber, which they readily exchanged.

3. **Climate.**—The climate was seldom too hot or too cold. It was peculiarly suitable for the athletic games that formed an important part of Greek life. Never was there a country better adapted to the growth of a great civilization.

4. **Islands and Colonial Settlements.**—The Greeks at an early period spread over the Ægean Islands, the coast of Asia Minor, Southern Italy and Sicily. Hence these districts must be included in the history of Greece. "Wherever there were Hellenes, there was Hellas."



Hermes (Mercury).

2.

2. **Position.**—Greece, at present, is a kingdom lying in the southern part of Europe, and comprises an area of about 25,000 square miles. Its capital is Athens and its population 2,000,000. It is mainly an agricultural country. Its manufactures are few and unimportant.—*Editor.*

3. **Climate.**—Owing to the inequalities of its surface, to its lofty mountains and depressed valleys, the climate varies greatly in different districts. In the highlands in the interior the winter is often long and rigorous, the snow lying upon the ground till late in the spring, while in the lowlands, open to the sea, severe weather is almost unknown. The rigor of winter is frequently experienced in the highlands of Mantinea and Tegea in the month of March, while at the same time the genial warmth of spring is felt in the plains of Argos and Laconia, and almost the heat of summer in the low grounds at the head of the Messenian Gulf. To this difference in climate the ancients attributed the difference in the intellectual character of the natives of various districts.—*W. Smith.*

4. **Islands and Colonial Settlements.**—The Greek race had, at a very remote period, spread itself to the adjacent islands, and thence to the continent of Asia. . . . Between Greece and Asia Minor lies the Ægean Sea, the islands of which were, from time immemorial, so thoroughly Hellenic, that the Greeks were wont to call it "Our Sea." Of these islands, the largest, and at the same time the nearest to the Grecian coast, is Euboea. . . . There was a group of islands clustered around the sacred isle of Delos, . . . which, although the smallest, was far the most important, by reason of the great festival of Apollo held here, in which all the Ionian cities took part. . . . The most noted of the islands lying towards Asia Minor were Lesbos, Chios, Samos and Rhodes, all occupied by Greeks from the remotest known times. The same is true of the adjacent continental coast, which, at the dawn of the historic period, was studded with colonies of the three great branches of the Hellenic race. Farthest north lay the Æolic colonies, originally twelve in number. . . . The Ionian colonies, which lay to the south of the Æolic, likewise consisted of twelve cities. . . . To the south of the Ionian lay the Doric colonies, originally forming a confederacy of six cities united by the common worship of the Triopian Apollo. . . . All of these colonies, especially the Ionian, applied themselves, not only to commerce, but also to literature and the arts in which, by reason of their closer contact with Asiatic civilization, they attained at an early period even greater celebrity than the cities of Greece itself.—*Timayenis.*

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3.

5. **The People.**—The Greeks (they call themselves Hellenes from the fabled ancestor of the race), if we may take their language as a test, belonged to the Aryan family. The earliest inhabitants of the country were the Pelasgians, of whom little is known.

6. **Tribes.**—The four tribes of Hellenes were the Achæan, the Æolian, the Dorian and the Ionian. To the Dorian belonged the Spartans and to the Ionian



HEROES OF THE TROJAN WAR.

the Athenians, the two most important of the tribes in historic times. The people not of Hellenic origin were called "barbarians," which at first meant simply "unintelligible folk," but afterwards "the uncivilized."

The Greeks, especially the Ionians, were quick to assimilate whatever was best in the art, the literature, or the government of other people. However, though they borrowed the germs of their civilization, they were intensely original in the development of those germs. They possessed the originality of genius.

Unfortunately the Greeks were too often divided against themselves. Each city had its own government, its own army or fleet. In union there would have been strength. When finally they began to combine in the ACHÆAN LEAGUE (280 B.C.), it was too late.

3.

5. **The People.**—Not till the first Olympiad (B.C. 776) did the Greeks employ writing as a means for perpetuating the memory of any historical facts. Before that period everything is vague and uncertain. . . . Few nations have paid more attention to their genealogy than the Greeks. . . . Every petty tribe or clan claimed descent from a common ancestor, whose name was borne by each member of the community. This ancestor was usually represented as the son or immediate descendant of a god, or else as sprung from the earth, which was in some cases regarded as a divine being. Thus the Greek people considered themselves the children of one common father, in whose name they gloried as the symbol of fraternity. This ancestor was Hellen . . . from whom the people derived the name of Hellenes.—*W. Smith.*

The Pelasgians.—The Greek language is a member of that great family of languages to which modern scholars have given the name of Indo-European (*Aryan*). . . . At some period, long antecedent to all profane history, they issued from their primeval seats, and spread over a considerable portion both of Asia and Europe. . . . In Europe the Germans, Pelasgians, Slavonians and Celts were the four chief varieties. . . . The Pelasgians are represented by the Greeks themselves as the most ancient inhabitants of their land. The primitive name of Greece is said to have been Pelasgia. . . . The Pelasgians were spread over the Italian as well as the Grecian

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peninsula; the Pelasgic language thus formed the basis of the Latin as well as of the Greek.—*W. Smith.*

It appears that the Pelasgians were the ancient occupants of nearly all Greece; that they were probably of the same stock as their Hellenic successors, but of another branch; that their language was somewhat different, and contained words of barbaric (that is, Phœnician or Egyptian) origin, but not so different as to remain distinct after the conquest. From the Pelasgian names which remain, it is highly probable that this people was of the same family with the old Italians.—*Clarke.*

6. **Tribes.**—Ancient Greece consisted of Epirus, and Thessaly, Hellas or Greece proper, and Peloponnesus. Macedon and Thrace were *Greekish.*—*Dr. Samuel Willard.*

EPIRUS.—This province is located on the Ionian Sea, west of the Mt. Pindus range. Here lived the Molossians, whose chief city, Dodona, was famous for the temple and oracle of Jupiter. Epirus possessed other noted cities and its population must have been numerous in ancient times.—*Bayard Taylor.*

PELOPONNESUS.—This peninsula was often called Morea and was joined to the rest of Greece by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth—only six miles across. Its subdivisions were:

Achaia, *Sicyonia* and *Corinthia*, *Argolis*, in which was the city of Argos, famous for the temple of Juno. *Laconia*, wherein was the renowned Sparta. *Messenia*, *Elis.*—Chief city Olympia, near which the Olympic games were celebrated. *Arcadia.*

To aid the memory, let one remember to begin at the north and go round as go the hands of a watch, ending at the center. Then take the initials of the districts in this order, and we have a mnemonic word, A-s-c-a-l-m-e-a. (I have found this very helpful to my pupils for 25 years. This omits the smaller lands, generally included, besides these 8) —*Dr. Samuel Willard.*

GREECE PROPER.—The principal subdivisions were, *Ætolia*, north of the Gulf of Corinth; *Doris*, *Locris*, *Phocis*, in which was located the famous Delphian oracle, at Delphos; *Bœotia*, wherein were located Thebes and other noted cities; and *Attica*, in which was located the famous city of Athens.

THESSALY.—The most noted places in this province are Pharsalia, near which Julius Cæsar defeated Pompey, and Thermopylæ, famous for the defeat of Xerxes' army by Leonidas.

MACEDONIA.—Famous as the birthplace and home of Alexander the Great.—*Editor.*

In pure force of intelligence no people has ever approached the Greeks . . . The beginning of all the sciences and a very great amount of progress in some of them, must be traced to Greece. Mathematics, astronomy, physics, medicine, logic, rhetoric, politics, all originated there and passed through their early stages with astonishing rapidity. . . . The Greek intellect showed itself not in its science alone, but in the highly intellectual structure and style of its speech, where meaning and clearness were remarkably predominant over mere sound and emotion. . . . In the actual business of life, too, in the conduct of public and private affairs, in political and legal administration, the Athenian intellect took a lead in the world. . . . No force of circumstances, no favorable accidents, nothing less than the original endowment of nature, can account for this intellectual primacy of the species.—*Bayard Taylor.*



Silver Kylix from Præneste with Phœnician Inscription.
Exhumed at Cyprus by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter.

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4.

Religion. — The Greeks worshiped many gods. The chief deities were Zeus (Latin, Jupiter), Here (Juno) his wife, Athênê (Minerva) who sprang from his brains, and Apollo, the sun-god. The gods were generally "magnified human beings," gifted with greater power and wisdom and endowed with immortality. They had the faults and virtues of the Greeks themselves. As the Greeks advanced in civilization, their religion became purer and higher. Zeus personified power; Minerva wisdom; and Apollo, inspiration.



4.

Religion.—*As a people* the Greeks were intensely religious. They lived under a strong habitual sense of the supernatural powers, and worshiped them with various and costly ceremonials; large portions of time were consecrated to holy rites and duties; a religious turn was given to all the events and incidents of life; and there was the greatest jealousy and alarm at any neglect, profanation, or disbelief manifested towards the established divinities.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Greek religion did not guide or restrain; it only stimulated. The Greek, by intercourse with Greek gods, became more a Greek than ever. Every Hellenic feeling and tendency was personified and took a divine form; which divine form reacted on the tendency to develop it still further. All this contributed unquestionably to that wonderful phenomenon—Greek development. Nowhere on the earth, before or since, has the human being been educated into such a wonderful perfection, such an entire and total unfolding of itself, as in Greece —*Clarke.*

THE GREATER GODS were twelve: *Jupiter* (Zeus) was the king of the gods; the protector of society; the sanctioner of oaths, and the punisher of perjurers. He enforced the ties of hospitality; granted expiations to repentant criminals, and guarded the crops of the year. *Apollo* was the son of Jupiter. In ancient times he was the god of the Trojans—unfriendly to the Greeks—and had only two attributes, his bow and his prophetic powers. In later times he became the god of the harp, medicine, the sun—the stimulus to Greek colonization. He presided over numerous oracles, the most renowned being the temples at Delphi and Delos. *Neptune* (Poseidon) was the sailor's god, being the ruler over the sea. He was especially worshiped at Corinth and on the island of Kalauria. *Vulcan* (Hephaestos) was the god of fire, metallurgy, and the mechanical arts. He was conceived of as lame and deformed. *Mercury* (Hermês) was the messenger of the gods and the inventor of the lyre; a cunning, skillful, unscrupulous character, constantly outwitting everybody else by ingenuity and deep-laid schemes. *Mars* (Arês) was the war god and was worshiped more by the Romans than by the Greeks. He was the son of Jupiter and the Areopagus at Athens was his most conspicuous seat. *Minerva* (Athênê) is the type of composed, majestic and unrelenting force, clothed in military array, and combines this powerful ascendancy with a temperament impassive to sensual love. She was especially identified with the Parthenon at Athens. *Venus* (Aphroditê) was the Goddess of Love. She was one of the most important of all the goddesses of the mythical world. *Diana* (Artemis) the Huntress seemed to have been especially worshiped in Arcadia Mountain solitudes were her favorite resort. *Vesta* (Hestia), the Goddess of the Family Hearth, was "chaste, still and home-keeping," and represented the ideal of the angel and protectress of the fireside. *Ceres* (Dêmêtêr) the Great Mother; the goddess of the cornfield was the offspring of men's feelings toward the author of their daily bread. She was worshiped by the primitive rural popula-

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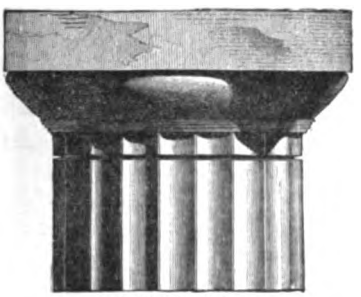
tion on the two occasions of seed-time and harvest. *Bacchus* (Dionysus) was the god of the Vineyard, and was worshiped with the festivals at the vintage and at the opening of the new wine—the last occasion being a period of unusual joviality.

THE LESSER GODS included Helios (the sun); Sêlêne (the moon); Eos (the morning); Hades (the nether world), and others.—*Edited from Chambers' Papers.*

CEREMONIALS.—The killing of a beast in the presence of the congregation of pious worshipers, with all the accompaniments witnessed in a slaughter-house, formed one of the incidents of divine service. The smell of roasting flesh, done to a cinder before the assembled multitude, filled the temple during three-fourths of the service,



Doric Capital.

while an anthem was sung, accompanied both with instrumental music and a ballet performance by trained dancers. The retiring congregation found its way towards some public ground where gymnastic contests were to commence and where they were to view the boxing, wrestling, racing and other contests. The day was often concluded with dinner parties and deep drinking.—*Edited from Taylor.*

THE TEMPLE.—*The architects of the temple* gave, in their pure and harmonious forms, the conception of religious beauty and majesty. Standing in some open elevated position, their snowy surface bathed in sunshine, they stood in serene strength, the types of a bright and joyful religion. A superstitious worship seeks caves and darkness; the noble majesty of the Greek temples said plainly that they belonged to a religion of light and peace. The sculptor worked originally in company with the architect. The statues were meant to adorn the temples, the temples were made as frames and pedestals for the statues. The marble forms stood and walked on the pediments and gave life to the frieze. They animated the exterior, or sat, calm and strong, in the central shrine.—*Clarke.*

The erection of statues to gods and heroes was common. In each temple a statue of the god was set up at the far end in a standing or sitting posture. The most costly statues were made of ivory and gold. The great statue of Jupiter Olympus was sixty feet high and one of the most imposing objects of art ever presented to the human gaze. *Altars* were of endless variety, and while some were intended for sacrifice, others were merely for the deposit of cakes, fruits and presents of inanimate things. The name of the deity was



Ionic Capital.

inscribed on the altar. *Officials.*—There were no priests; the king offered sacrifices for the people, the chief of a tribe for his clansmen, and the head of the household for the members of the family. The office of priest, even when separated from civil dignities, was very honorable; the qualifications were a sound body, a good character, and an unblemished life. The other assistants were the *kerykes*, criers, who called silence at the beginning and pronounced the dismissal at the close; the *sacrificers*, and the temple *menials*, besides the singers, dancers and instrumental performers. *The offerings* consisted of fruits and other articles of diet. *The sacrifices* chosen were the pig, goat, bull, ox, cow, sheep, lamb, cock, etc., and the offerings did not imply expiation of guilt, though all the motives are not clear. *Libations* accompanied the sacrifices and consisted of water, milk, honey, wine or oil, or mixtures of these.—*Edited.*



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5.

1. **Heroes.**—From the gods were descended the heroes; and from the heroes, the Greeks, like all primitive people, often traced their own descent. It is a great aid to know something of the myths or legends of Greece; for while they may contain only a few grains of truth, they tell us what the Greeks thought about their ancestors and their deeds; and, as the Greeks believed the legends to be true, they were much influenced by them in forming their own characters.



Relief from Greek Altar (Venus, Mars, Apollo, Juno, Jupiter and Hermês.)

The legendary period extends from 1550 (?) to 776 B. C.

2. **Homer's Iliad and Odyssey.**—The great sources of our knowledge concerning the gods and many of the heroes are the two poems of Homer (about 800 B. C.).

Some modern critics think that these poems should be attributed to a number of different authors, but the weight of authority is in favor of a single author. The story of the Trojan War and of the wanderings of Ulysses, as related by Homer, are epics in hexameter verse. It is one of the great classics of the world.

3. **Society in the Heroic Age.**— The society represented in Homer is rude and primitive, but adorned by many of the virtues that we value in modern times. It is instructive to compare this early society with that of the more refined Periclean Age.

5.

1. **Heroes.**—*Cadmus* was a Phœnician who introduced into Greece the Phœnician writing, mining, etc. *Cecrops*, according to tradition, was the founder of Athens. *Hercules* performed the famous twelve cycles of labor. *Jason* was the leader of the Argonautic Expedition. *Paris*, son of Priam, King of Troy, was a hero of the Trojan War. *Pelops* was the famous hero from whom the Peloponnesus (Isle of Pelops) was named. *Theseus* was the great legendary hero of Athens.—*Editor.*

2. **Homer's Iliad and Odyssey.**—In Homer, the gods are very human. They have few traits of divinity, scarcely of dignity. Their ridicule of Vulcan is certainly coarse; the threats of Zeus are brutal. As a family they live together on Olympus, feasting, talking, making love, making war, deceiving each other, angry and reconciled. They feed on nectar and ambrosia, which makes them immortal. . . . So in the Iliad we see them at their feast, with Vulcan handing each the cup, pouring out nectar for them all. "And their inextinguishable laughter arose among the immortal gods, when they saw Vulcan bustling through the mansion. So they feasted all day till sundown; nor did the soul want anything of the equal feast, nor of the beautiful harp which Apollo held, nor of the muses, who accompanied him, responding in turn with delicious voices."—*Clarke.*

Trojan War.—To recover Helen, whom Paris carried off from Sparta, the Greeks under Agamemnon besieged Troy for ten years. At last they contrived a wooden horse, in whose hollow belly many of the Greek heroes hid themselves. Their army and fleet then withdrew to Tenedos, feigning to have raised the siege. The Trojans conveyed the wooden horse into Troy; in the night the Greeks stole out, opened the gates to their returning friends and Troy was taken.—*Jebb.*

The time and place of living of Homer cannot be fixed definitely. The earliest direct reference to the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are in Herodotus, who quotes from both poems. The earliest mention of the name of Homer is found in the 6th century B.C.—*Britannica.*

3. **Society in the Heroic Age.**—The king was surrounded by a limited number of nobles or chiefs, to whom the title of *Basilcus* was given, as well as to the monarch himself. Like the king they traced their descent from the gods, and formed his *Boulé*, or Council, to which he announced the resolutions he had already formed and from which he asked advice. The *Boulé* possessed no veto upon the measures of the king, and far less could it originate any measure itself. . . . When the king had announced his determination to the council, he proceeded with his nobles to the *Agora*. . . . The king opened the meeting by announcing his intentions, and the nobles were then allowed to address the people. But no one else had the right to speak; no vote was taken; the people simply listened to the debate between the chiefs; and the assembly served only as a means for promulgating the intentions of the king.—*W. Smith.*

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6. ORACLES.

Closely connected with the religion of the Greeks were the oracles. In the times portrayed by Homer the gods came down and mingled in the affairs of men; in later times they spoke through oracles. The most famous of these was that of Apollo at Delphi. Here a priestess, inspired, it was said, by the vapor that issued from a cleft in the rock, gave the answer of the god to all questions. This oracle was appealed to by the whole Hellenic world. Its answers, though often given in silly riddles, were as often marked by practical wisdom. At last, however, the priests in attendance were bribed to give certain answers, and when this was discovered men began to lose faith in the miraculous utterances. For ages, however, this oracle tended to unite Greece by a common sentiment.

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6. ORACLES.

1. **Revelations.**—It was a universal belief in the ancient world that there is a capacity in the human mind to divine the will of God. . . . There was, however, a belief that at certain places the gods gave revelations more frequently than at others. Such places were generally characterized by some marked physical feature. At these places there were established regular institutions, with a staff of priests and prophets, to which the neighbors resorted for counsel. . . . The method of interpretation varied greatly. . . . In the most primitive the spirits of the dead appeared and conversed directly with the inquirer. This method was rare in Greece. . . . In the oracle of Trophonius, in Bœotia, the method of inquiry was certainly modeled after the idea of a descent to the infernal world. Beside the oracle were two springs of Memory and Oblivion, which, according to the mystic teaching, were the two fountains of the lower world. The inquirer descended into an underground place, and, it is said, saw such sights that he never smiled again. This method belonged to a very primitive stage of Greek history; and it is certain that Greek religion in general, and many oracles in particular, had experienced a long development before the time which we know best. . . . The common method of revelation in hero-oracles and in the oracles of some gods was through dreams. Hero-oracles were certainly, in their earliest form, simply oracles of the dead. . . . The person who seeks advice goes to sleep over the actual grave, and the dead man appears in a dream. We can trace occasional survivals of the most primitive form of the hero-oracle. A type of the usual method, which was called "incubation," is the oracle of Amphiaraus. . . . The inquirer, after abstaining from wine for three days, and from all food for twenty-four hours, slept in the temple on the skin of a ram which he had sacrificed. In the oracles of Gæa . . . the Earth is giver of responses, as being the home of the dead, who sleep in her womb, but who can be called forth to give counsel to their descendants living on earth. . . . The oracles of Apollo work through inspiration. In Delphi the seer was a woman, Pythia, who was thrown into a state of ecstatic frenzy by the influence of a vapor ascending from a cleft in the earth, . . . and while in that state uttered words and cries which contained the answer of Apollo.—*Britannica.*

2. **Importance.**—It must be remembered that the whole independence and importance of Delphi was based on the feeling of a Hellenic communion, and that it perished as soon as the bonds of this union were loosened. For this reason, if for no other, the Delphic priesthood as a matter of course sought to preserve the idea of unity. This was their exalted mission, in the zealous performance of which all the members of their body emulated one another; some moved by pure patriotism, others by selfish considerations of personal gain. On account of its connection with the Amphictyony, it was the duty of the oracle to avert disputes between the tribes or to compose existing differences. Hence, there existed an ancient law that no Hellene and no Hellenic State might employ the oracle against another. Here originated the statute that the memory of a civil war should not be perpetuated by permanent trophies; that Hellenes should not be made the slaves of Hellenes, etc., and though the oracle had no right of calling the disputants before its tribunal, though it was never recognized by the single States as a standing federal court of appeals, yet, inasmuch as the Amphictyonic statutes had had their origin in the Apolline religion, it was regarded as a higher resort in all matters touching on rights common to all.—*Curtius.*

3. **Amphictyonic Council.** — This assembly seems to have been originally of small importance, and it acquired its superiority over other similar associations by the wealth and grandeur of the Delphian temple, of which it was the appointed guardian. It held two meetings every year, one in the spring at the temple of Apollo at Delphi, and the other in the autumn at the temple of Demeter (Ceres) at Thermopylæ. Its members, who were called the Amphictyons, consisted of sacred deputies sent from twelve tribes, each of which contained several independent cities or States. . . . The tribes represented in it stood on a footing of perfect equality, two votes being given by the deputies from each of the twelve. . . . The main duties of the Council were to restrain acts of aggression against its members, and to preserve the rights and dignity of the temple of Delphi. . . . They were never considered a national congress whose duty it was to protect and defend the common interests of Greece.—*W. Smith.*

4. **Sacred Roads.**—In proportion as the character of festivals became national, the authorities of the places of pilgrimage had to take measures for facilitating access from all sides. An interest in these matters was, in the first place, excited by the priestly families, and the Amphictyonic officers became its champions. The question was not merely as to the security of the vicinity, which

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was frequently exposed to the attacks of robbers on account of wealth flowing into the temple, but also as to the construction of roads. . . . Thus arose the sacred roads, along which the gods themselves were said to have first passed, as Apollo once came through pathless tracks to Delphi. He was followed in the first place by his ministers. . . . Hence, the art of road making and of building bridges, which deprived the wild mountain streams of their danger, took its first origin from the national sanctuaries, especially from those of Apollo. . . . The rocky surface was leveled, and ruts hollowed out which, carefully smoothed, served as tracks in which the wheels rolled on without obstruction. . . . Not merely the extension, but also the equalization of the network of Greek roads took its origin from the Delphi. The Amphictyonic States had, each in its own territory, to keep the roads and bridges in repair; the sanctity of the temple extended to the roads leading to it; it was sacrilege to attack the carriages passing along them; and so, together with this uniformity of gauge, the blessings of the temple, peace spread over the whole land, and, locally also, united all places of Hellenic worship into one community.—*Curtius.*

QUESTIONS FOR WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. *Give the natural boundaries of Greece? What points were best adapted to commerce? What states were best located for commerce? Name the three natural divisions of Greece? What were the special features of each? Compare the different states, noting the natural boundaries and features of each? Make an outline map showing the position, direction and outline of the mountains and rivers?*

2. *What is the position of Greece with reference to other historical nations already studied? With reference to the points of the earth? What special features promoted trade with the Phœnicians? What was the general climate? The climate of important Grecian states? Where were the principal Greek Colonies located? What of their relative standing? How far were the Greek states able to supply their own clothing? Weapons? Shelter and food? How would these features effect each state? Why was it easier to trade with Asia than Europe? Make a list of the natural products of Greece and compare with a similar list of any of the nations previously studied? How did the geography of Greece favor the growth of civilization? Considering solely geographical features, what states were most favorably located?*

3. *By what name did the Greeks call themselves? Why? To what family did the Greeks belong? Who were the Pelasgians? Name the ancient Grecian tribes? Give the location of each? To which natural division of the country did Athens belong? Sparta? To which tribe did the Athenians belong? The Spartans? How did the Greeks apply the term "barbarian?" What does Bayard Taylor say of the Greeks?*

4. *What was the character of the Greek religion? Of their gods? What influence had the religion of the Greeks on their patriotism? On Greek development? What was the opinion of Clarke? How were the gods classified? Name the leading divinities with their attributes? What was the character of the ceremonials? In what ways did their religion and architecture mutually aid each other? Name the officials of the temple with the peculiar functions of each? Name what you consider the strong features of the Greek religion? How did these features influence the Greeks?*

5. *How did the Greeks trace their descent? How do the Greek myths and legends aid us in studying the early history of the people? How did these legends influence the early Greeks? Name some of these heroes? Give the leading points concerning the story of each? From what source do we get our knowledge of the Greek gods? In Homer how are the gods represented? What is known concerning the time of Homer? What was the condition of the king in the Heroic Age? How was the Boulé constructed? What was its function?*

6. *What relation did the religion of the Greeks sustain to the oracles? What was their origin? Influence? Give the various methods of revelation? How did these oracles degenerate? What was the Amphictyonic Council? Give its origin? Powers? How did it influence Greek life? Show how it caused the construction of roads throughout Greece? How were these roads regarded by the ancients? In your opinion, how did the oracles unify the Greeks? What influence on the Grecian customs? What caused a decline in their influence?*



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7. THE GAMES.



The Parthenon.

Another unifying influence was found in the national games. The most famous of these were the Olympian, celebrated to the honor of Zeus every fourth year in the Peloponnesus. There were foot races, horse races, chariot races, and many other kinds of contests. The victor received no reward except a crown of wild olive, but his victory made him a hero throughout Greece. Poets sang his praises, and his native State set up a statue to him. All the cities, even those of lower Italy, sent their most famous athletes to contend. These games influenced the history of Greece through a period of a thousand years. The Olympiad of 776 B. C. is the first historical date in Greek history.

7. GAMES.

There were four kinds of games solemnized in Greece, viz.: The *Olympic*, so-called from Olympia, near which they were celebrated every four years in honor of Jupiter Olympius; the *Pythic*, sacred to Apollo Pythius; the *Nemean*, near Nemea, a city of Peloponnesus, instituted by Hercules, and the *Isthmian* at Corinth in honor of Neptune. The Greeks regarded these games with the greatest feelings of admiration and respect, and the highest honor was to win a prize in the Olympic games. They computed time by the *Olympiads*. No stranger was permitted to compete in the games, and all participants were required to take an oath that they would religiously observe the several laws prescribed. Fraud, artifice and excessive violence were prohibited. *Wrestlers* were matched two against two, and sometimes several couples engaged at the same time. *Boxing* was one of the rudest and most dangerous of the gymnastic exercises. The fists were covered with a sort of glove made of leather and plated on the inside with brass, lead or iron. The head was covered with a leather cap to protect the temples and ears. *The pancratium* was a game uniting boxing and wrestling, borrowing from one its manner of struggling and throwing, and from the other the art of dealing blows. *The discus*, or *quoit*, was one of the games. *Pentathlum* was a name applied to a game combining wrestling, running, leaping, throwing the dart and the discus. *Running* held the foremost rank among games. These were of three kinds: *Foot races*, *horse races* and *chariot races*. The second was not highly esteemed, while the latter was the most renowned of all the contests. The chariots were drawn by two or four horses. Women were allowed to dispute with the men for the prizes. *The victor* was given a wreath and was conducted about the grounds preceded by a trumpeter who proclaimed aloud the name of the successful person. When he returned home he made his entry, not by the gates, but through a breach purposely made in the wall. Also, they were maintained for the rest of their lives at the public expense, and were exempt from all civil offices and employments.—*Edited from Bucke.*

To the victor at the Isthmian games, Solon adjudged the reward of five hundred drachmae. To the victor of the Olympic, he ordered that one hundred should be given. He contracted the rewards bestowed upon the wrestlers, esteeming such gratuities useless and even dangerous, tending to encourage idleness, by putting men upon wasting that time in exercises which ought to be spent in providing for their families.—*Newcastle.*

At length, Ephitus, King of Elis, having obtained authority from the Delphic oracle, instituted the *Olympic Festival*, by which the Greeks, notwithstanding their almost constant wars with each other, were enabled to meet on friendly terms once in every four years, or *Olympiad*. . . . To this festival all the people of Greece were invited; and in order to enable them to attend, the Delphic oracle commanded that a general armistice should take place some time before and after each celebration. The Olympic Festival consisted of religious rites, and of various games, and of compositions in poetry and music.—*Clare.*

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8. PERIOD OF DEVELOPMENT, 776-500 B. C.

1. **Forms of Government.**—Nearly all the cities of Greece developed the same forms of government. At first in the heroic age they were governed by kings. Then in historical times, the power of the kings began to decline, and there followed an oligarchic government or government of a few leading nobles. In general these oligarchies misgoverned the people, until in desperation some man of ability seized the reins of government by a revolution and made himself a *tyrant.* (Term used to indicate an unconstitutional ruler, not necessarily a *despot.*)



Storage Vase (Otauras) Munich.

The rule of tyrants was often wise. They won popularity by beautifying the cities, and by showing favor to artists and poets; but they rarely held power more than two generations. To the *Tyrants* there generally succeeded a democracy or rule of the people through popular assemblies, as in Athens under Pericles.

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8. PERIOD OF DEVELOPMENT.

1. **Forms of Government.**—Though the Greeks comprised many distinct tribes, inhabiting separate cities, countries, and islands, having different laws, dialects, manners, and customs, Athens and Sparta were the great centers of Hellenic life. These two cities differed widely from each other in thought, habits, and tastes. Sparta had no part in Grecian art or literature. There was no Spartan sculptor, no Laconian painter, no Lacedæmonian poet. From Athens, on the contrary, came the world's masterpieces in poetry, oratory, sculpture, and architecture.—*Mrs. Steele.*

There was, in truth, a general gravitation in the Greek cities to two distinct centers; the democratic citizens looking to Athens, the rest regarding themselves as the natural allies, if not the subjects, of Sparta. The fuel was thus prepared which might at any time be kindled into a fatal conflagration; and from the first it was certain that the conflict of these opposing principles must come and would probably be not long delayed. Fifty years, it is true, passed away after the overthrow of the Persians . . . before the antagonism between Sparta and Athens was brought to a head: and nearly thirty years more were needed for the demolition of the fabric of Athenian empire.—*Cox.*

2. **The City.**—Another natural result of the new order of things was the special dignity and importance acquired by the city. The conquerors naturally established themselves in some stronghold, and remained together for their better security, each such stronghold becoming a separate independent State, holding a certain portion of the surrounding territory in subjection. At the same time the unsubdued countries perceived the strength resulting from this unity, and consequently many of these abolished their previous system of village life and centralized and consolidated themselves by establishing capitals and transferring the greater part of their population to them. . . . In countries occupied by but one race, but divided into as many distinct states as there were cities, political confederations arose, sometimes resulting from a pre existing amphictyony, but occasionally without any such previous condition. The federal tie was generally weak, and only in Bœotia did such a union constitute a permanent state of the first rank.—*Clare.*

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9. SPARTA.

1. **The People** were **Dorians,** and were divided into three classes. These were (1) the **Spartans,** descended from the Dorian conquerors; (2) **Periœcci,** a conquered race, which paid tribute to the Spartans, and (3) **Helots,** who were serfs belonging to the State. The last could be put to death without trial, and it is said they were sometimes forced to intoxicate themselves for the express purpose of giving the Spartan youths an object lesson, by teaching them to abhor drunkenness. The Helots worked the land, and brought their masters (they were distributed among the land-owners) a certain amount of oil, wheat and wine every year.

2. **Education and Civilization.**—The ideal of Spartan law-givers was to make a race of soldiers. Young children regarded as sickly were exposed by the state to die in some mountain glen, while the sturdy ones from the age of seven were educated by public officers. There were common tables and black broth for all citizens. The Spartans despised books, but made the youths recite martial songs, and exercise the body in athletics. The girls also were trained in athletics. Fortitude and patriotism were the chief virtues. "Return with your shield or upon it," was the admonition of every Spartan mother. Children were allowed to steal their food but, if detected, were punished.

Under this system Sparta produced a fine race of warriors, but contributed nothing to the world in art, literature, or ethics. Nay, the lack of moral fortitude often defeated the results of their physical fortitude; for the Spartan leaders were notoriously open to bribery. The lesson that we learn from Sparta is that the body must not be cultivated at the expense of the mind and heart.

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9. SPARTA.

1. **The People.**—The Peloponnesus was conquered by the Dorians at an early date. . . . When the Dorians who came from the mountains between Phocis and Thessaly, had subdued the native population, they disputed among themselves . . . *and were forced to yield* to the Dorians of Sparta, who gradually conquered . . . Laconia. They became the most stubborn and valiant representatives of the Dorian race. They valued physical courage, strength and energy above everything else, even while they were still remarkable for the intelligence that distinguished all the Hellenes. The great success of Sparta was mainly due to Lycurgus, who not only brought order and peace but upheld by the authority of the Delphic oracle, established a legislative code, which carefully mapped out by rule the discipline and education of the citizens.—*Edited from Verschoyle.*

2. **Education and Civilization.**—*Training of Children.*—As soon as a child was born, it was carried to a place called *Lesche* to be examined by the elders of the family or clan. If disapproved as having an imperfect frame or weak constitution, it was cast into a gulf. . . . If approved, a share of public lands was assigned to it, and it was taken back to the father's house and laid on a shield with a spear placed near it. The whole education was intrusted to the parents until the child reached the age of *seven*; then the regular public education commenced. The boys at this age were enrolled in the classes termed *Agelae* (*herds*); such as refused this lost the rights of citizenship; none but the immediate heir to the throne was excepted. The other sons of the king were obliged to submit to the correction of the master.—*Fiske.*

They dipped a new-born child into wine, from a notion that epileptic or diseased children faint and waste away after such a bath, while those of a strong and vigorous habit acquire the strength, temper and pliancy of steel from the juice of the grape. The nurses were exceedingly intelligent, and did not swaddle the babes in entang ing bands, but let them grow up free and unconstrained in limb and form, not dainty and fanciful about their food, or afraid in the dark, or of being left alone, or peevish, bad tempered and "squalling." So celebrated did these nurses become that they were bought up or hired by people of other countries, like the Asturian nurses of Spain. It is recorded, for example, that the nurse who suckled Alcibiades was a Spartan woman.

The close clipped, barefoot, nearly naked little Spartan boys knew just enough of reading and writing to serve their turn, their main education from the age of seven . . . being how to endure pain and privation, and to conquer in battle. Sparta was the first grand kindergarten of which we have any knowledge; a magnificent school for athletic sports, simple object teaching and teaching by example, and for ascertaining whether a boy was a coward or a manly fellow. Their hard, dry little carcasses were almost unacquainted with the luxurious use of baths and unguents; their rush beds emanated from the vegetation that densely covered the banks of the Eurotas, and they sprinkled them with thistle down to make them warmer. The old men watched the younger continually, encouraged them in their contests of wit, humor and strength, and applauded them even when they stole . . . They stole by creeping over garden fences and into people's fields, and then conveying their spoils, cunningly and without being seen, to their eating houses. If they were caught in the act they were flogged unmercifully, because they had stolen so ill or so awkwardly.—*Harrison.*

Training of Women.—See SIDE-LIGHTS, p. 98.

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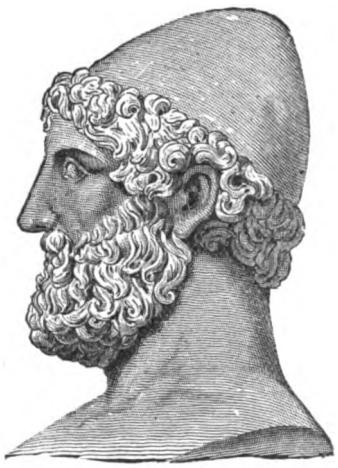
3. **The Spartan Lycurgus,** *800 B.C.* (?) The system of life just described was attributed to Lycurgus. He is also said to have established the earliest constitution of Sparta. The truth seems to be that he reorganized the government and made it stable. There were two kings, reigning jointly; a senate or council of elders, and an assembly of freemen. The two kings were the leaders in war and the high priests. In conservative Sparta there was no change in methods of government except the following.



Plato.

4. **Ephors.**—After the time of Lycurgus, great powers were given to five officers of the State called Ephors, elected by the assembly. They gradually obtained the chief authority, both the kings and senate being subordinated.

5. **Sparta Supreme in Peloponnesus** (*560 B.C.*). Two centuries after Lycurgus, the Spartans by conquest or alliance had become supreme in Peloponnesus, though the body of citizens was never more than 10,000. The system of Lycurgus seemed justified by its success.

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3. **The Spartan Lycurgus.**—*Biography.*—There are very great discrepancies respecting the date of Lycurgus; . . . his most probable date is B C. 776. . . . He belonged to the royal family of Sparta. . . . The young king's mother took revenge upon Lycurgus. . . . Hereupon he resolved to withdraw from his native country, and to visit foreign lands. . . . He was absent many years, and is said to have employed his time in studying the institutions of other nations, and in conversing with their sages, in order to devise a system of laws and regulations which might deliver Sparta from the evils under which it had long been suffering. He first visited Crete and Ionia; and not content with the Grecian world, passed from Ionia into Egypt; and according to some accounts is reported to have visited Iberia, Libya, and even India . . . The return of Lycurgus was hailed with delight. . . . He finally triumphed over all obstacles, and succeeded in obtaining the submission of all classes in the community to his new constitution. His last act was to sacrifice himself for the welfare of his country. Having obtained from the people a solemn oath to make no alterations in his laws before his return, he quitted Sparta forever.—*W. Smith.*

The Kings.—The direct political powers of the kings were thus greatly curtailed; yet importance in many ways was still left to them. They possessed large royal domains; . . . they received frequent occasional presents, and when victims were offered to the gods, the skins and other portions belonged to them as perquisites; they had their votes in the senate, which, if they were absent, were given on their behalf by such of the other senators as were most nearly related to them; . . . But above all, their root was deep in the religious feelings of the people. Their pre-eminent lineage connected the entire estate with a divine paternity. They . . . were the special grantees of the soil of Sparta from the gods. . . . They represented the state in its relations with the gods, being by right, priests . . . and offering the monthly sacrifices necessary to insure divine protection to the people.

4. **Ephors.**—There were three distinct jurisdictions, that of the kings, the senate, and the Ephori, each of which formed a tribunal for the decision of a certain class of questions. . . . *The Ephori were five*, who had an oversight of the whole state, and whose duty required them to assert the rights of the people against the kings. They were chosen from among the people, without reference to condition. . . . Their tribunal was in the forum.—*Fiske.*

The Senate.—His (Lycurgus) first proceeding . . was to constitute the Spartan senate, consisting of twenty-eight ancient men; making an aggregate of thirty in conjunction with the two kings, who sat and voted in it. With these were combined periodical assemblies of the Spartan people. . . . Yet no discussion was permitted in these assemblies—their functions were limited to the simple acceptance or rejection of that which had previously been determined in the senate.—*Grote.*

Laws of Lycurgus.—The laws of Lycurgus may be arranged under twelve divisions: 1. Those relating to religion; 2. Relating to the land and the city; 3. Regarding citizens; 4. Relating to marriage; 5. Relating to eating; 6. Relating to wearing apparel; 7. Regarding discipline and manners; 8. Relating to studies and learning; 9. Relating to exercises; 10. Respecting contracts and money matters; 11. Relating to courts of justice; 12. The military laws. It will at once be noticed that these laws were comprehensive and exercised complete control over the individual citizen.—*Editor.*

5. **Sparta Supreme in Peloponnesus.** (See page 81.)

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11. ATHENS.

1. Before the 8th century B.C. the history of Athens is obscure, and the city seems to have had little prominence in Greece. In this century, however, the office of king became unimportant and the chief authority was vested in an Archon. About 683 B. C. an oligarchy was established, consisting of nine Archons, and a council of ex-Archons called the Areopagus.



Diana.

2. **Functions.**—The chief officer was the Archon Eponymus, who gave his name to the year and was president of the State. Next to him was the King-Archon, who was the religious head of the State; and the third Archon was the Polemarch, who was minister of war, and commander of the army. The other six Archons had charge of the various departments of justice—with the exception of the court for homicide.

3. **The Areopagus.**—This venerable assembly had jurisdiction over cases of homicide, and elected the Archons. Later, under Solon, it had jurisdiction over the morals of citizens—a censorship. Before this assembly the Apostle Paul spoke at Athens.

4. **Divisions of Society.**—Society was divided into three classes (i. e.), the Eupatridae, or men of aristocratic birth; the Geomori, or husbandmen; and the Demiurgi, or artisans. As yet the governing class was the Eupatridae. Hence the lower classes were discontented and inclined to rebellion.

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11. ATHENS.

1. **Athens.** — *Antagonism of Dorians and Ionians.*—Without exaggerating the influences of races, the great antagonism of the Dorians and Ionians is always prominent in Grecian history. The Ionians were the antithesis in many respects of their Dorian rivals. They were amiable and sympathetic, their intelligence was cultivated, their taste delicate. Active and laborious, their prosperity advanced in time of peace, whilst the Dorians only recognized the fruits of war and pillage. The Isthmus of Corinth remained the boundary between the two peoples, who did not, however, remain enclosed in their narrow domains. —*Verschoyle.*

The population of Athens can not be accurately ascertained. The population of the whole of Attica probably exceeded half a million, of whom, however, nearly four-fifths were slaves, and half the remainder metics, or resident aliens. The number of citizens—native males above the age of twenty, enjoying the franchise—was 20,000 or 21,000. The population resident in Athens itself, has been variously estimated at from 120,000 to 192,000 souls.—*W. Smith.*

2. **Functions.**—*The Archons* were nine in number and were chosen by lot; but after they were chosen they were obliged to undergo two examinations, one in the senate-house, called *Anacrisis*, the other in the *Forum*, called *Docimasia*; in these they were asked who were their ancestors, whether by three descents they were Athenian citizens, of what tribe and ward they were, whether related to *Apollo Patrius* or *Jupiter Hercēus*, whether they had been dutiful to their parents, had served the appointed times in the wars, had the estate required by law, and whether they were perfect in all their limbs. These demands being satisfactorily answered, they were conducted to the royal portico, where each of the Archons took an oath in these words: "I will be punctual in the observance of the laws, and if I am deficient in this respect, I will for every such default consecrate a

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statue of gold as big as myself to the Delphian Apollo."—*Newcastle.*

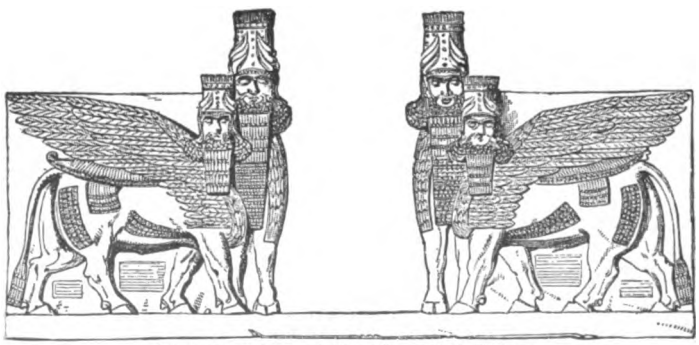
3. **Areopagus.**—*The oath* taken by these judges is reported by Demosthenes as follows: "I will give sentence according to the laws and the decrees of the people of Athens, and the council of five hundred; I will not consent to place the supreme power in the hands of a single person, or a few; nor permit any man to dissolve the commonwealth, or so much as to give his vote, or make an oration in defence of such a resolution. I will not endeavor to discharge private debts, nor to make a division of land or houses; I will not restore persons sent into banishment, nor pardon those condemned to die, nor expel any man out of the city contrary to the laws and decrees of the people and council of five hundred, nor permit any other person to do it; I will not elect any person into any public employ, and particularly I will not create any man *Archon*, *Hieromnemon*, embassador, public herald or synedros, nor consent that he be admitted into any of those offices which are elected by lots, upon the same day with the Archons, who has undergone any former office, and not given in his accounts; nor that any person shall bear two offices, or be twice elected into the same office in one year; I will not receive gifts myself, nor shall any other for me; nor will I permit any other person to do the like by any means, whether direct or indirect, to pervert justice in the court of *Heliæa*; I am not under thirty years of age; I will hear both the plaintiff and defendant without partiality, and give sentence in all the causes brought before me; I swear by *Jupiter*, *Neptune* and *Ceres*; if I violate this oath, or any part of it, may I perish with my whole family; but if I religiously observe it, may we live and prosper."—*Plutarch.*

The sitting was opened with a sacrifice, upon which both the accuser and the accused took an oath with direful implications. Then, either personally or by attorneys, they urged their cause; but no ornaments of rhetoric, no attempts to move the passions, were ever allowed. After this the judges gave their decision by means of white or black stones. As the court always sat in the dark, the white pebbles were distinguished by holes bored in them. Two urns were used, one of iron to receive the white stones, which were votes to acquit the defendant, and one of brass to receive the black, which, on the other hand, were votes for his condemnation. The sentence was immediately put in execution. In early times the dignity and purity of this tribunal stood very high; but afterwards its character fell in the general corruption of morals.—*Fiske.*

Orators.—There were two sorts of orators in the service of the State. Some were appointed to defend an old law, when a motion was made to repeal it; these had their fee from the State, but the same man was incapable of re-election. The *rhetores* were ten settled orators elected by lot, and their business was to plead public causes in the senate-house, for which they received stated fees. The governing their qualifications according to Æschines was as follows: Let no one be a public orator who hath struck his parents, denied them maintenance, or shut them out of his doors, who hath refused to serve in the army, who hath thrown away his shield, who hath been addicted to lewd women, notoriously effeminate, or has run out his patrimony. If any man who has been guilty of these crimes dare to deliver an oration, let him be brought to trial upon the spot. Let an orator have children lawfully begotten, and an estate within *Attica;* if in his oration he talks impertinently, makes idle repetitions, affects an unbecoming raillery, digresses from the point in question, or, after the assembly is over, abuses the president; let the *Proedri* fine him fifty drachmae; and if that is not thought enough, let him be brought before the next assembly and fined again.—*Editor.*

The prosecutor in Athens, who failed to make good his charge, incurred certain penalties, unless he obtained at least one-fifth of the votes in his favor. In public suits, he forfeited one thousand drachmae to the State, and could never again institute a similar suit. The same punishment was incurred if he declined to proceed with the case In private suits, he paid the defendant one-sixth of the amount of the disputed property, as a compensation for the inconvenience he had suffered in person or character.—*Lieber.*

4. **Divisions of Society.**—(*See Solon's laws, page* 72.)



Exhumed at Cyprus by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter.

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12.

5. **Education and Civilization.**—Education in Athens was far more liberal than at Sparta. Athletics were not neglected, but reading, writing and music were taught in the schools. To listen to the great orators was an education in itself. In art, literature and statesmanship Athens became the light of the ancient world.

12.

5. **Education and Civilization.**—There was no question more agitated at Athens than the education of boys. There was no controversy on which party-spirit ran more hotly, or on which the old and the new Attic life differed more profoundly. The older fashion had been to bring up boys very much as we bring up girls, keeping them constantly under the eye of a special attendant or teacher, insisting above all things on purity and modesty, teaching them the received religion and a little of the standard literature, inculcating obedience to the gods and to parents, but aiming at no higher intellectual standard.—*Mahaffy.*

The leading characteristics of the Greeks, their chief glory, lending a wholly matchless excellence to their history and literature as culture-studies,



Demosthenes.

were fearless inquisitiveness and intense devotion to ideals. To them thought was greater than things. . . . In Greece, individuality, moral life and struggle rise into prominence; great statesmen, orators, generals, fine, strong, personal characters tower above the multitude. No other national career has ever been so brief and brilliant at once.—*Andrews.*

Houses.—For the mass of the people we must be content to imagine buildings of stone, brick or wood, according to the locality, with the necessary compartments for eating, sleeping and performing household operations, and very often the same room used for various purposes. . . . The house was always divided into two sets of apartments—the men's and the women's. In the more ancient times the women's apartments were on the upper story of the house and the men's on the ground floor, but in later days . . . the men's *were often* in the front, and the women's at the back. Each set of apartments was built in the form of a square or quadrangle, with an open court in the interior, which was usually paved, and might have a fountain in the center. Along the sides of the court ran porticos, or rows of pillars, giving it an ornamental character, and affording shaded walks all around. The rooms entered from these porticos. The men's apartments consisted of sitting-rooms, dining-rooms and chambers, where they met their friends, held dinner parties, and spent their time. Round the court of the women's apartments lay the rooms where the family chiefly dwelt, with kitchens, store-rooms and sleeping-rooms. Attached to these also were the shops or halls for spinning, weaving and other household manufactures. . . . The street door opened into a wide lobby, which ran direct into the men's court or quadrangle; the lobby itself communicated with the porter's rooms and the stables. Going across the men's court, a passage led the way through to the women's court. The rooms were all provided with doors, except, perhaps, the men's public rooms or saloons, which were closed by hangings. The windows of the apartments were partly in the roof, and partly opened into the courts. . . . The doorway was usually architecturally adorned, and the front plastered and sometimes ornamented with stucco; . . . an imitation of the temples was not permitted. The roofs were usually flat. The heating was by fire places; . . . by the side of the hearth were the images of the household gods. The fire was sometimes contained in a portable brazier. . . . The floors were of plaster, and the walls white-washed or painted and ornamented. . . . Beside the street-door was usually an image and an altar. . . . The streets were not paved or lighted. . . . Water for domestic uses had to be carried from the nearest public well. . . . The couch, or sofa, held the place of chairs at meals and during idle hours. . . . The want of glass is one of the characteristic features of ancient household establishments. All the dishes were of pottery, wood or metal, and the mirrors were usually made of polished bronze.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Armour.—The offensive and defensive weapons of Greece in the time of Homer (B. C. 1000) were for the most part in bronze, a few for the purposes of defense being in leather, though iron was as well known in Greece as in Egypt and Assyria. Defensive armour was composed of a cuirass or corslet (with breast and back plates, each made of a single piece or shell), of the helmet, of the large convex shield, and the greaves or defensive leggings. The offensive weapons were the cut-and-thrust sword, straight-bladed, more or less long, double-edged, with a slender point and square sheath, which was worn on the right side. The lance was from eleven to fifteen feet long, with a broad, long and pointed head, rounded towards the socket, and with a cross-piece beveled, and strongest towards the center. This weapon served either for thrusting or throw-

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ing. The javelin, with its *amentum* (a strap fixed to the center of the gravity of the javelin) was a kind of long arrow or dart, which the warrior threw from his hand, and which we find among the Germans and Romans; and lastly, the bow and arrows. The Greeks had at first no cavalry. . . Later, about B. C. 400, bodies of slingers and horsemen were added to their armies —*Demmin.*

Dress.—The body dress consisted of an inner and an outer covering. The inner was a loose dress of woolen or linen, with sleeves or holes for the arms; worn short by men, but extending down to the feet on women. . . . Slaves, and the poorer citizens, wore only a single garment of grey woolen texture, being the natural color of the wool. . . . The head-dress consisted of skull-cap or hat with brim. . . . The head was commonly bare. . . . The hair was usually allowed to grow to a considerable length, and was trimmed or adjusted with great care. . . . The beard was regularly worn and considered a dignified appendage of manhood. Shaving was in vogue . . . but does not seem to have been popular. . . . . The women had a great variety in the modes of dressing. . . . They had also various caplike coverings, net bags, and cloths or turbans. Coverings for the feet were worn only when out of doors. These varied from the simple sandal . . . to a complete envelop, like a modern short boot. . . . The usual color of the shoe was the natural color of the leather, and they were cleaned with a sponge; but white and partly colored shoes were likewise worn.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The different coverings for the feet among the Greeks were the *sandal*, worn by the men; the *persica*, worn by the women, particularly by the *helairæ;* the *crepida*, the iron-shod shoe of the philosophers and soldiers, which did not cover the whole of the foot; and the *karbatine*, belonging to the peasant. There were also the *cothurnus*, and the *buskin*. The first was the foot covering of the tragic actors, to appear taller when they acted heroes. Ligatures, fastened to the sole, which was generally of cork, became narrower, as in the modern skate, and passed between the first and second toe. It was also worn by kings and people of the higher classes. The buskin was particularly suited to comic actors; it was a kind of boot laced up the front, and generally coming up higher than the ankle. An antique statue of Diana . . . and many other statues wear the buskin.—*Demmin.*

Meals.—The Greeks had, as a rule, two meals a day, one in the forenoon and another in the afternoon or towards evening, which last was the principal meal. Mention is also made of a repast, consisting of bread soaked in unmixed wine, taken in the morning after getting up. . . . The forenoon meal was the first natural division of the day, and marked a general cessation from labor. . . . The afternoon meal corresponded to our late dinner, and generally closed the working day, leaving the evening for company and amusement. Among articles of diet were bread made of wheat or barley meal, cheese, onions, leeks, garlic, lettuce, cabbage and beans. . . . Flesh was used in far less proportion than fish; mutton and pork seem to have been the most usual kinds. . . . At a banquet, fish of various kinds, with flesh and fowl, were provided, followed by fruits, . . . such as olives, figs, nuts and fresh fruits. . . . There were no knives and forks, although spoons were in use.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Entertainments.—The dinner party, or symposium, was made the occasion of convivial feasts. . . . A public or domestic sacrifice or offering to one of the gods was always followed by a dinner party, the remains of the animal sacrificed being cooked for the occasion. . . . Birthdays . . . were likewise occasions of feasting, also occasions of public rejoicing. . . . During the repast they reclined upon couches set with pillows, and small tables were brought in and laid along the couches. On each person's arrival a servant took off his shoes and washed his feet. It was after dinner that the symposium, or drinking scene, commenced, with its varied entertainments of conversation, merriment, music, dancing and other sports. The music and dancing were performed . . . by hired artists, chiefly girls. A chairman, or symposiarch, was appointed to regulate the drinking. . . . Women were not allowed to be present.—*Bayard Taylor.*

NOTE.—The reader must not understand the words "fire place" as used above by Bayard Taylor to mean anything like our fire-place; it means only a place for fire; in fact the *hestia* or *eschara*, or domestic altar, generally. The Greeks had no chimneys; the fire was built on a specially prepared little platform, or in a portable kettle; and a hole was left in the roof for the escape of smoke. Even in king's palaces, in the room where stood the altar or the fire kettle, the ceilings and upper walls and pillars were darkened by smoke.

In all ancient cities most of the streets were narrow, mere alleys, we should say. It appears that the door of a Greek house opened outwards, swinging into the narrow street, to the danger of persons passing. Hence a Greek in the city when about to go out used to knock on the inside of his door to give warning to any one in the street. The language has two different words meaning to knock at the door: arassein, to knock on the outside; psophein, to give the warning knock within. The streets had no sidewalks.—*Dr. Samuel Willard.*

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QUESTIONS FOR WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. *Where and how often did the National games take place? What was the estimation of these games in the eyes of the Greeks? How were they conducted? How were the successful participants treated? How did these games unify the Greeks? What is your estimation of the importance of these games? How do they compare with so called modern athletics?*

8. *What were some of the changes which took place during development? What rival cities gradually grew up? Were they descended directly from the same class of people? Compare the early development of Athens and Sparta? Why was there a gravitation towards the cities? How were the States formed? How were they united? What were some of the influences which united the Greeks?*

9. *Who were the Dorians? Into how many classes were the Spartans divided? What was the ideal of the Spartan race? What does Lieber state in regard to Spartan individuality? How were infants treated? What were the laws in regard to the training of children? What is said by Harrison in regard to Spartan nurses? What was the character of the education? What were, in your opinion, the advantages of the Spartan training? Disadvantages?*

10. *Give a brief sketch of the life of Lycurgus? What were the duties and privileges of the kings? How many distinct jurisdictions under the rule of Lycurgus? What were the duties of the Ephors? The Senate? What may be said of the laws of Lycurgus? What subjects were included? How far did he exercise supervision over the individual? What was the ultimate aim of Lycurgus in preparing these laws? Considering all that you know of Lycurgus, what do you think of his laws? How have they shaped the destinies of Sparta?*

11. *What may be said of the early history of Athens? What was the function of the Archon? How were these officers classified? What is said in reference to the antagonism of the Dorians and Ionians? In what ways is this shown? Give Smith's statements in reference the population of Athens? What was the function and character of the Areopagus? How were the sittings opened and conducted? What were the duties of the orators? What restrictions were placed upon prosecutors? How did these methods compare with more modern courts?*

12. *How did the Spartan education differ from that of the Athenian? Give substance of Mahaffy's statement? Give the general plan of Education for the average Athenian boy? For the girl? What may be said of the methods of instruction?*



Bronze Kylix found near Olympia by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter.

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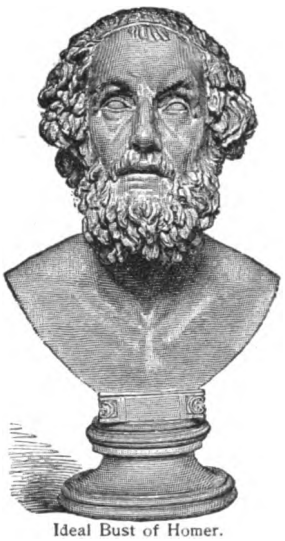
13.

6. **The Early Law-givers,** *Draco and Solon (620-560 B.C.).* —Out of the popular discontent arose then ecessity for a change of government. The first to codify the laws was Draco. His enactments were so severe that it was said they were written in "blood rather than in ink," but their severity has doubtless been exaggerated. Naturally, however, the new code did not improve the condition of the masses. Solon (Archon in 594 B.C.), belonged to the higher class, but extended the power of the masses by substituting a timocracy for the existing aristoracy (i. e.), a government by wealth rather than by birth. The people were divided into four classes according to the number of bushels of wheat they received annually from landed property. The Archons were chosen from the richest class, but as wealth was now the passport to this class, wealthy men of lower orders were able to obtain office.



Ideal Bust of Homer.

13.

6. **The Early Law-givers.**—*Draco* was Archon . . . about B.C. 623. Though the name of this great man occurs frequently in history, yet we nowhere find so much as ten lines together concerning him and his institutions. He may be considered as the first legislator of the Athenians; for the laws, or rather precepts . . . were very few, viz: *Honor your parents; worship the gods; hurt not animals.* Draco was the first of the Greeks who punished idolatry with death; and he esteemed murder so high a crime, that to imprint a deep abhorence of it in the minds of men he ordained that process should be carried on even against inanimate things, if they accidentally caused the death of any person. But beside murder and adultery, which deserved death, he made a number of small offenses capital; and that brought almost all his laws into disuse. . . . Even those convicted of idleness and such as stole only a few apples or pot-herbs were to suffer death.—*Plutarch.*

Solon.—Solon's travels were no doubt for the purpose of acquiring wisdom. He first went to Egypt "where he conversed with the most learned priests of that age and country; from these he drew the knowledge of a multitude of things unheard of by the Greeks. Thence he went to Cypress, where he was extremely well entertained," and out of respect the capital was relocated and called *Solos.* At Delphi he had an interview with the rest of the sophists, and the year following at Corinth, by Periander's invitation. He visited Crete, and also Crœsus, king of Lydia.—*Editor.*

Solon the Legislator.—Solon was made legislator of Athens and given power, not only to make laws, but to alter and remodel the constitution. He canceled the laws of Draco, excepting those relating to murder; divided the people into four ranks. The first rank consisted of those possessing five hundred measures of fruit; these paid a talent into the public treasury. The second rank included those able to keep a horse, or worth three hundred measures; and the third class was made up of those worth two hundred measures. The lowest order—the fourth rank—were not admitted to any office, but each of them had his vote in the general assembly of the people. The reputation of the *Areopagus*—the court—was sustained by allowing to a seat therein only those who had served as archon. He made the *Senate* to consist of four hundred—a hundred out of each tribe. In order to compel all persons to take part in the duties of citizenship it was provided that "he who, at such a time, and in such a case shall not engage himself on one side or other, or shall endeavor to retire and separate himself from the evils fallen on his country, let such a one, losing houses, country and estate, be sent out an exile." In order to render marriage no longer a "mercenary business" he enacted that a bride should bring no more with her than three gowns, and some slight household goods of little value." He also provided that, "none should revile the dead, even though provoked by the children of the deceased"; and likewise made a law against slander and provided that no passion should excuse calumny. He allowed the power to make wills, but added that persons willing should "not be wrought upon by sickness, potions, bondage, or the blandishments of a wife." The son was released from all obligations to maintain an aged father, in case that father had not bred him up to some trade. He established the public well and ordained that all who lived within four furlongs should have leave to use it. Whoever refused to maintain his parents or wasted his paternal estate was declared *infamous.* Death was the penalty for stealing but "if any man shall be convicted privately of theft, it shall be lawful for him to pay a double value," . . . and "to put him in chains five days, and as many nights, so as all men may see him bound." An archon taken in drink was punished with death. "A citizen of Athens should be tried nowhere but at Athens." Expensive funerals were forbidden, and public meals were provided for by law. He made but few laws relating to religion and none against parricide, assigning as a reason for the latter "that he scarce believed that any Athenian would be so wicked." He caused his laws to be ratified for a hundred years and had them to be preserved in different tables. Such as related to private actions were placed in parallelograms of wood with cases which reached from the ground, and turned about on a pin like a wheel. Such as concerned public orders and sacrifices were contained it triangular tables of stone."—*Edited from Newcastle.*

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14.

7. **Senate.**—Solon established a Senate of 400, which prepared the measures to be brought before the assembly.

8. **Archons** (*Arkons*).—These officers were now elected by lot from a number of candidates offered by the four tribes.*

9. **Ecclesia, or Public Assembly.**—Solon strengthened this body, which up to this time had no political functions, by giving it not only the veto power on all measures, but also the privilege of trying all magistrates at the end of the year to see if they had done their duty. Thus Solon boasted that he had made a wise division of power among the different classes.

10. **The Debtors.**—The debtor class, especially the small farmers, were in a wretched condition. They were constantly sold into slavery (see 2 Kings IV: I). Solon abolished slavery for debt, and relieved the farmers of their mortgages. Many other excellent regulations are attributed to Solon. Under him Athens seemed to be taking a step in the direction of a democracy.

11. **The Rise of Tyrants.**—There was, however, much discontent. The moderation of Solon satisfied no one. The lower classes wanted more power, the richer classes wanted to give them less.

12. **Pisistratus** (*500 B. C.*).—Finally a tyrant named Pisistratus seized the government. He, however, ruled wisely. Scholars and artists were invited to Athens, and the tyrant built temples and added to the glory of the national festivals. This was also a period of extensive colonization.

13. **Clisthenes** (*508 B. C.*).—The sons of Pisistratus having been driven out with the aid of Sparta, Clisthenes espoused the popular cause, and revised the constitution. The ten tribes into which he divided the Athenians included all the free inhabitants of Attica and some that were not wholly free.

The Ecclesia now became more powerful than ever before, for its decrees were laws, and it received the privilege of electing the archons.

Ostracism, a curious method of banishing an unpopular leader, originated with Clisthenes. This statesman may be called the founder of the Athenian democracy.

* *These tribes* were the so-called Cultivators, Warriors, Goat-herds and Artisans. Such tribes existed in all Ionic communities.—*Ficklen.*

14.

7. **Senate,** or higher council consisted, according to the arrangement of Clisthenes, of 500, and was therefore styled the senate or council of the 500. In earlier times it consisted of 400, and in later of 600 members. The 500 were chosen annually by lot, 50 from a tribe, which furnished a ready division of the senate into ten equal parts. Each of these divisions, containing 50 members, took charge of the public business for 35 or 36 days, in an order of rotation decided by lot. . . . —*Fiske*

8. **Archons.**—*In choosing the archons* and other magistrates by lot, the ordinary method was to put the names of the candidates, inscribed on brazen tablets, into an urn with black and white beans, and those whose tablets were drawn out with white beans were elected.—*Fiske.*

9. **Ecclesia.**—All classes were summoned to take part, with equal rights of voting, in the assemblies of the citizens, in which rested the real political supremacy. In these the officers of state were elected, so that only such men conducted the executive as had been intrusted with the power by the confidence of the people. In the civic assemblies votes were taken concerning organic laws and questions of war and peace. And, finally, from the same assemblies originated, by means of free election, the jury-courts, to which the decision belonged in all criminal cases relating to the public welfare, and to which, at the same time, an appeal lay for every citizen from the sentence of the judicial officers.—*Curtius.*

10. **The Debtors.**—(See Solon's Laws, p 72.)

11. **The Rise of Tyrants.**—*Moderation of Solon*—The method he took satisfied neither the poor or the rich. The latter were displeased by the canceling of their bonds, and the former at not finding a division of lands; upon this they had fixed their hopes, and they complained that he had not, like Lycurgus, made all the citizens equal in estate.—*Plutarch.*

12. **Pisistratus** was remarkably courteous, affable and liberal. He had always two or three slaves near him with bags of silver coin. When he saw any man look sickly, or heard that any died insolvent, he relieved the one and buried the other at his own expense. In short, if his virtues had been genuine, and not dissembled, with a view to the tyranny of Athens, he would (as Solon told him) have been the best citizen in it.—*Plutarch.*

13. **Clisthenes.**—*Ostracism* was not, properly speaking, a judicial punishment. It was a banishment for ten years, of such persons as were thought to be dangerous to the state. The votes were given by shells; each man marked upon his shell the name of the person he would banish; if the same name was upon the majority of 6,000 shells, the person was sentenced to banishment. . . . —*Fiske.*

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15. GREECE AT WAR WITH PERSIA, 500-479 B. C.

It has been stated that the most important event in the reign of Darius, King of the Medo-Persians, was an unsuccessful attempt to conquer Greece. Let us now consider this great war from the Grecian side.

1. **Cause of the War.**—The alleged cause of the war against Greece was the assistance given by the Greeks in the destruction of Sardis, one of the Persian capitals in Asia Minor. But the real cause was the desire of the Persian monarchs to make themselves masters of Greece and attach it to their dominions.

2. **First Expedition** (*490 B.C.*).—An expedition sent out under Mardonius failed to reach Greece. His fleet was wrecked in a hurricane and his army cut to pieces by wild Thracian tribes.

3. **Marathon** (*490 B.C.*).—In 490 another expedition, consisting of 120,000 men and 600 ships, was sent by Darius to invade Greece. At Marathon the invaders were met by 10,000 Athenians and Platæans under Miltiades. Sparta failed to send help, but in spite of the disparity of numbers, the Greeks were victorious. This was one of the "Fifteen decisive battles of the world." It decided that Greece, instead of becoming a slave to Eastern despotism, was to work out its own free civilization. It gave the Greeks confidence in themselves and nerved them for future victories. By this battle, therefore, the world was a great gainer.

4. **The Famous Rivals.**—The two leading statesmen of Athens at this epoch were Themistocles and Aristides. Aristides, known as "the Just," was a man of perfect integrity, but of too conservative a spirit. Themistocles was a far-seeing statesman, a man of genius, but he was selfish and not thoroughly honest. The policy of Aristides was to confine Athens to the land. Themistocles believed his city must become a naval power, and he urged the creation of a navy. Finally Aristides was ostracised, and the navy was built. The result proved the policy of Themistocles to be the wiser.

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15. GREECE AT WAR WITH PERSIA.

1. **Cause of the War.**—The Persian satrap of Lydia, at the instigation of Hippias, the expelled *tyrant* of Athens, sent an insolent message to the Athenians ordering them to restore Hippias to his power. . . . This impudent attempt at dictation so exasperated the Athenians that they at once determined to aid the Greeks of Asia Minor . . . and marched against Sardis, . . . and captured and burned this city before the eyes of the Persian satrap. . . . When Darius heard of the burning of Sardis, he became very much exasperated, and resolved to revenge himself upon the Athenians by invading their territory, and, if possible, to conquer all Greece. . . . Shooting an arrow into the air . . . he prayed that Ahura Mazda would aid him. . . . He caused an attendant to remind him of the conduct of the Greeks every time he sat down at table.—*Clare.*

2. **The First Expedition** of Mardonius having been frustrated, in part by a storm, in part by the opposition of . . . the Thracians, it was resolved, before a second expedition was sent out, to send heralds and summon the Greek states severally to surrender. The result of this policy was striking. The island states generally, and many of the continental ones, made their submission. Few, comparatively, rejected the overture. Athens and Sparta, however, marked their abhorence of the proposal made them in the strongest possible way. In spite of the universally received law, that the persons of heralds were sacred, they put the envoys of Darius to death, and thus place themselves beyond all possibility of further parley with the enemy.—*Rawlinson.*

3. **Marathon.**—The Athenian officers were summoned on the slope of one of the mountains that look over the plain of Marathon, on the Eastern coast of Attica. The immediate subject of their meeting was to consider whether they should give battle to an enemy that lay encamped on the shore beneath them; but on the result of their deliberations depended, not merely the fate of two armies, but the whole future progress of human civilization. . . . By a natural blending of patriotic pride with grateful piety, the very spirits of the Athenians who fell at Marathon were deified by their countrymen. The inhabitants of the district of Marathon paid religious rites to them; and orators solemnly invoked them in their most impassioned adjurations before the assembled men of Athens. "Nothing was omitted that could keep alive the remembrance of the deed which had first taught the Arthenian people to know its own strength, by measuring it with the power which had subdued the greater part of the known wor d. The consciousness thus awakened fixed its character, its station, and its destiny; it was the spring of its later great actions and ambitious enterprises.—*Creasy.*

4. **The Famous Rivals.**—A golden-winged butterfly was Themistocles, full of life, brilliant color and vivacity, while Aristides went on like the dark cocoon, spinning his deep-laid and silky threads out of men's sight silent, apart, closelipped, indefatigable. They were like two congressmen or two members of parliament from the same district—always in opposition, irreconcilable and prejudiced against each other.—*Harrison.*

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16.

5. **Xerxes** (*480 B. C.*).—Darius was succeeded by his son Xerxes, who determined to avenge the defeat at Marathon. Every portion of the Persian Empire furnished its quota of troops, and an immense navy was collected. Forty-six nations, we are told, marched across the Hellespont under the standards of the king. The land and naval force amounted at the lowest estimate to 900,000 men, and at the highest to 2,317,000. The attempt to feed this host impoverished many cities.



Athenian Youths Riding in Procession.—From Frieze of the Parthenon.

6. **Thermopylæ** (*480 B. C.*).—At Thermopylæ the Spartan Leonidas, with 300 Spartans and 6,000 allies, withstood the whole Persian army until he was surrounded and crushed by numbers. It is one of the famous battles of the world.

7. **Salamis** (*480 B. C.*).—Athens was then occupied by the enemy and burned, but the Athenians had taken refuge on board their ships. At Salamis, Themistocles, now joined by the exile Aristides, defeated the fleet of Xerxes, while the Persian himself, from a lofty cliff, looked down upon the ruin.

This great victory practically ended the Persian invasion, and great was the rejoicing throughout Greece. Immense offerings of gold and silver were vowed to the gods.

16.

5. **Xerxes.**—On the side of the Greeks the number engaged was probably about 20,000. . . . A comparison of the results now obtained will show that the disproportion between the two armies was far less than has generally been imagined. The Persian combatants were to the Greek as five to one, or possibly as six to one. This was about the proportion at Platæa; and victories have often been gained against equal or greater odds, both in ancient and modern times. —*Rawlinson's Herodotus.*

6. **Thermopylæ,** known as the Gates or Hot Gates, was hemmed in by the precipitous mountain on the one side and on the other by the marshes produced by the hot springs which formed a resort for bathers. Here was assembled a force not exceeding . . . 8,000 or 10,000 men under the Spartan Leonidas. . . . Xerxes had advanced through Thessaly, distant a few miles only from the ground occupied by the defenders of the pass. *After waiting in vain for the Greeks to retreat* he ordered his army to advance; but their efforts were vain. Troop after troop was hurled back. . . . Their spears were shorter than those of the Greeks; linen tunics were of little use in an encounter with iron-clad men; and mere numbers were a hindrance in the narrow pass. Pretending to fly, the Spartans drew the barbarians, and then, turning round, cut them down without mercy. Thrice the king leaped from his throne in terror during that terrible fight; but on the following day he renewed the onset, thinking that the enemy must be too tired to fight. The scenes of the day before were repeated, and Xerxes was wellnigh at his wits'-end when a Malian told him of a mountain pathway. . . . In some of the allies *the presence of the Persians who had found their way through the mountain* created terror; and Leonidas . . . resolved on sending all away. The Thebans and Thespians alone remained. . . . The battle which began when the signal was given was marked by fearful slaughter on the side of the barbarians, who were driven on with scourges and blows. Many fell into the sea and were drowned; many more were trampled down alive by one another. At length, overborne by sheer weight of numbers, Leonidas with other Spartans fell fighting nobly. . . . Finding themselves thus taken in the rear, the Greeks went back into the narrow part within the wall, and here, after performing prodigies of valor, the Thespians and Spartans were all cut down. . . . All were buried where they fell; and in after days the inscription over the allies recorded that 4,000 Peloponnesians fought here with 300 myriads.—*Cox.*

7. **Salamis.**—A proclamation, we are told, was issued, warning all Athenians to remove their families from the country in all possible haste; and the task of removal, to whatever extent it may have been carried, was accomplished in less than six days, for within that time, after the retreat of the Greek ships, Xerxes was master of Athens. . . . The temples on the Acropolis were burnt; but he charged the Athenian exiles . . . to make their peace with Athênê.—*Cox.*

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17. ATHENS SUPREME IN GREECE, 479-431 B. C.

1. **Confederacy of Delos** (*447 B. C.*).—To protect Greece and the Ægean cities and islands from the Persians, Athens under the leadership of Aristides, formed the confederacy of Delos. Some of the cities contributed ships; others, money. The annual assessments were made by Aristides. At first the contributions were deposited in a common treasury at the isle of Delos; but later in the treasury of Athens. As Athens controlled this fund she became more and more powerful. When the island of Naxos tried to retire from the Confederacy, Athens promptly compelled it to remain. Thus the other members of the Confederacy found themselves the vassals of Athens. The bond, at first voluntary, had become compulsory. Sparta was intensely jealous, but not strong enough as yet to interfere.

2. **Periclean Age** (*459-431 B. C.*).—Athens now entered upon one of the most brilliant periods the world has ever seen. This period took its name from the great Athenian statesman, Pericles. He fostered the growth of her naval power; he encouraged art; he built the "long walls" of Athens, and the great temple of the Parthenon on the Acropolis. Famous poets and orators began to flourish. The treasure, collected from the Confederacy, now amounted to ten million dollars, and a portion of it was used to beautify Athens. The city reached the acme of its glory.

3. **Pericles and the People.**—Further changes were made in the courts of justice and other public offices, by which the power of the democracy was increased. Soldiers and members of the assembly were paid for their services, the people were flattered by the distribution of free tickets to the theatres. Pericles boasted that no foreign power in the world could withstand the Athenian navy. This was true as long as Pericles lived.

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17. ATHENS SUPREME IN GREECE.

1. **Confederacy of Delos.**—A definite obligation, either in equipped ships of war or in money, was imposed upon every separate city, and the Athenians, as leaders, determined in which form contributions should be made by each. Their assessment must, of course, have been reviewed by the synod. They had no power at this time to enforce any regulation not approved by that body. . . . Respecting the first assessment . . . the aggregate in money was 460 talents (=about £106,000 sterling). . . . The Athenians appointed a peculiar board of officers called the Hellenotamiæ, to receive and administer the common fund. Delos was constituted the general treasury where the money was to be kept. . . . We are first struck with the magnitude of the total sum contributed, which will appear the more remarkable when we reflect that many of the contributing cities furnished ships besides.—*Grote.*

2. **Periclean Age.**—But one might ransack human history from one end of it to another without ever finding such greatness of soul, such equanimity of spirit, such high-mindedness, such noble devotion to one's country as Pericles . . . showed. One might ransack . . . history without finding more than one example—our immortal Washington—who surpassed him in sagacity and success, and in the grand ambition of lifting his fellow-men to the loftiest level of intelligence and patriotism. . . . Pericles was filled with the noblest devotion to poetry, art and knowledge, and stimulated in his people the same love—a love which survived in imperishable poems, histories, statues and sanctuaries, long after their military glory had passed and gone forever. In this way he made Athens the noblest text book to after generations, filling it, not with libraries or store-houses of learning, but with beautiful objects and eloquent memorials of the cunning of Greek fingers, with bright and active life, with instructive public amusements, and with reverent and enobling forms of worship. Temples, porticos and colonnades sprang up and soon swarmed with the exquisite and tranquil creations of Greek chisels. Pictures in public places revealed what great things the gods had done for Athens in the days of yore, and what memorable triumphs her generals and admirals had won by field and flood. A group of divinely gifted poets . . . awoke as if by enchantment and made the air of Greece tuneful with sweet and mighty song. The playwriters wrote series after series of unrivaled plays, which were performed, at the expense of the State, in the open air theatre of Dionysus, under the Acropolis, before throngs upon throngs of eager listeners.—*Harrison.*

The Parthenon.—*In this temple* was the Statue of Athênê, 47 feet in height. It was made by Phidias of ivory and gold. The golden robes were valued at $50,000.—*Fickler.*

3. **Pericles and the People.**—At last the contest came on between him and Thucydides, which of them should be banished by the *ostracism.* Pericles gained the victory, banished his adversary, and entirely defeated his party. The opposition now being at an end and unanimity taking place among all ranks of people, Pericles became sole master of Athens, and its dependencies.—*Plutarch.*

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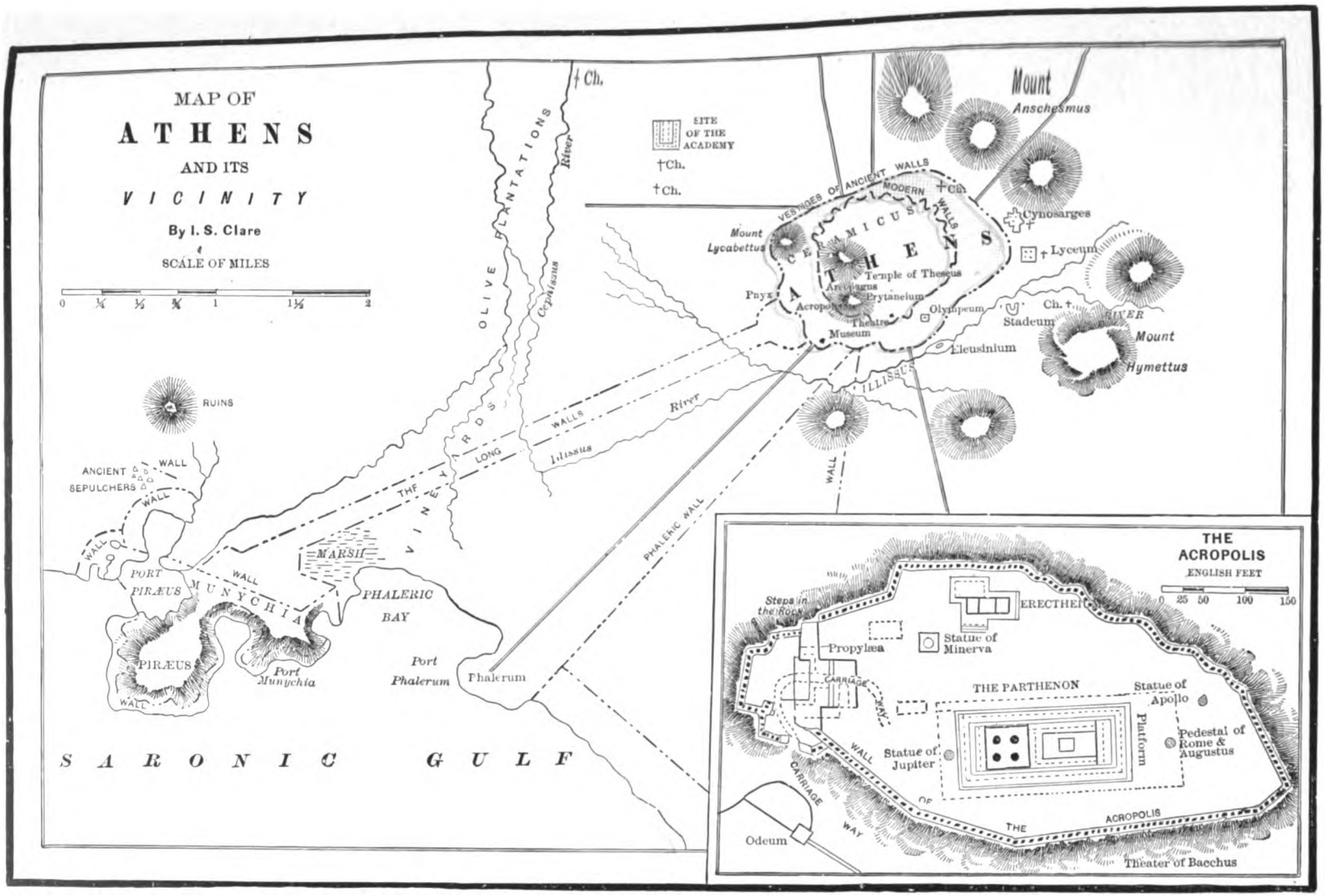

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ACROPOLIS AT ATHENS.

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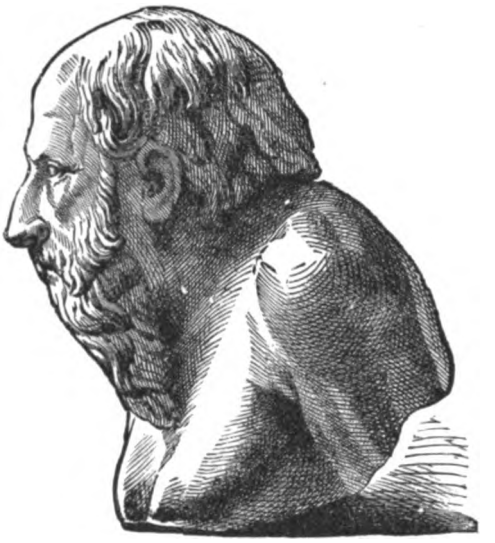
18. PELOPONNESIAN WAR. 431-404 B. C.

1. The cause of the war was the jealousy of Sparta aroused by the growth of Athens. The occasion of the breaking out of hostilities was the interference of Athens with the allies of Sparta.

Athens had the better navy; Sparta had the better army.

2. **Sparta invades Attica.**—In 431 B. C. Sparta sent an army into Attica. Pericles, after gathering all the people and their flocks within the long walls, shut the gates of the cities, and sent out naval expeditions to harass the coast of Peloponnesus. As a result of the lack of sanitation, the plague raged in Athens and carried off one fourth of the citizens. Thucydides, who recovered from this pest, has left us a minute description of it. Its most illustrious victim was Pericles himself, who died in 429 B. C.



Diogenes.

3. **The Demagogues.**—After the death of Pericles, the war went on with varying success. But there were no more wise statesmen in Athens. Instead there arose a number of demagogues, who won popularity by flattering the baser elements of the assembly, which now became a noisy and often vindictive mob. The worst of these demagogues was Cleon, a tanner, who often excited the assembly to pass most unwise measures. Pericles' policy of making every citizen a politician was working badly, now that there was no good man at the helm. Moreover, Athens had treated the members of the Confederacy as vassals rather than as free allies; so that they had no love for her and were generally ready to revolt. It is wiser to found an empire on the good will of the governed than on force. Could Athens, however, have pursued another policy?

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18. PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

1. **Cause.**—While Athens thus established herself in the eyes of the Greeks generally, and still more of foreigners, as the foremost power in Greece, Sparta declined, partly in consequence of her want of enterprise, but still more from the losses which she suffered through the great revolt of her Helots (*B. C. 464*), and the ten years' war which was requisite for the subjugation. As she declined, she grew more and more jealous of the power that had taken her place, and resolved on a prolonged and desperate effort to recover her ancient position. The Peloponnesian War had many minor provocations, but its main cause was Spartan jealousy—the determination to crush a hated rival, who had outstripped her on the path of glory. Among minor causes, probably the chief was the commercial rivalry of Corinth, which found herself entirely shut out from the East, and greatly hampered in the West, by the constant growth and increase of Athenian influence.—*Rawlinson.*

2. **Sparta invades Attica.**—Immediately after the vernal equinox the Spartan army again appeared in Attica. . . . But they had not been many days in the land when they learned that their enemies were being smitten by a power more terrible than their own. . . . A strange disease had been stalking westwards from its starting-post in Nubia or Ethiopia. It had worked its way through Egypt and Libya; it had ranged over a great part of the Persian empire. . . . The houses in Athens itself were filled with country folk to whom their owners had given hospitality; and in the empty spaces within the walls a vast population was crowded with no shelter beyond tents and stifling huts. . . . The physicians hastened to the aid of the sufferers; and they were the first to fall victims to the plague. . . . In the crowded space between the walls lay men, women and children, some in a state of passive stupor, others racked with the fearful pains which attended the early stages of the disease, others whom an intolerable thirst had fevered into madness. Entangled with the dying and the dead, these wretched sufferers fought their way with frantic vehemence to the rain-water tanks, into which they flung themselves.—*Cox.*

Pericles.—When he was dying, some one praised his many great deeds, but he roused himself to say: "My real pride is that no Athenian ever wore mourning through me."—*Ficklen.*

3. **The Demagogues.**—*The Peloponnesian War* lasted twenty seven years, from B. C. 431 to B. C. 404. It extended itself over almost the entire

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Grecian world, affecting almost every state from Selinus, at the extreme west of Sicily to Cnidus and Rhodes, in the Eastern Ægean. It was a war for supremacy between two rivals whose strength was very fairly balanced, Sparta having the advantage by land and Athens by sea. Sparta having tenacity, military training and amount of armed force on her side, while Athens had mobility, elasticity, enterprise and much superior maritime skill. The strength of Athens lay on the eastern, that of Sparta on the western side of Greece, and the main efforts of the rivals were directed to increasing their own strength and diminishing that of their adversaries in the quarter where they were weakest. Hence, the main Athenian attacks were on Cephallenia, Ætolia, Pylos and Sicily; the main Spartan ones on Chalcidicé and the Greek cities in Asia.—*Rawlinson.*

QUESTIONS FOR WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. *Who was the first to codify the Athenian laws? Give the leading features of the laws of Draco? Why did they become unpopular? How did Solon prepare himself for a legislator? What was his power? How were debtors treated? Give the leading features of Solon's laws? Compare the laws of Solon with those of Lycurgus? What was the ultimate aim of each? How did they differ with respect to individual rights? Which set of laws do you consider preferable? Why?*

14. *What were the methods of electing the Senate? What were the duties of the Senate? How were the Archons chosen? What was the ecclesia? How constituted? What was the feeling towards Solon? Compare Solon and Lycurgus with reference to their treatment by the populace? What is your idea of Pisistratus? Clisthenes? What was meant by ostracism? Who originated the custom? Name the four original tribes of Athens? How many classes of citizens? What were they? Who wrote the severe code of laws of which it was said, "They were written in blood instead of ink"?*

15. *What was the pretended cause of the invasion of Greece by the Persians? The real cause? What were the results of the first expedition? Give an account of the battle of Marathon? Why is it considered one of the great battles of the world? Give Harrison's comparison of the two great rivals? What is your opinion of the relative merits and demerits of the conduct of the Greeks and Persians? What in your opinion would have been the results on mankind in general had the Greeks been defeated?*

16. *How did the number of soldiers compare engaged on the two sides? Compare the leading men engaged on each side? Give a general account of the battle of Thermopylæ? Salamis? Find the battlefields on the map? What were some of the lessons taught the Greeks by this war? Why were the Greeks successful? Why were the Persians unsuccessful? Name some of the benefits resulting to the human race by the success of the Greeks?*

17. *What was the character and function of the Confederacy of Delos? Was its establishment on the whole of great benefit to Greece? How was it supported? How does the Periclean Age rank in relative importance? Name some of the noted improvements? Who opposed Pericles? What was the standing of Pericles with the people? In your opinion what were the most important acts of Pericles' rule? Why?*

18. *What was the real cause of the Peloponnesian war? The pretended cause? What was the origin of the plague which now infested Athens? Give a general account of it? What were the last words of Pericles? How long did the war last? Give the place and method of attack? Why? What were in your opinion the strong points of the Athenians? The Spartans?*



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19.

4. **Alcibiades.**—This famous man now rose to prominence. He was thoroughly reckless and unprincipled, but so brilliant as a speaker and so handsome, that he became the petted darling of the Athenians.

5. **Sicilian Expedition** (*412-413, B.C.*).—While a nominal armistice was existing between Athens and Sparta, Alcibiades persuaded the Athenians to fit out an immense expedition against Syracuse. "All Athens sailed out of the Piræus (the chief harbor of the city) never again to return." Never before had such an armament left a Grecian port. There were in all over 200 triremes, 500 transports, and 6,000 troops. Through ill-fortune and the incompetency of the commanders, the whole expedition ended in complete failure and disaster. It was the death knell of Athens' political power. Creasy regards the struggle before Syracuse as one of the "Fifteen decisive battles of the world."

6. **Ægos-Potamos** (*405 B.C.*).—Finally the Athenian dependencies revolted in large numbers, and at Ægos-Potamos on the Hellespont, the Spartans, under Lysander, with the aid of Persia, captured the whole Athenian fleet. "That night," Xenophon tells us, "no man slept at Athens." The city itself, blockaded by land and sea, soon fell into the hands of the allies. The "long walls" were destroyed, and the Peloponnesian War was at an end.



Vase, Exhumed at Cyprus by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter.

19.

4. **Alcibiades.** — The truth is, his prodigious liberality, the games he exhibited, and the other extraordinary instances of his munificence to the people, the glory of his ancestors, the beauty of his person, and the force of his eloquence, together with his heroic strength, his valor and his experience in war, so gained upon the Athenians, that they connived at his errors, and spoke of them with all imaginable tenderness, calling them sallies of youth, and good humored frolics.—*Plutarch.*

5. **Sicilian Expedition.**—The success of this attempt would have completely destroyed the balance of power in Greece, and have made Athens irresistible. The project, though perhaps somewhat overbold, would probably have succeeded, had the task of carrying it through to the end been intrusted to the genius which conceived it. Unfortunately for Athens, she was forced to choose between endangering her liberties by maintaining Alcibiades in power and risking the failure of an expedition to which she was too far committed for her to be able to recede. The recall of Alcibiades was injurious to Athens in various ways. It deprived her of her best general, and of the only statesman she possessed who was competent to deal with all the peculiar difficulties of the expedition. It made Sparta fully acquainted with the Athenian scheme for the management of Sicilian affairs, and so enabled her to counteract them. Finally, it transferred to the enemy the most keen and subtle intellect of the time, an intellect almost certain to secure success to the side which it espoused. Still, if the choice lay (as probably it did) between accepting Alcibiades as tyrant and driving him into exile, we must hold Athens justified in the course which she took.—*Rawlinson.*

6. **Ægos-Potamos.** — The very greatness of Athens was the cause of her downfall. Her splendor could not dazzle the eyes of her allies. They saw that it was the treasury of the league which bore the expense of temples, theaters, and festivals. They even saw their money brought into the theater on feast days and distributed to the common people of Athens; the sight did not increase their devotion. But folly led to disaster, and after twenty-seven years of fighting the end came.—*Vincent and Joy.*

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20. SPARTA SUPREME, 404-361 B. C.

1. After Ægos-Potamos, Sparta held the leadership of Greece for a generation; but her overbearing conduct aroused the indignation of Greece. Especially was



The Lion's Gate, Exhumed at Cyprus by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter.

this the case when, by the peace of Antalcidas (387), Sparta made concessions to Artaxerxes, king of Persia, and allowed him to dictate the policy of the Grecian States.

2. **Thebes.**—Thebes now came to the front under her famous general, Epaminondas, the greatest commander of his day. At the battle of Leuctra (371), he crushed the Spartan army and "made all Greece free." The supremacy of Thebes, however, lasted only during the lifetime of Epaminondas. He fell at the battle of Mantinea (362).

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20. SPARTA SUPREME.

1. **The Triumph of Sparta** was the triumph throughout Greece of oligarchial principles. At Athens the democracy was abolished, and the entire control of the government placed in the hands of a Board of Thirty—a board which has acquired in history the ominous name of "the Thirty Tyrants." . . . The Greeks found that, instead of gaining by the change of masters, they had lost; they had exchanged the yoke of a power which, if rapacious, was at any rate refined, civilized, and polished, for that of one which added to rapacity a course of arrogance and a cruel harshness which were infinitely exasperating and offensive.—*Rawlinson.*

2. **Thebes.**—*Epaminondas* now stands forth as a leader of rare excellence, destined to achieve the greatest military reputation of any Greek before or since his time, with the exception of Alexander the Great—a kind of Gustavus Adolphus, introducing new tactics into Grecian warfare. He was in the prime of life, belonging to a poor but honorable family. . . . He had acquired great reputation for his gymnastic exercises, and was the most cultivated man in Thebes, a good musician, and a still greater orator. He learned to play on both the lyre and flute from the teachings of the best masters, sought the conversation of the learned, but was especially eloquent in speech, and effective, even against the best Athenian opponents.—*Lord.*

When the enemies of Epaminondas once had him elected to the office of public scavenger, he declared: "If the office will not reflect honor on me, I will reflect honor on it."—*Ficklen.*

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21. MACEDONIAN PERIOD, 338-146 B. C.

1. Exhausted Greece fell an easy victim to a new and vigorous power from the north. This was Macedonia, of which country Philip was king. This famous monarch now began to interfere in the affairs of Greece. The Greeks had sadly degenerated, but Demosthenes, the great orator, by his burning addresses, persuaded the Athenians to take some measure of defense. At Chacronea, in Bœotia (338 B.C.), however, Philip defeated the Athenians and Thebans, and made himself virtually master of Greece.



Exhumations at Cyprus by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter.

2. **Alexander the Great.**—As Philip was about to invade Persia, he was assassinated, and his son Alexander succeeded him. After asserting his power in Greece, Alexander marched on that victorious expedition through the Persian empire into India which has made his name so famous. Many of his generals were Greeks, and his army was largely composed of Greek hoplites. Thus it was not without pride that Greece watched his victorious career. At Issus and Arbela (331) the Persians were defeated, and Alexander found himself at the head of the greatest empire the world had ever seen.

3. **Decline and Fall of Greece** (*338-146 B.C.*).—After the division of Alexander's empire, Macedonia continued to claim supremacy over Greece, but amid the many revolts it proved a difficult task.

4. **The Leagues.**—The study of the political history of Greece during this period is interesting. Because of their resistance to Macedonia, some of the Greek states made a brilliant attempt at a federal union. This was shown in the formation of the Achæan and Ætolian leagues, the former of which bears some resemblance to our American federal union. The principle of representation, however, was not known to the ancient world.

Finally, in 146 B.C., Rome, which was making herself mistress of the world, absorbed Greece and made it a Roman province. By her arts and sciences, however, Greece, it has been truly said, made a conquest of her conqueror.

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21. MACEDONIAN PERIOD.

1. **Philip** gained this great power more from the weakness and dissensions of the Grecian States than from his own strength, great as were his talents. He became the arbiter of Greece by unscrupulous perjury and perpetual intrigues; but he was a great organizer, and created a most efficient army. . . . Demosthenes was his great opponent, but only in councils and speech.—*Lord.*

2. **Alexander the Great.**—On hearing of the death of the wife of Darius, whom he had just captured, it is said that the concern of Alexander was great "because he lost an opportunity of exercising his clemency."—*Plutarch.*

3. **Decline and Fall of Greece.**—A council of Alexander's leading officers, at his death, . . . divided all the real authority among themselves, under the title of lieutenants, or viceroys.—*Clare.*

4. **Achæan League.**— . . . Many neighboring towns which admired the constitution of this republic, founded on equality, liberty, the love of justice and of the public good, were incorporated with the Achæans and admitted to the full enjoyment of their laws and privileges. The Achæan League affords the most perfect example in antiquity of the federal form of government; and, allowing for the differences of time and place, its resemblance to that of the United States government is very remarkable.—*Britannica.*

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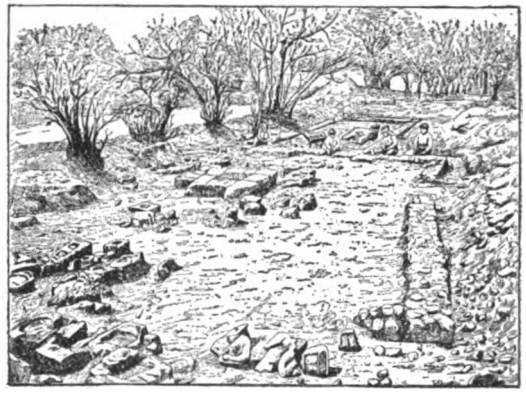
22. GREEK CIVILIZATION.

1. While Rome has handed down to us models of law and goverment, the great contribution of Greece to the world's civilization was in art and letters. No nation has ever possessed a more exquisite sense of beauty than the Greeks. With them beauty was an object of worship. Clearness of outline and perfect proportion marked all their creations in art and literature. "Nothing in excess," was their motto.



Exhumations at Cyprus by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter.

2. **Architecture.**—The oldest form of Greek architecture is the Pelasgian, remains of which are found in the excavations at Mycenæ.

The orders of architecture in the Greek temples are three: The Doric, which is severe and simple; the Ionic, which is more graceful; and the Corinthian, which is the most ornamental of all. They are distinguished chiefly by the form of the capital. The most famous temples were that of Delphi, the Parthenon at Athens, that of Diana at Ephesus, and the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus. The two last were placed among the "seven wonders of the world." A portion of the frieze of the Parthenon may be seen in the British museum.

3. **Sculpture and Painting.**—In sculpture, the Greeks delighted to represent not only the victors in the games, but also their gods and heroes. Only a few names of artists among a multitude can be mentioned. The most famous in delineating the form, both human and divine, was perhaps Phidias in the age of Pericles. Later came Praxiteles, who made the Chidian Aphrodite, and Charos, who made the Colossus of Rhodes. This Colossus was one of the "seven wonders." Among the most famous of the remains of Greek sculpture are the Venus of Milo at Paris, and the Venus de Medici at Florence. These are priceless models for all artists.

4. **Painting.**—Of Greek painting we have no remains except some recently discovered portraits and the decorations on vases and walls. But there were many famous works of which we have descriptions. The most distinguished names are those of Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Apelles. The last was an artist attached to the court of Alexander.

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22. GREEK CIVILIZATION.

1. **Sense of Beauty.**—It would appear that in all departments and in all the developments of Art, the Greeks were the teachers of the modern European nations, as well as the ancient Romans; and their teaching will be invaluable to all the nations which are yet to arise, since no great improvement has been made on the models which have come down to us, and no new principles have been discovered which were not known to them. In everything which pertains to Art they were benefactors of the human race, and gave a great impulse to civilization.—*Lord.*

The Greeks surpassed all other peoples in the keenness and discipline of their sense of beauty. This was a radical trait, one of those through which they have most influenced subsequent ages. All classical art was essentially Greek, whether originating in Rome, Magna Græcia or Eutruria, though early Etruscan betrays marked oriental influence. No proper Roman school or Christian school ever rose. Under Augustus, under Hadrian even, few other than Greek artists wrought, none but Greek models and traditions were followed.—*Andrews.*

2. **Architecture.**—The plan of a Greek temple may be said to present many of the same elements as that of an Egyptian temple, but, so to speak, turned inside out Columns are relied on by the Greek artist, as they were by the Egyptian artist, as a means of giving effect; but they are placed by him outside the building instead of within its courts and halls. The Greek, starting with a comparatively small nucleus formed by the cell and the treasury, encircles them by a magnificent girdle of pillars, and so makes a grand structure. The disposition of these columns, and of the great range of steps, or stylobote, is the most marked feature in Greek temple plans. . . . In the greater number of Greek buildings a degree of precision is exhibited to which the

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Egyptians did not attain. All right angles are absolutely true; the setting-out (or spacing) of the different columns, piers, openings, etc., is perfectly exact; and, in the Parthenon, the patient investigation of Mr. Penrose and other skilled observers have disclosed a degree of accuracy as well as refinement which resembles the precision with which astronomical instruments are adjusted in Europe at the present day, rather than the rough and ready measurements of a modern mason or bricklayer. . . . Could we see the great theater of Athens, as it was when perfect, we should probably find that as an interior it was almost unrivaled, alike for convenience and for beauty; and for these excellences it was mainly indebted to the elegance of its planning. *The actual floor* of many of the Greek temples appears to have been of marble of different colors. . . . The construction of the walls of the Greek temples rivaled that of the Egyptians in accuracy and beauty of workmanship and resembled them in the use of solid materials. . . . The pediment, or gable, of a temple is a grand development of the walls and perhaps the most striking of the additions which the Greeks made to the resources of the architect. It offers a fine field for sculpture and adds real and apparent height beyond anything that the Egyptians ever attempted since the days of the pyramid builders; and it has remained in constant use to the present hour. . . . We do not hear of towers being attached to buildings. . . . Height does not seem to have commended itself to the mind of the Greek architect as necessary to the buildings which he designed. . . . It is almost certain that the roofs of Greek temples were in some way so made as to admit light. They were framed of timber and covered by tiles, often, if not always, of marble. It is hardly necessary to add that the Greek theaters were not roofed. . . . The most important characteristic of the openings in Greek buildings is that they were flat topped—covered by a lintel of stone or marble, and never arched. . . . The columns, together with the superstructure or entablature, which they customarily carried, were the prominent parts of Greek architecture, occupying, as they did, the entire height of the building.—*Edited from T. Roger Smith.*

3. Sculpture.—It is certain that the Greeks made models (of clay) for their works. Genuine antique models, in clay, of detached figures, can be proven. Images of the divinities were anciently made for the poor of Gypsum. Edifices and statues were made of wood earlier than of stone or marble. In the earliest ages, carving in ivory had been practiced by the Greeks. There were nearly a hundred statues of ivory and gold, the greater number of which belonged to the earlier periods of art, and were larger than life. Even in a small place in Arcadia there was a beautiful statue of Æsculapius, and in Achaia there was also an image of Pallas, both of ivory and gold. The first stone of which statues were made was a kind of tufa of a whitish color, and at first the head, hands and feet of wooden figures were formed of white marble. Later, the practice of painting marble figures so as to represent the dress, originated. Among the Greeks the kinds of marble most celebrated were the Parian and the Pentelic; and even at the present day the two principal varieties of Greek marble are observable in statues. Statues of bronze seem to have been made in Italy much earlier than in Greece. The Greeks attained to great perfection in the art of engraving gems. It is said that at first the Greeks used as a seal a piece of wood that had been perforated by worms. Glass was applied to a greater variety of purposes among the ancients than it has been by the moderns. Besides the common vessels it was used for the preservation of the ashes of the dead, in covering the floors of rooms, for receiving the impressions molded from gems, and the splendid vases variously ornamented.—*Edited from Winckelmann.*

4. Painting.—As for the relation of ancient Greek painting to modern painting as it has been practiced since the sixteenth century, we may be sure . . . that if it were granted us to look upon some great series of masterpieces by a Greek artist, we should not be struck by any technical shortcomings in his work, but should place it without hesitation by the side of the most finished performances of all times or races.—*Waltmann and Woermann.*

PARRHASIUS AND ZEUXIS had a contest. The latter painted some grapes so perfectly that birds came to peck at them. He then called on Parrhasius to draw aside the curtain and show his picture, but, finding that his rival's picture was the curtain itself, he acknowledged himself surpassed, for Zeuxis had deceived birds, but Parrhasius had deceived Zeuxis.—*Britannica.*

Greek painting never reached a higher point than it had gained at the beginning of the Helenistic age. Every kind of painting except landscape painting had been practiced by Greek artists. . . . But we have no reason to believe that Greek landscape painting was ever more than scenic or decorative work, and thus fell far short of what is now the standard for such painting.—*Clement.*

THE ORIGIN OF THE ARTS OF GREECE has been generally ascribed by her own early records and traditions to Egyptian influences. The evidence derived from the style of art followed at this early period tends to confirm tradition. The earliest coins of Greek work with the head of Athênê show a striking resemblance to the heads of Isis. . . . In painting, the absence of all attempt to represent shadow, either in the forms or in the cast shadow, and the use of a strong, black outline, sometimes incised and having the color filled in as a flat tint, are other points of affinity between the early Greek work and the Egyptian. But it is important to bear in mind, in a historical consideration of the question, that it was in Ionia that the arts were promoted long before Athens had begun to show any advance; and all the names handed down by tradition . . . are those of sculptors working in the islands near the Asiatic shore and in the towns upon the mainland. Thus, in the objects found by Cesnola in Cyprus . . . the resemblance to the art of Assyria is remarkable.—*Redford.*

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23.

5. **Literature.**—It is a high tribute to the literature of the Greeks to say that it is not inferior to their sculpture. It was the most valuable literature produced by the ancient world; some scholars even maintain its superiority to that of the modern world. To appreciate the value of this literature, as of any literature, the works of the authors themselves must be read.



Menander—Visconte.

The general division of the literature is into three periods: (1) The period before 475 B.C.; (2) the Periclean or Golden Age, 475-300 B.C.; (3) the Alexandrine, 300 to Roman Conquest 146 B.C.

6. **Epic and Lyric Poetry.**—In period 1 belong Homer and Hesiod, who were both epic poets. Among the lyric poets were Alcæus and Sappho. The latter was called by Plato "the tenth muse." Only fragments of these lyric poets remain.

7. **Drama.**—Period 2 was a period of national greatness at Athens. It was then the drama flourished as never before. Of the dramatists the most famous were Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides and Aristophanes. Many of their works have come down to us. In this period, also, flourished the philosophers, Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. Aristotle's philosophy has controlled the thinking world for two thousand years. Socrates by his teaching and his tragic death has not yet ceased to have a profound influence upon the history of mankind. His philosophy is almost Christian in its purity and elevation. He left no works, but an exposition of his doctrines may be found in Plato and Xenophon.

23.

5. **Literature.**—The period of decadence in Greek literature begins with the extinction of free political life in the Greek cities. . . . The market place, the assembly, the theatre, were places, of frequent meeting, where the sense of citizenship was quickened. . . . Poetry, music, sculpture, literature, art, in all their forms, were matters of public interest.—*Jebb.*

5. **Epic and Lyric Poetry.**—HOMER (about 1000 B.C.) was an Asiatic Greek, whose name has become immortal. The *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* are the grandest epics ever written The first contains the story of the siege of Troy; the second narrates the wanderings of Ulysses, king of Ithaca, on his return from the Trojan Conquest. Homer's style is simple, artistic, clear and vivid. It abounds in sublime description, delicate pathos, pure domestic sentiment, and noble conceptions of character. . . . HESIOD wrote two long poems, *Works and Days*, and *Theogony*. In the former he details his agricultural experiences, enriching them with fable, allegory, and moral reflections; the latter gives an account of the origin and history of the thirty thousand Grecian gods, and the creation of the world. . . . SAPPHO sought to elevate her country women, and drew around her a circle of gifted poetesses whose fame spread with hers throughout Greece. . . . —*Steele.*

7. **Drama.**—Dramatic poetry was raised to a great height by the three great Athenian tragic poets—Æschylus, Euripides and Sophocles—all of whom were in some way connected with the battle of Salamis. Æschylus fought in the battle; Sophocles, at the age of fifteen, danced to the choral song of Simonides in honor of the victory; and Euripides was born in Salamis on the day of the battle. . . . —*Clare.*

ARISTOTLE lived with the "king of the Macedonians, as both a physician and a friend." He was the most eminent of all the pupils of Plato, had a lisping voice, very thin legs, small eyes; indulged in very conspicuous dress and rings "and used to dress his hair carefully." While he was absent on an embassy to Philip on behalf of the Athenians, Xenocrates became the president of the school in the Academy; and that when he returned and saw the school under the presidency of some one else, he selected a promenade in the Lyceum, in which he used to walk up and down with his disciples, discussing subjects of philosophy till the time for anointing themselves came, on which account he was called a *Peripatetic.* Alexander was his pupil, and he afterwards presided over a school at Athens for thirteen years.—*Edited from Laërtius.*

SOCRATES was an Athenian and "paid great attention to the training of the body and was always in excellent condition himself." "Even while in prison, he delivered those beautiful discourses which we still possess." He prided himself upon the simplicity of his way of life; and never exacted any pay from his pupils. Among his sayings are the following: When he was told that "The Athenians have condemned you to death," he replied, "And nature has condemned them."

"It is not absurd to learn anything one does not know." Very often, while arguing and discussing points that arose, he was treated with great violence and beaten. Some one expressed surprise that he should bear it, when he replied, "Suppose an ass had kicked me, would you have had me bring suit against him?"—*Laërtius.*

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24.

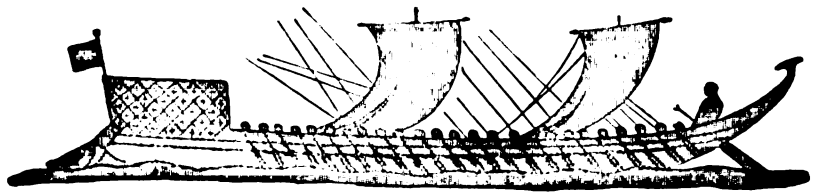
8. **Stoics and Epicureans.**—Partly to Period 2 and partly to Period 3 belong Zeno, the founder of the Stoics; and Epicurus, founder of the Epicureans.

The Stoics taught men to bear joy and pain with equanimity. In morals their precept was: Be virtuous because it is your duty.

The Epicureans taught that pleasure is the object of life, but true pleasure is to be obtained only through virtue. Hence their precept was: Be virtuous that you may be truly happy. The followers of Epicurus often abused his precept by forgetting virtue.

9. **To History** in Period 2 belong also the great historians, Herodotus, Thucydides and Xenophon. Reference to their works has already been made.

10. **Oratory.**—Themistocles and Pericles were both distinguished in oratory, and owed their influence over the people to this gift. But the most famous of all the orators— perhaps the most famous of all time—was Demosthenes, who tried to save Greece in the time of Philip. Many of his orations survive.



Fifty-Oared Greek Boat.

As the Greeks were fond of the drama and of oratory, these forms of literature were highly developed among them. They served as vehicles of education. It has been often declared that at Athens, in the best days of the republic, the general average of intelligence was superior to that of any modern nation.

Period 3.—Alexandrine, so called because after the division of Alexander's empire the city of Alexandria, which he had founded in Egypt, became the nucleus of Greek culture and learning. It was a period of decline, however. Skepticism was taking the place of the old faith, and no works of real originality were produced.

24.

8. **Stoics and Epicureans. — Stoics,** so-called from the painted corridor on the north side of the market place at Athens, . . . But, though it arose on Hellenic soil, from lectures delivered in a public place at Athens, the school is scarcely to be considered a product of purely Greek intellect, but rather as the first fruits of that interaction between West and East which followed the conquests of Alexander.—*Hicks.*

Epicureans.—Epicurus himself had not apparently shared in any large or liberal culture, and his influence was certainly thrown on the side of those who depreciated purely scientific pursuits as one-sided and misleading. "Steer clear of all culture," was his advice to young disciples. In this aversion to a purely or mainly intellectual training may be traced a recoil from the systematic metaphysics of Plato and Aristotle. . . . It seemed to many as well as to Epicurus that the the philosophy of Plato and Aristotle led to an aristocracy of intellect, but not to a commonwealth of happiness and goodness.—*Wallace.*

9. **History.**—Greek historical writing arose in the fifth century before Christ. The only records of the past prior to this period were the legends and fables of the poets and the uncertain accounts transmitted from age to age by tradition. . . . Herodotus, the first Greek historian was born in Asia Minor. . . . After forming the design of writing history, he traveled for materials into Egypt and Italy and also into different parts of Asia. . . . After giving an account of all that he had seen and learned, in nine books, he read part of it to the Greeks assembled at the Olympic Games, and thus acquired a wider and more immediate fame. . . . Thucydides was born in Athens and wrote the history of the Peloponnesian wars; and the plague at Athens which he personally witnessed. . . . His history, written in the Attic dialect and consisting of eight books, is much admired for its vigorous and lively descriptions, its scrupulous regard for truth, and the spirit of frankness and impartiality pervading the entire narrative. . . . Xenophon was born at Athens, and was a disciple of Socrates. . . . He lived in comparative obscurity until he was fifty years of age, when he was persuaded to go to Sardis, where he joined the Greek auxiliaries. . . . His chief works are his *Memorabilia* (Memoirs of Socrates); *Cyropaedia* (Institutions of Cyrus the Great); *Anabasis* (Expedition of the younger Cyrus); *Hellenica* (continuation of Thucydides' unfinished history of Greece) and other works.—*Clare.*

10. **Oratory—Demosthenes** was left in affluent circumstances but was wronged by his guardians, part of his fortune being embezzled by them, and

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the rest neglected; insomuch that even his teachers were defrauded of their salaries. This was the reason that he did not obtain the liberal education that he should have had; besides, that on account of weakness and delicate health, his mother would not let him exert himself, and his teachers forbore to urge him. He was meagre and sickly from the first. . . . But when he first addressed himself to the people, he met with great discouragements, and was derided for his strange and uncouth style, which was cumbered with long sentences and tortured with formal arguments to a most harsh and disagreeable excess. Besides, he had, it seems, a weakness in his voice, a perplexed and indistinct utterance and a shortness of breath, which, by breaking and disjointing his sentences, much obscured the sense and meaning of what he spoke. . . . He admitted frankly enough, that he neither entirely wrote his speeches beforehand, nor yet spoke wholly extempore. And he would affirm, that it was the more truly popular act to use premeditation such preparation being a kind of respect to the people; whereas to slight and take no care how what is said is likely to be received by the audience, shows something of an oligarchical temper.—*Plutarch.*

11. **Modern Greece.**—*Education* has been a passion with the Greeks; they have regarded it as a sacred duty, and have made great sacrifices for it. The revival of the national spirit during and after the French Revolution displayed itself first of all in the increased intellectual activity of the race; and their independence was the result and reward of this. The war destroyed many schools and several valuable libraries in the Peloponnesus and in Hellas; and it was one of the chief cares of the emancipated Greeks . . . to restore what had been lost. In the year 1833 the Barbarians found seventy-one communal schools in working order, as well as thirty-nine higher or "Hellenic" schools; and they immediately gave effect to the national bent by establishing colleges, gymnasia, and (in 1837) the University of Athens. . . . It might be adventurous to predict for Greece a renewal for her ancient literary glories; but there is little reason to doubt that she will one day prove herself to be worthy of her illustrious ancestry.—*Sergeant.*

QUESTIONS FOR WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. *Give the leading characteristics of Alcibiades? Why was the Sicilian expedition undertaken? What was the position of the Athenians in reference to Alcibiades? How did the war against Syracuse terminate? The Peloponnesian war? Carefully note the points during the war favoring the Athenians? The Spartans?*

20. *How long did Sparta hold the leadership? Briefly recount the events leading up to the supremacy of Sparta and decide for yourself the causes which brought about the change? In what respects did Athens excel Sparta? In what respects did Sparta surpass Athens? What power next became supreme? Give the leading points in the life of Epaminondas? How long did the supremacy of Thebes continue?*

21. *Why was it that Macedonia found Greece an easy victim? Give the account of Philip? Who succeeded him? On the death of Alexander what became of his kingdom? Give your opinion of the causes which led to the growth of Alexander's empire? The causes of its downfall? What was the Achæan League? What was its function and character?*

22. *What seems true of the Greek sense of beauty? What was their motto? Name the orders of Greek architecture? Name the leading features of Greek sculpture? How does Greek painting compare with other nations? Make a summary showing the leading features of Greek architecture? Of sculpture? Of Greek painting? Where did they display greatest skill in each of these arts? What influence on their religion? Daily life?*

23. *Discuss the general character of Greek literature? Name the periods into which it is divided? Name three leading dramatists with the characteristics of each? What may be said of Socrates? Aristotle? Homer? Hesiod? Sappho? How does Grecian literature rank? Compare Greece with any or all of the countries studied? What in your opinion were the principal causes which led to the development of their literature? In what ways did important battles influence the development of certain kinds of literatnre? How did the literature of the Heroic age differ from that of the Periclean Age?*

24. *What was the doctrine of the Stoics? The Epicureans? Name some of the leading historians and their writings? What does Plutarch state in reference to Demosthenes? Give Sergeants statement in reference to modern Greece?*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Ac'arnā'nia.—A province of ancient Greece, now called Carnia. The chief town was Stratos, and subsequently Leucas.

Achæ'an.—The early inhabitants of Achaia were called Achæans. Also the name was given to the tribes occupying other states, particularly Argos and Sparta. Somewhat indefinitely used.

Achæ'an League.—The Achæan commonwealth consisted of twelve inconsiderable towns in Peloponnesus. (See p. 85).

Acrop'olis.—A word signifying a citadel or a chief place of a city; more particularly a Greek city. However, these citadels were found elsewhere. The most celebrated was that at Athens. Besides other beautiful edifices Athens contained the temple of the virgin goddess Athênê, the most glorious monument of ancient Grecian architecture.

Æ'gospota'mus.—A small river entering the Hellespont to the north of Sestos, with a town of the same name at its mouth.

Æ'sculā'pius.—The god of medicine and son of Apollo. He was educated by the centaur Chiron, who taught him the art of healing; and his skill enabled him to cure the most desperate diseases.

Ætō'lian League.—A league formed as a counter alliance to the Achæan League, from which its constitution was copied.

A'hura-Maz'da.—The supreme god, according to the teachings of Zoroaster.

Alcibi'ades.—The Athenian general and favorite. Born B. C. 450.

Antal'cidas.—A Spartan politician who rendered signal service to his native state at one of the turning points in Greek history.

Apel'lēs.—The most celebrated Greek painter, who lived about B. C. 332. He was the court painter of Alexander the Great.

Aristi'dēs.—A native of Athens, surnamed the Just. He incessantly opposed the great democratic leader Themistocles.

Astu'rian.—An inhabitant of Asturias, one of the provinces of Spain. Like the Swiss they leave their homes in large numbers, and make a living in the southern cities as servants and water carries; the married women even often hiring themselves as nurses in Madrid and elsewhere.

Bœō'tia.—A country of Central Greece.

Ceph'allē'nia.—The modern Cephalonia, an island belonging to the kingdom of Greece, and the largest of those known as the Ionian Islands.

Cesnō'la.—An Italian archæologist made famous by his great success in collecting archæological remains on the island of Cyprus.

Chæronē'a or Chæroneira, a Bœotian town situated on the borders of Phocis, the natural route for an army invading Bœotia. It is celebrated as the scene of three great battles: viz., the battle between the Bœotians and Athenians B. C. 447; Philip defeated the combined forces of the Athenians and Bœotians B. C. 388: and the third Sulla defeated the generals of Mithridates, B. C. 86.

Chalcid'ice' (Kal).—A name applied to the peninsula projecting into the Ægean Sea from Macelonia; probably given from the supposition that its people were originally from Chalcis.

Charad'rai (Kar).—A river of the eastern Peloponnesus draining the plain of Argos.

Cheimar'ria (Ki).—A river of the plains of Argos.

Chĭos (Kios).—The Greek name of an island on the west shore of Asia Minor, called by the Italians Scio.

Crēte.—One of the largest islands in the Mediterranean, claimed to have been the birth place of Zeus (Jupiter).

De'los.—An island in the Ægean Sea made famous by Grecian mythology. It first appears in history as an Ionian colony and the seat of a great Ionic festival to which the Athenians among the rest, were accustomed annually to dispatch a sacred ship, with a number of sacred delegates.

Deme'ter.—The Greek goddess of seed and harvest, whose worship was largely spread in Sicily and Lower Italy, and finally usurped the place held by the Roman goddess Ceres.

Doc'imasia.—A judicial inquiry into the character and antecedents of persons elected for public office or of youths applying for full citizenship.

Do'rian.—The name applied to one of the two foremost races of the Greek people. They were singularly active in the work of colonization.

Epon'ymus.—An epithet attached to the name of the first archon, because the year in which he held office was named after him, just as at Rome it was named after the two consuls.

Etru'ria.—An ancient country in Italy west of the Apennines, from which the Romans derived so much. Their art includes remarkable examples of masonry, sculpture, tomb painting, pottery and bronze work.

Etrus'can.—One of the ancient people of Etruria. Their language apparently was neither Aryan or Semitic.

Eubœ'a.—The largest island after Crete in the Ægean Sea. Its principal cities were Ionian settlements. (See Chalcidice'.)

Euro'tas.—A river of ancient Greece and the principal stream of Laconia.

Hal'icarnas'sus.—An ancient Greek city on the southwestern coast of Asia Minor. Its traditions agree in making it a Dorian colony.

He'liæ'a.—A body of 6,000 citizens annually elected by lot to act as jurors for the trial specially of political offenses.

Hel'ots.—The serfs of the Spartans, who were the property of the state. It seems probable that they were the early aborigines of Laconia, who at the time of the Dorian invasion were reduced to slavery.

Ibe'ria.—The name seems to have been applied by the earlier Greek navigators to the people who inhabited the eastern coast of Spain.

Io'nia.—In ancient geography a name given to a portion of the west coast of Asia Minor. The cities of Ionia were founded by emigrants from Greece on the other side of the Ægean Sea.

Les'bos.—The name applied by the Greeks to the island now called Metilin. It lies along the coast of Mysia, north of the entrance to the Gulf of Smyrna. The oldest inhabitants are said to have been Pelasgians. The chief city was Mytilene.

Leuc'tra.—A village of Greece in Laconia on the Gulf of Koron.

Lib'ya was the name by which the Greeks usually designated Africa, with the exception of Egypt.

Mantine'ia was one of the most famous cities of Arcadia. A mountainous country of ancient Greece. (See Tegea.)

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Mar'athon was a plain on the northeast coast of Attica, famous as the battle ground between the Greeks and Persians. It contained four villages, Marathon, Probalinthos, Tricorythos and Oinoe.

Myce'nae.—One of the most ancient cities of Greece situated in the Argive plain. Its situation is exceedingly strong, and it commands all the roads leading from Corinth and Argive. The walls of the city are the greatest monument that remains of the Greek Heroic age.

Pal'las.—One of the names of Athena, Greek goddess of wisdom.

Pancrā'tium.—A contest of athletes, including both boxing and wrestling.

Pa'rian.—A native or inhabitant of Paros, famous for its quarries.

Parrhasius (par-ra' she-us) of Ephesus was one of the greatest painters of Greece. He settled in Athens. Many of his drawings on wood and parchment are still preserved and highly valued for purposes of study.

Par'thenon.—The designer of this piece of architecture was Ictinus, and it was erected by Pericles, B.C. 438. It stood upon the highest platform of the Acropolis and was built entirely of white marble. The Parthenon was never intended as a temple of worship, but was simply designed to be the central point of certain festivals, and the storehouse for the sacred treasure.

Pelop'idas.—A distinguished Greek general who in conjunction with Epaminondas, raised his native city Thebes to a pitch of power never before or since attained.

Pentath'lum.—The contest of five associated exercises, viz., leaping, running, wrestling, throwing the discus, and boxing, or later, hurling the spear.

Pentel'ic.—Pertaining to or obtained from Mt. Pentelicus in Attica, noted for its white marble.

Per'iœ'ci.—The decendants of the original Achæan inhabitants to whom the Spartans allowed civil liberty but not political rights.

Phid'ias.—The most famous of Greek sculptors; born about B.C. 500. The sculptures in connection with the Parthenon justify the fame given him by the ancients.

Pho'cis was in ancient times the name of a district of Central Greece.

Pisistratidæ (pis-is-trat'e-de.)—An appellation given to the sons of Pisistratus.

Pisis'tratus.—A tyrant of Athens; second cousin of Solon. He was born about B.C. 605.

Platæ'an.—An inhabitant of Platæa, a celebrated city of ancient Greece; located in Bœotia. The great battle of Platæa, which finally secured the freedom of Greece against the Persians, was fought on the uneven and broken ground to the east and north of the town.

Pō'-lem-arch.—The third archon, the name indicating that originally he was the supreme commander of the Athenian army.

Prax-it'elēs.—A famous Greek sculptor. He was famed for his representation of what is called sympathetic types of human or divine beings, and the rendering of very subtle phases of emotion.

Py'los.—A district east of Sparta during the Homeric age.

Rhodes.—An island in the Ægean Sea often mentioned in Greek legends.

Sal'amis.—An island in the Saronic Gulf, off the coast of Attica. The great sea fight B.C. 480, in which the Greeks defeated the Persians took place near the town of Salamis, at the southeastern end of the straits.

Sā'mos.—An island in the Ægean Sea separated from Asia Minor by a narrow strait about one mile wide. In the historical period Samos figures as a purely Ionic city, and was one of the most influential members of the Ionic confederacy.

Sar'dis.—The capital of the kingdom of Lydia.

Strate'gus.—The name applied to a general or military commander among the Greeks.

Tegē'a.—One of the chief cities of Arcadia. Tegea was in the same valley about ten miles south of Mantineia, and the two cities continually disputed the supremacy of the valley.

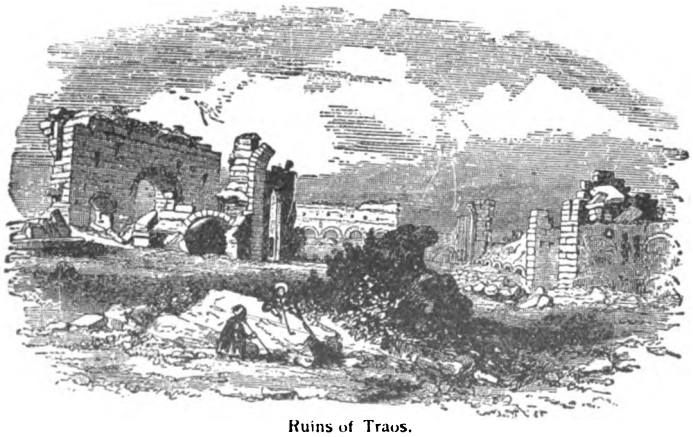
Themis'tocles was born in the latter part of the sixth century during the rule of the Pisistratidæ at Athens.

Troy is the northwest promontory of Asia Minor, and includes a number of cities more or less famous in the Grecian legends.

Vul'can.—The old Roman fire-god answering to the Greek Hephaestus.

Xerxes (zerk'sez).—The Persian king who waged war against Greece.

Zeūx'is.—The Greek painter who flourished about B. C. 420 390. (See Parrhasius).



Ruins of Troas.

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CHRONOLOGY OF GREECE.

EDITED FROM DR. LEONARD SCHMITZ'S ANCIENT HISTORY.

B.C.
1400–1200 The heroic age of Greece.
1194–1184 The war against Troy.
1130 Establishment of the Æolian colonies in Asia.
1104 Conquest of Peloponnesus by the Dorians.
1068 Medon, first Archon for life at Athens.
900–800 The age of Homer and Hesiod.
884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
776 Commencement of the era of the Olympiads.
752 Decennial archons at Athens.
746 Rhegium in Italy founded.
743–724 The first Messenian war.
735 Naxos in Sicily founded by Theocles.
734 Syracuse, a Corinthian colony, founded by Archias.
723 Sybaris in Italy founded.
708 Tarentum founded by Laconians under Phalanthus.
690 Gela in Sicily founded by Cretans and Rhodians.
685–688 The second Messenian war.
683 First annual archons at Athens.
658 Byzantium founded by Megarians.
637 Cyrene receives additional colonists from Greece, and changes its constitution.
629 Selinus in Sicily founded.
624 Draco's legislation at Athens.
623–612 War between Lydia and Miletus.
612 Cylon's conspiracy at Athens
604 Solon recovers Salamis for Athens.
600 Massilia founded by Phocæans.
597 Megacles and his partisans banished from Athens.
594–585 The Crissæan or first Sacred War.
594 Solon, as archon, reforms the constitution of Athens.
582 Agrigentum founded.
572–562 Solon travels in various countries.
570 Pythagoras the philosopher.
560 Pisistratus becomes tyrant of Athens.
559 Solon dies, and Pisistratus is expelled.
550 Pherecydes of Syros, first Greek prose writer.
542 Pisistratus finally established as tyrant.
536 Xenophanes emigrates from Colophon to Elea, and founds the Eleatic school of philosophy.
527 Pisistratus dies.
522 Polycrates, tyrant of Samos, murdered at Sardes.
514 Conspiracy of Harmodius and Aristogeiton against the Pisistratids.
510 Expulsion of the Pisistratids. Constitutional reforms by Cleisthenes.
510 Sybaris destroyed by the Crotoniats.
508 Cleisthenes returns to Athens. War between Athens and Sparta and her allies.
504 The Crotoniats rise against the aristocracy and the Pythagoræans.
501 Aristagoras of Miletus fails in his undertaking against Naxos.
500 Revolt of the Ionians in Asia Minor.
499 Sardes burnt.
494 Miletus taken by the Persians.
493 Complete subjugation of the Asiatic Greeks.

B.C.
492 The Persian Mardonius invades Europe.
490 Second invasion of Europe by the Persians, and battle of Marathon
483 Aristides exiled by ostracism.
480 Xerxes invades Europe. Battles of Thermopylæ, Artemisium and Salamis.
480 The Greeks in Sicily gain a great victory over the Carthaginians.
479 Battles of Platææ and Mycale.
478 Athens rebuilt, and its harbors fortified.
477 The Greek fleet conquers Cyprus and Byzantium.
477–404 Period of the Supremacy of Athens.
476 Cimon conquers Eion and Scyros.
471 Conviction and death of Pausanias, and flight of Themistocles to Epirus and afterwards to Persia.
468 Death of Aristides.
466 Naxos conquered by the Athenians.
465 Cimon defeats the Persians on the Eurymedon.
464 Revolt of Thasos. Pericles enters on public life.
464–455 The third Messenian war, in consequence of an earthquake.
463 Cimon subdues Thasos.
461 Cimon is exiled.
460–455 Revolt of Inarus in Egypt, who is supported by the Athenians, but fails.
457 War between Athens and the Corinthians with their allies. The Athenians defeated at Tanagra.
456 Myronides defeats the Thebans at Œnophyta.
455 The Athenians gain possession of Naupactus.
454 Murder of Ephialtes, the friend of Pericles.
453 Cimon recalled from exile.
450 A truce of five years concluded between Athens and Sparta.
449 Death of Cimon at Citium, in Cyprus.
448 War between the Delphians and Phocians, the former being supported by Sparta, the latter by Athens.
447 Battle of Coroneia, in which Tolmides the Athenian is defeated.
445 Revolt of Eubœa and Megara. A truce for thirty years concluded between Athens and Sparta.
445–432 Administration of Pericles.
443 The colony of Thurii founded in Italy by Athenians and other Greeks.
440 Revolt of Samos Sophocles one of the generals. Samos is reduced and Byzantium conquered.
435 War between Corinth and Corcyra about Epidamnus
434 The Corinthians defeated in a naval action.
433 Alliance between Athens and Corcyra.
432 Battle of Sybota. Beginning of the Peloponnesian war.
431 The Thebans attack Platææ. The Spartans invade Attica, and the Athenians retaliate.
430 Second invasion of Attica, which is visited by the plague. Surrender of the revolted Potidæa.

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B.C.

429 Death of Pericles. Siege of Platææ.
428 Third invasion of Attica. Revolt of Lesbos.
427 Fourth invasion of Attica. Lesbos reduced by Paches. Cleon the demagogue.
426 The Athenians are successful in Bœotia, Locris, Ætolia, Sicily and Italy.
425 Fifth invasion of Attica. Pylos taken and fortified by the Athenians. Cleon takes Sphacteria and the Spartans in the island.
424 Nicias takes Cythera. General peace in Sicily. Brasidas at Megara and in Thrace. The Athenians defeated at Delion.
423 Truce for one year.
422 Death of Brasidas, and Cleon at Amphipolis.
421 Peace of Nicias concluded for fifty years. Offensive and defensive alliance between Athens and Sparta. Argive confederacy.
420 Alliance between Argos and Athens. Alcibiades.
418 War between Sparta and Argos. Battle of Mantineia, in which the Spartans are victorious. Alliance between Sparta and Argos.
417 The alliance broken and war renewed.
416 Alcibiades at Argos. Conquest of Melos. Egesta in Sicily solicits the aid of the Athenians.
415 The great Sicilian expedition. Mutilation of the Hermæ. Alcibiades recalled.
414 Siege of Syracuse, which is relieved by Gyliyppus.
413 The Spartans established themselves at Decelea in Attica. Fearful defeat of the Athenians in Sicily.
412 Alcibiades with the Spartan fleet, on coast of Asia.
411 Oligarchy established in Athens, but overthrown in the same year. Battles of Cynossema and Abydos
410 Alcibiades defeats the Lacedæmonians in Asia.
409 The Athenians conquer Byzantium.
408 Alcibiades returns to Athens. Lysander commands the Spartan fleet; Cyrus the younger, supports Sparta.
407 The Athenians defeated at Notion. Alcibiades withdraws to Chersonesus, and is succeeded by Conon.
406 Battle of Arginusæ. Misfortune of the Athenian generals.
405 Battle of Ægospotomi, in which the Athenians are defeated by Lysander. Siege and surrender of Athens.
404 Lysander enters Athens. The Thirty Tyrants.
403 Thrasybulus delivers Athens from the tyranny of the Thirty. Restoration of the constitution.
400 Cyrus, the younger, assisted by Greeks, revolts against Artaxerxes. Battle of Cunaxa.
399 Dercyllidas, the Spartan, carries on war in Asia against Persia.
399 Socrates condemned to death.
399-398 War between Sparta and Elis.
398 Agesilaus becomes king of Sparta
398-397 Conspiracy of Cinadon at Sparta.

B.C.

396 Agesilaus takes the command in Asia against the Persians.
395 Agesilaus defeats the Persians. A coalition formed in Greeee against Sparta. Lysander killed at Haliratos.
395-387 The Corinthian or Bœotian war.
394 Agesilaus recalled from Asia. Defeats the Bœotian confederates at Coroneia.
393 Massacre at Corinth. Rebuilding of walls of Athens by Conon.
392 Agesilaus repulsed by Iphicrates.
391 Antalcidas negotiates with Persia for a peace.
390 Death of Thrasybulus.
389 Iphicrates defeats the Spartans at Abydos.
388 The Spartans take Ægina and harass Attica.
387 The peace of Antalcidas concluded.
385 Mantineia destroyed by the Spartans.
383-379 The Olynthian war.
382 Thebes seized by the Spartan Phœbidas. Pelopidœ escapes to Athens.
379 Olynthus is compelled to surrender to the Spartans. Pelopidas liberates Thebes.
378-362 The Theban war. The Spartans invade Bœotia.
377 The invasion of Bœotia repeated.
376 The Spartans compelled to retreat from Bœotia.
375 The Spartans defeat at Orchomenos.
374 Peace between Athens and Sparta, but not of long duration.
373 The Spartans are obliged to raise the siege of Corcyra.
371 Battle of Leuctra, in which the Spartans are totally defeated
370 Jason of Pharæ assassinated
369 First invasion of Peloponnesus by Epaminondas. Restoration of Messenia.
368 Second invasion of Peloponnesus. Pelopidas taken prisoner by Alexander of Pheræ.
367 The Arcadians defeated by the Spartans.
366 Third invasion of Peloponnesus.
365 War between Arcadia and E is.
364 Pelopidas is killed in Thessaly, but Alexander of Pheræ forms an alliance with Thebes.
362 Fourth invasion of Peloponnesus. Battle of Mantineia. Death of Epaminondas.
361 A general peace concluded. Death of Agesilaus
360 Amphipolis falls into the hands of the Olynthians.
359 Accession of Philip of Macedonia.
357-355 Social war between Athens and her allies, at the close of which Athens loses most of her allies.
355-346 Sacred war against the Phocians.
353 Defeat of the Phocians at Neon. War of Sparta against Megalopolis. Olynthos allies itself with Athens.
352 The Phocians compel Philip to return to Macedonia. First Philippic of Demosthenes.
351 The Phocians carry on the war in Bœotia.

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B.C.

347 Olynthos and other Thracian towns are taken by Philip.
346 The Bœotians defeated by the Phocians at Coroncia But the Phocians submit, and their towns are destroyed.
344-341 Philip continues his conquests
340 Athens resolves upon war against Philip.
339 Phocion obliges him to raise the siege of Perinthos and Byzantium.
338 War against Amphissa. Battle of Chæroneia.
337 Congress of Greek states at Corinth, and Philip appointed commander-in-chief against Persia.
336 Murder of Philip, and accession of Alexander.
335 Rise of the Greek against Macedonia. Destruction of Thebes.
334 Alexander sets out for Asia.
333 Agis, king of Sparta, forms a confederacy against Macedonia. Memnon of Rhodes dies.
331 Agis defeated by Antipater near Megalopolis.
324 Alexander orders the exiles to be recalled in the various parts of Greece. Harpalus in Greece. Demosthenes exiled.
323 Alexander dies at Babylon. Fresh revolt of Athens.
322 Battle of Crannon. Surrender of Athens. Death of Demosthenes.
318 Polysperchon proclaims the independence of Greece.
318-307 Administration of Athens by Demetrius Phalereus.
317 Athens submits to Cassander. Death of Phocion.
315 Thebes rebuilt by command of Cassander.
314 Greece declared free by Antigonus and Ptolemy.
312 Ptolemy makes himself master of several parts of Greece.
311 General peace; the independence of Greece guaranteed.
307 Demetrius Poliorcetes becomes master of Athens.
304 Demetrius returns to Greece against Cassander, who had made attempts upon Athens.
301 Demetrius, after the battle of Ipsus, is refused admission into Athens.
296 Athens, besieged by Demetrius, surrenders to him.
287 Athens recovers her freedom during the brief reign of Pyrrhus. Democharcs returns from exile, and undertakes the administration of Athens.
280 Beginnings of the Achæan league. Celts in Greece.
279 The Celts routed at Delphi.
275 Extension of the Achæan league.
269-262 Athens beseiged, and obliged to surrender to Antoginous Gonatas.
251 Flourishing period of the Achæan league. Aratus strategus.
244-241 Agis IV., king of Sparta, attempts reforms.
243 The Macedonian garrison driven from Acrocorinthus.
241 Agis IV. murdered.

B.C.

236-220 Cleomenes III. and his reforms at Sparta.
229 Athens freed from the Macedonian garrison.
226 Aratus strategus for the eleventh time. Clomenes at war with the Achæan league.
224 The Achæans seek the aid of Macedonia against Sparta.
223 Antigonus Doson in Peloponnesus.
222 Cleomenes takes Megalopolis and invades Argolis.
221 Battle of Sellasia. The Spartans utterly defeated, and Sparta taken. Cleomenes flees to Egypt.
220 Cleomenes kills himself. Lycurgus sole king of Sparta.
220-217 Social war between the Achæan and Ætolian leagues.
219 Philip V. invades Ætolia, and the Ætolians invade Achaia.
218 Philip defeats Lycurgus.
217 Philip's attention being drawn to Italy, he concludes peace with the Ætolians.
213 Aratus poisoned by order of Philip.
211 The Ætolians conclude a treaty with Rome. Death of Lycurgus. Machanidas, tyrant of Sparta.
208 The Ætolians defeated by Philip. Philopœmen.
207 Philopœmen defeats Machanidas at Mantineia.
205 The Ætolians are obliged to make peace with Philip.
200 Attica invaded by Philip, which is the cause of the second Macedonian war with Rome.
197 Battle of Cynoscephalæ.
196 Flamininus proclaims the independence of Greece
195 Nabis, tyrant of Sparta, is compelled to submit to a peace dictated by Flamininus.
194 War between Nabis and the Achæns.
192 Nabis defeated by Philopœmen, and killed by the Ætolians. The Achæan league embraces all Peloponnesus The Ætolians invite Antiochus, king of Syria.
191 The Ætolians and Antiochus defeated at Thermopylæ.
190 A truce of six months between the Ætolians and Romans.
189 War recommenced, and the Ætolian confederacy broken up
188 War between Sparta and the Achæans. Sparta conquered, and its ancient constitution abolished by Philopœmen.
183 Messenia revolts from the Achæan league. Philopœmen put to death.
181 Sparta recovered by the Achæan league.
168 Battle of Pydna. End of the kingdom of Macedonia.
167 One thousand Achæan hostages, including Polybius, sent to Italy.
155 Athenian ambassadors at Rome.
151 Return of the surviving Achæan hostages from Italy.
147 The Achæans declare war against Rome. Their strategus Critolaus perishes after two defeats

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B.C.

146 Battle of Leucopetra. Corinth destroyed by Mummius. The Achæan confederacy broken up. Greece subject to Rome.

86 Athens besieged, taken, and plundered by Sulla.

MACEDONIA.

750 Caranus, the alleged founder of the Macedonian dynasty.

413–399 Archelaus, the first great king.

399–394 Orestes, a minor, under the guardianship of Aëropus, who usurps the throne, and is succeeded by his son.

394–393 Pausanius assassinated by Amyntas.

393–369 Amyntas II. leaves behind him three sons, Alexander, Perdiccas, and Philip.

369–367 Alexander is murdered by a usurper, Ptolemy Alorites.

367–364 Ptolemy Alorites, the usurper, is assassinated by Perdiccas.

364–359 Perdiccas is killed in a war against the Illyrians.

359–336 Philip III, son of Amyntas II., and father of Alexander the Great.

358 Philip is successful against the Illyrians, and interferes with the Greek towns in Thrace.

356 Birth of Alexander. Philip interferes in the affairs of Thessaly.

352 Philip takes part in the Sacred War against the Phocians; but being repulsed at Thermopylæ, returns to Macedonia.

349 Philip attacks Olynthos.

347 Olynthos and other Thracian towns are conquered.

346 Philip concludes peace with Athens.

344–341 Philip makes conquests in Illyricum and Thrace.

340 Philip besieges Perinthos and Byzantium.

339 Is obliged by Phocian to raise the siege.

338 War against Amphissa, in which Philip is made commander-in-chief by the Amphictions. Battle of Chæroneia. Peace with Athens and Thebes.

336 Philip assassinated at Ægeæ.

336–323 Alexander the Great.

335 Expedition against the Triballi, Getæ, and Illyrians. Revolt of Greek states. Destruction of Thebes.

334 Alexander sets out for Asia. Battle on the Granicus.

333 Battle of Issus.

335 Alexander takes Tyre. Egypt submits to him, and he plans the building of Alexandria.

331 Battle of Gaugamela.

330 Alexander takes Ecbatana. Darius murdered.

329–328 Alexander marches across the Paropamisus, and the rivers Oxus and Jaxartes. He marries Roxana.

327 Alexander in India. Defeat of Porus.

326 Alexander returns through the Gedrosian desert. Nearchus, with the fleet, sails from the Indus to the Persian gulf.

325 Alexander in Persia assumes the customs of eastern despots.

324 Mutiny among Alexander's troops. Philotas put to death. Alexander at Babylon plans new conquests.

323 Alexander dies at Babylon. His empire divided.

323–322 Lamian war, in which the Greeks are compelled to submit to Antipater.

321 Perdiccas, regent of the empire, murdered, and the empire distributed anew.

318 Death of Antipater: is succeeded by Polysperchon.

316 Cassander, Antipater's son, causes Olympias to be put to death, she having murdered Arrhidæus and Eurydice in B.C. 317.

316 Craterus, taken prisoner by Antigonus, dies in a dungeon.

315–311 War of Ptolemy, Seleucus, Lysimachus, and Cassander, against Antigonus.

315–296 Cassander at first regent, then king of Macedonia.

312 Seleucus establishes himself in the East. Era of the Seleucidæ.

311 Murder of Roxana and her son Alexander by Cassander. General peace among the successors of Alexander.

309 Murder of Barsine and her son Heracles.

308 Cassander comes to terms with Ptolemy.

306 Ptolemy defeated in Cyprus. Antigonus and his son Demetrius assume the title of king, and their example is followed by the others.

301 Battle of Ipsus. Macedonia, Thrace, Syria, and Egypt recognized as independent kingdoms.

296–295 Philip IV. Civil war in Macedonia.

294–287 Demetrius Poliorcetes usurps the throne.

287 Demetrius dethroned by Pyrrhus, who reigns over Macedonia for seven months.

286–281 Lysimachus expels Pyrrhus, and becomes king of Macedonia.

283 Demetrius Poliorcetes dies as a prisoner of Seleucus.

281 Lysimachus slain in battle against Seleucus.

281–280 Ptolemy Ceraunus.

280 Invasion of Macedonia by the Celts.

280–274 Antigonus Gonatus.

274–272 Pyrrhus again king of Macedonia.

272–239 Antigonus Gonatus again king of Macedonia.

269–262 War against Athens, which in the end surrenders, and receives a Macedonian garrison.

239–229 Demetrius II.

229–220 Antigonus Doson reigns as guardian of Philip, the son of Demetrius.

223 Antigonus Doson called to the assistance of the Achæans against Sparta, enters Peloponnesus.

221 Battle of Sellasia. Antigonus takes Sparta.

220 Death of Antigonus Doson.

220–179 Philip V.

220–217 Social war in Greece, in which Philip supports the Achæans against the Ætolians.

216 Philip concludes a treaty with Hannibal against Rome.

215–205 First war with Rome carelessly conducted.

205 Peace between Philip and the Ætolians.

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B.C.	
200–197	Second war with Rome.
197	Philip defeated by Flamininus in the battle of Cynoscephalæ.
196	Peace between Rome and Macedonia ratified, and Greece declared free.
179–168	Perseus, last king of Macedonia.
171–168	Third war with Rome.
168	Battle of Pydna, in which Perseus is defeated by L. Æmilius Paulus.
149	Andriscus, a pretender under the name of Philip, raises himself to the throne of Macedonia.
148	Andriscus defeated by Cæcilius Metellus. Macedonia a Roman province.

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Bronze Kylix from Cyprus, Feast of Dionysos, Exhumed by Max Ohnefalsch-Richter

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SIDE LIGHTS ON HISTORY OF GREECE.

Metallic Arts Derived from Phœnicia. — Throughout the poems of Homer nothing can be clearer than the association of metallic art with the Phœnician coast. Even a superficial view of the text cannot fail to recognize in this particular respect the debt of the Greek peninsula to the East.

But as it was the general rule of the Greek race to improve upon the benefactions which they thus acquired, we have a very signal example of such improvement in the case of works of metallic art.

Greek Alphabet from Phœnicia.—It is generally considered that the Greeks were indebted to Phœnicia for the alphabet. Homer bears witness to this fact in a single passage of the Sixth Iliad. It records the legend of Bellerophon, who is himself a descendant of Clœus or Aiolas, and this name when found in Homer is, I venture to assert, a sure sign of Phœnician association.

The other chief actor who transmits the written or symbolic message is Proitos, and Proitos is the king of Argolis, an undoubted seat of immigration from the southeast. [1]

Royal Families in Mycenæ. — According to Homer several royal families have ruled in Mycenæ. The shaft-shaped tombs discovered by Schliemann are proven to have been the resting place of the older generation, whilst to the younger generation belong the splendid dome-shaped tombs which Pausanias describes as subterranean treasure houses. These tombs are of great value from the standpoint of the history of art. The subterranean rooms built of enormous quadrangular blocks, rich with gold and other metals, the tomb chamber especially decorated with sculptured slabs of alabaster, the façade ornamented with stones of different colors, must rank among the most famous productions of architecture.

Tiryns.—The stronghold of Tiryns, with the royal residence, is the best illustration of the Homeric poems. We have here the "strong citadel" and the gates leading to the kingly home. We have, too, the court-yards surrounded by colonades, and in their midst the altar of *Zeus Herkeios*. When we read in Homer of the fire-place in the interior surrounded by columns, the habitation of the women, the rooms, and treasure chambers in the further corner of the palace—when we read of the baths with their luxurious appointments, we find them all illustrated and verified by recent discoveries.

The Site of Troy.—Aside from the identification of ancient Ilion, the excavations at this point are of great importance from a scientific standpoint.

Ten different layers were identified, the one resting upon the other. The most modern of these belongs to the Roman age, while the most ancient goes back to such high antiquity that it cannot as yet be dated, even approximately.

The lowest or prehistoric layer belong perhaps to the oldest human settlement, the remains of which have never been found, and is therefore of great importanee to archæology.

The second is called "the burned city," in which large Trojan treasures and many single articles of bronze have been discovered.

The buildings of this stratum are sunburnt brick, like the Babylonian royal palaces. They resemble in their ground plan the Megarom of Tiryns and Mycenæ, but in their architecture they are more simple.

This lord's seat was surrounded by the castle walls, which were supplied with towers. This layer was for some time considered to be the celebrated city about which the Trojan war was waged. According to the latest excavations however, this stronghold seems to be older than those of Tiryns and Mycenæ, and therefore also older than the Trojan war.

At the fifth layer, however, buildings were found which correspond with the Megara citadels, of Tiryns and Mycenæ, and also a large number of vessels and fragments which certainly belong to the Mycenæan period. Therefore, this fifth town required especial attention. It is, however, one of the problems which is as yet only partially solved. The last strata are formed by Greek and Roman buildings which were erected over the heaps of more ancient debris —*Madame Schliemann, Woman's Branch World's Congress Auxiliary.*

The Island of Cyprus.—This is the only locality where the early civilization of Troy has so far found its analogy. The island of Cyprus affords the most striking instance in history of a country where century after century the streams of diverse civilizations coming from different sources have met and mingled. The first Greek colonization of the island must have taken place long before the period of the Homeric poems. There were Phœnician colonies also at a very early period, but how early it is impossible to determine until many of the older tombs in Phœnicia proper have been opened.

The influence of Cyprus and Mycenæ upon each other was mutual, and there was also commercial communication between Cyprus and Egypt, Phœnicia, Carthage, Malta and Sardinia.

Cyprian masters play an important part in the development of the metal industries, of the glyptic and ceramic arts, of wood and iron carving, as well as terra work, sculpture and bronze casting, though they never reached the high standard which was attained by Greek artists.

Baal.—The ancient Canaanitish idolatry as depicted in the Old Testament found a congenial home in Cyprus. In the oldest Phœnician inscriptions, which have been discovered on the island, we have evidence that during the age of King Solomon the worship of Baal was practiced there The inscription indicates that a servant of the Phœnician king, Hiram, had offered bronze vessels upon the altar of this Baal, whose 'high place" was in the Cyprian mountain range.

Gold Ornaments.—The island of Cyprus was celebrated in early times for its productive copper mines, but, of late, it has yielded rich gold ornaments to the hands which have invaded its graves. Many of these ornaments are now in the hands of rich amateurs or in the public museums of Germany, France England and Italy. Our own country is not destitute of them, the largest collection here being found in the Metropolitan Museum of New York. These treasures are highly prized not only for their intrinsic value but also for their fine workmanship. The rich collections in New York have been utilized by Tiffany for the education of American goldsmiths, and Castellani has made a similar use of those which are in Italy.—*Dr. Ohnefalsch-Richter.*

"Ashtoreth, the goddess of the Zidonians" was the principal female deity of Cyprus. She was the Istar of Nineveh, the Ashtaroth of Tyre, the

[1] Rt. Hon. Wm. E. Gladstone, Inaugural Address before Section VI. of the International Congress of Orientalists.

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Astarte of Cyprus, and the Aphrodite of the Greeks. In Nineveh and Phœnicia the grossest sensuality pertained to some forms of the worship of both Baal and Ashtaroth. Indeed it can only be compared to the unmentionable rites which two thousand years later pertained to the worship of Krishna and Siva in India.—*Reed.*

Krete.—After a careful examination of all available sources of information, including the inscribed vases and engraved gems of Krete, Mr. Evans writes an article of more than one hundred pages on the "Primitive Pictographs and a Pre-Phœnician Script from Krete and the Peloponnese."

Some evidence of the chronology of these Kretan gems is afforded by the points of comparison which they offer with Mycenæan forms, and also by the comparisons drawn between early Kretan seal stones and Egyptian scarabs of the XII dynasty. These considerations lead him to assume a Kretan period of earlier date than that usually assumed for the Mycenæan. Out of this pictographic series of symbols, a quasi-alphabetic system seems to have arisen, and a comparison of this with the hieroglyphic systems of the Orient, leads him to believe that he has discovered in these symbols the method of writing used by the Eteo Kretans, who are recognized by the Greeks as the original inhabitants of Krete.

This aboriginal race, he believes, extended from the eastern to the western end of the islands. What is known elsewhere as the archaic period of Greek art is here conspicuous for its absence.

About the year 900 B C. there was a strong Assyrian influence here, which was due no doubt to Phœnician contact. To the Phœnicians belongs the credit of having perfected the primitive system of writing used by the aboriginal inhabitants, by reducing it to a purely alphabetical shape. Thus it happened that it was from an outside source that the Greeks received their alphabet at a later date

Mr. Evans suspects that the earlier pictographs out of which the Phœnician system was evolved was shared by the primitive inhabitants of Greece itself. He thinks that the original centre of this system of writing should be sought nearer Krete than Southern Syria. (Journal of Hellenic Studies, Vol. XIV, Part 2, 1894.)

Eastern Krete.—In a paper read before the British Association, Mr. Evans gave his reasons for believing that the Phillistines, who, according to the Hebrews, came from the Mediterranean islands, and who are sometimes called Krethi in the Bible, represented the old indigenous Kretan stock. This thought has long been suggested by historic and linguistic facts, and Mr. Evans bases his reasons for entertaining it upon his own archæological discoveries in Eastern Krete

In Egyptian monuments these people who came from "the islands of the sea" are seen bearing tributary vases of forms, which recurred on a whole series of engraved gems which were seen or collected in Eastern and Central Krete.—(Proceedings of British Association reported in London *Times.*)

The Kretan Seal Stones.—These also throw a new and a welcome light on the early culture of the Hellenic world. The implements and the instruments of the early Kretans are here before us; the elements are also present from which we can reconstruct larger decorative designs. Here are portrayed the ships in which they sailed—the primitive lyres to which they sang and the duodecimal enumeration which they employed. We see before us the prototypes of more than one of the characteristic forms of Mycenæan times, and abundant proofs of close contact with Egypt during the XII dynasty. (Jour. Hel. Studies, Vol. XIV, Part 2, 1894.) Edited by Mrs. Elizabeth Reed, A. M.

Causes of Progress.—Egypt was first unreservedly opened to the Greeks during the reign of Psammetichus, about B.C. 660; gradually it became much frequented by them for military or commercial purposes, or for simple curiosity. It enlarged the reign of their thoughts and observations, while it also imparted to them that vein of mysticism which overgrew the primitive simplicity of the Homeric religion. . . . They found in it a long-established civilization, colossal wonders of architecture, and a certain knowledge of astronomy and geometry, elementary, indeed, but in advance of their own. Moreover, it was a portion of their present world and it contributed to form in them an interest for noting and describing the actual realities before them. A sensible progress is made in the Greek mind during the two centuries from B C. 700 to B.C. 500, in the record and arrangement of historical facts; an historical sense arises in the superior intellects, and some idea of evidence as a discriminating test between fact and fiction. And this progressive tendency was further stimulated by increased communication and by more settled and peaceful social relations between the various members of the Hellenic world; to which may be added material improvements, purchased at the expense of a period of turbulence and revolution, in the internal administration of each separate state. The Olympic, Pythian, Nemean, and Isthmian games became frequented by visitors from the most distant parts of Greece: the great periodical festival in the island of Delos brought together the citizens of every Ionic community, with their wives and children, and an ample display of wealth and ornaments.—*Grote.*

General Education.—Writing was done with ink made from soot, on prepared skins, bark, papyrus or with a sharp-pointed instrument on thin sheets of lead or layers of wax. During the glorious days of Athens many private persons had large libraries. The Greeks very carefully attended to the education of the young. The Spartan system of training, as we have seen, consisted only of exercises calculated to discipline the mind to fortitude and to strengthen the physical powers; as the study of the arts and the sciences, and the pursuits of literature, were considered unworthy the attention of a Lacedæmonian citizen. But the Athenians, and the other Grecians who imitated the usages and institutions of Athens, gave their youths a far more liberal education Boys only went to school. The schoolmaster was the *grammaticus*, or grammarian. The sons of wealthy parents had a *pedagogue*, or private tutor, who watched over them when out of school, and who was generally selected from the slaves. The elementary branches, such as reading, writing, grammar, music, recitation, and later, philosophy and oratory, were taught. Passages from the works of the poets were committed to memory. The music taught consisted of singing, playing on the lyre, and reciting compositions in poetry In early manhood the sons of the wealthy attended lectures on philosophy oratory, etc., in the Lyceum, the Academy, or some other institution. There were many schools; while attendance upon the public debates where the first and greatest orators in the world were heard, was general.

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Gymnasia, provided at the public expense, were much resorted to for pastime and exercise; and there the body was rendered supple by running, leaping, boxing, wrestling, throwing the discus the javelin, or the quoit, shooting with the bow and arrow, etc. The gymnasium was a part of Greek education, and was the training school for the Olympic games. In later years the Porticos became the resort of philosophers, rhetoricians and sophists, who publicly discussed moral and metaphysical questions.

The Greeks were fond of music and played on stringed instruments, such as the harp and the lyre, and on wind instruments, such as the double and the single pipe. The Athenians highly prized musical accomplishments, and female musicians were hired at feasts and social gatherings to heighten the enjoyment of the guests.—*Clare.*

Science of Education.—The Greeks were the first to develop a science of education distinct from ecclesiastical training. They divided their subjects of study into music and gymnastics, the one comprising all mental, the other all physical training. Music was at first little more than the study of the art of expression. But the range of intellectual education which had been developed by distinguished musical teachers was further widened by the Sophists, until it received a new stimulus and direction from the work of Socrates. . . . In the intervals of running, wrestling, or the bath, the young Phaedrus or Thætetus discoursed with the philosophers who had come to watch them, on the good, the beautiful, and the true. The lowest efforts of their teachers were to fit them to maintain any view they might adopt with acuteness, elegance, readiness, and good taste. Their highest efforts were to stimulate a craving for the knowledge of the unknowable, to rouse a dissatisfaction with received opinions, and to excite a curiosity which grew stronger with the revelation of each successive mystery. Plato is the author of the first systematic treatise on education. . . . He never forgets that the beautiful is undistinguishable from the true, and that the mind is best fitted to solve difficult problems which has been trained by the enthusiastic contemplation of art. Plato proposes to intrust education to the state. He lays great stress on the influence of race and blood. Strong and worthy children are likely to spring from strong and worthy parents. Music and gymnastics are to develop the emotions of young men during their earliest years—the one to strengthen their character for the contest of life, the other to excite in them varying feelings of resentment or tenderness. Reverence, the ornament of youth, is to be called forth by well-chosen fictions; a long and rigid training in science is to precede discussion on more important subjects.—*Browning.*

NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

By Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

Author of "Hindoo Literature;" "Persian Literature." (President of Illinois Woman's Press Association—Member of the Philosophical Society of Great Britain.) Member of the International Council of Orientals.

AMONG the Babylonian contract tablets in the British Museum, Mr. Theo. G. Pinches has discovered one in which, although the names are all Babylonian, the seals show a winged horse which is an indication of Greek influence. "We know," he writes, "from other documents, that Greeks did settle in the country, and that they had intercourse with the natives. It is doubtful, however, whether during the period of the Greek rulers, the Babylonians married much with the invading race."

Greek Vases.—Recent explorations have proven that the vases which were found in Etruscan and Italian graves, were not "Etruscan" as they were generally supposed to be. They were, for the most part, made in Greece and exported by sea to Etruria.

Vase Paintings.—The debris which had to be cleared in excavating the Acropolis was found to be in layers forming strict chronological sequence. One of these layers consists of debris formed when the Persians sacked the Acropolis. . . . Whatever objects occur in this layer, therefore, have existed before the Persian war. Vase paintings fall roughly into two classes, the one having black figures on a red ground, and those of a later period having red figures on a black ground. The red figured vases of the finest style had been supposed to date about the middle of the fifth century B C., but as they have been found in large quantities (in fragments) in the Persian debris, they must have been freely used before the Persian invasion, which places the date of their existence at least fifty years earlier than the age which has usually been accorded them.—(*Jane Harrison.*)

A Plaque at Eleusis.—A remarkable discovery has been made at Eleusis in the course of the excavations, in the shape of a terra cotta plaque with pedimental top. It is painted in the style of the later Athenian red-figured vases, and is in wonderfully good preservation.

On the base is inscribed *Minion Anetheken.* In the pediment is a figure of Artemis, and below are four female figures carrying the large torches known as *bakchoi.* These figures evidently represent performers in the Eleusinian mysteries. Thus the plaque is not only artistically interesting, but also on account of its bearing on this difficult question, and it is hoped that a correct interpretation of the subject will throw fresh light upon it.—(*Biblia, August.*)

Troy.—In the discovery of Troy, Schliemann fulfilled the dream of his life. That the Greek town which was situated on the Hissarlik hill bore the name of Ilion is placed beyond doubt by the discovery of a great number of Greek inscriptions.

Since the death of her husband Madame Schliemann has carried on his work at her own expense. Dr. Dörpfield, who is her principal agent in the matter, reports the following results of the excavations in Troy, during the year 1894:

The circuit wall on the citadel of the sixth Mycenæan stratum was laid bare. Three gates and three towers were found, and in one of the latter was a well. The interior of the citadel rose in terraces toward the middle. The earlier citadel wall of the two stratum was discovered; . . . the remainder of the historic sanctuary of the Ilian Athena was excavated, and foundations of a great stoa were found at the east of the temenos. A third

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Roman theatre came to light on the southern slope of the hill. Diggings outside the Acropolis proved that the plateau of the lower city of Roman times was partly, at least, inhabited in the period of the sixth stratum.—(*Jour. of Archæology, Jan., March, 1895.*)

The Home of Agamemnon.—The great German explorer also verified the Iliad as being founded upon history, by discovering the relics of the royal residence of Agamemnon. Not only this, but he uncovered the tombs of Agamemnon and his companions in the interior of the citadel, and those of Klytemnestra and Ægisthos outside the castle. Remains of the same heroic age have since been discovered in different localities, which enable scholars to speak intelligently of a Mycenæan civilization which extended over Greece in the second millennium before Christ.

The Lion Gate.—Schliemann has also laid bare the clyclopean castle walls and the celebrated gate ornamented with the two lions, so that one can enter into the castle today, through the same gateway, as did Agamemnon on his return from the Trojan war. He may now see distinct remains of old palace, and the debris of a temple, which was in Grecian times erected over its ruins. (See page 84.)

The Palace of Tiryns.—The discovery of the stronghold of Tiryns, with the royal residence, is one of the best illustrations of the architecture of Homeric times. We have now the citadel and the gates, the courtyards surrounded by colonnades with the altar in their midst, and also in the baths, the numerous rooms and the "treasure chambers."

The Royal Baths at Tiryns.—Thanks to the fortunate spade of Dr. Schliemann, the visitor may now see, not only the gigantic threshold leading to the entrance of the palace, but also the single colossal stone which forms the entire flooring of the royal baths.

The Vases of Tiryns.—The numerous finds of vases and small articles of bronze and other material, which were discovered in the interior of the palace, prove that this kingly home belongs to the heroic age described by Homer.

The Treasure House of Minyas.—This important house, which has been minutely described by Pausanias, was laid bare for the exploration of archæologists. Schliemann also discovered the tomb chamber which was decorated in the most splendid style by sculptured and colored stones. It has a perfect resemblance to the largest dome-shaped grave of Mycenæ.[1]

Lykastos and Arkadia.—Dr. Mariani of the Archæological School of Rome, announces that he has identified the sites of the Homeric Lykastos and of Arkadia.

He agrees with Bursian in placing the former near the modern village of Kanli Kastelli. He claims that Arkadia is on the heights of Ascekephala (or Kastriotes as they are sometimes called) and its ruins extend as far as the summit of the neighboring hill of Tshifoot Kastelli now occupied by the remains of a fortress of later date.—(*Jour. of Arch., Jan., March, 1895.*)

Delos.—At a recent meeting of the *Académie des Inscriptions*, M. Homolle communicated the latest results of the French excavations at Delphi. One of the most interesting of these is the fact that one of the pieces of pottery found in the Treasury of the Athenians contains musical notations. Although they are found upon eleven fragments the words can be restored with tolerable certainty, but the notes are difficult to read because of their great resemblance to each other.

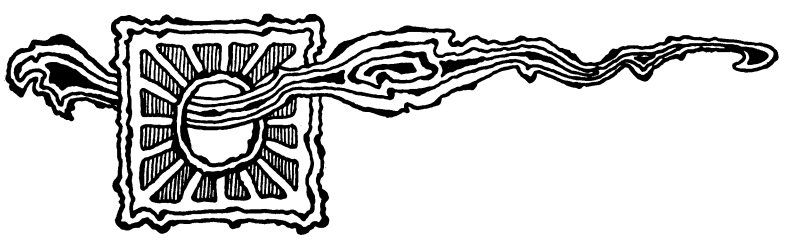
The subject of the poem is the birth of Apollon at Delos, his coming to Delphi and his victory over the serpent with the help of Dionysius. It can be assigned to the second century, B.C., by a prayer for Athens and the Romans with which it concludes.

A second pæan has also been found which is dated about the year 340 B.C. The date is determined by the character of the writing and by the names of the archons mentioned.—(*Revue Arch., Oct., Dec., 1894.*)

Inscriptions at Delphi.—A number of inscriptions discovered by the French show that the kings of Pergamon, Syria and Egypt rendered homage to the authority of the sanctuary of Delphi. They show also the gratitude of the Delphians, for the benefits and the honors which were received.—(*Bulletin de Correspondence Hellenique.*)

Delos.—The latest excavations here were under the direction of M. Couve and they were concentrated upon the largest and richest of the private houses. They were all assigned to the same period . . . about the first century B.C. They all have open courts, but the most remarkable feature is the internal decoration. Besides some beautiful decorative painting on stucco there have been found capitals formed of two complete lion heads and also of two bulls' heads. There is also an archaistic relief with a procession of divinities. We find too, mutilated heads showing the influence of sculpture of the fourth century and Roman heads in better preservation, but the finest piece is a replica of the Diadumenos of Polykleitos which is well preserved and is much finer than that of Vaison.—(*Revue Arch., Nov., Dec., 1894.*)

[1] The notes in relation to Dr. Schliemann's invaluable discoveries are derived from a paper which was furnished by Madame Schliemann for the Congress of Philologists in the Woman's Branch of the World's Congress Auxiliary.



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THE HOMERIC MYTHOLOGY.

TO obtain a right view of its nature, the Homeric mythology must be carefully severed, not only from the bygone schemes of Nature-worship, but likewise from (1) the Roman mythology, and (2) the mythology of classical Greece; from this classical system even as we have it in the poets, and much more as we draw it from the later writers.

We then find that the Homeric formation consists of a Policy, framed on the human model, with a king, an aristocracy, and even a people or multitude; and that its seat is on Olympos. The king is Zeus. The aristocracy consists of a number not precisely defined. Somewhere about eight or ten deities take actual part in the debates of Olympos. The ordinary meetings are strictly analogous to those of the βουλή or council of the Greek army. But, like that council, the Olympian court has its silent members; and as Hephaistos prepared for it twenty chairs or thrones, we must suppose this to have been the approximate number of those who were entitled to attend. This is the body of which the feastings are so gorgeously described; and in it are, probably, included all the deities, who had obtained more than a narrowly local recognition in the Greece of Homer.

But sometimes the gods meet in (ἀγορή) their Assembly. Homer appears to use this phrase on occasions when a great resolution is about to be taken. The Assembly of the Fourth Book defeats the Pact of the Third, and brings the Greeks into the field against the Trojans during the isolation of Achilles. That of the Eight is designed to insure the absence of their potent patrons from the field of battle. Greatest of all, the Assembly of the Twentieth Book is brought together by a wider summons, including Nymphs and Rivers. This Assembly removes the embargo, and by permitting the battle of the gods, forecasts the corresponding victory of the stronger party upon earth.

In the members of the Olympian Court itself we descern every kind of heterogeneity. There seems to be scarcely a single definite feature that they possess in common; only we may assert that every one of them has a preternatural superiority to man in some one or more particulars, while a few approximate to divine perfections.

They seem, indeed, in no case to be liable to total and final extinction. Yet Arès, having fled from Diomed, declares, not only that he might have remained senseless under the blows of the warrior, but might have suffered (δηρόν) indefinitely long, left among the slain. And the gods may be deposed from Olympos, as Zeus says he would have deposed Arès, if born from any other divine sire than himself.

In the Fifteenth Iliad, Poseidon appears to be threatened with Tartaros, as the consequence of the formidable conflict between Zeus and himself, which has seemed so imminent. The gods beneath, says Zeus, who form the Court of Kronos, would have become right well acquainted with the battle. As those gods are wholly cut off from Olympian action, this could only have been, as it seems, if Zeus had placed Poseidon where he had already placed Kronos. Even Herè and Athênê may suffer wounds, from which ten whole years will not suffice for their recovery. And if they had persisted in the second descent, then, smitten by the thunderbolt, they would not have been again admitted to Olympos.

The same notion of right which binds men together, prevails among the gods, but may be set at naught by them. The happiness of Olympian Immortals is liable to be impaired and disturbed by quarrels on account of their partialities to men this way or that, as the happiness of men would be disturbed. The community of gods is no less emphatically humanized, than are the individuals. The relations of its members to one another are, however, but partially defined, and are subject to contingency.

Hardly any two deities are of the same dignity; and even when they discharge the same function, they do it under different conditions. Thus Athênê and Arès are the deities of war. Arès fights with his own hand against a mortal; his opponent Athênê does not deign to enter into conflict herself; she incites the mind, drives the chariot, but only against a god, and impels or diverts the weapon.

While, however, Athênê thus behaves in relation to Arès, we have no similar example in the action of the poems, of matters carried to extremity in the upper rank of the Olympian Court. On the contrary, the highest deities of Homer are bound together by a law of mutual respect, even when they take opposite sides of a question or a quarrel, and they show the utmost anxiety to avoid carrying their differences to issue. After all, is it not a folly, they commonly say, to diminish our own happiness on account of beings so inferior to ourselves?

Again, with a great delicacy, Homer never allows any of the higher deities to be named to mortals as being in conflict one with another. Thus when Diomed ascribes to Apollo the escape of Hector, and makes an appeal for himself to divine aid, he does not, as on other occasions, name Athênê as his protectress, but says:

> 'If perchance I too may have a god for my ally'.

So Poseidon, in the form of Calchas, urging on the two Ainantes, and referring to Hector as claim-to be the son of Zeus, and as perhaps having his aid, suggests that 'some one of the gods might help one of them to make an effectual resistance. In reply, the Oilean Ajax observes that the pretended Calchas is some one of the gods of Olympos. Thus no deity is placed by name in opposition to Zeus.

And thus it is contrived, that Poseidon shall retire from the field before Apollo arrives there to renovate Hector.

In the Seventeenth Book, when Athênê appears, that she may give effect to the altered policy of Zeus, Apollo does not absolutely retire, but the agency of the two is so directed as to avoid collision. For wheu Athênê has incited Menelaos, and Apollo then kindles Hector, the two warriors do not meet in fight. Once more, when Achilles recognizes the fact, that Apollo has carried off Hector, he expresses a hope that τις θεων may aid him too. In a word, the greater gods of Homer never are brought into conflict within the human sphere. And when, finally, Zeus exhibits the golden scales in the air, that which holds the fate of Hector sinks to Hades, and thereupon Apollo quits him. It is then only that Athene who was at hand and ready (see v. 187), joins and accompanies Achilles.—*William E. Gladstone: Edited from "Juventus Mundi."*

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PARADISE FOUND.

THE CRADLE OF THE HUMAN RACE AT THE NORTH POLE.

By William Warren, S.T.D., LL.D.

A REVIEW.—PART II.

IF now we have a prehistoric circumpolar continent at the North Pole as the cradle of the human race, there must have been certain marked and memorable features of that primitive abode.

1. There would have been but one day and one night in a year.

2. The stars instead of seeming to rise and set would have had an apparently horizontal motion round and round the observer from left to right.

3. The Pole, the unmoving center-point of the Heavens directly overhead, would naturally have seemed to be the top of the world, the true Heaven, the changeless seat of the all ruling God. This being the case, it would appear to human thought, that the circumpolar sky was the true abode of Divinity. And very naturally subsequent generations would not easily have forgotten that the throne of the great Creator was in the far North in the center and true top of the sky, and that this was "*the sacred quarter*" of the globe.

4. One standing at the Pole of the earth would be directly on the center of the surface of the terrestrial hemisphere as well as in the center of the celestial hemisphere. The Heavenly bodies would move round and round in horizontal planes everywhere at apparently equal distances, and he would appear to himself to stand on the one precise center point of the earth. Very clearly if the cradle of the human race was thus at the North Pole, the descendants of the first inhabitants, departing from their original abode, could not fail to remember it as the center of all lands.

5. If men were thus located in this primitive Eden land the streams originating and flowing to the sea would have moved, not in one direction, but in various opposite directions toward the four corners of the horizon. And as these streams were fed only by the rains from Heaven, they would naturally be conceived of as flowing from a celestial stream whose fountains were in the skies. So these four rivers, dividing the land into four nearly equal quarters would constitute a feature of that first abode of man never afterward to be forgotten.

6. One fifth of the year only would have been spent in darkness, four-fifths being spent in light; this land therefore would have been remembered by the descendants of the first inhabitants, as being pre-eminently the home of the sun, and the land of beauty.

7. In the conditions which we have described, the biological features, such as the wonderful daylight, the intenser terrestrial magnetism, and the marvelous electric forces which constitute "The Northern Lights," would all combine to raise a high probability, that the forms of life then existing would surpass incomparably all the forms with which we are familiar. Men may well have attained stature and strength and longevity never attained since the great flood or deluge engulfed the circumpolar continent, and buried "Lost Atlantis" beneath its waves. The fact of such stature and strength and longevity would certainly linger in the traditions of mankind after that first home had been forever left.

The testimony of Geogony relating to the situation of Paradise at the North Pole would appear to affirm, that, although from the geological point of view the Eden conditions may probably have been found at one time or another everywhere upon the surface of the slowly cooling earth, yet if we look at the cosmic environments, we should see that the first proofs of life were assuredly at the Poles. With regard to Astronomical Geography, its testimony would seem to declare that the proper location for Paradise—the Heavenliest spot on earth—with respect to light and darkness and with respect to celestial scenery, must be found at the Arctic Pole, for here is the true seat of the sun: The light of the sun and the light of the moon and the magnificent brilliancy of the Aurora Lights made this the one and only spot on earth, concerning which, it would seem as if the Creator had said, as of his own Heavenly residence, "There shall be no night there." The testimony of Physiographical Geology also seems to be quite conclusive on this subject. Until very recently too little was known of the Geology of high latitudes to warrant, or find occasion for, the discussion of the antediluvian period, but Geologists and Paleontologists do not believe that the present dispersion of Arctic sea and land was the primeval one. And they have incidentally expressed their belief that a continent once existed within the Arctic circle, of which only vestiges at present remain.

The distinguished Alfred Russell Wallace is quoted as saying: "In the Miocene period a very different Northern hemisphere prevailed than that which meets us today." In his view Scandinavia was at that time a vast island. There was a connection between the North Atlantic and Indian ocean through a northern sea filled with islands. From the Caspian also a wide arm of the sea extended, sometime during the Tertiary Epoch, northward to the Arctic ocean. Another channel probably extended from Egypt, in the Eastern portion of the Mediterranean and the Black sea; and probably there was a connection between the Black sea, and the White sea, leaving Scandinavia as an extensive island. An arm of the sea, of great width and depth, extended from the Bay of Bengal in India to the mouths of the Indus; and the presence of modern fossils of the Eocene age at a height of 16,500 feet in Western Thibet indicate an enormous depression, which renders it probable that a more direct channel across Afghanistan may have been a connection between the West Asiatic and Polar seas. In the same book, "Island Life," Mr. Wallace incidentally shows that the facts of Arctic Paleontology would indicate a primitive Eocene continent which no longer exists.

Professor Heer, of Zurich twenty five years ago, published his opinion that the Arctic fossils plainly point to the fact, in Miocene time, of a Polar continent no longer existing. Baron Nordenskjold, the eminent Arctic explorer, has arrived at the same conclusion. Referring to certain rocky strata leading north to the 69th degree of north latitude, he says: "An extensive continent occupied this

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portion of the globe when these strata were deposited." In another place he speaks of this "Polar Continent" as having been already accepted and generally understood among scientific men.

J. Starkie Gardner, writing upon the subject of an island connection between Europe and North America at the North, states that "in further support of this theory we have the fact that no trace of sea deposits of the Eocene age has ever been found in the Polar area. The vestiges of strata remaining, show that these latitudes were then occupied by dry land."

With regard to the disappearance of this island whose existence is thus claimed by the most competent Geological authority, Professor James Geikie, LL.D., F.R.S. states that it was due to a submergence beneath the waters of the Arctic ocean. He says we know very well that . . . . within a comparatively recent Geological Period . . . . a wide stretch of Arctic land of which Novaia Zemlia and Spitzbergen form a part, has been submerged."

Now with regard to the natural conditions and forces which appears to have caused this catastrophe geologists do not entirely agree.

The French savant, Alfonso Joseph Adhimar, has advanced the theory that this North Polar deluge was only one of an alternating series which in age-long periods recur, first at the North Pole and then at the South Pole. Another recent theory expounded by Prof. Alexander Winchell teaches that the Poles are periodically deluged but simultaneously, and not in alternation. The crust of the earth at the equator is all the time rising or sinking in a kind of Aoenian rythm. Whenever it sinks beyond the equilibrium figure due to its actual rate of rotation, land emerges at the Poles: whenever it rises beyond the equilibrium figure the Polar lands sink beneath the waters of the ocean. Seibnitz Deluc, claimed that the deluges which occur are the result of the steady shrinking of the earth in consequence of its cooling. Successive collapsions of the rocky strata occurred in the primitive crusts of the earth, which succeeding cataclysms, as universal catastrophes, must leave the globe a wreck. In the view of one of these writers the present condition of the earth is comparatively recent. The last great cataclysm is, geologically speaking, not very ancient. The evidence is cumulative to prove that one of these destructive events has occurred since the human race was created and that such another catastrophe is in the course of preparation.

We may now conclude with Doctor Warren upon the authority of eminent Physiographic Geologists:

1. That the distribution of land and water within the Arctic circle is geologically speaking, of very recent origin.

2. That the Paleozic data of the highest explored latitudes require the hypothesis of a vast circumpolar continent in Miocene times.

3. That distinguished Lithological authorities affirm that such a continent existed.

4. That Physical Geography seems to point to the conclusion that the known islands of the Arctic ocean such as Novaia Zemlia and Spitzbergen are simply mountain tops still remaining upon the surface of the ocean which has covered up the primeval continent to which they belong.

5. That the problem of the process by which this great catastrophe was brought about, is engaging the attention of physicists and geologists.

We may now interrogate pre-historic climatology to find out whether this lost land ever enjoyed a temperature which would permit it to be the primitive abode of man. We get the answer from several sources. First geogony seems to give an undeniable antecedent. Probability: Because if the earth has been steadily cooling from the very beginning of its existence, it is quite difficult to conceive of a method by which any region once too hot for human abode can have become too cold at last except by passing through all the intermediate stages of temperature, some of which must have been fitted for human comfort. Second: Paleontological botany shows this cooling of the earth took place in Tertiary times in Europe. If it were going on in Europe, there is no reason why it should not have been going on in all countries, north, south, east or west of Europe.

All scientific authorities now admit that at one time the circumpolar continent enjoyed a tropical or nearly tropical climate. Prof. Nicholson, as quoted by Dr. Warren, holds that the climate of the northern hemisphere in the early Tertiary period was very much hotter than it is at present and in the middle Tertiary Miocene period the temperature, though not high, was still much warmer than is now felt in the northern hemisphere. He also says we know that the plants of the temperate region at that time flourished within the Arctic circle.

Mr. Grant Allen is also quoted as stating that until a very recent period, geologically speaking, our earth enjoyed a warm and genial climate up to the actual poles themselves, and that all its vegetation was everywhere ever green, of much the same type as now prevails in the modern tropics.

Dr. Warren also quotes from M. LeMarques. He says, under these conditions, life spread freely even to the pole. Croll uses similar language. "The Arctic regions, probably up to the North Pole, were not only free from ice, but were covered with a rich and luxuriant vegetation." Kearls holds, that at the very pole it was then warmer than now at the equator. Dr. Warren states that Prof. Oswald Heer's calculations would possibly modify Kearls' estimate to a slight degree but that the Polar region would be a little more Edenic than the hottest portion of our present earth. And Sir Charles Lyell is also quoted as holding to the view that the state of the climate of former geological periods is in favor of the opinion that the heat was generally in excess of what it now is; that in the Miocene and preceding Eocene periods, the fauna and flora of central Europe was subtropical, and vegetation resembling that now seen in northern Europe, extended into the Arctic regions as far as they have yet been explored, and probably reached the pole itself; and the general character of the fossil types of reptile life indicate a warm climate and an absence of frost between the 40 parallel of latitude and the pole. So that we may conclude that we have at the pole in the age of the first appearance of the human race a most delightful and equable temperature.

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..A FEW EARLY COMMENDATIONS..

The University Association has my best wishes and hearty endorsement. Its great and comprehensive plans deserve the cordial approval of those interested in the education of our people.

REV. JOHN HENRY BARROWS, CHAIRMAN,
Parliament of Religions, World's Congresses.

I have examined your plan and it seems to me that it ought to meet the approval of anyone who is interested in seeing our people generally engaged in some sort of systematic study. I hope you will succeed in enlisting a large number of people in the work of your Association.

JOHN W. COOK, PRESIDENT,
State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

I have read this statement to President Cook and find he has expressed my own opinions about the work proposed, and the feasibility of the plan of doing it.

EDWIN C. HEWETT, EX-PRESIDENT,
State Normal University.

I have given the University Association a careful investigation, and feel justified in giving the plan my unqualified approval. I know of no movement of our day that seems so well fitted to bring the best thought of the age into the American homes as this. The men who are the originators and managers of this work are a sufficient guarantee as to its real worth. J. F. KNIGHT,
Superintendent of Schools, La Porte, Ind.

A cursory study of the aim and work of the University Association impresses me with the importance of an organization that carries with it so much that is educational. It is systematic, brief, yet comprehensive.

W. T. BUSHMAN,
Superintendent of Schools, Van Wert, Ohio.

We, the Ministerial Association of Harrisburg, Pa., in convention assembled, Resolved: that after carefully examining the courses of systematic study, as laid down by the University Association, of Chicago, Illinois, do most heartily endorse the course of said Association, and thoroughly commend it to others. That for systematic arrangement of subject matter; for thoroughness of treatment, omitting unimportant details, placing this historical course of instruction at our very doors—so to speak—the University Association has no superior, and very few, if any, equals.

Signed: REV. J. T. MORELAND, PRESIDENT.
H. C. C. ATWOOD, VICE-PRESIDENT.
REV. R. D. EPPS, SECRETARY.

To those desiring to pursue a course of reading in the history of the world, the University Association seems to present an excellent opportunity. The men engaged in the preparation of the work are well fitted for their task, and the plan appears to be delightfully and satisfactorily arranged.

FRANK B. COOPER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
Editor Iowa School Journal, Des Moines, Iowa.

I have examined the University Association course in history and find it an excellent one for more complete preparation in this especial line of work. I take pleasure in commending it to teachers and others desirous of advancement. W. A. McCORD,
Superintendent of Schools, Polk County, Des Moines, Iowa.

I have examined the plan of study suggested by the University Association and feel confident that it offers an excellent opportunity for systematic work, under guidance, to many who are denied the privilege of attending a higher institution of learning. The names of the directors and instructors also invite confidence in this plan.

JOHN H. FINLEY, D. D., PRESIDENT,
Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.

We therefore, as an association, heartily endorse the method pursued by the University Association, and we furthermore take pleasure in recommending the course to all who may be desirous of acquiring a more thorough knowledge of history.

The Mechanicsburg, Pa., Ministerial Association,
J. M. RUNKLE, SECRETARY.

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Bishop Fallows and his associates are doing a grand work in this direction. The pursuance of useful knowledge is being promoted and the outlook is most encouraging, for this latest organized expression of that lofty sentiment. "Not things, but men."

Chicago Evening Post:

With good men at its head and an excellent corps of instructors, there seems to be no reason why the Association should not grow rapidly and soon demonstrate its advantages.

Cincinnati Times-Star:

The whole scheme is the natural outgrowth of the University Extension and Chautauqua idea, and can scarcely fail to enlist the most cordial co-operation among students everywhere.

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The organization promises to be one of the best of its kind for literary and educational advancement ever organized in Alexis.

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..REPORTS FROM CENTERS..

Permit me to say that I feel greatly indebted to you for having introduced the University Association in our town, and made me acquainted with its work, privileges and benefits. Our class here numbers about forty and we have a regular attendance from twenty-five to thirty. They are all working and I believe feel as I do, that the Association is a most excellent thing and destined to grow and flourish, and not be a mere passing, vanishing pastime.

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It is the purpose of this Association to give the public an opportunity to participate in a series of intellectual entertainments founded upon the results of the World's Congresses. These valuable papers will be edited and presented to the members of the University Association, with their lessons.

Object. The object of the University Association is: To interest the people in the pursuit of useful knowledge. To bring to their homes and firesides the result of the profound study and investigation of the trained specialists in the different branches taught by them in the prominent colleges and universities of the country.

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THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION

COURSE IN UNIVERSAL HISTORY

THE ROMAN PERIOD

PREPARED BY

THOMAS NIXON CARVER, A.B., Ph.D., Prof. of History and Economics, Oberlin College, Ohio

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED.

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1. I. GEOGRAPHY AND ANCIENT RACES.

ITALY is the middle of three peninsulas of southern Europe. It projects in a south-easterly direction, and its extremity lies near the center of the Mediterranean. The chief outlying island, Sicily, is in plain sight from the Italian shore and only 90 miles from the coast of Africa.



Augustus.

The backbone of the peninsula is formed by the Apennines, which extend its entire length, and, three-fourths the way, run parallel to both coast lines. The Alps form an almost impassable barrier against the hostile tribes and the rigorous climate of the continent. The coast-line has few indentations, and these are mainly confined to the western coast. Here commerce sprang up first, as it had in Greece on the east coast, so that the two peninsulas were back to back. Northern Italy contains several large river valleys, but the southern part is broken and mountainous.

Politically, Italy was divided into Upper, Central, and Lower.

Upper Italy.—The valley of the Po and the land about the head of the Adriatic—contained Liguria, Cisalpine Gaul and Venetia.

Central Italy.—From the Rubicon and Macra on the north to the Silarus and Frento on the south—contained Etruria, Latium, and Campania on the west coast, and Umbria, Picenum and Samnium on the east coast.

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Lower Italy contained Apulia and Calabria on the east, and Lucania and Bruttium on the west.

Three primitive races inhabited ancient Italy: 1. The Iapygians in the south, supposed to have been driven southward by other immigrants from the north, were more nearly allied to the Greeks than other Italians. 2. The Italians, who migrated from the north and drove the Iapygians before them. 3. The Etruscans, who migrated still later from the north and are supposed to be non-Aryan, though this is disputed.

1. I. GEOGRAPHY AND ANCIENT RACES.

Contrast Between Northern and Southern Italy.—The prominent characteristic of the geography of Italy is the strong contrast between Northern Italy and Southern Italy. Northern Italy is nearly all plain; Southern Italy nearly all mountain. The conformation of the mountain ranges in the north leaves a vast plain between the parallel chains of the Swiss Alps and the Upper Apennines. This plain, through which the river Po flows from west to east, is from one hundred to one hundred and fifty miles wide. In Southern Italy, or the peninsula proper, there are few plains of more than a few miles in extent. The Apennines with their twisted spurs, spread widely over the country and constitute a continuous mountain region covering at least one half of the surface; and in Etruria, Latium and Campania separate systems of volcanic hills and mountains exist.—*Clare.*

The Iapygians occupied the heel of Italy in the south-eastern part of the peninsula, and are believed to have been of Hellenic origin, having crossed the narrow sea from Greece to Italy and having occupied most of the foot of Italy. The Iapygian language remains in many inscriptions . . . . which indicates the early relation of the Iapygians with the Greeks. Other circumstances showing their early connection with the Greeks are their worship of the Grecian gods and goddesses, and the readiness with which they really became Hellenized at a period. Thus it is apparent that a race kindred with the Greeks occupied most of Southern Italy in early times, and that that portion of the Italian peninsula was prepared for the subsequent more actually Hellenic colonies.—*Clare.*

The Italians.—The middle of the peninsula was inhabited, as far back as reliable tradition reaches, by two peoples or rather two branches of the same people, whose position in the Indo-Germanic family admits of being determined with greater precision than that of the Iapygian nation. We may with propriety call this people the Italian, since upon it rests the historical significance of the peninsula. It is divided into the two branch stocks of the Latins and the Umbrians; the latter including their southern offshoots, the Marsians and Samnites, and the colonies sent forth by the Samnites in historical times.—*Mommsen.*

Etruscans of Greek Descent.—If he (Æneas) had gone to the north of the river Tiber, he would have seen a mixed population enjoying a greater civilization than the others, the aristocracy of which had come also from the northern mountains, though the common people were from Greece or its colonies. These people of Greek descent were called Etruscans, and it has been discovered that they had advanced so far in civilization, that they afterwards gave many of their customs to the city of Rome when it came to power. A confederacy known as the "Twelve Cities of Etruria" became famous afterwards, though no one knows exactly which the twelve were. Probably they changed from time to time; some that belonged to the union at one period, being out of it at another.—*Gilman.*

The Etruscans were evidently a wealthy and luxurious race, and had made considerable progress in the arts, as shown by their castings in bronze, their terra-cotta figures, their vases, gold chains, bracelets and other ornaments. Their massive Cyclopean walls of unhammered stone attest their skill in architecture. They were the earliest of the races of Italy to engage in maritime enterprises, and the only one that exhibited a fondness for such pursuits. Etruscan pirates roamed over the Western Mediterranean from a very early period, and Agylla carried on an important commerce before B. C. 550.—*Clare.*

The nation of the Etruscans differed widely from the Latins, and their kinsmen, the Sabines. They spoke a language not understood by their neighbors. They were far advanced in civilization, in architecture and the other arts, in trade, navigation and manufactures, when the Romans were still half barbarians. Their settlements stretched at one time from the Alps to Campania. Latium lay between Campania and Etruria proper; it was, therefore, the country through which the Etruscans had to pass, if they proceeded southward by land. Nor are traces of Etruscan dominion wanting in Latium. The city of Tusculum betrays by its very name a Tuscan, i. e., an Etruscan origin; the town of Fidenæ, close to Rome, is admitted to have been Etruscan; Mezentius, an old Etruscan king, is said to have ruled in Latium; and the story of Porsena relates the victory of an Etruscan king over the Romans. Finally, what is perhaps the most significant hint, the insignia of the Roman kings were those of the kings of Etruria. If, in addition to all these indications, we find that some of the Roman kings were supposed to have come from Etruria, we have no difficulty in arriving at the conclusion that these kings were Etruscan conquerors.—*Ihne.*



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2. II. LEGENDS.

1. **Æneas, a Trojan,** escaped from the burning Troy and after many wanderings reached the coast of Latium. His son founded Alba Longa, where his descendants ruled 300 years.

2. **Romulus and Remus** were twins whom Rhea Silva, a vestal virgin, daughter of the dethroned king, Numitor of Alba Longa, bore to the god Mars. They were thrown into the Tiber by command of the usurper Amulius, but were stranded at the foot of the Palatine hill, suckled by a she-wolf, adopted and reared by a shepherd, and afterwards avenged themselves by slaying Amulius and reinstating Numitor. They returned to the Tiber to build a city. In a quarrel Remus was



Fresco of Gladiators, Pompeii.

slain by Romulus, who then made his city an asylum for fugitives from justice. Wanting wives, his men captured the Sabine women who had come down to Rome to see the games. The Sabines made war, but at the intercession of the women, who had become reconciled to their lot, a treaty was formed. Romulus organized the city and divided the people into classes.

3. **Numa Pompilius,** the priest-king, a Sabine, chosen on account of his piety, gave the people sacred laws, forbade savage customs and bloody offerings, taught the priests divination and organized the craftsmen into guilds.

4. **Tullus Hostilius,** a fighting king, conquered the Albans.

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5. **Ancus Marcius,** a peaceful king, was forced to war by the hostility of the Latins. He destroyed many of their cities, enlarged Rome, bridged the Tiber, and planted a colony at its mouth.

2. II. LEGENDS.

1. **Æneas** (see Glossary).

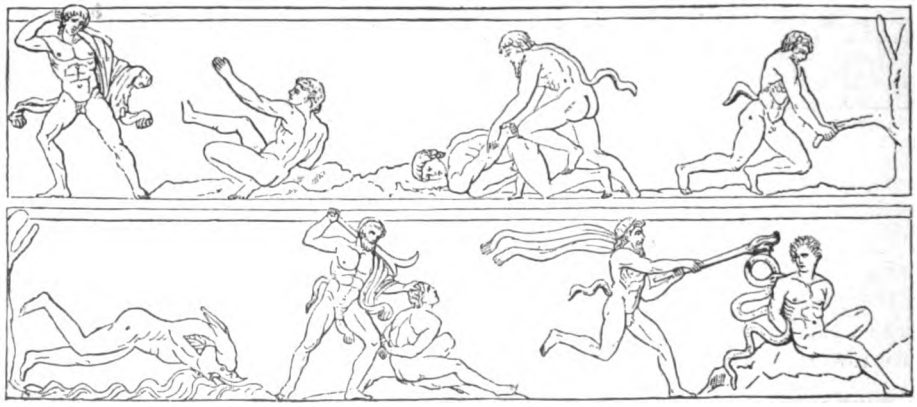
2. **Romulus.**—After a reign of thirty-seven years, Romulus came to his death in an unknown manner (B.C. 716). The Roman legend states that, while he was present at a public meeting in the Field of Mars, there arose a great tempest and whirlwind, while at the same time the sun was eclipsed and it was as dark as night. The furious storm, the thunder and lightning, and the solar eclipse, so terrified the people that they fled to their homes. When the storm was over, and the light of the sun returned, Romulus was not to be found. The Romans mourned for him, but believed that his father, Mars, the god of war, had carried him to heaven in a fiery chariot. Some time afterward, a Roman, while returning to the city by night from Alba Longa, saw the ghost of Romulus in more than mortal beauty. The ghost addressed this Roman thus: "Go tell my people to weep no more for me; bid them to be brave and warlike, and they shall make my city the greatest upon earth." The phantom then vanished. The Romans built a temple to Romulus, offered sacrifices to him, and worshiped him as a god by the name of Quirinus.—*Clare.*

THE CAPTURE OF THE SABINE WOMEN.—In one respect Rome was like our own country, for Plutarch says that it was proclaimed an asylum to which any who were oppressed might resort and be safe; but it was more, for all who had incurred the vengeance of the law were also taken in and protected from punishment. Romulus is said to have erected in a wood a temple to a god called Asylæus, where he "received and protected all, delivering none back—neither the servant to his master, the debtor to his creditor, nor the murderer into the hands of the magistrate; saying it was a privileged place, and they could so maintain it by an order of the holy oracle; inasmuch that the city grew presently very populous."

Rome was a colony of bachelors, and some of them pretty poor characters, too, so that there did not seem to be a very good chance that they could find women willing to become their wives. Romulus, like many an ardent lover since, evidently thought that all was fair in love and war, and, after failing in all his efforts to lead the neighboring people to allow the Roman men to marry their women, he gave it out that he had discovered the altar of the god Consus, who presided over secret deliberations—a very suitable divinity to come up at the juncture—and that he intended to celebrate his feast. Consus was honored on the twenty-first of August, and this celebration would come, therefore, just four months after the founding of the city. There were horse and chariot races, and libations which were poured into the flames that consumed the sacrifices.

The people of the country around Rome were invited to take part in the novel festivities, and they were nothing loth to come, for they had considerable curiosity to see what sort of a city had so quickly grown up on the Palatine Hill. At a signal from Romulus, when the games were at the most exciting stage, and the strangers were scattered about among the Romans, each follower of Romulus seized the maiden that he had selected, and carried her off. It is said that as the men made the seizure, they cried out, "Talasia" which means spinning, and that at all marriages in Rome afterwards, that word formed the refrain of a song, sung as the bride was approaching her husband's house. We cannot imagine the disturbance with which the festival broke up, as the distracted strangers found out that they were the victims of a trick, and that their loved daughters had been taken from them.—*Gilman.*

3. **Numa Pompilius.** 4. **Tullus Hostilius.** 5. **Ancus Marcius** (see Glossary).



Fresco of Ancient Games, Pompeii.

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3.

6. **Tarquinius Priscus,** a Greek exile, settled at Tarquinii, came to Rome, and became counselor of Ancus Marcius. He managed by intrigue to be chosen king. He succeeded Ancus, carried on various wars, increased the number of noble families, built the temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline and the great sewer, and instituted games.

7. **Servius Tullius,** like Romulus, born of a virgin and a god, was brought up in the household of Tarquinius, whom he succeeded. He built the temple of Diana, extended the walls of the city, divided the city and territory for administrative purposes, extended the representation of the commons by basing citizenship on military service. He was murdered by the authority of his daughter Tullia and her husband. Lucius Tarquinius, who now ruled as

8. **Tarquinius Suberbus.**—He was much hated, but extended Roman power over Latium and bought the Sibylline books. His son Sextus, out of jealousy, outraged Lucretia, the wife of his cousin Collatinus. The incensed populace, headed by Junius Brutus, overthrew the monarchy and set up a republic. Tarquin went to Etruria and engaged Porsena, king of Clusium, to make war upon Rome in his behalf. He besieged Rome and seems to have been for a time in possession of the city. Tarquin next allied himself with the Latins, but they were defeated by the Romans in the battle of Lake Regillus.

The whole story of the period of monarchy is legendary, but there is doubtless some historical basis for it. There was doubtless a period when Rome was ruled by kings, and the republic was probably established by a revolution and then forced to defend itself against reactionary interference on the part of outside powers.

3.

6. **Tarquinius Priscus.**—(See Glossary.)

The Capitoline Hill.—This hill is said to have received its name from the fact that as the men were preparing for the foundation of the temple, they came upon a human head, fresh and bleeding, from which it was augured that the spot was to become the head of the world.—*Gilman.*

7. **Servius Tullius.**—(See Glossary.)

8. **Tarquinius Suberbus.**—*Sibylline books.*—It is said that Amalthea, the mysterious sibyl of Cumae, one day came to Tarquin with nine sealed prophetical books (which, she said, contained the destiny of the Romans and the mode to bring it about), that she offered to sell. The king refused, naturally unwilling to pay for things which he could not examine, and thereupon the unreasonable being went away and destroyed three of the volumes that she had described as of inestimable value. Soon afterwards she returned and offered the remaining six for the price that she had demanded for the nine. Once more the tyrant declined the offer, and again the aged sibyl destroyed three, and demanded the original price for the remainder. The king's curiosity was now aroused, and he bought the three books, upon which the prophetess vanished. The volumes were placed under the new temple on the Capitoline, no one doubting that they actually contained precepts of the utmost importance. The wise looking augurs came together, peered into rolls, and told the king and the people that they were right, and age after age the books were appealed to for direction, though, as the people never were permitted even to peep into the sacred cell in which they were hidden, they never could be quite certain that the augurs who consulted them found anything in them that they did not put there themselves.—*Gilman.*

Brutus' Love for Justice.—The following circumstance in connection with the legendary history of Brutus illustrates the stern virtue and indomitable patriotism of this wonderful man. After his expulsion, Tarquin the Proud sent to Rome to ask for all the goods that had belonged to him, and after some time the Senate ordered that his goods should be restored to him. But those whom he had sent to Rome to ask for his goods conspired with many young patricians and the sons of Brutus to restore the deposed and exiled king to his throne. A slave accidentally overheard them talking together, and when he had ascertained that the letters were to be given to the messengers of Tarquin, he went to Brutus and told him all that he had heard. Brutus then ordered the lictors to bind his own two sons, Titus and Tiberius, along with the other conspirators, and to scourge them with rods, in accordance with the law. The stern Brutus, in his judgment-seat in the Forum, from feelings of patriotism, which made him forget the father in the judge, then ordered the execution of his sons. Accordingly, the lictors struck off their heads with their axes before their father's eyes. Brutus did not stir from his seat, nor turn his eyes away from the sight. But the spectators saw that the stern father and patriot was inwardly grieving over his children. "Then they marveled at him, because he loved justice more than his own blood, and had not spared his own children when they had been false to their country and had offended against the law."—*Clare.*

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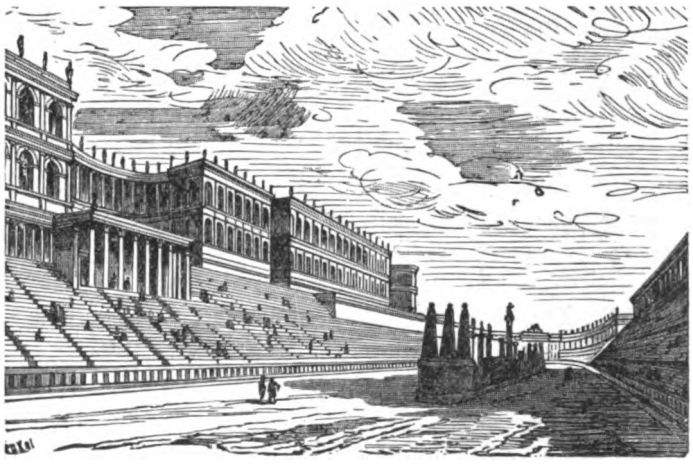
4. III. PROBABLE ORIGIN OF THE CITY OF ROME.

THE HISTORY OF ROME is the history of the rise of a single city, and the gradual extension of its authority over the civilized world. Its origin is shrouded in mystery. The site of the city was undesirable from a physical standpoint. The climate was unhealthy, the water was bad, pasturage poor, the soil unproductive of either grain or fruit, and the valleys between the hills were swampy and subject to overflow. But the site was at or near the point where the boundaries of the land of three tribes—the Latins, the Sabines and the Etruscans—converged. At such places, which were usually neutral, inter-tribal commerce began and the germs of commercial life were planted in the form of primitive market-places. Around this particular market place, which afterward became the Roman forum, settlers began to take up their abode.



Circus Maximus.

There is abundant archæological evidence that before the existence of the city there were three independent fortified villages situated upon three of the Roman hills, the one on the Capitoline being Sabine, the one on the Palatine Latin, and the one on the Cælian, probably Etruscan. The requirements of trade and the needs of defense brought about a federation of these villages into a single commonwealth. In later times the citizens continued to be divided into three tribes, the Ramnes, Tities and Luceres, which were regarded respectively as of Latin, Sabine and Etruscan origin.

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4. III. PROBABLE ORIGIN OF THE CITY OF ROME.

Rome began as a Single City.—The growth of her power was slow but steady. She became head, —*first*, of the neighboring settlements; *second*, of Latium; *third*, of Italy; and *fourth*, of the lands around the Mediterranean. In her early history, there was a fabulous period during which she was ruled by kings. The last of the seven monarchs belonged to a foreign dynasty, and upon his expulsion a republic was established. Two centuries of conflict ensued between the patricians and the plebs, but the latter, going oftentimes to Mount Sacer, gained their end and established a democracy.

Meanwhile, wars with powerful neighbors and with the awe-inspiring Gauls had developed the Roman character in all its sternness, integrity, and patriotism. Rome next came in contact with Pyrrhus, and learned how to fortify her military camps; then with Carthage, and she found out the value of a navy. An apt pupil, she gained the mastery of the sea, invaded Africa, and in the end razed Carthage to the ground. Turning to the west, she secured Spain—the silver producing country of that age—and Gaul, whose fiery sons filled the depleted ranks of her legions. At the east, she intrigued where she could and fought where she must, and by disorganizing states made them first her dependencies, and then her provinces. Greece, Macedon, Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, Babylon, were but stepping stones in her progress until Parthia alone remained to bar her advance to the Indus and the ocean.

But within her gates the struggle between the rich and the poor still went on. Crowds of slaves —captives of her many wars—thronged her streets, kept her shops, waited in her homes, tilled her land, and tended her flocks. The plebeians, shut out from honest toil, struggled for the patrician's dole. The Civil Wars of Sulla and Marius drenched her pavements with the blood of her citizens. The triumphs of Cæsar shed a gleam of glory over the fading republic, but the mis-aimed daggers of Brutus and Cassius that slew the dictator struck at the heart of liberty as well.

Augustus brought in the empire and an era of peace. Now the army gained control of the state. Weak and wicked emperors, the luxury of wealth, the influx of Oriental profligacy, the growth of atheism, and the greed of conquest, undermined the fabric of Roman greatness. The inhabitants of the provinces were made Romans, and, Rome itself being lost in the empire it had created, other cities became the seats of government. Amid the ruins of the decaying monarchy a new religion supplanted the old, and finally, Teutonic hordes from the north overwhelmed the city that for centuries their own soldiers had alone upheld.—*Mrs. Steele.*

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5. IV. POLITICAL ORGANIZATION.

1. **The King** was, at first, the chief magistrate and high-priest. He was elected by the senators, but held office for life. He appointed judges to try criminal cases, and in course of time a supreme pontiff was put in charge of religious matters. After the overthrow of the monarchy, two consuls, holding office for one year, were substituted for the kingship.

2. **The Senate** was made up of the heads of great families and was a consultive and not a legislative body. It had veto power and a certain amount of executive authority.

3. **The People** were divided into two general classes: The patricians, who were full citizens, and the plebeians, who in early times enjoyed few civil rights. The



The Colosseum at Rome.

patricians were probably the descendants of the original settlers, the "first families," or the "old timers," while the plebeians were newcomers. The clients were plebeians who attached themselves to the great families as dependents or serfs.

THE PATRICIANS were divided into three tribes, the Ramnes, Tities and Luceres, and each tribe into ten centuries.

4. **Popular Assemblies.** (1) *Comitia Curiata*, assembly of the curiæ, the oldest popular assemby, was a patrician body. Each of the thirty curiæ had one vote, and this vote was determined by a majority of its own members. The king presided, but this assembly had lost most of its power before the republic was established. (2) *Comitia Centuriata* developed out of the military organization, said to have been perfected by Servius Tullius. It was composed of the entire military population and therefore contained both patricians and plebs. Under the monarchy it was consulted only on questions of peace or war, but under the republic it elected the consuls, one of whom presided over its meetings. (3) The *Comitia Tributa* originated under the republic for election of Tribunes and Ædiles. It was composed

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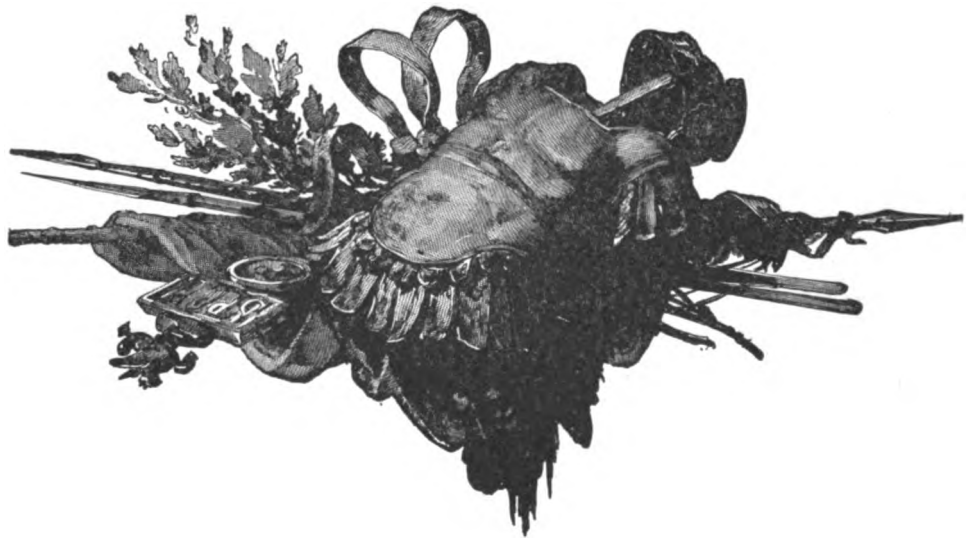
wholly of plebeians, and decided questions concerning them alone. This assembly afterwards became the most powerful of the three.

5. IV. POLITICAL ORGANIZATION.

1. **The King.**—But probably it was not really by popular election that the king was appointed. We know that the priests even of the republican period were not elected by the suffrages of the people but were nominated by other priests. We may, therefore, infer that when the hierarchical principle was in full force, that is, in the regal period, the kings were nominated by the between kings (*inter reges*), *i.e.*, by those senators who, according to a prescribed form, were selected from among the senators for the purpose of appointing a successor.—*Ihne.*

2. **The Senate** was not a representative assembly in the strict sense of the word. The members were not elected by the suffrage of the people; nor did they sit and vote for particular divisions of the nation or territory. They were nominated by the executive government, *i. e.*, by the consuls, and after the establishment of the censorship in (443 B.C.) by the censors. Only in a limited degree and in an indirect way had the people any influence in the nomination of Senators, inasmuch as they elected the electors. And as the latter were bound to call into the Senate men who enjoyed the confidence of the people, in the first instance, therefore they were men who had discharged public offices. . . . As the Senators held their seats for life or at least during good behavior, and as the Senate accordingly was never renewed *in toto* by a dissolution, it constituted a permanent, undying body, only receiving fresh blood from time to time, as old men dropped off and others were substituted in their place. They may, in short, be said to have held life peerages. —*Ihne.*

4. **Popular Assemblies.** — The inhabitants within the walls were divided into four "regions," or districts—the Palatine, the Colline, the Esquiline, and the Suburban. The subjected districts outside, which were inhabited by plebeians, were divided into twenty-six other regions, thus forming thirty tribes containing both plebeians and patricians. The census gave Servius a list of all the citizens and their property, and upon the basis of this information he separated the entire population into *six classes*, comprising one hundred and ninety-three subdivisions or "centuries," thus introducing a new principle, and placing wealth at the bottom of social distinctions, instead of birth. This naturally pleased the plebeians, but was not approved by the citizens of high pedigree, who thus lost some of their prestige.



Roman Armor.

The newly formed centuries together constituted the *Comitia Centuriata* (gathering of the centuries) or National Assembly, which met for business on the Campus Martius, somewhat after the manner of a New England "Town Meeting." In these conclaves they elected certain magistrates, gave sanction to legislative acts, and decided upon war or peace. This Comitia formed the highest court of appeal known to Roman law. Besides this general assembly of the entire "Populus Romanus," Servius established a Comitia in each tribe, authorized to exercise jurisdiction in local affairs.—*Gilman.*

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6. V. RELIGION.

The Religion of the Romans, like that of other Aryan races, was polytheistic and like other polytheistic religions was an attempt to explain the phenomena of nature. *Jupiter*, the father of gods and men, was the god of the sky. *Juno*, his wife, was goddess of maternity; *Minerva*, goddess of the intellect, presided over the arts; *Mars*, god of war, was the representative Roman divinity; *Vesta*, patroness of the Roman national life, was goddess of the national hearth where burned the sacred fire. (Hers was the most ideal form of Roman worship, and represented the domestic character and virtues of the people.) *Ceres* and *Saturn*, goddess and god of agriculture; *Ops*, goddess of the harvest and wealth; *Hercules*, god of gain, presiding over the sanctity of contracts; *Mercury*, god of traffic; *Neptune*, god of the sea; *Venus*, not an original divinity, in later times became goddess of love. Besides these there were many lesser gods who watched over all the acts of individuals.



Interior of a Roman Tomb.

THE WORSHIP of the Romans consisted of ceremonies, prayers, sacrifices, festivals and games, all conducted according to prescribed forms. The purpose was the conciliation of the gods. Every father was the priest of his own household. Public ceremonies were conducted by the priesthood. Under the monarchy, the king presided at public ceremonies, but under the republic a *rex sacrificulus* performed that function. The priesthood consisted of two classes or orders:

1. *Colleges of sacred learning.*—(a) College of Pontiffs, who controlled the calendar. (b) College of Augurs, who consulted the will of the gods through divination, omens, etc. (c) College of Fetiales, who controlled the relations between Rome and other States. (d) Duumviri Sacrorum, who had charge of the Sibylline books.

2. *Colleges of officiating priests.*—(a) Flamines, (b) Salic brethren, (c) Vestal Virgins, (d) Luperci, (e) Arval brethren.

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6. V. RELIGION.

The Religion of the Romans, though belonging to that class of polytheism which prevailed, as far as we can see, among all the branches of the Aryan race, differed widely not only from that of Asiatic nations, but also from that of the Greeks, their nearest neighbors. It agreed in so far as it was a worship of the powers of nature, both material and spiritual. The Heavens, the Sun and the Moon, Light, Water, the Earth, the Powers presiding over generation and destruction, Health and Sickness, the ruling Passions of the human heart, the Protectors of law and society, all were singled out from the all-pervading godhead, the life and spirit of the world, to receive separate and special worship from man.

While other nations speculated with more or less perseverance on the nature and attributes of the divine beings, and laid down elaborate systems of the birth and genealogy of the gods, investing them with human forms and passions, the Romans never indulged in such speculations, but were satisfied to look upon their gods as *spiritual beings*, all-powerful to hurt or to benefit man. *They* never worked out a philosophical system of religion, in fact, they had no theology and no sacred books to base it on. Before they became directly or indirectly acquainted with the Greeks, they had at best only a rudimentary mythology, and consequently there are no myths of genuine Roman growth.—*Ihne.*

The Roman Religion, like the Grecian, was a polytheism. The Romans had no images of their gods for the first one hundred and seventy years after the founding of the city. In every nation idolatry has perhaps been a later corruption of an earlier and more spiritual system. The Roman religion was not so beautiful and varied in its conceptions as the Grecian. It furnished little inspiration to poetry or art, but it kept alive the domestic virtues, and regulated the transactions of the farm, the forum and the shop, by a series of principles pure in themselves and derived from a higher range of being.—*Clare.*

Colleges of Sacred Learning.—It was natural that the worshiper of the gods should regularly consult men of skill and listen to their advice; and

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thence arose the *corporations* or *colleges of men* specially skilled in religious lore, a thoroughly national Italian institution, which had a far more important influence on political development than the individual priests or priesthoods. These *colleges* have been often, but erroneously, confounded with the *priesthoods*. The *priesthoods* were charged with the worship of a *specific divinity*; the *skilled colleges*, on the other hand, were charged with the *preservation* of *traditional rules* regarding those more general religious observances, the proper fulfillment of which implied a certain amount of information and rendered it necessary that the state in its own interest should provide for the faithful transmission of that information. These close corporations supplying their own vacancies, of course from the ranks of the burgesses, became in this way the depositories of skilled arts and sciences.—*Mommsen.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **GEOGRAPHY.**—ITALY.—Upper Italy, Central Italy and Lower Italy.
   RACES.—Iapygians, Italians and Etruscans.
2. **LEGENDS.**—Æneas, Romulus and Remus, Numa Pompilius, Tullus Hostilius and Ancus Marcius.
3. **LEGENDS.**—(Continued)—Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius, Tarquinius Suberbus and Porsena.
4. **ORIGIN OF THE CITY OF ROME.**—Site, Climate, Soil, Latins, Sabines and Etruscans, Roman Forum.
5. **POLITICAL ORGANIZATION.**—The King, Senate, People, Comitia Curiata, Comitia Centuriata, and Comitia Tributa.
6. **RELIGION.**—GENERAL CHARACTER.—Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, Mars, Vesta, Ceres, Saturn, Ops, Hercules, Mercury, Neptune, Venus
   COLLEGES (1) of sacred learning; (2) officiating priests.

QUESTIONS.

1. *Give the geographical features of Italy? The divisions? In what respects does Italy differ from Greece? Which do you consider the better country for the development of a people? State what you can of the history of the Iapygians? The Italians? The Etruscans? What was the probable ethnic relation of each? In what ways did each excel the others? Which race was considered the most advanced in civilization? In what respects?*

2. *Who was Æneas? Relate the story of Romulus and Remus? How were the Sabine women captured? Who was Numa Pompilius? Tullus Hostilius? Ancus Marcius?*

3. *Give the history of Tarquinius Priscus? Servius Tullius? Tarquinius Suberbus? Porsena? Is there any historical basis for these legends? How did they influence the early Romans? How did Rome compare in this respect with Greece? In what respects were Grecian legends superior? Compare the legendary period of the Romans with similar periods in the history of other nations?*

4. *What is known in reference to the origin of Rome? What was the character of the site? The climate? Soil? What probably governed the selection of the site? In what ways is the triune origin of the city shown?*

5. *What may be said of the Roman king? How was the senate constituted? How were the people divided? What was the origin of each class? What was the character of the Comitia Curiata? The Comitia Centuriata? The Comitia Tributa? Name the strong points of each? The defects? How did these assemblies compare with modern assemblies having a similar purpose? With similar bodies of other ancient nations?*

6. *What was the character of the Roman religion? Compare with the Greeks and Egyptians, in each noting: The character of the religion? Advantages and defects? How the people were influenced? What was the function of the college of sacred learning? Colleges of officiating priests?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Rome was settled by fugitives: Were their descendants a people of peculiar dispositions and traits? Did it cause Rome to become more cosmopolitan than other cities?*

2. *To what extent were the Romans indebted to the Greeks? Give the reasons for your answers.*

3. *Compare in detail some of the Roman legends with similar legends of the Greeks: In what ways were the legends of the Greeks superior? Give your reasons for your conclusions.*

4. *Up to date we have studied, (1) the geography of Italy; (2) the Roman legends; (3) the origin of the city; (4) the early political organization, and (5) the Roman religion. Considering the character of the these five points what would you predict for the future of the Romans?*

5. *Carefully study the history of the Etruscans, noting: Their origin and kindred, degree and character of their civilization, political skill and ambitions? To what extent have they influenced Roman history?*

6. *What geographical reasons can you give for the race-divisions of Italy? What geographic contrasts do you see between Greece and Italy? What difference will these contrasts cause (a) in relative dates of the beginnings of Greek and Italian civilization; (b) in the size of Greek and Italian states; (c) in the natural occupations of the inhabitants? Give the reasons for your answers.*

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7. VI. DEVELOPMENT OF POPULAR LIBERTY DOWN TO 286 B. C.

1. **Representation.**—The change from a monarchy to a republic left the power in the hands of the patricians. During the next 230 years a series of changes made the state a complete democracy. The establishment of the republic gave a new power to the Assembly of the Centuries, because it chose the Consuls. The Assembly of the tribes gained its first political advantage at the establishment of the Tribuneship.



Niobe.

2. **The Tribuneship.**—All public land belonged legally to the patricians, though pleb soldiers helped to win it. Because the plebs had no magistrates they were often imposed upon. In 494 the plebeians seceded and went to a small hill three miles from Rome to found a new city. The Patricians, alarmed, made concessions, and the Tribunate was created. The Tribunes, chosen from among the plebs, by the assembly of the tribes, were inviolable, could prevent the enforcement of any unjust act against any plebeian, presided over the assembly of the tribes, sat in the Senate and could veto its proceedings. They were from two to five in number.

3. **Agrarian Law of Spurius Cassius** (486) proposed to distribute part of the public lands among the needy plebeians and Latins. Patricians opposed it and plebs were dissatisfied with it because it favored the Latins. Spurius Cassius was defeated and afterward executed. (See Glossary.)

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7. VI. DEVELOPMENT OF POPULAR LIBERTY DOWN TO 286 B. C.

1. **Representation.**—*The Republic.*—The establishment of the republic marked an era in the history of Rome. The people had decreed, as has been said, that for them there never should be a king, and the law was kept to the letter; though, if they meant that supreme authority should never be held among them by one man, it was violated many times. The story of Rome is unique in the history of the world, for it is not the record of the life of one great country, but of a city that grew to be strong, and successfully established its authority over many countries. The most ancient and the most remote from the sea of the cities of Latium. Rome soon became the most influential, and began to combine in itself the traits of the people near it; but owing to the singular strength and rare impressiveness of the national character, these were assimilated, and the inhabitant of the capital remained distinctively a Roman in spite of his intimate association with men of different origin and training.—*Gilman.*

2. **The Tribuneship.**—In addition to temporary enactments, particularly for remedying the most urgent distress occasioned by debt, and for providing for a number of the rural population by the founding of various colonies, the dictator carried in constitutional form a law, which he moreover —doubtless in order to secure amnesty to the burgesses for the breach of their military oath—caused every individual member of the community to swear to, and then had it deposited in a temple under the charge and custody of two magistrates specially appointed from the plebs for the purpose, the two "house-masters." This law placed by the side of the two patrician consuls two plebeian tribunes, who were to be elected by the plebeians assembled *in curies.* The power of the tribunes was of no avail in opposition to the military imperium, that is, in opposition to the authority of the dictator everywhere or to that of the consuls beyond the city; but it confronted, on the footing of independence and equality, the ordinary civil powers which the consuls exercised. There was, however, no partition of powers. The tribunes obtained on the one hand the right to cancel any command issued by a magistrate, by which the burgess, whom it affected, considered himself aggrieved, through a protest duly and personally tendered; and on the other hand they obtained or assumed the prerogative of pronouncing criminal sentences without limit and of defending them, if an appeal took place, before the assembled people. To these there was very soon attached the further prerogative of addressing the people in general and of procuring the adoption of resolutions.—*Mommsen.*

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4. **First Roman Code** (450).—Decemvirs, a body of ten chosen patricians, drew up a code of laws, engraved them on copper plates and set them up in the forum. They were known as the Laws of the Twelve Tables. This enabled the people to know the law, and not to be at the mercy of the aristocratic magistrates.

5. **Horatian Laws** (448).—(a) Made the resolves of the Assembly of Tribes of equal force with those of the Assembly of the Centuries. (b) Appeals allowed from the decision of every magistrate, including dictator. (c) Inviolability of both Tribunes and Ædiles recognized.

6. **Canulian Law** (445) legalized marriage between patricians and plebeians. This tended to break down the barrier between the classes.

7. **Military Tribunes with Consular Power Authorized.**—Two patrician Censors to be chosen by the Assembly of the Centuries.

8. **Licinian Rogations** (367).—(a) Reduced the burdens of the debtors. (b) Prohibited possession of over 500 jugera of the public lands. (c) Military tribunes abolished, but one of the two consuls must be chosen from among plebeians.



Seneca.

9. **Publilian Law Provided.**—(a) That an act of the Assembly of Tribes should be enforced without requiring the sanction of the Assembly of the Centuries. (b) Laws presented to the Assembly of the Centuries must be first approved by Senate. (c) One Censor must be a pleb.

10. **Hortensian Law** declared that all decrees of the Assembly of the Tribes should be binding on all citizens.

Thus, between 510 and 286 B.C., the commonwealth had gradually changed from a rigid aristocracy to a complete democracy. But from this time the importance of both the popular assemblies began to decline and their actions were controlled more and more by their officers.

8.

4. **First Roman Code.**—*Decemvirs.*—A vile outrage committed by Appius Claudius led to the overthrow of the Decemvirate. Appius had conceived a strong passion for the beautiful Virginia, the fifteen-year old daughter of the plebeian Virginius, who was a distinguished centurion in the army. Appius Claudius had seen the charming maiden going daily to school in the Forum, attended by her nurse, and he determined to get her into his possession. He caused her to be seized in the Forum, and declared that she was the slave of one of his clients, that she had been born of a slave woman in his house, and sold to the wife of Virginius, who had no children of her own. . . . Virginius, who was with the Roman army before Tusculum, was hastily summoned, and, after riding all night, reached the city early the next morning. In the character of a suppliant he appeared in the Forum with his daughter and a host of matrons and friends. But his plea was not heard. To his utter amazement and indignation, Appius Claudius decided that the maiden should be considered a slave until her freedom could be proved, in spite of the existence of a law proposed by himself the previous year, that no one should be regarded as a slave until proven such. Seeing that justice was denied him before such a tribunal, Virginius requested one last word with his daughter; and, drawing her aside with her nurse into one of the stalls of the Forum, he seized a butcher's knife and plunged it into her heart, exclaiming: "Thus only, my child, can I keep thee free." Then turning to Appius Claudius, he cried: "On thy head be the curse of this innocent blood." The Decemvir ordered the instant arrest of Virginius, but not a hand was raised to seize him. With the bloody knife in his hand, he rushed through the multitude in the Forum, mounted his horse at the city gate, and rode to the army before Tusculum.—*Clare.*

Laws of the Twelve Tables.—(see Glossary.)

5. **Horatian Laws.**—(see Glossary.)

6. **Canulian Law.**—This law, which seems to have caused so much heart-burning and to have been a bone of contention in the second year of the decemvirate, was really no advantage to the patricians, but on the contrary a cause of weakness, as it prevented the aristocracy from gaining strength by the infusion of new blood.—*Ihne.*

7. **Military Tribunes** (see Gossary).

8. **Licinian Rogations, Publilian Law, Hortensian Law.**—(see Glossary.)

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9. VII. EXTENSION OF ROMAN DOMINION.

1. **Early Struggle for Existence.**—The accounts of many of the early wars are legendary, yet it is doubtless true that the Romans often attacked and were attacked by their rivals. This early warfare had united the people and given them a powerful military organization before the beginning of the historic period. Probably the first severe military struggle grew out of the overthrow of the monarchy. The Tarquins engaged the Etruscans to replace the king on his throne. The story of Horatius at the bridge and of Scævola burning off his right hand to show his courage, refer to this struggle. Next the Latins allied themselves with Tarquin, but were defeated, according to legend, by the aid of the twin gods, Castor and Pollux, at the battle of Lake Regillus. The Roman dominions were greatly reduced by these wars.

Again, in 458, Rome's rivals took advantage of her internal dissensions to wage war upon her. The Sabines, the Æquians, and finally the Etruscans, joined the coalition. While one consul was fighting the Sabines, the Æquians defeated the other and shut his army up in a narrow valley. Cincinnatus was called from his plow to take command of affairs. He defeated and captured the army of the Æquians, returned to Rome, gave up his command and retired to his farm. During a ten-year siege of Veii, the first paid standing army was formed. Out of this terrible struggle, which lasted sixty-eight years, Rome emerged not only victorious, but with wider dominion than ever.

Before these wars were fairly ended, the Gauls from the valley of the Po arrived on a career of devastation through central Italy. They routed the Roman army at Allia, eleven miles from the city (390 B.C.). They captured, sacked, and burned the city, and attempted to surprise and capture the citadel, where a few soldiers had taken refuge, but failed because the garrison was alarmed by the cackling of the sacred geese. Trouble in their country and the arrival of Roman re-enforcements finally caused them to abandon the city. Rome was rebuilt, but with little regard to the old streets and system of sewerage.

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9. VII. EXTENSION OF ROMAN DOMINION.

1. **Early Struggle for Existence.**—HORATIUS.—One of the most famous legends of this Etruscan war was that of Horatius. When Lars Porsena, king of Clusium, had reached the Hill Janiculum, just across the Tiber from Rome, the city was in the most imminent danger of capture, as the Etruscans could have entered it by crossing the Sublician bridge. But in this dire extremity the city was saved by the valor of Horatius, who, with almost superhuman strength, kept the whole Etruscan army at bay, while his two comrades broke down the bridge behind him. Then fervently praying: "O Father Tiber, take me into thy charge and bear me up," he plunged into the stream, and, amid a shower of darts from the enemy, he swam to the opposite shore in safety. The state honored him with a statue and bestowed upon him as much land as he was able to plow around in one day. Few Roman legends are more celebrated than this gallant deed of Horatius, and Roman historians in later ages loved to relate it. —*Clare.*

SCÆVOLA.—While Lars Porsena was besieging Rome, a young Roman patrician, named Mucius, penetrated into the Etruscan camp for the purpose of assassinating Porsena, but, by mistake, he killed one of the attendants of the Clusian king. Thereupon he was seized and brought into the presence of Porsena, who threatened him with torture unless he made a confession. But Mucius thrust his right hand into a fire that was burning close by and kept it there until it was burnt off, to show Porsena that no torture could induce him to betray the plans of his countrymen. Porsena, admiring such fortitude and patriotism, gave Mucius his liberty; whereupon the heroic young Roman, in gratitude, warned the Clusian king to raise the siege of Rome and make peace, as three hundred young Romans had sworn to take his life, and that he had been chosen by lot to make the first attempt. Porsena, alarmed for his life, immediately made peace with the Romans and marched home. The Romans ever afterward held Mucius in high honor and bestowed upon him the surname of Scævola, the Left-handed.—*Clare.*

Castor and Pollux.—(see Glossary.)

CINCINNATUS.—There was nothing now to be done but to name a dictator, and only one man seemed to be fit to fill the post. This was Lucius Quinctius Cincinnatus, a noble patrician who had long served his country in peace and war as senator and consul, and was then living quietly at home, cultivating his small estate with his own hands. Now, when the messengers of the senate came to Cincinnatus to announce to him that he was nominated dictator, they found him plowing. He accepted the dictatorship, rescued the blockaded army, and returned in triumph to Rome. He then went back to his fields, crowned with glory and honor by the people.—*Edited from Ihne.*

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2. **Conquest of Italy.**—For two hundred years after the foundation of the republic the Romans were too busy with internal quarrels to undertake many offensive wars. But with the equalization of political rights came a period of internal peace, and they then began a career of conquest that made them the rulers of the civilized world.

(*a*) **The Samnites,** their neighbors on the east, were the first victims. In three Samnite wars (343-341, 326-304, 298-290), caused by Roman aggression and colonization on their territory, the Samnites were reduced to subjection, and portions of their lands forfeited to the Roman public. During the Samnite wars nearly every other tribe of central Italy had become involved in war with Rome. *But the Romans never made permanent peace except by the submission of their foes.*

(*b*) **The Latin War.**—Though subjects of Rome the Latins enjoyed none of the rights of citizenship. Their demands not being recognized, they rebelled. Rome broke up the Latin League by making concessions to some of the towns to get them to withdraw, and then subdued the rest.

These wars left Rome supreme in central Italy. She next turned her attention to the south.

(*c*) **War with Pyrrhus and Tarentum (282-272).**—Tarentum was a Greek city and the metropolis of Lower Italy. Her people, like all Greeks at this time, despised the Romans as a set of barbarians. They captured some Roman ships that were anchored in their harbor and refused the Roman demand for satisfaction. The Romans declared war and the Tarentines turned to Greece for help. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus and cousin of Alexander the Great, responded. At Heraclea (280) the Romans for the first time met the invincible Greek phalanx and were defeated, but they inflicted great loss upon the enemy. Again, at Asculum (279), Pyrrhus was victorious, but suffered such severe loss that he withdrew to Sicily to aid the Greek colonies against Carthage. Fortune turning against him he again returned to Italy and was disastrously defeated by the Romans at Beneventum (274). He returned to Epirus and Tarentum fell into the hands of the Romans (274). Rome had now made herself mistress of the whole of Italy south of the Arno and the Rubicon. But, more than that, she had met and defeated the far-famed Greek phalanx. (Tarentum, Heraclea, Asculum, Beneventum, Arno.—(See Glossary).

10.

2. **Conquest of Italy.**—(*a*) THE SAMNITES.—Among the strange customs of the olden times in Italy was one called ver sacrum (sacred spring). In time of distress a vow would be made to sacrifice every creature born in April and May to propitiate an offended deity. In many cases man and beast were thus offered; but in time humanity revolted against the sacrifice of children, and they were considered sacred, but allowed to grow up, and at the age of twenty were sent blindfolded out into the world beyond the frontier to found a colony wherever the gods might lead them. The Mamertines in Sicily sprang from such emigrants, and it is supposed that the Samnites had a similar origin. —*Gilman.*

(*b*) **The Latin War.**—The effect of the victory was the dissolution of the Latin League. It was transformed from an independent political federation into a mere association for the purpose of a religious festival; the ancient stipulated rights of the confederacy as to a maximum for the levy of troops and a share of the gains of war perished as such along with it, and assumed, where they were recognized in future, the character of acts of grace. Instead of the one treaty between Rome on the one hand and the Latin confederacy on the other, perpetual alliances were entered into between Rome and the several confederate towns The principle of isolating the communities from each other, which had already been established in regard to the places founded after 370, was thus extended to the whole Latin nation.—*Mommsen.*

(*c*) **Pyrrhus.**—During the winter an embassy was sent from Rome to negotiate with Pyrrhus for an exchange of prisoners. At the head of this embassy was Fabricius, a Roman Senator, who had long been a model to his countrymen for his contentment amid poverty. Pyrrhus received the embassy very kindly, and offered the venerable senator costly gifts, in order to test his integrity; but Fabricius was proof against such temptation. The next day Pyrrhus ordered one of his largest elephants to be placed behind a curtain, which was drawn at a signal, and discovered the animal raising his trunk over the old Senator's head in a threatening manner. Fabricius stood unterrified, and then turning to the Epirote king, said: "Neither your gold yesterday nor your big beast today can move me." Pyrrhus was highly pleased with this answer.—*Clare.*

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11.

3. **The Struggle with Carthage.**—Having established her supremacy in Italy, Rome now entered upon a career of foreign conquest. Her great rival was Carthage, the greatest maritime power of that age, and at that time in full control of the Mediterranean. The Greek colony of Syracuse still controlled a part of the island, and both Rome and Carthage undertook to interfere in behalf of a band of Mamertine pirates, who had taken possession of Messana, and whom the Syracusan king Hiero II. was besieging. The rival armies met at Massana and fell to fighting each other and precipitated the life and death struggle between Rome and Carthage.

(*a*) **The first Punic or Carthaginian War** began as described above. Rome was forced to build a navy with which, in 260 B.C., she gained her first naval victory at Mylæ. Though the Romans sustained at least three disastrous defeats, they were on the whole victorious, and peace was established in 241, by which Carthage gave up Sicily and paid a war indemnity of 3,200 talents ($4,000.000).

(*b*) **Second Carthaginian War (218-201)**, began in Spain, where the Carthaginians were gaining great power and prosperity. The Romans became jealous and secured a treaty by which the Carthaginians were forbidden to cross the Ebro or to attack the cities of Emporia and Saguntum. Hannibal, the young Carthaginian general who had in his youth sworn eternal enmity to Rome and Romans, captured Saguntum (219), and his nation refused to deliver him up at Rome's demand.

War was declared and the Romans planned to send one army to Africa and another to Spain. But Hannibal spoiled their plans by marching boldly into Italy. Starting with an army of 50,000 foot and 9,000 horses and 37 elephants, he crossed the Pyrenees and the Alps by the little St. Bernard pass, and finally reached Italy with only 26,000 men and a few elephants. He met and defeated the Romans at Trebia (218), and utterly destroyed their army at Lake Trasimene in 217. Not till the next year did the Romans risk another battle, when at Cannæ, they suffered the greatest defeat they ever experienced; 70,000 men were slain and the remainder of their army either captured or dispersed. But still the Romans did not give up. On the other hand Hannibal's countrymen at home refused to support him. Nevertheless he was able to maintain himself in the heart of Italy for several years. His brother Hasdrubal, from Spain, marched with another army to Italy, to join forces with Hannibal. But he was defeated and slain at Sena Gallica, on the Metaurus (207). This was the doom of Hannibal's hopes in Italy. In 204 an army was sent to Africa, under P. Cornelius Scipio. Hannibal was recalled, but not receiving adequate support, was totally defeated at Zama in 202. Scipio granted peace on condition that Carthage should (1) surrender Spain and all her Mediterranean islands; (2) restore Massanissa to his throne; (3) pay a yearly tribute of 200 talents ($250,000) for fifty years; (4) surrender and destroy all but ships of war, and (5) undertake no war without the consent of Rome.

11.

3.—**The Struggle with Carthage.**—*Mamertine Pirates, Messana, Hiero* (see Glossary).

(*a*)—**The First Punic War.**—*Mylæ* (see Glossary).

(*b*)—**Second Carthaginian War.**

Remarks of Scipio and Hannibal.—It is said that during their exiles from their respective countries, Hannibal and Scipio Africanus frequently met at Ephesus, in Asia Minor, where many friendly conversations occurred between them. On one of these occasions Scipio is said to have asked Hannibal whom he considered the greatest general; to which Hannibal replied: "Alexander; because that, with a small body of men he had defeated very numerous armies, and had overrun a great part of the world." Whereupon Scipio inquired: "And who do you think deserves the next place?" To this Hannibal answered: "Pyrrhus; he first taught the method of forming a camp to the best advantage." Scipio then asked: "And whom do you place next to those?" "Myself," responded Hannibal. Upon this Scipio asked, smiling: "Where, then, would you have placed yourself if you had conquered me?" Hannibal thereupon answered: "Above Alexander, above Pyrrhus, and above all other generals."—*Clare.*

Ebro, Emporia, Sarguntum, St. Bernard, Trebia, Cannae, Sena Gallica, Metaurus, Massanissa (see Glossary).

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12.

(*c*.) **Third Carthaginian War** (**149-146**).—For an alleged violation of the last stipulation of the former peace, the Romans sent an army to Africa. The Carthaginians humbly submitted and gave up their arms and war ships. Being then ordered to abandon their city, they became desperate and fought to the bitter end. But the city was finally captured in 146, and, during several days of burning and slaughter, was utterly destroyed, and the remaining inhabitants sold into slavery. Thus perished Carthage; but meanwhile Rome had disposed of other enemies.



Octavius.

4. **Cisalpine Gaul.**—Cisalpine Gaul was conquered in a series of battles, including that of Telamon, 225.

5. **Macedonian Wars.**—(a) The First Macedonian war (215-206), was caused by the alliance of Philip of Macedon with Hannibal. The Romans succeeded in turning a number of Philip's Grecian subjects against him.

(*b*) **Second Macedonian War** (**200-197**).—Some Macedonian mercenaries had fought for Carthage at Zama; besides, some of the minor Greek States besought the aid of Rome against Philip V. Philip was driven out of Greece and defeated at Cynoscephalæ in 197. Philip gave up all possessions outside of Macedon.

(*c*) **Third Macedonian War** (**171-168**).—Perseus, successor of Philip, plotting revenge against the Romans, brought on a war in which he was defeated at the battle of Pydna, 168. The Macedonian monarchy was dissolved and placed under dominion of Rome, as was also the most of Greece.

6. **War with Antiochus III. of Syria** (**192-189**).—Caused by the interference of Antiochus in Greek affairs, resulted in the overthrow of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ, and the establishment of Roman power in Asia, as far as the Taurus.

7. **The Achæan War** (**146**).—The Achæan League began war with Sparta. Rome sided with the latter. Corinth was captured and destroyed in the same manner as Carthage.

8. **Conquest of Spain.** By the conquest of Lusitania and the destruction of the city of Numantia (133), all of Spain was brought under Roman dominion.

Roman authority now extended over all Italy, including Cisalpine Gaul, Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica, Spain, the Carthaginian possessions in Africa, Macedonia, Illyricum and the Grecian states, and Asia Minor as far as the Taurus.

12.

(*c*)—**Third Carthaginian War.**—*Burning of Carthage.*—By order of Scipio the conquered city was set on fire. A frightful scene of horror and devastation ensued. Carthage was shrouded in flames; and the miserable inhabitants, between the fire and the enemy, were destined to perish. Old men, women and children, driven from their dwellings and hiding places, by the spreading conflagration, perished by thousands; and every description of shocking misery now startled the eye. The flames raged unabated for six days. On the seventh day the Carthaginians in the citadel offered to surrender on condition that their lives should be spared. The request was granted to all except deserters, and fifty thousand came out of the citadel. The deserters, nine hundred in number, retired with Hasdrubal to the temple of Esculapius. As this temple was built on a lofty precipitous site, they were able to defend themselves there until they were overcome with fatigue and hunger. Hasdrubal stole away from his followers and surrendered himself to Scipio, who made him sit at his feet in sight of the Carthaginians, who reproached him as a coward and a traitor, and then setting fire to the temple, all perished in the flames.—*Clare.*

5. **Macedonian Wars.**—(a) *Philip* (see "Progress," No. 2). (b) *Zama, Cynoscephalæ* (see Glossary).

6. **War with Antiochus.**—*Antiochus* (see Glossary).

8. **Conquest of Spain.**—*Rome mistress of the world.*—Rome had now become mistress of the civilized world. Although Roman conquests were still made, the period upon which we are now

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entering was distinguished chiefly for the degeneracy of the Roman people, and for a century of civil wars which finally ended the Roman Republic. The Roman conquests brought wealth with its attendant evils—luxury, corruption, and loss of patriotism and civic virtue. The two classes of the Roman population—the rich and the poor—began to entertain the most deadly animosity toward each other.—*Clare.*

Population.—In B. C. 173 there were only 269,015 adult male Roman citizens; but by B. C. 136 there were over 320,000; by B. C. 125 there were 390,736; and by B. C. 114 there were 394,336.—*Clare.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **THE REPUBLIC.**—Tribuneship, Agrarian Laws.
8. **FIRST ROMAN CODE.**—Decemvirs, Horatian Laws, Canulian Laws, Military Tribunes, Licinian Rogations, Publilian Laws, Hortensian Laws.
9. **EARLY STRUGGLE FOR EXISTENCE.**—Horatius, Scævola, Castor and Pollux, Æquians, Sabines, Cincinnatus, Gauls.
10. **CONQUEST OF ITALY.**—Samnites, Latin war, Pyrrhus, Tarentum, Heraclea Asculum, Beneventum.
11. **WARS WITH CARTHAGE.**—Mamertine Pirates, Messana, Mylæ, Emporia, Saguntum, Hannibal, Cannae, Sena Gallica, Zama.
12. **THIRD CARTHAGINIAN WAR.**—Burning of Carthage, Cisalpine Gaul, Macedonian Wars, Philip, Antiochus, Achæan League, Conquest of Spain.

QUESTIONS.

7. *How did the patricians now come into power? Why was the establishment of a republic important? What were the qualifications and conditions governing the Tribuneship? What was the nature of the law proposed by Cassius? What were the causes leading up to its enactment? What in your opinion, was the general condition of the common people at this time? Do you detect any resemblance to conditions now existing?*

8. *Who were the patricians? State what you can of the Horatian Laws? Canulian Laws? Licinian Rogations? Publilian Laws? Hortensian Laws? What was the general aim and tendency of all these laws? Did their enactment indicate a diseased government or were they the natural results of a healthy growth?*

9. *How did these early wars strengthen the Romans? Relate the story of Horatio? Scævola? Is there any foundation for these stories? Give the story of Castor and Pollux? How did these stories influence the people? Relate the story of Cincinnatus? What people captured Rome at this time? How was the citadel saved?*

10. *Give the leading events of the Samnite War? Latin War? War with Pyrrhus? Tarentum? What causes gave success to the Romans in these wars? How did this success influence the Romans? What was now their standing among nations?*

11. *What series of wars now began? What was the real cause? The ostensible cause? Compare Carthage and Rome, noting: The character of the people; size and strength of the two cities; previous success in wars on land and on sea. Who were the Carthaginian leaders? The Roman leaders? Who stands pre-eminently above all others? What causes gave success to the Romans?*

12. *What is your estimate of the treatment of Carthage by the Romans? Give the leading points of the Macedonian Wars? Who were the leaders? What were the results? What other nations were now conquered? What was now the extent of Roman authority?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Make a careful study of the life of Hannibal, noting: (1) His education and natural qualifications; (2) His character and personal bearing; (3) His behavior during success and under defeat.*

2. *Compare the generalship of Hannibal with that of the Roman leaders. What were the strong features of his campaign?*

3. *Determine what causes, in your opinion, led to the great success of the Roman armies.*

4. *Make an estimate of the personal disposition and character of the Romans. How did they compare, in these respects, with the Grecians? The Egyptians?*

5. *Up to this period the Romans had greatly advanced as a nation: (1) In what phases did they show greatest advancement? What were the causes? Where these causes present in the case of Greece? (2) Repeat the above questions with reference to the weak points of the Romans. (3) In what respects do the legends of the Romans differ from those of the Greeks?*

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13. VIII. CIVIL DISSENSIONS AND WARS DOWN TO THE EMPIRE.

1. **The Agrarian Reforms of the Gracchi.**—The conquests of the Romans had filled the slave markets, and the vast landed estates were worked by slave labor. The free peasant proprietors, unable to compete with slave labor, were being reduced to poverty. Tiberius Semphronius Gracchus, the tribune, proposed the re-enactment of the Licinian Law, which had been forgotten. In attempting to carry out some other measures, he sought re-election in a manner contrary to law. In a riot, he and 300 followers were killed (133). In 123, Caius Semphronius Gracchus sought to carry out the reforms of his brother. By proposing to extend rights of citizenship to the Latins he lost the support of the commons. The upper class then attacked and slew him and many of his followers (121).

2. **Jugurthine War** (111-105).—The cruelty and usurpation of Jugurtha, a Numidian prince, who had slain his rival claimants to the throne and put to death many Italian residents, led to war. After several years of fruitless fighting, during which Jugurtha bribed or defeated the consuls and dictated two treaties, which the Roman Senate rejected, Caius Marius, son of a day-laborer, was sent out and, in a short campaign, defeated and captured Jugurtha and brought him to Rome.

3. **War with the Cimbri and the Teutons.**—Before the Jugurthine war was over, the Roman dominions in the north were threatened by the first of that series of German migrations which afterwards overthrew the Roman power. Members of several tribes, principal among which were the Cimbri and the Teutons, formed two bands for the invasion of Italy, one from the north and the other through southern Gaul. Marius was sent against them. He attacked them in separate bands before they could join their forces, and annihilated both, one at Aquæ Sextæ and the other at Vercellæ.

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13. VIII. CIVIL DISSENSIONS AND WARS DOWN TO THE EMPIRE.

1. **The Agrarian Reforms of the Gracchi.**—*Caius Gracchus.*—Thirsting for vengeance against Caius and his adherent, the Consul Opimius led the forces of the Senate to the Aventine and attacked Caius Gracchus and his followers, who had been reduced by the consul's threats and promises to 250 men of humble rank. The Senatorial party, consisting of the nobles, the Cretan mercenaries, and a number of slaves, massacred the little band which still adhered to Gracchus on the Aventine. Gracchus and his former colleague, Fulvius Flaccus, endeavored to cross a bridge leading from the city, but were pursued so closely that they were forced to seek refuge in a grove near the Tiber, long dedicated to the Furies, where they were overtaken and murdered. The bloodthirsty foes of Gracchus then cut off his head and stuck it on the point of a spear as a trophy. Septimuleius, an intimate friend of Gracchus, obtained possession of the head and carried it to his home, where he took out the brain and filled the cavity with lead to increase its weight. He then carried it to the Consul Opimius, who gave him seventeen pounds of gold as his recompense. The aristocrats then avenged themselves on the partisans of Caius Gracchus by causing 3,000 of them to be strangled in prison by order of the Senate.—*Clare.*

Cornelia, the mother of the Gracchi and the daughter of Scipio Africanus, was an illustrious Roman lady. After the early death of her husband, Cornelia devoted herself to the education of her sons, and was rewarded for her care by their constant esteem and effection. After the murder of Caius, she retired to Misenum, where her house became the resort of all the talented and learned men of the age. Cornelia spoke her own language with elegance, and was well versed in Greek literature.—*Clare.*

2. **Jugurtha.**—The Romans were unable to endure such an insult, and the Senate was aroused to such indignation that it at once canceled the peace and ordered Jugurtha to depart from Rome instantly. It is said that as Jugurtha went out of the city gate he looked back and, gazing at Rome, exclaimed sarcastically, "If I had gold enough, I would buy the city itself!"—*Clare.*

3. **The Cimbri,** who formed a portion of this invading body, had their original home in the modern peninsula of Jutland, whence came also early invaders of Britain, and they were probably a Celtic people.—*Gilman.*

The Celts and Germans.—During the absence of Marius in Africa, there had come over Rome a shadow of a greater peril than had been known since the days when Hannibal's advance had made the strongest hearts quail. The tumultuous multitudes who inhabited the unexplored regions of central Europe, the Celts and Germans, had gathered a mass comprising, it is said, more than three hundred thousand men capable of fighting, besides hosts of women and children, and were marching with irresistible force towards the Roman domains. Nine years before (B.C. 113), these barbarians had defeated a Roman army in Noricum, north of Illyricum, and after that they had roamed at will through Switzerland, adding to their numbers and ravaging every region, until at last they had poured over into the plains of Gaul. Year after year passed, and army after army of the Romans was cut to pieces by these terrible barbarians.—*Gilman.*

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14.

4. **Popular Reforms under Marius and Drusus.**—Marius was consul for the sixth time in 100 B.C., and, in conjunction with other politicians, secured a division of the public lands among his veterans. Owing to his two-sided policy he lost popularity and went to Asia (93). Drusus then proposed the following measures: (a) To restore the senators to their place upon juries. (b) A new division of lands. (c) To grant citizenship to the Italians. The first two were adopted by the assembly, but the senate rejected them. Drusus was assassinated when he proposed the third.



Hannibal.

5. **The Marsic or Social War (90-88).**—Disappointed at the failure of Drusus, the Italians formed a confederacy against Rome. Marius commanded the forces in northern Italy and was everywhere victorious, while Sulla equally distinguished himself in the south. Rome maintained her supremacy, but was forced to grant citizenship to all Italians who applied for it.

6. **Mithridatic wars.**—First war (88-84). Mithridates, king of Pontus, encroached upon the Roman possessions in Asia Minor. He was joined by a number of Greek cities, and put to death in one day all their Italian residents. Civil war between Marius and Sulla interfered with the settlement of this difficulty.

Second war. (83-81). Romans invaded Pontus, but were defeated and withdrew.

Third war. (74-64). After several years of fruitless effort, Pompey was given command of Asia with absolute power. Pompey defeated Mithridates and chased him all over western Asia. Deserted by his friends, Mithridates killed himself in 61. Result: Great extension of Roman dominions in Asia.

14.

5. **Social War.**—All the Sabellian nations except the Sabines, who had long since become Roman citizens, participated in this war against Rome. . . . They entered into a close alliance, formed a federal republic which they called Italia; and selected Corfinium, the principal town of the Pelignians, for their capital, changing its name to Italica. They appointed a senate of five hundred members, two Consuls and twelve Praetors. . . . Rome was obliged to struggle for her own existence against foes whose armies equaled her own in numbers, discipline and valor, and whose commanders were as talented and as skillful as any which she could bring into the field to oppose them. Thus arose the Social war, which convulsed Italy with its horrors for two years (B. C. 90 88), and which cost about three hundred thousand lives.—*Clare.*

Sulla.—After holding the supreme Dictatorship for two years, Sulla, to the surprise of everybody, resigned his power and retired to his country seat at Puteoli (B. C. 79). He passed the remainder of his days in recreation and the preparation of his memoirs. Thus, after a career of the most horrible tyranny and cruelty, this monster was permitted to spend the rest of his life undisturbed. It is said that one day a young man followed him home, cursing and reviling him, and that Sulla bore it with patience, only remarking: "Your conduct will teach another Dictator not to lay down his office so readily." He afterwards retired to Cumae, where he passed his time in writing his memoirs, in hunting, fishing, drinking, and reveling with players and musicians. Here he died soon afterward of a loathsome disease, occasioned by intemperance and debauchery (B. C. 78); and was honored with the most magnificent funeral ever seen in Italy.—*Clare.*

6. **Mithridates** (see Glossary).

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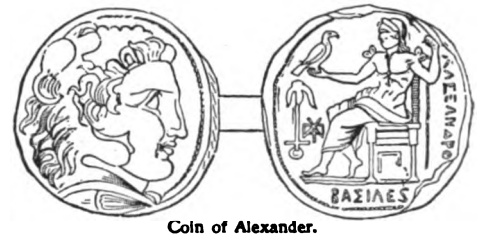
15.

7. **Civil Wars of Marius and Sulla (88-82).**—The popular party voted to deprive Sulla of command of the expedition against Mithridates and gave it to Marius. Sulla marched with his army to Rome, stormed the city (88), slew the popular leaders, except Marius, who escaped to Africa, and restored the ancient privileges of the Optimates. In 87 Cinna and Sulla were elected consuls, and Sulla sent against Mithridates. Cinna attempted popular reforms, but was driven from the city. He gathered his forces and, being joined by the aged Marius, recaptured Rome and installed a reign of terror. All Optimates who had not fled were put to death. In 86 Marius and Cinna were made consuls and Sulla deposed. Marius died in this year and Cinna in 84. The city remained in the control of the democratic party, but a day of reckoning came when Sulla returned in 83. He was joined by Pompey and together they fought their way to Rome, conquering the armies of consuls. Sulla had himself made dictator, and then ensued a new reign of terror (82).



Coin of Alexander.

8. **War of the Gladiators (73-81).**—Bands of gladiators took possession of Vesuvius, and, under command of Spartacus, harassed the country, even threatening Rome. The Prætor, Crassus, went against them and defeated them.

9. **War with Pirates.**—The Mediterranean was swarming with pirates, who were organized into a pirate community, with headquarters at Crete and Cilicia. Several years were spent in attempting to root them out. Finally (67) Pompey was given complete command of the Mediterranean, and in three months he cleared the sea of pirates, captured 3,000 vessels and put to death 10,000 men.

10. **Conspiracy of Cataline (66-62).**—Cataline and a number of ruined spendthrifts of noble blood became political desperadoes and sought to mend their fortunes by assassinating the magistrates and gaining the control of the state. Their plans were detected and exposed by Cicero, the greatest orator of his day.

15.

7. **Civil Wars of Marius and Sulla.**—*Marius.*—The appointment of Sulla to conduct the First Mithridatic War aroused the envy of Marius. In order to neutralize the action of the Senate, Marius leagued himself with the daring Sulpicius, who procured the passage of a bill transferring the management of the war to Marius. Sulla next marched upon Rome and defeated Marius. Marius escaped in the night and started for Minturnae, but by intrigue was put off the boat at the mouth of the Liris to get some food and rest, and there left to his fate while he was asleep in the grass. . . . Marius wandered about the marshes until he came to the lonely hut of an old man, whose compassion he implored. The old man led him away into a marsh near the river, and, inducing him to lie down in a hollow spot, covered him with sedge and rushes. Marius soon heard at the hut the voices of the cavalry in pursuit of him; and, fearful that the old man might betray him, got up and went into the marsh, where he stood in mud and water up to his neck. But he was discovered, dragged out, naked as he was at the time, and led to Minturnae, where he was closely confined. The authorities at Minturnae decided to put him to death, and sent a Gallic horseman to kill him. When this Gaul approached the spot in the dark room where Marius was lying, he was appalled by the fiery glare of the venerable hero's eyes, when Marius arose and cried with a tremendous voice: "Dost thou dare to kill Caius Marius?" The Gaul rushed out, saying: "I cannot kill Caius Marius" The magistrates then resolved not to be responsible for the death of so great a man; and, releasing Marius, led him to the coast, where they placed him aboard a vessel to sail to Africa. —*Clare.*

Reign of Terror.—It is said that almost five thousand of the most wealthy and distinguished men of Rome were massacred by Sulla's orders. All the relatives of Marius, as far as they could be found, were put to death. Lists of the "proscribed" were made out, and any friend of Sulla was authorized to add to the number. As the wealth of the victim usually went to the accuser, avarice often prompted the accusation. The proscriptive policy of Sulla was not confined to Rome, but was extended to every part of Italy.—*Clare.*

Cinna, Optimates (see Glossary).

9. **Vesuvius, Sparticus, Crassus** (see Glossary).

9. **Cilicia, Pompey** (see Glossary).

10. **The Conspiracy** was accordingly decided upon, and we are told that the conspirators bound themselves by a solemn oath before they separated, drinking human blood mingled with wine.—*Clare.*

Cataline, Cicero (see Glossary).

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16.

11. **The First Triumvirate (60).**—Three men, Pompey, Cæsar and Crassus, agreed to combine their power and influence for the government of the state, and to divide the government among themselves.

12. **Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul (58-51.)**—As a result of the Triumvirate, Gaul was given to Cæsar. During eight years he subdued the whole of Gaul and the country west of the Rhine, and carried Roman arms into Britain. While Cæsar was in Gaul, Pompey assumed control of affairs, Crassus having been slain in the east. Pompey was supported by the Optimates, Cæsar by the democrats. Cæsar held his authority in Gaul longer than it had been given him, and the Senate declared Cæsar a public enemy. Cæsar led his army across the brook Rubicon, the southern boundary of his province, and marched toward Rome.

13. **Civil War Between Cæsar and Pompey (49-48).**—Pompey and the Optimates fled to Greece. Cæsar subdued Italy and Pompey's supporters in Spain, and followed him to Greece, defeating him in the decisive battle of Pharsalus.

Cæsar, after several more years of fighting, subdued the Pompeyan party in different parts of the world and found himself supreme. In the hour of triumph he was assassinated (44 B.C.) by a band of conspirators. Mark Antony assumed Cæsar's place and was supported by the popular party.

16.

11. **The First Triumvirate.**—Pompey was most admired for his character, but Crassus was the richest man in Rome. He entertained the people at one thousand tables, distributed corn to the poor, and fed most of the citizens for almost three months.—*Clare.*

Bond of Union..—The union of these three men for one common object—which would in modern times be called a ring—is designated as the First Triumvirate (meaning a league of three men), and was effected in the year B.C. 59. . . . The bond between Triumvirs was strengthened by Pompey's marriage with Cæsar's daughter Julia.—*Clare.*

Cæsar was the recognized chief of the Marian party, or the democratic or popular party, and was therefore regarded as the champion of the masses. Cæsar was the nephew of Marius and the son-in-law of Cinna. His talents had been recognized by Sulla, who had been persuaded with great difficulty to exempt him from the list of the proscribed during the reign of massacre and blood by which he had overthrown the Marian party. In granting Cæsar's pardon, Sulla remarked: "That boy will some day be the ruin of the aristocracy, for I see in him many Marii." Cæsar was born in B.C. 100, and was therefore at this time more than thirty years old. He had identified himself with the party of the people since he was seventeen years of age. Besides being of noble birth, he prided himself upon being the nephew of Marius by the marriage of his aunt Julia to that famous leader: . . . In B.C. 67, when Pompey led a Roman fleet against the Cilician pirates, Cæsar was made Quaestor. His aunt Julia, the widow of Marius, died the same year. Cæsar delivered a noble funeral oration over her remains, and carried a waxen image of Marius in the funeral procession in defiance of the law. . . . He was a model of manly beauty. He was conscious of his personal attractions, and his enemies accused him of dandyism. He had retained a perfect bodily vigor in spite of all his early dissipations, and he had now adopted temperate habits. He was skillful in fencing, riding and swimming, aud possessed wonderful capacity for performing sudden tiresome journeys. He generally travelled by night, in order to gain time. His vigor of mind was equal to that of his body. He possessed surprising power of intuition. He had a wonderfully retentive memory, never forgetting anything. Cæsar's warm, generous heart, which never forsook a friend, but which ever remained faithful through prosperity and adversity, endeared him to his friends and followers above everything else. Nor were his motives interested in this particular. Cæsar had genuine attachment for his friends. He never gave any of his partisans cause to complain of coldness or ingratitude on his part; and their affection for him was clearly demonstrated by their manifestation of intense grief at his assassination.

12. **Conquest of Gaul.**—The military talents displayed by Cæsar in his conquest of Gaul rank him as one of the greatest generals of all time. While in Gaul he is said to have conquered three hundred nations, subdued three millions of people, killed one million, and reduced another million to slavery. Cæsar gave an account of his campaigns in Gaul in his Commentaries, which he wrote while he was conducting those campaigns.—*Clare.*

13. **Cæsar Assassinated.**—The Dictator now received thrusts of daggers from every side. He defended himself vigorously, rushing upon his assailants and throwing down such as opposed him, until he saw his dear friend Brutus among the conspirators, when he ceased all resistance, covered his face with his toga, and exclaimed: "Et tu, Brute" (And thou too, Brutus). He then fell down at the base of Pompey's statute, pierced with twenty-three wounds, and expired. As soon as the bloody work of the conspirators was accomplished, Brutus, brandishing his dagger, addressed Cicero thus: "Rejoice, father of our country, for Rome is free." The majority of the Senators, seized with fear and astonishment, fled from the Senate-House and hid themselves in their houses. Thus perished the greatest man that Rome—some say the greatest man that the world—ever produced. He was a great warrior, statesman, orator and historian.—*Clare.*

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17.

14. **The Second Triumvirate (43 B.C.).**—Mark Antony, Octavianus, a nephew of Cæsar, and Lepidus, Cæsar's Master of the Horse, formed a political combination, by which the State was divided, giving Antony the East, Octavianus the West, and Lepidus the South, or Africa. Though these men were assuming absolute authority, they were supported by the masses. The friends of the republic rallied to Brutus and Cassius, the assassins of Cæsar. In 42 B. C. they were overthrown at the battle of Philippi, in Thrace, by Antony and Octavianus.



Cicero.

15. **War between Antony and Octavianus.**—During his rule in the East, Antony become enamored of Cleopatra, the Egyptian queen, and forgot his duties. He sent his wife, Octavia, sister of Octavianus, back to Rome. For this and other reasons, Octavianus became his enemy, procured his removal from command by the Senate, went against him with an army, and defeated him in the battle of Actium (31). Antony and Cleopatra killed themselves.

Octavianus was now supreme and was invested with the title Augustus by the Senate (27 B.C.).

17.

14. **Second Triumvirate.**—Octavius, Antony and Lepidus met on a small island in the little river Reno, near Bononia (now Bologna), in Cisalpine Gaul, and formed a league called the Second Triumvirate, by which these three leaders took upon themselves the government of the Roman world for five years (B.C. 43). In their conference of three days on this occasion the three Triumvirs partitioned the territories of the Republic and determined the fate of thousands, thus making a cruel and tyrannical use of their power by causing all of their most powerful opponents to be put to death, each Triumvir abandoning his best friends to the vengeance of his colleagues.—*Clare.*

DEATH OF CICERO.—The Triumvirs at once commenced their bloody work of proscription and massacre as agreed upon, and the noblest citizens of Rome were sacrificed to the political enemy and the ignoble ambition of the Triumvirs. Lepidus yielded his brother to the vengeance of his colleagues, Antony sacrificed his uncle; and Octavius, to his eternal shame, allowed Cicero to be abandoned to the wrath of Antony, whose relentless animosity the illustrious orator had incurred in consequence of his severe and eloquent invectives. Antony sent in pursuit of the great orator a band of assassins, headed by a Tribune whose life Cicero had saved by defending him in a capital trial. The assassins murdered Cicero near his own villa at Formiae, on the road from Rome to Naples. His head and right hand were nailed to the rostrum at Rome, from which he had so many times discoursed of the sacred rites of Roman citizens. Altogether two thousand knights and three hundred Senators fell victims to the sanguinary hatred of the Triumvirs.—*Clare.*

15. **Octavius.**—The genius and statesmanship of Julius Cæsar secured only a few years of absolute power, and had not time enough to shape the forms of empire, or carry out far-reaching plans. When he fell under the daggers of his murderers, he left no system of established rule, and no successor to replace him. The Commonwealth had been discredited by years of impotence; anarchy at home, misgovernment abroad had shown the breakdown of the ancient institutions of the state, and the frail plant of liberty needed more to bring it back to healthy life than to be watered with the blood of Cæsar. But when the young Octavius left his books at Apollonia, and came to Rome to claim his rights, few could have had serious fears of his ambition, or could have foreseen in him the man who was to close the drama of the great Republic and bring the empire on the stage. For he had played no part as yet in public life, was known to be of feeble health, had given no proof of genius or of self-reliant courage. He crossed the sea without delay, and hearing on his way that his kinsman's will had named him heir, he took at once the name of Cæsar Octavianus, and hurried on to claim his heritage at Rome.—*Capes.*

ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.—Cleopatra, the beautiful but wicked Queen of Egypt, surpassed all other princesses in the arts by which she strove to allure Antony. Serapion, her governor in Cyprus, had furnished aid to Cassius. Antony summoned her to give an account of her course, and she promptly and willingly complied, relying upon her powers of fascination. Antony was at Tarsus, in Cilicia, when Cleopatra determined to personally attend his court. She sailed down the river Cydnus to meet him, with the most magnificent ceremony; the stern of her galley being covered with gold, its sails being of purple silk, and its oars of silver, while the rowers were keeping time to the sound of flutes and cymbals. As she was passing, the banks of the river were perfumed by the incense burning on board her galley; and multitudes of people delightedly and admiringly gazed upon the spectacle. Antony was soon captivated by her beauty, and was utterly unable to withstand that passion which ultimately proved the cause of his ruin. After thus securing her power, Cleopatra started on her return to Egypt; while Antony hastily followed her —*Clare.*

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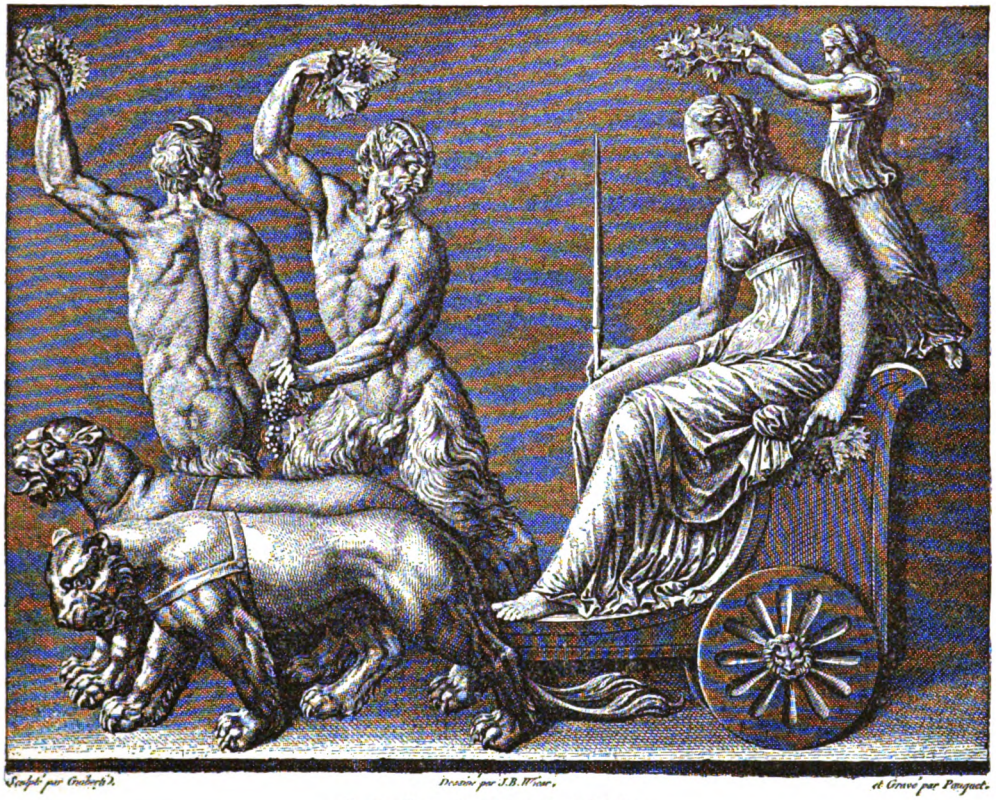
18. IX. THE FLOURISHING PERIOD OF THE EMPIRE. (27 B.C.-193 A.D.)

1. **The Reign of Augustus (27 B.C.-14 A.D.)**—Though 27 B.C. is usually given as the beginning of the Empire (some place it at 31 B.C.), the Romans themselves probably did not realize that their government underwent any radical change at that date. During his long reign, Augustus gained an almost absolute control of public affairs, and laid the foundation of the power of his successors. He reduced



Fresco, Pompeii. Triumph of Ariadne.

the number and raised the requirements of the senators, made a new division of the provinces, made other changes in the civil administration and extended the dominion of the Empire over Rhætia, Noricum, Pannonia, the Cantabrii and the Astures. But in 9 A.D. three legions under Varus were annihilated by the Germans in the Teutoberg Forest.

The reign of Augustus was the most brilliant period in Roman literature. Mæcenas, a wealthy patron of poets, Virgil, Horace, Catullus, Ovid and Livy graced this period.

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18. IX. THE FLOURISHING PERIOD OF THE EMPIRE.

1. **The Reign of Augustus.**—OCTAVIUS AUGUSTUS.—From the battle of Actium, the Roman Empire may be said to have really dated, as Octavius then became sole master of the Roman world (B.C. 31); though it was a few years later (B.C. 27) when the Roman senate conferred upon him all the powers of sovereignty with the titles of Augustus (the Divine) and Imperator, or Emperor (chief commander); and gave his name to the sixth (now eighth) month, as the name of Julius Cæsar had been given to the fifth (now seventh) month. Octavius himself dated his empire from the battle of Actium, when he was thirty-two years of age. Dating from that event, his reign lasted forty-five years. No sooner had he thus become master of the Roman world than he at once proceeded to establish an imperial monarchy under republican forms upon the ruins of the Republic. —*Clare.*

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THE TITLE OF IMPERATOR, OR EMPEROR, as conferred on Julius Cæsar, was simply a military one, and merely had reference to his command over the Roman armies; but with regard to Augustus and his successors, this title likewise implied the sovereignty of the Empire; and in this sense it has been transmitted to modern times. The titles of Augustus, Cæsar, and Imperator, or Emperor, were borne by all the successors of this emperor. The title Kaiser, the German for Cæsar, has been borne by all the sovereign rulers of the German and Austrian empires since the fall of Rome. The title Czar, as borne by the absolute ruler of the Russian empire for the last three centuries, also means Cæsar.—*Clare.*

CÆSAR'S NAMES.—But the name of Cæsar he had taken long ago, after his illustrious uncle's death, and this became the title first of the dynasty and then of the imperial office. Besides this he allowed himself to be styled Augustus, a name which aroused no jealousy and outraged no Roman sentiment, yet vaguely implied some dignity and reverence from its long association with the objects of religion. As such he preferred it to the suggested name of Romulus, and allowed one of the months to be called after him, as the preceding one of Julius had been named after his kinsman.—*Capes.*

PUBLIC ROADS.—Augustus also repaired the great Italian roads, which had been allowed to lapse into a bad condition. The public roads were among the most valuable, no less than the most durable, monuments of the power and greatness of the Roman nation. Some of these roads extended from the center of the city of Rome to the most distant provinces of the Roman empire. The portions of the roads outside the city were paved with stone. The roads through the open country were at first overlaid with gravel, but were afterwards paved on a bed of composition, as may still be seen in the remains of Roman roads in Britain. . . . These new roads were made by the military, who were accustomed to labor four hours daily at some useful employment in the open air, to keep up their health and strength and to fit them for military duty.—*Clare.*

REVENUES.—It is computed that the revenues of the Roman empire under Augustus amounted to two hundred million dollars; but this vast sum was only about sufficient to defray the expenses of the civil, military and naval establishments, and of the public works undertaken to adorn the metropolis.—*Clare.*

PRIVY COUNCIL.—Matters of great moment were debated first, not in the Senate House, but in a sort of Privy Council formed by the trusted advisers of the emperor, while the discussions of the larger body served chiefly to mask the forms of absolutism, to feel the pulse of popular sentiment, and to register decisions formed elsewhere. Treated with respect and courtesy by wary princes, the senators were the special mark of the jealousy and greed of the worst rulers.—*Capes.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **AGRARIAN REFORMS,** Caius Gracchus, Cornelia, Jugurthine War, Cimbri and Teutons, Celts and Germans.
14. **MARIUS AND DRUSUS,** Marsic War, Mithridatic Wars, Sulla.
15. **WARS OF MARIUS AND SULLA,** Optimates, Gladiators, Pirates, Cataline, Reign of Terror.
16. **FIRST TRIUMVIRATE,** Conquest of Gaul, Cæsar and Pompey, Cæsar Assassinated.
17. **SECOND TRIUMVIRATE,** Death of Cicero, Antony, Octavianus, Cleopatra.
18. **REIGN OF AUGUSTUS,** Cæsar's Names, Public Roads, Revenue, Macænas, Virgil, Horace, Catullus, Ovid, Livy.

QUESTIONS.

13. *What gave rise to the necessity for the reforms of the Gracchi? Give the story of Caius Gracchus? Cornelia? Relate the events of the Jugurthine War? Who were the Cimbri? The Teutons? What uneasiness was occasioned by the Celts and Germans?*

14. *What reforms were proposed by Drusus? What occasioned the Social War? The Mithridatic Wars?*

15. *What gave rise to the war between Marius and Sulla? Give the story of Marius? Sulla? Who were the gladiators? What special feats were now performed by Pompey? Give an outline of the conspiracy of Cataline? What person stands preeminent among the events connected with the conspiracy? Why?*

16. *What was there peculiar in the method of organization of the First Triumvirate? Give the biography of Cæsar? What led to the war between Cæsar and Pompey? Relate the events connected with the assassination of Cæsar? How does Cæsar's conquest in Gaul rank in military annals?*

17. *Who composed the Second Triumvirate? What was the main point of difference between the two parties now opposing each other? What occasioned the war between Antony and Octavius? Who was Cleopatra?*

18. *Give the origin and history of the term Emperor? Cæsar? What may be said of the private life of Augustus? Of his reign? Name some of the leading literary characters of his period?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What do you consider the admirable features of the life of Cicero? Cæsar? Augustus? In what ways were these persons similar? Dissimilar?*

2. *In what respects was the reign of Augustus the most brilliant period in Roman history? What causes produced these results?*

3. *What were the causes producing most of the social wars?*

4. *What problems of a public nature continued to agitate the masses from the establishment of the republic till Augustus? How were they usually treated?*

5. *Give the history of the distribution of lands among the Romans. In what respects was this distribution different from that of the Greeks?*

6. *There was a constant clash between the patricians and the plebs: What were some of the points of contention? How do these features of Roman history compare with similar features of Greek life?*

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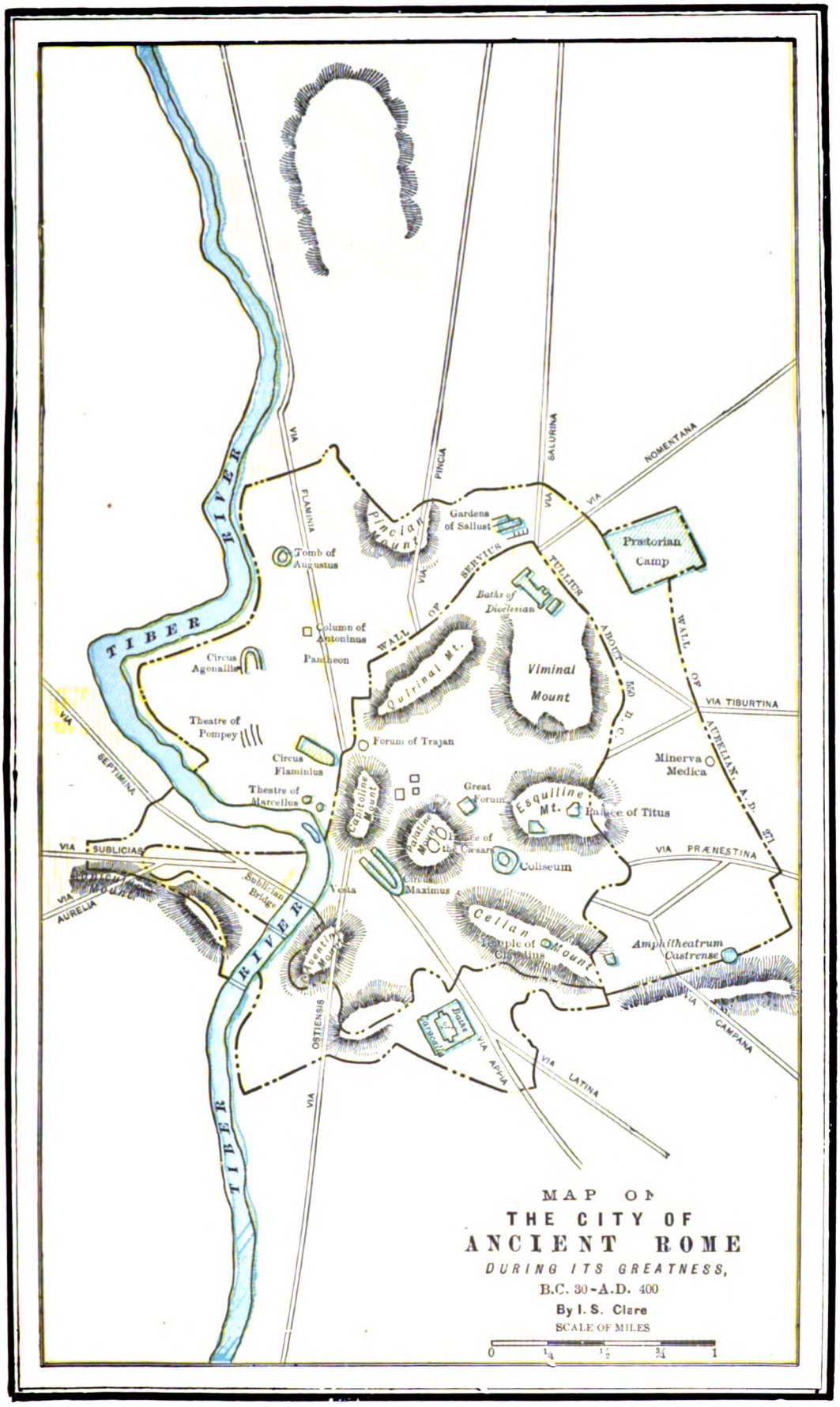

MAP OF THE CITY OF ANCIENT ROME

DURING ITS GREATNESS,

B.C. 30-A.D. 400

By I. S. Clare

SCALE OF MILES

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MARK ANTONY DELIVERING THE FUNERAL ORATION OVER THE DEAD BODY OF CÆSAR.

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19.

2. **The other Julian Emperors (14-68 A.D.).**—(*a*) Tiberius, stepson of Augustus (14–37 A. D.), was a despotic monster. The power of electing consuls and prætors was taken from the assembly and given to the senate. Three expeditions under Germanicus were sent against the Germans to revenge the calamity of Teutoberg Forest. Though the Romans gained victories, they could not subdue the country. The right bank of the Rhine remained free. Vast numbers of suspected persons, or persons whose wealth Tiberius coveted, were executed. Tiberius, for a time, retired to the island of Capræ for riotous living, while his abandoned minister, Sejanus, ruled. In a remote province of the Empire Jesus Christ was crucified, and his followers soon spread all over the Empire, proclaiming the new religion.



Nero.

(*b*) **Caligula (37-41)**, grand nephew of Tiberius, began as a considerate ruler, but soon lost balance and went to the wildest extremes, murdering by the wholesale according to his whims, proclaiming himself to be a god, leading a large army as if against the Germans and ending by gathering mussels on the seashore. He was finally assassinated.

(*c*) **Claudius (41-54)**, uncle of Caligula, was chosen by the Prætorian guard. He was weak-minded and was governed by his favorites and his wives. Aulius Plautius conquered the southern part of Britain, and several new provinces were added to the Empire in Africa and the East. Claudius was poisoned by his wife, Agrippina.

(*d*) **Nero (54-68)**, step-son of Claudius, was for the first five years guided by his teacher, Seneca, and the prætor Burrhus. Nero regarded the empire as a vast field for the gratification of his lusts and whims. The Britons, under the queen Boadicea, revolted (61), but were subdued by Suetonius Paulius. In 64 a nine-day fire, set by Nero's command, destroyed the greater part of Rome. To turn suspicion from himself, Nero accused the Jews and Christians of setting the fire. This resulted in the first Roman persecution of the Christians. Rome was rebuilt on a magnificent scale.

19.

2. **The other Julian Emperors.**—(*a*) *Tiberius and the People.*—The popular suspicion against Tiberius was no more after-thought of later days, when Rome had learnt to know the darker features of his character. From the first they had never loved him, and the more they saw the less they liked him. He seemed of dark and gloomy temper, with no grace or geniality of manner, shunning the pleasures of the people, and seldom generous or open-handed. He had even an ungracious way of doing what was right, and spoiled a favor by his way of granting it. There was such reserve and constraint in what he said that men thought him a profound dissembler and imputed to him crimes he had no thought of. They seemed to have divined the cruelty that was still latent, and to have detested him before his acts deserved their hate.—*Capes.*

Population of Rome.—In his seventy-fourth year, Augustus began thinking of withdrawing from the fatigues of government, and of making Tiberius his partner in the imperial office. He accordingly invested his step-son with almost as much authority as he himself had exercised. He then made his will, intrusting it to the care of the Vestal Virgins; after which he ordered the census of the Roman people to be taken, showing the city to contain a population of four millions one hundred and thirty-seven thousand.—*Clare.*

(*b*). **Caligula** had a singular habit of nodding with his head or pointing with his finger at such persons as he desired to have put to death; and his executioners instantly seized and despatched the victims. He kept a box of poisonous compound, which he offered to the more distinguished personages whom he desired to deprive of their lives. He expected them to use the poison in the same manner that snuff is taken. Those who took a pinch of the drug died from its effects; while those who refused were executed for treason. —*Clare.*

(*c*) **Aulius Plautius, Agrippina.** (*d*) **Nero, Seneca, Boadicea** (see Glossary).

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20.

3. **The Barrack Emperors (68-69).**—Three emperors, Galba, Otho, and Vitellius, were proclaimed emperors and deposed in quick succession by the army.

4. **The Flavian Emperors (69-96),**—(*a*) Vespasian left his son Titus in command of the army which was then warring upon the Jews, and went to Rome to take command, where he restored order to the administration and the finances. In 70 Titus captured Jerusalem, and put many Jews to death. The Colosseum was built. In 78 Agricola began making preparations for the complete subjugation of Britain.

(*b*) **Titus (73-81), Son of Vespasian.**—During his reign Pompeii and Herculaneum were destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.

(*c*) **Domitian (81-96), Brother of Titus,** was a despotic tyrant. He purchased peace of the Dacians, and to strengthen the German frontier, a wall connecting the Rhine and the Danube was begun and colonies of soldiers were settled on the public lands in that region. Many Jews, Christians, and Philosophers were executed. Domitian was finally murdered.

5. **The Redemption of the Empire (96-138).**—(*a*) Nerva, an old senator, was raised to the throne by the assassins of Domitian. He began sweeping reforms to undo the work of his wicked predecessors, and re-established the dignity of the empire.

(*b*) **Trajan (93-117), the adopted son of Nerva,** was a Spaniard and the first non-Italian emperor. He was an excellent general and ruler. He refused to continue paying tribute to the Dacians, defeated them and made their country a province. Gladiatorial games on a vast scale became exceedingly popular, and magnificent public buildings were erected in different parts of the empire. Trajan died on his return from a victorious campaign against the Parthians, in which the eastern boundary of the empire was extended to the Tigris.

(*c*) **Hadrian (117-138), an adopted son of Trajan,** was a lover of peace and a patron of learning. He contracted the boundaries of the empire to the Euphrates on the East. Owing to the revolt of the Jews, more than half a million were slain.

20.

3. **The Barrack Emperors.** — *Galba, Otho, Vitellius* (see Glossary).

4. (*a*) **The Jews,** who had risen in rebellion against the Roman power during Nero's reign, were subdued under Vespasian's reign, when they were destroyed as a nation. Jerusalem was taken by the Roman legions under Titus, the son of Vespasian, after one of the most remarkable sieges on record, the Jews defending the Holy City with an army of six hundred thousand men. The city and the temple were reduced to a heap of ruins by the conquering Romans; and many of the vanquished Jews fell by the sword of the Romans, or died by their own hands, while thousands were sold into slavery (A.D. 70).—*Clare.*

Colosseum.—*Amphitheatres.*—These are altogether Roman in general design. The first is said to have been built by Julius Cæsar, and others were afterwards built by Caligula and Nero. The first of stone is said to have been the Colosseum, built by Vespasian and Titus, and so called from the Colossus of Nero, which stood near. It was injured and then restored under Severus and Decius, in whose time it is probable that the upper row was added. As to the awning, we know that the main portion at least of the audience was protected from the fierce rays of the sun by a strong velarium. This was supported on the outside by heavy masts, which passed through holes still existing in the top cornice, and stepped down on the corbels, which show so conspicuously in the top order. Recent excavations have disclosed the original arena, about twenty feet below the present level of the ground. Evidence has also been obtained that the arena was sometimes a movable platform. To obtain an approximate idea of the size of this enormous structure, we must remember that the Albert Hall (the largest diameter of which is 276 feet) could have been placed in the arena alone of the Colosseum, the exterior of which measures 622 feet by 528.—*Britannica.*

(*b*) *Pompeii.*—The bodies of seventeen persons were thus discovered in the cellar of a house at Pompeii, inclosed in a hard substance, which probably burst in a liqnid form into the vault and hardened as it cooled. When this cellar was excavated, the perfect mould of a woman with a child in her arms was found in the solid substance that had filled it; and two skeletons were inside this mould, the larger having a gold chain around its neck and rings on its fingers. In the barracks were found the remains of two soldiers chained to the stocks, who had doubtless been forgotten amid the terror, the darkness and confusion of that terrible day. Those who made their escape from the unfortunate cities would most naturally have taken all their most valuable effects with them; nor could they have imagined that what they left behind them would be of so much historical importance in subsequent times, when every other vestige of the domestic life of the Romans would have been obliterated long before.—*Clare.*

5. (*b*) **Trajan.** (*c*)—**Hadrian** (see Glossary).

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21.

6. **The Antonines.**—(*a*) Antoninus Pius (138-161), the adopted son of Hadrian, was the first, and saving his colleague and successor Aurelian, the only one of the emperors who devoted himself to the task of government with a single view to the happiness of his people. He was a peaceful emperor, but compelled to defend the frontiers of the empire against the attack of the barbarians.

(*b*) **Marcus Aurelius (161-180)** an adopted son of his predecessor, was of a philosophic turn of mind and was educated in the Stoic philosophy. The eastern and northern frontiers were violently attacked and called for vigorous defense.

(*c*) **Commodus (180-192)** a degenerate son of Marcus Aurelius, bought peace of the Germans by tribute, entrusted the government to the leader of the Prætorian guard, gave himself up to dissipation and was finally murdered.



Marcus Junius Brutus.

21.

6. **The Antonines.**—(*a*) Antoninus Pius was a man of integrity and culture and on terms of friendship with the Younger Pliny. He acquired much influence with the Emperor Hadrian, by whom he was at length adopted as his son and successor, and a few months afterwards, on Hadrian's death, was enthusiastically welcomed to the throne by the Roman people, who, for once, were not disappointed in their anticipation of a happy reign. Under his patronage the science of jurisprudence was cultivated by men of high ability.—*Britannica.*

(*b*) **Marcus Aurelius.**—The noble qualities of Marcus when a child attracted the attention of Hadrian, who adopted Antoninus Pius on condition that the latter in time adopt Marcus. It is generally believed that, had Marcus been old enough, Hadrian would have adopted him directly. Marcus Aurelius was trained by tutors in whom he appears to have been very fortunate, and to whom he showed gratitude when he reached the throne by raising them to the highest dignities of the state. The concord between him and Antoninus Pius is said to have been so great that Marcus, during twenty years never slept oftener than twice away from the house of Pius. . . . . The early part of the reign of Aurelius was clouded by various national misfortunes; an inundation of the Tiber swept away a large part of Rome, destroying fields, drowning cattle, and ultimately causing a famine; then came earthquakes, fires and plagues of insects; and finally the warlike Parthians resumed hostilities. The brave Cassius, the head of the Roman troops in Asia, revolted, when he was assassinated and his head brought to Marcus. With characteristic magnanimity, Marcus did not thank the assassins for what they had done; on the contrary, he begged the senate to pardon all the family of Cassius, and to allow his life to be the only one forfeited on account of the civil war.

The one blemish on the life of Marcus Aurelius was his hostility to Christianity, which is the more remarkable that his morality comes nearer than any other heathen system to that of the New Testament.—*Edited from Britannica.*

(*c*) **Commodus,** no longer content with showing his strength and dexterity to a little group of favorites in the palace, he presented himself as a spectacle in the arena, and, carefully protected from serious danger, displayed his skill by shooting hundreds of wild animals, and by meeting in fight hundreds of gladiators. He called himself the Roman Hercules, and commanded that he should be worshiped as such —*Britannica.*

The Five Good Emperors (96-180 A.D.) now brought in the palmiest days of Rome. *Nerva*, a quiet, honest old man, distributed lands among the plebs, and taught them to work for a living. *Trajan*, a great Spanish general, conquered the Dacians and many Eastern peoples; founded public libraries and schools in Italy; and tried to restore freedom of speech and simplicity of life. *Hadrian* traveled almost incessantly over his vast empire, overseeing the government of the provinces, and erecting splendid buildings. Antoninus Pius was a second Numa, by his love of justice and religion diffusing the blessings of peace and order over the civilized world. *Aurelius* was a philosopher and loved quiet. But the time of peace had passed. The Germans, pressed by the Slavs who lived in Russia, fled before them, and crossed the Roman frontiers as in the time of Marius. The emperor was forced to take the field in person, and died during the eighth winter-campaign.—*Steele.*

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22. X. THE DECLINE AND FALL OF THE EMPIRE. 193-476 A.D.

1. **Causes.**—(*a*) The extent of the empire had grown too great to hold together. There were too many conflicting interests in an empire of 120,000,000 people, occupying a territory from the North Sea to Sahara and from the Atlantic to the Indus.

(*b*) The increase of wealth and luxury made the people less willing to undergo the rigors and privations of camp life, and thus weakened the military support of the empire. The people came to depend upon hired soldiers from among the barbarians.

(*c*) A decline in the morals and economic virtues of the people, was due largely to the long career of conquest. They became reckless, lost their old-time thrift and thus enabled the avaricious to gain possession of the wealth of the country.

(*d*) The real military superiority of the German barbarians who had, in addition to their great physical power and endurance, learned, as mercenaries in the Roman service, all that the Romans knew of the art of war.

2. **Period of Military Despotism** (193-284).—This period is characterized by (a) The rapidity with which emperors were chosen, proclaimed and deposed by the soldiers. Often two or more emperors were proclaimed at the same time by different divisions of the army. (b) The rapid rise of Christianity in spite of numerous persecutions, was due to the general disbelief in the old religion, the zeal of the Christians in proclaiming the glad tidings, and the peculiar adaptation of the Christian doctrines and practices to the religious and moral needs of the times. (c) The growing hostility of the barbarians on the north and east.

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22. X. THE DECLINE AND FALL OF THE EMPIRE.

Corroded by an Internal Ulcer.—The Roman Emperors were no longer able to defend the provinces which they still pretended to govern; and they often observed, without regret, valiant foes become their guests and occupy the desert portions of their empire. The decay of the empire was hastened by the advance of luxury and the decline of the military spirit. Its ruin was not caused by the barbarian nations which poured into it from the extremity of Scandinavia in the remote North and from the steppes of Tartary and Mongolia in the far East. The Empire had for a long time been corroded by an internal ulcer. The decay of patriotism, the decline of military virtue and the extinction of the national spirit had far more evil consequence to Rome than the arms of Alaric the Goth, Attila the Hun or Genseric the Vandal. Roman degeneracy made the gradual conquest and final subversion of the Western Empire an easy task.—*Clare.*

The Decline of Rome was the natural and inevitable effect of immoderate greatness. Prosperity ripened the principle of decay; the causes of destruction multiplied with the extent of conquest; and as soon as time or accident had removed the artificial supports, the stupendous fabric yielded to the pressure of its own weight. The story of its ruin is simple and obvious; and instead of inquiring why the Roman empire was destroyed, we should rather be surprised that it had subsisted so long. The victorious legions, who, in distant wars, acquired the vices of strangers and mercenaries, first oppressed the freedom of the republic, and afterwards violated the majesty of the purple. The emperors, anxious for their personal safety and the public peace, were reduced to the base expedient of corrupting the discipline which rendered them alike formidable to their sovereign and to the enemy; the vigor of the military government was relaxed, and finally dissolved by the partial institutions of Constantine; and the Roman world was overwhelmed by a deluge of Barbarians.—*Gibbon.*

A Divided Empire.—The decay of Rome has been frequently ascribed to the translation of the seat of Empire; but this history has already shown that the powers of government were divided, rather than removed. The throne of Constantinople was erected in the East; while the West was still possessed by a series of emperors who held their residence in Italy, and claimed their equal inheritance of the legions and provinces. This dangerous novelty impaired the strength, and fomented the vices, of a double reign, the instruments of an oppressive and arbitrary system were multiplied, and a vain emulation of luxury, not of merit, was introduced and supported between the degenerate successors of Theodosius.—*Gibbon.*

The Abuse of Christianity had some influence on the decline and fall of the Roman empire. The clergy successfully preached the doctrines of patience, and the last remains of military spirit were buried in the cloister, a large portion of public and private wealth was consecrated to the specious demands of charity and devotion, and the soldiers' pay was lavished on useless multitudes of both sexes. Faith, zeal, curiosity, and the more earthly passions of malice and ambition, kindled the flame of theological discord; the church, and even the state, were distracted by religious factions, whose conflicts were sometimes bloody, and always implacable, the attention of the emperors was diverted from camps to synods, the Roman world was oppressed by a new species of tyranny, and the persecuted sects became the secret enemies of their country.—*Gibbon.*

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23.

3. **Gradual Division of the Empire (284-394).**—(*a*) Diocletian to Constantine (284-323). Diocletian, born of slave parents, was a man of great ability and rose on his own merits. He took the power out of the hands of the army; but finding the administration of so vast a realm difficult, he appointed as his colleague Maximian, to whom he entrusted the government of the West, while he ruled the East. Each took the title of Augustus. Two subordinates, officers with the title of Cæsar, were appointed to take charge of the regions requiring military supervision. Thus there were, in reality, four imperial courts, instead of one. An attempt to exterminate the Christians was known as the Era of Martyrs. In 305 Diocletian abdicated, followed by Maximian, and the two Cæsars were recognized as Augusti, Galerius in the East and Constantius in the West. After the death of Constantius, his soldiers in Britain proclaimed his son, Constantine, as his successor. At the end of 17 years of war and diplomacy, Constantine found himself sole ruler.

(*b*) **Constantine the Great,** the first Christian emperor, protected the Christians. In 325 was held the first general council of the church of Nicæa. In 330 Constantine removed the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, afterwards called Constantinople.

(*c*) **The Successors of Constantine to Theodosius (337-379).**—After the death of Constantine, the empire was several times divided and reunited, until it was united for the last time under Theodosius. Julian the Apostate (361-363) attempted to re-establish the old pagan worship. In 378 the eastern emperor, Valens, was defeated and slain by the Goths in the famous battle of Adrianople, which marks the beginning of the successful invasions of the Teutonic tribes.

(*d*) **Theodosius the Great (379-395)** assumed control of the East after the death of Valens, but in 394 became sole ruler and united the empire for the last time. Theodosius banished the last vestige of pagan worship, destroyed the pagan temples and took severe measures against Christian heretics. This period was prolific in doctrinal discussions among the church fathers and in treatises on law and jurisprudence. Theodosius was able not only to hold the Goths in check, but to reduce them to subjection.

23.

3. **Gradual Division of the Empire.**—(*a*). DIOCLETIAN, MAXIMIAN (see Glossary).

(*b*) **Constantine the Great.**—The most interesting and most disputed subject in connection with the life of Constantine is the nature of his relation to Christianity. The facts bearing upon it are clear enough, and the controversy must therefore be entirely attributed to the manipulation and distortion of partisans. A brief statement of these facts will suffice to show how far his acceptance of Christianity was a matter of personal conviction, and how far, on the other hand, it was a matter of statesmanship. The generous conduct of Constantius toward the Christians betokens a certain measure of sympathy. But whatever may have been due to this, it did not bring him over to the new faith. His own narrative to Eusebius attributed his conversion to the miraculous appearance of a flaming cross in the sky at noon-day under the circumstances already indicated. The story has met with nearly every degree of acceptance from the unquestioning faith of Eusebius himself to the incredulity of Gibbon, who treats it as a fable, while not denying the sincerity of the conversion. —*Britannica.*

The reign of Constantine the Great is the turning point of this period of the history. He completed the revolution which Diocletian had begun. By his entire abolition of the prætorians, and conversion of their prefects into purely civil officers, he secured the State as far as was possible from the tyranny of the sword. By the erection of his new capital, and the formal transfer of the seat of government from Rome to Byzantium, he put the finishing stroke to the degradation of the old metropolis, destroyed forever the power of the Senate, and freed the emperors from all those galling restrictions which old constitutional forms and usages had imposed upon them. By his organization of the Court on a thoroughly Eastern model, he stamped finally on the later empire the character of Orientalism which attaches to it. Finally, by his new division of the empire into Prefectures, and his assignment of different portions of his dominion to his sons and nephews, on whom he conferred the titles of "Cæsar," or "King," he maintained in a modified form the principles of a federated as distinct from a centralized government, and of joint as distinct from sole rule, which was the most original, and at the same time the most doubtful, of Diocletian's conceptions.—*Rawlinson.*

(*c*) **Julian, Valens, Goths, Adrianople** (see Glossary).

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24.

4. Final Division of the Empire to the Fall of the Western Empire (395-476).—At the death of Theodosius the empire was divided between Arcadius, who received the East, and Honorius, who received the West. The Goths again broke forth and overran the empire. Stilicho, a Vandal, acting as the guardian of Honorius, was able to hold them in check; but he was finally murdered by command of Honorius. Alaric, the West Goth, led his followers through the length of Italy. The story of the western empire is henceforward one continuous story of incapacity on the part of the emperors and aggressiveness on the part of the barbarians. At length in (476) Odovaker, a leader of the Heruli, overthrew Romulus Augustulus (476), and assumed the government himself, acknowledging the superiority of the eastern Emperor Zeno.

Thus ends the story of the rise of a city on the banks of the Tiber to the position of supreme ruler of the world, and the decline of her power until it was finally wrested from her by a band of wandering barbarians from the North.

4.

4. Final Division of the Empire to the Fall of the Western Empire.—*The Pompous Luxury of Arcadius.*—The emperor wears on his head either a diadem, or a crown of gold, decorated



Modesty—Statue, Pompeii.

with stones of inestimable value. These ornaments, and his purple garments, are reserved for his sacred person alone; and his robes of silk are embroidered with the figures of golden dragons. His throne is of massive gold. Whenever he appears in public, he is surrounded by his courtiers, his guards and his attendants. Their spears, their shields, their cuirasses, the bridles and trappings of their horses, have either the substance, or the appearance, of gold; and the large splendid boss in the midst of their shield is encircled with smaller bosses, which represent the shape of the human eye. The two mules that draw the chariot of the monarch, are perfectly white, and shining all over with gold. The chariot itself, of pure and solid gold, attracts the admiration of the spectators, who contemplate the purple curtains, the snowy carpet, the size of the precious stones, and the resplendent plates of gold, that glitter as they are agitated by the motion of the carriage. The Imperial pictures are white, on a blue ground; the emperor appears seated on his throne, with his arms, his horses, and his guards beside him; and his vanquished enemies in chains at his feet.—*St. Chrysostom.*

Alaric.—When Alaric was made by Arcadius master-general of the Eastern Illyricum, A.D. 398, it was felt at once that the West was menaced; and the dreadful invasions which followed were ascribed, not without some show of reason, to the connivance of the Emperor of the East, who, to save his own territories, had let the Goths loose upon his brother's. The first invasion, in A.D. 402, carried devastation over the rich plains of Northern Italy, but was effectually checked by Stilicho, who completely defeated Alaric in the battle of Pollentia (March 29, A.D. 403) and forced him to retire into Illyricum. The second invasion, A.D. 408, was more disastrous. The empire had lost the services of Stilicho who had been sacrificed to the jealousy of an ungrateful master. Alaric marched upon Rome, and formed the siege of the city, but after some months consented to spare it on the receipt of an enormous ransom, A.D. 409. He then sought to come to terms with Honorius, who had fixed his court at Ravenna; but, being insulted during the negotiations, he broke them off, once more marched on Rome, starved the city into submission, and entered it as its master, A.D. 410. A puppet emperor was set up in the person of a certain Attalus, who was however, after a few months, again degraded by Alaric to a private condition. The court of Ravenna still refusing the terms of peace which Alaric offered, he finally, in August, A.D. 410, resolved to push hostility to the utmost. Advancing a third time upon Rome, he took and sacked the city, overran Southern Italy, and made himself master of the whole peninsula from the walls of Ravenna to the Sicilian sea.—*Rawlinson.*

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FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **THE OTHER JULIAN EMPERORS.**—Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, Nero.
20. **THE BARRACK EMPERORS.**—Galba, Otho, Vitellus.
    THE FLAVIAN EMPERORS.—Vespasian, Titus, Domitian.
    THE REDEMPTION OF THE EMPIRE.—Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian.
21. **THE ANTONINES.**—Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, Commodus.
22. **DECLINE AND FALL OF THE EMPIRE.**—Causes.
23. **GRADUAL DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE.**—Diocletian, Constantine, Julian, Valens, Theodosius.
24. **FINAL DIVISION AND FALL OF ROME.**—Arcadius, Honorius, Goths, Vandals, Alaric, Odoacer, Romulus Augustulus.

QUESTIONS.

19. *Name the Julian Emperors? Which was the most prominent? What was the general character of these emperors? Name instances of their extreme cruelty? What was the population of Rome? The condition of the treasury?*

20. *Name the Flavian Emperors? Discuss the reign of Vespasian? Hadrian? How were the Jews treated? What may be said of the Colosseum? Of the colonization of Soldiers? What happened at Pompeii and Herculaneum? Why are these buried cities of historic interest?*

21. *Name the Antonines? Give the life and character of each? Taken collectively how do they compare with their predecessors? What troubles continually harassed the Romans during their reigns? Why could they not restore Roman greatness?*

22. *Give the statements of Clare and Gibbon as to the cause of the decline of the Roman empire? What is your estimate of the correctness of their statements? What do you consider the leading causes of the fall of Rome? Give your reasons?*

23. *What was the general character of Diocletian? Constantine? Julian? Theodosius? Name the leading events of this period?*

24. *Name the events directly leading to the division of the empire? From the chronological table determine the following: The date of the division of the empire? Of the founding of Rome? The number of years under the rule of kings? The number under the republic? The number under the emperors?*



Marcellus.

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What do you consider the most marked characteristics of the Romans?*

2. *What points are possessed alike by Greeks and Romans? What are the distinguishing characteristics of each people?*

3. *Compare imperial Rome and the Rome of the republic, noting By what class organized? On which class does the burden of its support depend? Which class would likely favor it?*

4. *What great change has passed over the population of the empire? Through what part of the Roman organization has this been accomplished?*

5. *What events prepared the way for the fall of Rome? What faults of the Romans?*

6. *What tendencies caused the establishment of Christianity as the religion of the empire?*

7. *To what extent did the barbarians further the decline of the Roman empire? Give reasons for your answers.*

8. *To what extent were the barbarians indebted to the Romans for advancement in civilization? What provinces of Rome were uncivilized before their conquest? Prove it.*

9. *What kind of work seems to have been the most popular at Rome? What was original to the Romans? What was the strongest intellectual influence felt by the Romans?*

10. *What outside dangers threatened Rome more and more? Give indications of this danger in the works of the emperors. Give two proofs of the extensive spread of Christianity. Of what advantage was the empire to the spread of Christianity?*

11. *What countries could Rome make Roman, after her own pattern? What seems to have been the best period of Roman history? What its worst? What was the most characteristic period?*

12. *What was the genius of Rome? How shown? When and how did this genius first appear? When and how did her faults first appear?*

13. *What was Rome's standing with the ancient world? What should it have been? To what extent are we indebted to the Romans?*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Adrianop'ole, a city of European Turkey, called by the Turks Edreneh. Next to Constantinople it is the most important city of the Empire. Population over 140,000. Adrianapolis was called Uskadama previous to the time of the emperor Hadrian, who changed its name to Hadrianapolis. From 1366 to 1453 the Turks made it the seat of government.—*Britannica.*

Ædiles.—In Roman antiquity, a magistrate whose chief business was to superintend buildings of all kinds, but more especially public ones, as temples, aqueducts, bridges, etc. Likewise the care of highways, public places, weights and measures, etc. They also superintended the markets, fixed the prices of provisions, took cognizance of breaches of decency and public order, and took charge of public matters generally. They had the inspection of theaters and plays, and were obliged to exhibit magnificent games to the people, usually at their own expense, whereby many of them were ruined.

Æquians, an ancient and warlike people of Italy, inhabiting the upper valley of the Anio, who, in conspiracy with other nations, carried on a long series of hostilities with the early Romans, but were finally subdued in the year 302 B.C.

Agrā'rian Law of Spurius Cassius.—This was Spurius Cassius, a notable man. He was three times Consul. In his second Consulship he concluded a league with the Latins, and in his third Consulship a similar league with the Hernicans, by which the united people of Rome, Latium, and the Hernicans bound themselves to check the alarming advance lately made by the Volscians. . . . The lands which were to be distributed by Agrarian laws were not private property, but the property of the state. They were, originally, those public lands which had been the Domain of the Kings; and which were increased whenever any city or people was conquered by the Romans, because it was an Italian practice to confiscate the lands of the conquered, in whole or in part, to the use and benefit of the conquering people.—*Liddell.*

Agric'ola was assigned Britain as his province and exercised much influence in introducing the Roman language and manners. He encouraged the erection of magnificent temples, porticos, baths, and other fine buildings. The British nobles at length had their sons educated, and they who before had the utmost aversion to the Roman language, now began to study it with great assiduity. They likewise adopted the Roman dress.—*Britannica.*

Agrippi'na, the sister of Caligula and mother of Nero, and notorious for intrigue and perfidy. She prevailed upon Claudius to discard his own son, to adopt her son Domitius in his stead, and poisoned Claudius that she might reign as regent for her son. She perished by the sword of a centurion.

Alba Longa, the most ancient town in Latium. It derived its name probably from its elevated or Alpine situation. The city was destroyed by the Romans under Tullus Hostilius, and its inhabitants removed to Rome.—*Britannica.*

Ænē'as, a Trojan prince, son of Anchises and the goddess Venus.

Anti'ochus ascended the Syrian throne at the age of fifteen. His reign embraced a series of wars against neighboring kingdoms. In Greece he was defeated at Thermopylæ and in Asia Minor by Scipio.

Apū'lia, the name applied to a district of southern Italy, the limits of which are not very definitely or permanently marked. The name is still employed as a geographical, but no longer as a political designation.

A'quae Sex'tae, a town; the modern Aix.

Arcā'dius, emperor of the East and son of Theodosurs.

Ar'no, the ancient Arnus, a celebrated river of Italy.

As'culum, the chief city of the Picenians. This city must not be confounded with Asculum, or Apulum, where Pyrrhus encountered the Romans.

As'turēs (see Asturia, "PROGRESS" No. 2).

Augurs.—Practical and unimitative, the Latins would never have been content to learn the divine will through the ambiguous phrases of a human prophet; they demanded a direct yes or no from the gods themselves. Augurs existed from the time of Romulus. Without their assistance no public act or ceremony could be performed. Lightning and the flight of birds were the principal signs by which the gods were supposed to make known their will; some birds of omen communicated by their cry, others by their manner of flight.

Beneven'tum.—The modern city of Benevento occupies the ancient site of Beneventum, and is largely built up of its ruins. Except Rome, few cities can boast of so many remains of antiquity. It was originally called Maleventum, and seems to have been of Samnite foundation.

Bōadic'æ, the wife of Basutagus, king of Britain. Basutagus named the emperor Nero, heir to his accumulated treasures conjointly with his own two daughters, in expectation of securing thereby Nero's protection for his family and people; but he was no sooner dead than the emperor's officers seized all. Boadicæ's opposition to these unjust proceedings was resented with such cruelty, that orders were given that she should be publicly whipped, and her daughters exposed to the brutality of the soldiers. The Britons took up arms, with Boadicæ at their head, to shake off the Roman yoke, and the Romans were massacred wherever they could be found.

Byzan'tium, the ancient name of Constantinople.

Cæsar.—There was one man among the host of busy figures on the stage at this eventful period, who seems to stalk about like a born master, and the lapse of time since his days has not at all dimmed the fame of his deeds, so deep a mark have they left upon the laws and customs of mankind, and so noteworthy are they in the annals of Rome. Caius Julius Cæsar was six years younger than Pompey and Cicero, and was of the popular or Marian party, both by birth and tastes. His aunt Julia was wife of the great Marius himself, and though he had married a young woman of high birth to please his father, he divorced her as soon as his father died, and married Cornelia, daughter of Cinna, the devoted opponent of Sulla, to please himself.—*Gilman.*

Calā'bria.—The name given by the Romans to the Peninsula at the southeastern extremity of Italy, and now given to the peninsula at the southwestern extremity. The former district was called by the Greeks Iapygia and Messapia, and the people were of pure-Hellenic or Pelasgic descent.

Calig'ula was brought up in his father's camp among the soldiers, and received the name Calig-

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ula, from the name caligæ, or foot-soldier's shoes, which he used to wear.

Campania was distinguished by its fertility, beauty and genial climate, and by the excellence of its harbors.

Can'næ, a town of Apulia, famous for the defeat of the Romans by Hannibal. The site of the town is still marked by ancient ruins. Hannibal was in high spirits at the prospects of the battle. He had ascended an eminence to gain a better view of the Roman lines, and as he stood surveying them, surrounded by his officers, one of them, named Gisgo, remarked on "the wonderful numbers" of the enemy. "Ah," said Hannibal, "there is one thing about them more wonderful than their numbers." Gisgo asked what he meant. "Why," replied the general, "in all that vast number there is not one man called Gisgo." This sally raised a laugh; the gaiety of the general was an earnest of victory.—*Liddell.*

Cantā'bria, a name applied by ancient geographers to the entire country now occupied by the provinces of Asturias, Santander, Biscay and Guipuzcoa. They were the most warlike of all the native Spanish tribes.—*Britannica.*

Cā'præ, the modern Capri, a small island of Italy on the south side of the bay of Naples. The inhabitants still retain distinct traces of the Greek type of countenance and figure.

Castor and Pollux.—But at this very time two youths on white horses rode into the forum at Rome. They were covered with dust and sweat and blood, like men who had fought long and hard, and their horses were also bathed in sweat and foam; and they alighted near the temple of Vesta, and washed themselves in a spring that gushes out hard by, and told all the people in the forum how the battle by the Lake Regillus had been fought and won. Then they mounted their horses and rode away, and were seen no more. But Postumius, when he heard it, knew that these were Castor and Pollux, the great twin brethren of the Greeks, and that it was they who fought so well for Rome at the Lake Regillus. So he built them a temple, according to his vow, over the place where they had alighted in the forum. And their effigies were displayed on Roman coins to the latest ages of the city.—*Liddell.*

Cat'iline, an abandoned young nobleman, who formed a widespread plot which was exposed by Cicero.

Catul'lus was one of the most brilliant and original among Latin authors. His poems throw much light also on the social life of Rome and of the provincial towns of Italy in the years preceding the outbreak of the second civil war.

Censors.—The two censors were elected for five years. They took the census, not only of the names but of the property of the Roman citizens; arranged the different classes; corrected the lists of senators and equites, striking out those who were unworthy, and filling vacancies in the senate; punished extravagance and immorality; levied the taxes; and repaired and constructed public works, roads, etc.

Cic'erō was indeed not only a good citizen, but a good man; he loved not his country only, but mankind in general; he loved them not merely from a kindly nature, but from reflection and self-discipline. As a specimen of the highest culture of the ancient world, both moral and intellectual, he must ever stand pre-eminent.

Cilic'ia comprised a large part of the southern coast of Asia Minor, and is partly represented by the modern division of Adana. There can be no doubt that the Cilicians were of Semitic or Aramaic descent, and belonged to the same stock as the Syrians.

Cin'na breaking the oath he had sworn to Sulla that he would not attempt any revolution in the state, allied himself with Marius, raised an army of Italians and took possession of the city.

Classes of People in Early Rome.—*Patricians,* who claim descent from the founders and settlers of Rome; they belong to three different Italian tribes, each tribe being subdivided into clans, and these again into families. *Plebeians,* who seem to be the descendants of strangers and unrelated settlers on the Roman hills; they are not allowed to marry into patrician families, nor to share their religious rites. *Slaves,* who largely consist of those sold for debt or taken captive in war.

Clū'sium, a town in the Tuscan province of Siena. It is chiefly interesting for the Etruscan bronzes, mirrors, vases, and funeral urns found in the vicinity, of which its museums contain collections.

Comitia (Ko-mish'-e-a) was employed by the Romans to denote an assembly of the people called for the purpose of accepting or rejecting some proposition submitted to them by the heads of the state. It was a fundamental principle of the Roman constitution that the supreme power was inherent in the citizens, though it might be delegated by them to hereditary or to elected magistrates. All important matters, however, had to be brought before the sovereign people, who could either ratify or reject, but without discussion, the proposals made to them.

Cras'sus was chosen joint-consul with Pompey (56 B.C.); he secured the province of Syria. Eager to obtain the boundless treasures of the East, he set out upon an expedition against Parthia. On the way, he plundered the temple of Jerusalem. While crossing the scorching plains beyond the Euphrates, not far from Charræ (the Haran of the Bible), he was suddenly surrounded by clouds of Parthian horsemen. Roman valor was of no avail in that ceaseless storm of arrows. During the retreat, Crassus was slain. His head was carried to the Parthian king, who, in derision, ordered it to be filled with molten gold. The death of Crassus ended the Triumvirate.

Curiæ, the name of the ten divisions into which a tribe was divided by the constitution of Romulus. There being three tribes, there were thirty curiæ.

Cynoceph'alæ, a range of mountains in Thessaly.

Dā'cians.—Inhabitants of Dacia. The ancient name of that district of Europe which lies to the north of the Danube, between the Theiss on the west and the Dneister on the east.—*Britannica.*

Dioclē'tian established four rulers and established each at a separate capital. This amounted to an entirely new organization of the empire. His reign was memorable for the persecution of the Christians. With Diocletian's accession the period of military despotism ended; the imperial authority was strengthened; and the army was taught its proper position as the servant, and not the master, of the state. The reforms which Diocletian commenced were not completed until the reign of Constantine the Great. Though these reforms had the effect of vastly strengthening the imperial power, and giving a fresh vigor to the the empire by arresting its decline for the time, they tended very greatly to the division of the Roman world into two separate empires, which was already a question of time.—*Clare.*

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Domi'tian enjoys an evil prominence as the only tyrant among the succession of good and just princes from Vespasian down to Commodus. He conducted himself with such an air of authority that Vespasian wrote in irony to thank him for not having dismissed his own father. Domitian was the first to claim divine honors in his lifetime, and cause himself in public documents to be styled Our Lord and God.

Dru'sus was the Mirabeau of the social revolution of Rome, and had his measure been carried, Rome might have been spared the most terrible of her civil wars.—*Britannica.*

E'bro.—The principal river in Spain.

Gal'ba's early reign was marked by vigorous discipline and strict justice and often cruelty; for example, he nailed the hand of a cheating money changer to his bench.

Gaul, according to Cæsar, was in his day divided among three peopies, more or less distinct from one another, the Aquitani, the Gauls who called themselves Celts, and the Belgae. The first of these extended from the Pyrenees to the Garumna (Garonne); the second from that river to the Sequana (Seine) and its tributary the Matrona (Marne) reaching eastward presumably as far as the Rhenus (Rhine); and the third from this boundary line to the mouth of the last-named river, thus bordering on the Germans. By implication Cæsar recognizes a fourth division, the Provincia, lying to the south in the basin of the Rhodanus (Rhone), and stretching westward as far as Tolosa (Toulouse), in the basin of the Garonne.—*Britannica.*

Han'nibal.—Finding the vindictive Romans determined on his destruction, Hannibal secretly left the dominions of Antiochus the Great, and after wandering for some time from one petty state to another, finally found refuge at the court of Prusius, King of Bithynia. But the Romans did not feel secure so long as the great Carthaginian general was living. With a mean and revengeful spirit utterly unworthy of a great nation, they sent one of their generals to Prusius to demand that Hannibal be delivered into their power. Fearing to incur the resentment of the Romans, and hoping to conciliate their friendship by this breach of hospitality, Prusius ordered a guard to be placed over Hannibal with the design of surrendering him to the Romans. The unfortunate old Carthaginian general, thus persecuted with implacability from one country to another, and perceiving that all means of escape were cut off from him, finally committed suicide by swallowing poison, which he had for a long time carried with him for this purpose (B.C. 183). With his dying breath he reproached the Romans for their degeneracy and Prusius for betraying his guest.—*Clare.*

Heracle'a.—The victory of Heraclea was gained at a heavy loss. Pyrrhus now rightly estimated the task he had undertaken. He had a soldier's eye. When he visited the field of battle next day, and saw every Roman corpse with its wounds in front, he exclaimed: "If these were my soldiers, or if I were their general, we should conquer the world."—*Liddell.*

Herculā'neum was a small city of Campania situated on a hill overlooking the sea. It enjoyed a great prosperity towards the close of the republic and in the earlier times of the empire since many noble families of Rome settled and constructed villas.—(See Pompeii.)

Her'uli.—A nomadic and warlike German tribe who inhabited the northern shores of the Black Sea, but afterwards divided into various sections and wandered into various parts of Europe. They made their first appearance as taking part with the Goths in their incursions against the eastern provinces of the Roman Empire.

Hono'rius.—But the son of Theodosius passed the slumber of his life a captive in his palace, a stranger in his country, and the patient, almost the indifferent, spectator of the ruin of the Western empire, which was repeatedly attacked, and finally subverted, by the arms of the Barbarians.—*Gibbon.*

Hor'ace, in his early writings, imitated Archilochus and Lucilius, and himself says:

> "The shafts of my passion at random I flung,
> And, dashing headlong into petulant rhyme,
> I recked neither where nor how fiercely I stung."
> —*Ode* I. 15.

But his kind, genial nature soon tempered this "Petulant rhyme." His *Satires* are rambling, sometimes ironical, and always witty, discourses. Like Virgil, he loved to sing of country life. He wrote laboriously, and carefully studied all his metaphors and phrases. His *Odes* have a consummate grace and finish.—*Steele.*

Horatian Laws, so-called from the consul who prepared them. They made the resolutions passed by the plebeians in the assembly of the tribes binding equally upon the patrician.

Horten'sian Laws.—One of these Hortensian laws was probably an extension of the Agrarian law of Curius, granting not seven, but fourteen jugera (about 9 acres) to each of the poor citizens. Another provided for the reduction of debt. But that which is best known as the Hortensian law was one enacting that all resolutions of the tribes should be law for the whole Roman people.—*Liddell.*

Ju'lian the Apostate.—A devout and sincere attachment for the gods of Athens and Rome, constituted the ruling passion of Julian; the powers of an enlightened understanding were betrayed and corrupted by the influence of superstitious prejudice; and the phantoms which existed ouly in the mind of the emperor, had a real and pernicious effect on the government of the empire. The vehement zeal of the Christians, who despised the worship, and overturned the altars, of those fabulous deities, engaged their votary in a state of irreconcilable hostility with a very numerous party of his subjects; and he was sometimes tempted, by the desire of victory, or the shame of a repulse, to violate the laws of prudence, and even of justice. The triumph of the party, which he deserted and opposed, has fixed a strain of infamy on the name of Julian; and the unsuccessful apostate has been overwhelmed with a torrent of pious invectives.—*Gibbon.*

Licin'ian Rogations.—These were:

I. That of all debts on which interest had been paid, the sum of the interest paid should be deducted from the principal and the remainder paid off in three successive years.

II. That no citizen should hold more than 500 jugera (nearly 320 acres) of the Public Land, nor should feed on the public pastures more than 100 heads of larger cattle and 500 of smaller, under penalty of a heavy fine.

III. That henceforth Consuls, not Consular Tribunes, should always be elected, and that one of the two Consuls must be a Plebeian.—*Liddell.*

Liv'y, who outlived Horace by a quarter of a century, wrote one hundred and forty-two volumes of *Roman History*, beginning with the fabulous landing of Æneas, and closing with the death of Drusus (8 B.C.). Thirty-five volumes remain. His grace, enthusiasm, and eloquence make his

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pages delightful to read, though he is no longer accepted as an accurate historian.

Maece'nas, a descendant of ancient Etruria and a close companion of Augustus.

Mam'ertine Pirates.—A large portion of the army of Agathocles consisted of Italians, who called themselves Mamertines, that is, servants of Mamers, or Mars. They were Campanian adventurers of Samnite origin, who took service with any government that would pay them. They chose their own captains, like the free troops led by the condotteri of the middle ages. On the death of Agathocles, a large body of these Mamertines seized Syracuse as a guarantee for the payment of their wages. On payment being made, they were induced to leave the city, and were marched to Messana, for the purpose of crossing into Italy. But finding this city an inviting prey, they seized it and became its lords; and soon they established their power over a large portion of northern Sicily.—*Liddell.*

Metau'rus.—The battle began along the whole line at once. In the centre, the elephants were wounded, and running furiously about trampled down friends and foes alike. On the left, Nero found the Gauls strongly posted; and leaving the greater part of his troops to hold them in check, he himself made a flank movement with his own troops, and fell upon the right of Hasdrubal's division. This bold charge decided the battle. When the right wing of the Carthaginian army gave way, the center followed their example; and Hasdrubal, finding the battle lost, and the destruction of his army inevitable from the nature of the ground, threw himself into the enemy's ranks and fell fighting. The slaughter was great; the Metaurus ran red with blood.—*Liddell.*

Mylæ.—Nothing daunted. Duillius attacked without delay. By his rude assault the skillful tactics of the Carthaginian seamen were confounded. The Roman fighting-men were very numerous, and when they had once boarded an enemy's ship, easily made themselves master of her. Duillius took thirty-one Carthaginian ships and sunk fourteen. For a season, no Roman name stood so high as that of Duillius. Public honors were awarded him, he was escorted home at night from banquets and festivals by the light of torches and the music of the flute; a pillar was set up in the Forum, ornamented with the beaks of the captured ships, and therefore called the Columna Rostrata, to commemorate the great event. Fragments of the inscription still remain.—*Liddell.*

Nē'ro.—The mood of the citizens meanwhile was dark and lowering as they brooded over their disasters, and Nero looked to find some victims to fill their thoughts or turn their suspicion from himself. The Christians were the scapegoats chosen. Confused in the popular fancy with the Jews, whose bigotry and turbulence had made them hated, looked upon askance by Roman rulers as members of secret clubs and possible conspirators, disliked probably by those who knew them best for their unsocial habits or their tirades against the fashions of the times, the Christians were sacrificed alike to policy and hatred. They deserved their fate, says Tacitus, not, indeed, because they were guilty of the fire, but from their hatred of mankind. There was a refinement of cruelty in their doom. Some were covered with the skins of beasts, and fierce dogs were let loose to worry them. Others were tied to stakes and smeared with tar, and then at nightfall, one after another, they were set on fire, that their burning bodies might light up Nero's gardens, while the crowds made merry with good cheer, and the Emperor looked curiously on as at the play.—*Capes.*

Noricum, a province of the Roman empire in south-east Germany.

Numantia, a city of Spain.

Numidia, a former island country of northern Africa.

Odō'acer was the first Barbarian who reigned in Italy, over a people who had once asserted their just superiority over the rest of mankind. The disgrace of the Romans still excites our respectful compassion, and we fondly sympathize with the imaginary grief and indignation of their degenerate posterity.—*Gibbon.*

Op'pian Law.—It was then that a law was passed that no woman should wear any garment of divers colors, nor own more gold than a half ounce in weight, nor ride through the streets of a city in a carriage drawn by horses, nor in any place nearer than a mile to a town, except for the purpose of engaging in a public religious solemnity. The spirited matrons of Rome were ever ready to bear their share of the public burdens, and though some thought this oppressive, but few murmurs escaped them as they read the Oppian law, as it was called when it was passed, for the days were dark, and the shadow of the defeat at Cannæ was bowing down all hearts, and their brothers and parents and husbands were trembling, strong men that they were, at the threatening situation of the state. Now, however, the condition of affairs had changed. The conquests of the past few years had brought large wealth into the city, and was it to be expected that women should not wish to adorn themselves, as of yore, with gold and garments of richness? When now the repeal of the law was to be discussed, the excitement became so intense that people forgot that Spain was in a state of insurrection, and that war threatened on every side. —*Gilman.*

Ō'tho, a Roman emperor who after Nero's death attached himself to Galba.

Ō'vid, a celebrated Roman poet.

Panno'nia, a large extent of country in Europe inhabited by Celtic tribes.

Par'thians (See "PROGRESS" No. 2).

Pom'pey, after a time, was elected joint-consul with Crassus, and, later, sole consul; he obtained the province of Gaul, which he governed by legates. He now ruled Rome, but was bent on ruling the empire. The death of his wife had severed the link which bound him to the conqueror of Gaul. He accordingly joined with the nobles, who were also alarmed by Cæsar's brilliant victories, and the strength his success gave the popular party. A law was therefore passed ordering Cæsar to resign his office and disband the army before he appeared to sue for the consulship. The tribunes—Antony and Cassius—who supported Cæsar, were driven from the senate. They fled to his camp and demanded protection.

Publil'ian Law.—The first step taken in advance was by the law of Publilius Volero (B. C. 470), the main importance of which was that it assumed the initiative in legislation, hitherto exclusively in the hands of the other order.—*Rawlinson.*

Rhaeta (re'-sha), a name then applied to a part of southern Germany and Switzerland.

Sagun'tum was an ancient colony from the Greek island of Zacynthos. Its site on the coast of modern Valencia is marked by the present town of Murviedro (Muri Veteres) rather more than half-way between New Carthage and the mouth of the Ebro.—*Liddell.*

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Sam'nium, the capital city of the Samnites.

Scip'io.—On his return to Rome from his campaign against Antiochus the Great of Syria, Scipio Africanus was accused of having secreted some of the treasure obtained from the Syrian king; and, scorning to answer the unjust accusation, the conquerer of Hannibal retired into exile into a country village of Southern Italy, where he died shortly afterwards (B.C. 183). Scipio directed that his remains should not be conveyed to Rome, which had repaid his valiant services with base ingratitude. Nevertheless the day of his death was a day of universal sorrow in Rome, and many who had treated this great general with injustice during his life shed tears at his death. A monument was afterwards erected at the place where he died. Scipio had ordered this inscription upon his tomb: "Ungrateful country, you do not possess even my bones."—*Clare.*

Seja'nus, a prætorian guard of Rome.

Seleū'cidæ, the name of a Greek dynasty in Asia.

Sen'eca was the tutor and guardian of the young Nero, and in later days carried his friendship so far as to write a defence of the murder of Agrippina. But Nero was poor and in debt; Seneca was immensely rich. To charge him with conspiracy, sentence him to death, and seize his vast estates, was a policy characteristic of Nero. Seneca, then an old man, met his fate bravely and cheerfully. His young wife resolved to die with him, and opened a vein in her arm with the same weapon with which he had punctured his own, but Nero ordered her wound to be ligatured. As Seneca suffered greatly in dying, his slaves, to shorten his pain, suffocated him in a vapor bath.

Spar'tacus, a Thracian shepherd famous for his victory over the Romans.

Stil'icho.—The bishop was satisfied by a solemn oath, that the Imperial mandate only directed them to secure the person of Stilicho; but, as soon as the unfortunate minister had been tempted beyond the holy threshold, he produced the warrant for his instant execution. Stilicho supported, with calm resignation, the injurious names of traitor and parricide; repressed the unseasonable zeal of his followers, who were ready to attempt an ineffectual rescue; and, with a firmness not unworthy of the last of the Roman generals, submitted his neck to the sword of Heraclean.—*Gibbon.*

Taren'tum was a Lacedæmonian colony of very great antiquity. Its history is little known. But what is known shows that the colony partook of the steady nature of her mother-city, and resisted those violent and frequent changes which were so rife in Syracuse and other Greek cities of the west. Tarentum lay at the northern corner of the great gulf which still bears its name.—*Liddell.*

Tarquin'ii, a town of Etruria.

The Tre'bia is a mountain stream, which in summer runs babbling over a broad gravelly bed, so shallow that the foot-traveller walks over it unheeding; but in winter, or after heavy rains, it rises to a deep and rapid torrent. It was now nearly the end of December, and Hannibal resolved that he would not cross the water to attack the Romans, but would make them cross it to attack him. He executed his purpose with great skill.—*Liddell.*

Twelve Tables, or the Earliest Written Law of Rome, dating from about 451 B.C. The character of these laws may be inferred from the following:

"A foreigner can gain no property in a thing by long possession. If a citizen confess a debt, or be adjudged to pay it, he shall be allowed thirty lawful days to make payment; after that time he may be arrested. . . . If he then do not pay or find somebody else to pay for him, the creditor may take him away and bind him with cords or with fetters, which must not be more than fifteen pounds weight; . . . the creditor may keep the debtor sixty days in chains, and in the course of that time shall present him for three successive fair days, . . . and publicly notify the debt. If there be more creditors than one, after the three fair days they may cut up the debtor or sell him beyond the Tiber.

"A father may kill at its birth a child monstrously deformed. He shall have a right of life and death over all his lawful children, and also of selling them. If a father sell his child thrice, the child shall afterwards be free from him. . . . Howsoever a father of a family directs by will, as to his property, or the guardianship of his children, such shall be the law."

Um'bria, a central province of Italy.

Vā'lens.—Meanwhile, the weaker Valens in the east, cruel, timid, and governed by favorites, with difficulty maintained himself upon the throne which he owed, not to his own merit, but to the affection or jealousy of his brother.—*Rawlinson.*

Van'dals, one of the Slavonic or Teutonic tribes who inhabited the banks of the Oder.

Va'rus, governor of the province, thinking the conquest complete, attempted to introduce the Latin language and laws. Thereupon, Arminius, a noble, free-loving German, aroused his countrymen, and in the wilds of the Teutoberg Forest took a terrible revenge for the wrongs they had suffered. Varus and his entire army perished. Dire was the dismay at Rome when news came of this disaster. For days, Augustus wandered through his palace, beating his head against the wall, and crying, "Varus, give me back my legions!" Six years later, the whitened bones of these hapless warriors were buried by Germanicus (the son of Drusus, and step-son of Augustus), but with all his genius he could not restore the Roman authority in Germany.—*Steele.*

Venē'tia, a former kingdom of northern Italy.

Vercel'læ, a town of northern Italy.

Vespā'sian (69 A.D.) was made emperor by his army in Judea. An old-fashioned Roman, he sought to revive the ancient virtues of honesty and frugality. His son, Titus, after the capture of Jerusalem, shared the throne with his father, and finally succeeded to the empire. His generosity and kindness won him the name of the *Delight of Mankind.* He refused to sign a death-warrant, and pronounced any day lost in which he had not done some one a favor.—*Steele.*

Vesū'vius, one of the most celebrated volcanic mountains of Europe.

Vir'gil and Horace, poet friends of the Augustan Age, are well known to us. Virgil left ten *Eclogues* or *Bucolics,* in which he patterned after Theocritus, a celebrated Sicilian poet of the Alexandrian Age; *The Georgics,* a work on Roman agriculture and stock-breeding, in confessed imitation of Hesiod's *Works and Days;* and the *Æneid,* modeled upon the Homeric poems. His tender, brilliant, graceful, musical lines are on the tongue of every Latin student. The *Æneid* became a text-book for the little Romans within fifty years after its author's death, and has never lost its place in the schoolroom.

Vitel'lus, a Roman general proclaimed emperor at the time Vespasian was at war with the Jews.

Zāma (Zah-ma), a city in Numidia.

Zē'no, Emperor of the East.

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NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

By Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

Member of the International Congress of Orientalists—Author of "Hindu Literature," "Persian Literature," etc.

Edited in Part

From a Paper Furnished for the Department of Philology, in the Woman's Branch of the World's Congress, by Miss Ada Marie Molineux, A.M.

IN May of 1872 an Archæological Commission was appointed by the Municipal Council of Rome, and this Commission was especially interested in the discovery and preservation of the remains of the ancient city. They soon began the publication of an illustrated Bulletin, which is of inestimable value to those who are interested in the subject.

The Servian Wall.—One of the results of the work of this Commission is, that the great Servian wall has been traced along its whole distance,



Jupiter Ammon, Statue, Pompeii.

and portions of it are now visible in forty different places. A stone from this historic wall now rests beside the tomb of Abraham Lincoln.

The House of the Vestals.—This was perhaps the most valuable discovery of 1884, for the building was found in more perfect condition than even the houses of Pompeii. Here were found also eleven life-sized statues, besides many busts and heads. There were fifteen pedestals with inscriptions describing the life of a high priestess, besides other historical records upon stone. There were other treasures also, including eight hundred and thirty-five coins.

The Fane or Sanctuary of Pontifex Maximus.—In 1886, the Commission was fortunate enough to identify the Regia, the Fane of Pontifex Maximus, and also the Domus Publica taken from the Pontifex by Augustus and given to the Vestals.

The Cemetery of the Esquiline.—This discovery indicates that at a very early date there were Etruscans in a settlement here. Among the valuable objects found were rare vases of Greek shape, and Egyptian decoration in vitreous enamels. These vases were apparently acquired either through Phœnican commerce, or were made in potteries which were built by that people. The presence of real scarabæi also prove that these early settlers sustained intimate relations with Egypt.

Commerce on the Tiber.—A wharf on the left bank of the Tiber near the bridge of St. Angelo was discovered in 1891. It is thought to have been built by Augustus foi the unloading of marble at that point.

Agrippa's Bridge.—Nearly four hundred feet beyond the Sistine bridge, was found the massive foundations of a bridge, hitherto unknown to the present generation. Near it was an inscription certifying that the embankment of the Tiber had been repaired "ad Pontem Agrippæ;" it is therefore supposed that these are the foundations of Agrippa's bridge.

The Horrea.—When this "storage warehouse" of Galba was discovered and excavated, it still contained treasures of ivory, about six hundred cubic feet of elephant's tusks being found, besides other goods.

The Barracks of the Imperial Guards.—These have also been found and they contained more than forty inscriptions on pedestals of *ex voto* offerings, which had been made by those who were honorably discharged. The barracks of the Fifth Company of the Vigiles, or watchmen, have also come to light. These "Vigiles" united three professions, being policemen, firemen, and also lamplighters. They numbered at least seven thousand, and their barracks were in different quarters of the city.

The Altar of Dis and Proserpina.—Not only has this altar been discovered, but also the marble pillar whereon is cut the official record of the famous Secular Games which were celebrated by Augustus, B. C. 17. The inscription consists of one hundred and sixty seven lines, or fragmeuts of lines, and gives the letter of Augustus to the College of Priests, containing his programme, and the rules for the games. Then follows the resolutions passed by the priests, and the resolutions passed by the senate, including the ordering of two inscribed pillars, the one of marble which is our heritage, and the other of bronze, which has vanished.

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The Temple of Augustus. — This important landmark has been identified, the Porta Salutare has also been accurately located, and the line of the Nova Via has been determined. Discoveries on the Capitolina, determine the fact that the Citadel was on the northern peak.

The Temple of Claudius. — The Temple of Claudius on the Cælian, the gardens of the Maecenas, the Tiberine Emporium, and the vaulted arches of Aqua Virgo have all come to light, and they have yielded many things which are not only of great historic significance, but are also valuable to art.

Busts and Heads.—In this field there are notable representations of Minerva, Æsculapius, Juno, Bacchus, and Jupiter Ammon. There is also a beautifully executed portrait of Faustina the Younger, and of Pompia Plotina, the wife of Trajan, with her sweet and expressive face.

Bronze Statues.—There were three magnificent bronze statues discovered in 1885 which were remarkable preserved. One was a charming figure of Bacchus which seemed to belong to the first century. The other two were apparently much older, and one of them was a seated figure of a boxer, while the other was a statue of a stately man in standing position, and it is thought to represent Philip the Fifth of Macedonia. These were specimens of early Greek art.

Animals. — Comparatively few animals were found but these are of especial merit.

There was a cow nearly full size, and a Molossian dog, twice the natural size. This was of delicate and wonderful workmanship being but from a rare piece of serpentine.

Ruins of a Roman Villa.—New discoveries have been made in the ruins of the villa which is being cleared at Oudna. Three new chambers have been found decorated with geometrical figures which alternate with birds and theatrical masks. The last room is connected by a passage way with a vast hall which is remarkable for its architectural arrangements and also for the richness of its ornamentation. The pavement is formed of white mosaic, divided iuto rectangular sections. The mosaic of the atrium is extremely elaborate, the frame consisting of fifty-eight medallions in two rows, each enclosing a different subject. In the intercolumniation is a frieze with lions and panthers pursuing a deer, and finally in the space enclosed in the colonnade is the principal picture, representing a farming scene of the Roman period. (Am. Jour. of Archæology, Jan.-March, 1895.

A Roman Inscription in Jerusalem.—The iron bound door of Neby Daub, which had long remained open against the wall, was recently blown down during a severe storm and there was disclosed on one of the stones behind it, an inscription which is in Latin. It is a votive tablet to Jupiter on behalf of the welfare of the Roman people and the greatness of the Emperor Trajan. It appears that this tablet was erected by the Third Legion, which takes us back to the interval between the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus and



Philip the Fifth.

the founding of the Aelia Capitolina. It was partially covered with plaster, and may have been entirely covered when the door was last opened and shut, and was therefore not discovered. It is built into the wall about fifteen feet above the ground. Roman inscriptions in Jerusalem are very rare, and therefore of exceptional interest. (Academy, Dec. 22, 1894.)

POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM.

The beautiful bay of Naples was gleaming in the sunlight, and the fertile shores were crowned with groves of orange and myrtle. The olive and the fig were in fruit, while the breezes were laden with the fragrant breath of the citron and the bay tree.

Roman villas were standing on the hillsides surrounded with flowers while in the great vineyards, the vines were burdened with clusters which were already tinted with purple or gold.

On a hill near the shore of the bay stood the little city of of Pompeii with a navigable river by its side, and the vine clad slopes of Vesuvius in the background. It was surrounded with walls on every side save the western, where the sea formed the bulwark. There were eight gates, and the most important of these was that of Herculaneum at the northwest; this gateway led out upon the Via Domitiana (a branch of the Appian Way), which was the road to Rome, by way of Herculaneum. Only six miles away the neighboring city crowned a projecting headland and a river flowed down to the sea on either side. Vesuvius loomed above them, and though it was known to have been volcanic, it had remained gloomy and silent for many generations and its lower slopes were covered with vineyards. An earthquake had wrought destruction a few years before (A. D. 63), but the builders had gone bravely on in restoring the shattered edifices. They were still rebuilding, but the mountain was brooding over its heart of fire, and one bright day, a cloud arose from its crest, which soon descended and shrouded the land and sea. In a little time the hills were quivering with earthquake throes, and the vaves of the bay were beating furiously upon the beach. The

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sunlight was shut out, and the darkness was only broken with flashes of fire which were green, and blue, and crimson. The vapors and gasses hissed as if in anger, as they rushed from the crater, and there was a rain of fire and stones, and dust and ashes, while the rivers of lava poured down the mountain side.

There were burning houses, and ruined vineyards, and flying fugitives, and there were torrents of boiling mud, which penetrated everywhere, and buried the circus and tribunal, with temple and shrine.

This fiery burial was in the summer of '79, and for nearly eighteen hundred years, the names and the sites of the Campanian cities were forgotten. But though the terrible mountain destroyed them' it also gave them a value to the historian, which otherwise, they could never have had. The questioning hand of the eighteenth century first invaded their burial places. but the search was conducted in a vandal spirit, its sole object being the acquisition of jewels and statues and paintings wherewith to enrich the royal collections. The true value of the ruins lay in the life-like pictures of the manners and customs of the Romans of that period, but this thought appears never to have occurred to the Neapolitan authorities. It remained for our own generation to conduct the research in a scientific spirit, and under the able direction of Cavalier Fiorelli the frescoes are preserved, the buildings sometimes restored, and detailed plans are made of the streets and public places.

These are truly the cities of the dead, but the scholar and the artist have repeopled the silent streets and to them they have become again the cities of the living. Pompeii is an illustration of the old fable of the Sleeping Beauty—all vitality having ceased for eighteen hundred years, she responds to the touch of the nineteenth century and gives a forcible picture of her inner life. Her very houses are unroofed for our inspection and we may enter the most sacred chambers. We may see the merchant with his wares, the peasants in the streets, the dead in their tombs, and the noble Roman lady in her boudoir. Here in the richest houses, were halls and courts with stately colonnades—here the air was filled with the fragrance of flowers and cooled with the spray of the fountains, where the waters fell musically all day long. The Romans loved the glow of color and their very walls were decorated with landscape, while the floors were set with rich mosaics which often assumed the form of pictures. There were bronze lamps and richly wrought candelabra—there were tables made of citron wood, more precious than gold, and there were luxurious cushions which were covered with the costly fabrics from the Babylonian looms.

The House of Ceres was gorgeously decorated with pictures on the walls, and one of them represented Jupiter seated in his cerule chair, his mighty brow resting upon his right hand, while the left held the sceptre of kingship. The eagle stood at his feet, and the throne and footstool were of gold ornamented with precious stones, while the mantle of the god was violet-hued, and lined with azure.

This house has yielded up to the excavator its treasures of vase and tripod—of lamps and coins, a ring of onyx, and ear-rings of pearl, besides golden necklaces and bracelets.

The Street of the Faun shows two elaborate houses, and in one of them is a mosaic pavement of fine workmanship which forms a picture representing the old fable of Theseus and the Minotaur.

We have here also the "House of the Faun," which contains a beautiful bronze statue of a Dancing Faun, and it is remarkable for its fine Egyptian mosaics. Nearly all of these pictures in stone having especial reference to the worship of Osiris, they furnish another proof of Egyptian influence here before the first century.

Upon a floor in this house there is a large and carefully executed scene of the battle of Issus. It is of especial value, being the most important classical historic picture still in existence. It is a well designed composition, representing the moment of Alexander's victorious charge against the Cavalry of Darius. The expression of the faces and the characteristic dress of both Greeks and Persians are represented with great skill. The artist used nearly a million and a half of separate pieces in one hundred aud ninety-eight squares, upon which are depicted, of the size and. color of life, twenty-six horsemen and warriors. The ruins of Pompeii present the studio of the sculptor with blocks of marble, and half finished statues, and there are also many statuettes and other articles in bronze, which challenge admiration for the elegance of their design as well as beauty of finish. These discoveries are practical as well as artistic, for the jars of hermetically sealed fruit were the means of restoring the lost art of canning.

Herculaneum has also yielded its full quota of treasure, and besides a wealth of statues and busts both in bronze and marble, we have also the contents of its famous library. Counting both the entire and the fragmentary volumes there are eighteen hundred and three papyri which have been preserved. England led the way to their publication by sending her scholars to urge the prosecution of the work. More than three hundred of the paypri have been unrolled and one hundred and ninety-five have been published. Among those already unrolled, however, only a few are of historic value. The work of excavation still goes bravely on, and the world of art and scholarship continues to be enriched from the treasures of the buried cities, and thus the Past becomes the Present, for Pompeii and Herculaneum live again in the midst of our own times.



Exhumations of Pompeii.

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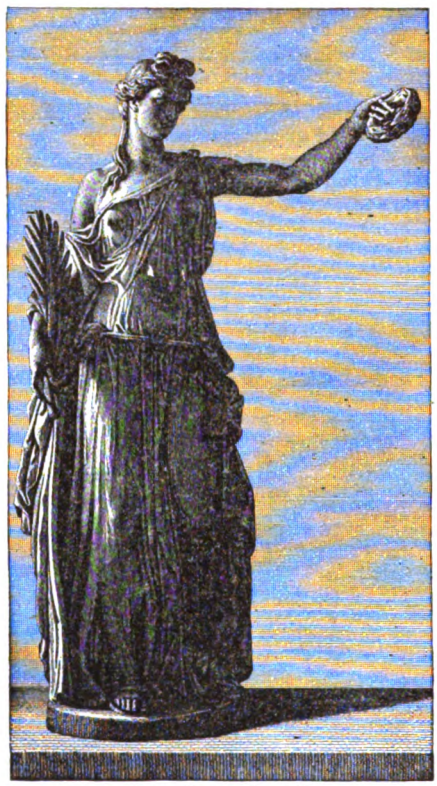
SIDE LIGHTS.

Rome the Mistress of the World.—The question which has been asked, how came Rome to be mistress of the world, is hardly yet, though it has been nearly, answered. In the histoy of Rome as a republic, the people, as they acquired power in the State, endeavored to extend that power in all directions. Town after town, and country after country, submitted to their armies. The lust of possession came upon them strongly: Carthage, Spain, Sicily, Macedonia, Greece, and a large part of Asia, submitted to the Roman sway. Gradually the senate at Rome, in-



Fame, Statue, Pompeii.

stead of dictating laws to its own countrymen, found that it had to rule over countries and peoples whose position and peculiarities were hardly known. This extensive rule arose from the special training of the Romans. Confidence in themselves and in their own power was often opposed to diffidence and an absence of power in other nations. Pride in themselves, in their city, and in the laws which they had framed, was opposed to the apathy of other countries. And hardiness was often, in the Romans, opposed to the effeminacy and luxury of their enemies. In fact, the republic had, in making Roman citizens, and not subjects, given them self-reliance, while a hard and simple life endued them with a physical power and vigor which made them often aggressive, always capable of self defiance, and in either case easily victorious. So the Romans laid the foundation of those actions which made them rulers of the earth, and gave Rome the proud title of "Mistress of the world."

The Love of Conquest.—The Roman Empire grew naturally out of the circumstances which marked the last years of the republic. While the government was confined to the city of Rome and its inhabitants, the republic worked easily; but as countries were annexed to Rome, the laws which existed were no longer beneficial or useful. In fact, a new element of interest was added to the life of the citizens. The orator and philospher still claimed and received worship and respect; but the soldier was insensibly winning the hearts of the people. Conquest was the popular desire, and the people's idol for the time being was the last conqueror. This love of conquest vitiated the purity of Roman life and Roman law. The senate was corrupt, and permitted abuses of various kinds to creep into the administration of the laws, which naturally terminated in sedition, tumult, and bloodshed. The Gracchi were among the first to furnish a memorable and mournful example. They endeavored to reform the abuses of the senate, but their efforts were only the prelude to a series of civil disorders, which broke up the government at Rome, and ended in the establishment of the Empire.

Julius Cæsar.—Julius Cæsar when quite a young man, was called upon to take up a public position. With apparently a quicker insight into the realities of the actions which surrounded him than had the great men of his time, he declined to attach himself to any party. He saw that the government was unstable; and that, though it was grand in appearance and outward form, there was a deep gulf between it and the people which required bridging. He saw that while the traditions of Rome fostered and upheld the existing forms of government, they had no real hold on the people. He saw that the city of Rome was the center of a large number of kingdoms, and of peoples which, while under its sway, owed it no attachment, and would be ready to crush both it and the Romans when the opportunity came. He saw this incongruity of actual circumstances with existing forms and conceived the plan, which he afterwards carried out, of consolidating these alien nations subject to Rome with his own countrymen, and founding an empire. Cæsar, therefore, instead of throwing himself as a partisan with either Pompey or Crassus, who were contending for the republic, reconciled both these rivals, and, with himself, formed the first triumvirate.

But it was necessary for a man in those days to be a warrior, if he wished to retain the devotion of his countrymen. Cæsar showed himself as splendid a soldier as a statesman. In Germany and France he won solid and enduring victories; and in the fourth year of his government commanded an expedition against the Britons, whom he compelled to submit to Rome. It will be impossible to follow Cæsar's fortunes except in briefest outline; to tell how, in the rivalry between himself and Pompey, he overcame his enemy; how he attached Egypt to Rome, and overthrew the rule of Ptolemy the fascinations of Cleopatra; and how he returned to Rome to be elected consnl and dictator. Then, when he overcame all resistance, and had completely vanquished his enemies both at home and abroad, he devoted himself to the administration of the country. The adornment of the city, the improvement of the surrounding towns, and the reform of objectionable laws, engrossed the whole of his attention. At last, in the forty-fifth year be-

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fore Christ, he was created consul for ten years, his person was declared sacred and his title was henceforth Imperator. But in two years his life was conspired against, and he was assassinated in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

Augustus Cæsar.—The example set by Julius Cæsar was warmly followed by Augustus. He strove for peace, and for making the people happy. While, however, he was with one hand bestowing upon them many material benefits, with the other he was robbing them of their liberties. Lulled into inactivity and apathy by the ease and safety provided for them by Augustus, the people saw no mockery in his asking them to elect him five successive times. He kept up the old form of a senate, and of regular elections, in which the people had a voice, but at the same time he stole from them freedom and self-restraint, and banished forever all hope of a revival of the republic in its natural form. The empire under him was firmly established, and what has been termed the golden or Augustan age of the empire was inaugurated.

The Roman People.—There were rich people and poor people; but the rich people were all well born, and the poor were slaves, or of plebeian origin. At the head of both was the emperor; the form of a senate, too, was kept up, but its power was gone. The emperor's authority was absolute, and his safe guard was the army. Soldiers ruled everywhere and everything. To them and their wishes everybody was compelled to give way. They brought glory to the country and maintained its power; the empire which had been based on conquest was now supported by arms. Everywhere were to be found the soldiers, and wherever they went cruelty and corruption followed them. The respectable people were well educated and kept plenty of society. In fact, in the art of giving dinner parties and every class of social entertainment, the Romans of the first century were greatly in advance of the people of to-day. They lived for pleasure, for the most part. The more highly educated of them cultivated philosophy, and *sometimes* wondered what would become of their souls.

There were great thinkers and writers among them who insisted on the necessity of integrity and of increasing the happiness of mankind. The lower class believed in their gods more implicitly than the higher class; but religion, as we now understand the word, was more a state business than a personal matter. There were great and noble men who scorned vice, and strove to prevent the youth of Rome from being altogether sunk in debauchery and profligacy. But with the people the emperor was the ruling power. If he was a good man, the people were happy and the country prosperous; if he was a bad man, it was a terrible state of things for his subjects.

Love of Blood.—One of the most remarkable features in the life of the Romans for a period was their love of blood Not only amongst the emperors, but amongst the people was there this sanguinary thirst. Combats between gladiators and wild beasts were the most usual and favorite sport. Women delighted in these spectacles. Rich men spent all their wealth in show and pomp, and in providing these entertainments; and when, in their anxiety to find favor with the common people, they found that to see common men fighting each other or thrown to wild beasts began to pall, they would go into the arena themselves and fight. But women were not allowed to take part in these amusements beyond looking on. Yet will it be believed that though the law declared any woman to be infamous who assisted in these sports, many titled ladies at Rome petitioned the emperor that they might be declared infamous, in order that they might take their part. Beautiful girls, generally of high rank and always of the upper class, or aristocracy, as it was called, vied with each other who should take the most daring part in these exhibitions, or who should dress in the most extravagant manner, yet, to be qualified to do this, these girls had to consent, and did consent willingly, to be branded as convicts.

But all restraint in the qualification of blood-thirstiness was ended when the emperor himself, Domitian, one day entered the arena, and, well armed from head to foot, encountered one man after another, unarmed, and in the most *noble* and *manly* manner put them to death! This frequently occurred in Roman theaters. A cry for blood would be raised, a combat would take place, the corpses would be removed, and the play would go on as if nothing had happened. Thus thirst for blood was the predominant passion at Rome in the first century. The games took place in large amphitheaters called after historical names.



Exhumation of Herculaneum.

The Circus Maximus would hold 285,000 people. The Circus Flaminius 150,000. The Colosseum 87,000. It is interesting to note that Tacitus relates an incident which occurred in the year 27. Atilius a young, architect obtained, permission to erect a vast wooden amphitheater at New Fidenæ, five miles outside of Porta Salaria. A vast audience assembled. Just as the games began, the whole edifice collapsed, and 50,000 persons were taken out of the ruins dead and wounded.

This period was one of degradation for Rome. Little by little the anarchy of the government brought about the worst kind of confusion, when the people knew not where to look for guidance, and the emporers despised their people. A military kindom of a low type seemed to grow out of the empire. The soldiers made and unmade emperors; but being themselves either foreigners or a low class of citizens, their choice was, naturally, often unsuccessful. Then those tribes to which attention has already been directed, and which were slowly hemming in the empire, succeeded in over-stepping their boundaries, and proving themselves stronger than their Roman masters.

Distaste for Labor.—Distaste for labor grew with the empire. While the Roman territories

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were small—as late, indeed, as the time of Alexander—agriculture was honored, and the rulers of the state tilled their own lands When the wealth of Rome increased by conquest, the cultivation of the land, and the manufactures in connection with it, were made servile occupations, so that the poor citizens who would have been skilled laborers, had there been no slaves, became state fed paupers, ready for every political commotion. In the words of Roman writers there are allusions which prove that the Roman citizens did not despise the profits of commerce, and that where even a senator could engage, though illegally and under a feigned name, in the slave or corn traffic, or turn the skill of his slaves to account, his aversion to the occupation was overcome. Crassus and Cato in this manner gained much of their wealth.

Rome, as the capital of the world, the center of tribute flowing through a thousand channels, disposed of this revenue in a profuse and sumptous luxury, without parallel either before or since. Denied natural resources fit for interchange, there poured in continuous streams of commodities both by land and sea, for which the tribute from the provinces and the plunder accruing from conquest



Ancient Pompeiian Vase.

afforded exhaustless means of payment. While the Roman citizens thus consumed the material wealth brought to their city, foreign merchants made it a cosmopolitan mart or clearing-house for a fresh dispersion of the products of the Alexandrian trade, the traffic with China and India, the Scythian fur trade, and the trade with Africa, Spain and Gaul. The productions of every clime were thus brought to the imperial center, and the merchants enjoyed the advantages of universal commerce, without the cost and time of extensive travel.

Extravagancies.—Scaurus, the step-son of Sylla, built an amphitheater capable of accommodating 80,000 spectators. It was supported by 360 costly marble, glass and gilt pillars, and beautiful with 3,000 statues; even by such profuse expenditures as this, he was unable to dissipate the enormous fortune bequeathed to him by his father. Though the Roman houses were comparatively small, yet the sums lavished upon their construction and furniture altogether transcend modern notions of costliness. A single table, according to Pliny, was often valued at price exceeding that of the spoils of a city. Cæsar states that the house of Clodious the tribune cost £120,000. The suburban and country villas likewise afford examples of Roman luxury. Baths covered immense areas. Ponds for fish and eels—of which the Romans were very fond—aviaries for birds, extensive parks for game, and gardens for the choicest fruits, were regarded as necessaries. Within doors were rooms for every division of the day and every season of the year.

Voluptuousness culminated dnring the time of the emperors. To the taste for profusion was added that for the rare delicacies of the table Pyramids of fowl and game, Trojan horses (i.e., wild boars filled with a variety of small game), peacocks, cranes, and nightingales, appeared at the dinners of the great. "If a man will eat daintily," a writer of the period observes, "he must indulge in Samiam peacocks, Phrygian fowls, Melian canes, Ætolian kids, Chalcedonian porpoises. Tarentine oysters, Chian mussels, Egyptian dates, Spanish acorns, murenæ or sea-eels from Tarshish, pikes from Pessimus, sea-fish from Rhodes."

Mark Antony served up eight whole boars to twelve guests. Caligula wantonly dissolved priceless pearls in vinegar as part of the fare at his feasts. Thousands of peacocks and nightingales were destroyed for their brains alone. Vitellius and Heliogabalus are to this day held up as the types of gluttony. Lucullus, a more refined epicure, dedicated his saloons to certain gods, and affixed a scale of entertainment to each apartment. When acting as the host of his friends, Pompey and Cæsar, he directed his servants to furnish an extemporaneous supper in the room Apollo, and explained to his guests, when they were astonished at its magnificence, that it was the rule of his house to spend $6,250 upon every banquet in that apartment. The extravagance in dress corresponded with that in eating. Lucullus lent a hundred purple robes, and offered two hundred to one who wanted them for the actors in some public games.

It is related of the Roman Apicius, that when, by senseless extravagance at table, he had reduced his patrimony to the last five hundred thousand dollars, he put an end to his life, as the only means of escaping destitution. Cæsar, when starting to administer the government of Spain, was arrested by his creditors for a debt of seven millions and a half of dollars, nor would they allow him to set out till Crassus became his surety. A short tenure of office, however, enabled Cæsar, not only to pay his debts, but to use a still larger sum in purchasing popularity at Rome. Mark Antony outdistanced all these examples. In a few years of his administration of the states of Asia Minor it is said that he appropriated about two hundred million dollars of taxes, and then made the people pay the same amount as before twice a year instead of once.

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CHRONOLOGY OF ROMAN HISTORY.

EDITED FROM THE ANCIENT HISTORY OF PROF. LEONARD SCHMITZ. (LONDON UNIVERSITY).

ROME.

B.C.	
753	Foundation of Rome.
753-716	Romulus. Political institutions.
715-672	Numa Pompilius. Religious institutions.
672-640	Tullus Hostilius. War against Alba. The Horatii and Curiatii Alba Longa destroyed. Beginnings of the plebs.
640-616	Ancus Marcius. Formation of the plebeian order by the conquest of the Latins. Ostia built.
616-578	Tarquinius Priscus attempts reforms, but is thwarted.
578-534	Servius Tullius. Organization of the plebs, and reforms of the constitution.
534-510	Tarquinius Superbus.
509	Establishment of the republic. First consuls. Conspiracy at Rome. War with Porsenna.
505	War against the Sabines.
501	War with the Latins.
498	T. Larcius, first dictator.
496	Battle of Lake Regillus, in which the Latins are defeated.
495	Death of Tarquinius Superbus. Insurrection of the plebs.
494	Secession of the plebs to the *Mons Sacer*.
493	Appointment of the tribunes of the plebs. The Ædiles. League of Sp. Cassius with the Latins.
491	Coriolanus stirs up the Volscians against Rome.
486	League of Sp. Cassius with the Hernicans. First attempt at an agrarian law.
485	Sp. Cassius put to death, and his agrarian law is disregarded.
477	Defeat of the Fabii on the Cremera.
473	The tribune Genucius murdered.
471	The tribune Publilius Volero carries several laws to protect the plebs.
462	The tribune C. Terentillus Arsa demands a revision of the laws
458	The dictator L. Quinctius Cincinnatus defeats the Æquians.
457	The number of tribunes of the plebs is increased to ten
454	The bill of Terentillus Arsa is at length carried.
451	The first decemvirate.
450	The second decemvirate. Laws of the Twelve Tables.
449	Secession of the plebs to the *Mons Sacer*. Deposition of the decemvirs. Laws of Valerius and Horatius.
445	The tribune Canuleius carries a law establishing the *connubium* between patricians and plebeians
443	Institution of the censorship.
440	Famine at Rome. Sp. Mælius assists the poor.
439	Sp. Mælius murdered by Servilius Ahala.
438	The first military tribunes instead of consuls.
426	Fidenæ destroyed.
396	Capture of Veii by Camillus after a siege of ten years.
391	Camillus goes into exile. The Gauls beseige Clusium.
390	Battle of the Allia. Rome taken and destroyed by the Gauls.
384	M. Manlius Capitolinus condemned to death.
383	The Pomptine district assigned to the plebeians.
376	C. Licinius Stolo and L. Sextius bring forward their rogations.
367	The Licinian rogations are passed after a struggle of nearly ten years.
366	L. Sextius, the first plebeian consul. First appointment of a prætor.
358	T. Manlius Torquatus defeats a gigantic Gaul on the Allia.
356	The first plebeian dictator, C. Marcius Rutilus.
351	The first plebeian censor.
350	M. Valerius Corvus slays a Gallic chief by the aid of a raven.
343-341	First war against the Samnites.
340-338	War against the Latins. Self-Sacrifice of P. Decius.
339	The laws of Q. Publilius Philo.
338	Final subjugation of Latium.
337	The first plebeian prætor.
328	Foundation of the colony of Fregellæ.
326-304	Second war against the Samnites.
322	Luceria in Apulia conquered by the Romans.
321	Defeat of the Romans at Caudium. Afterwards they gain several victories.
315	War declared against Rome by the Etruscans.
314	Great success of the Romans against Samnium.
312	The Appian road made.
311	War with the Etruscans breaks out.
309	The dictator L. Papirius Cursor defeats the Samnites
308	The Etruscan towns conclude peace.
306	The Samnites defeated in all directions. Subjugation of the Hernicans.
305	The Samnites, defeated at Bovianum, sue for peace. The Æquians rise, but are completely crushed.
300	The colleges of augurs and pointiffs throw open to the plebeians by the Ogulnian law.
298-290	Third war against the Samnites. The Etruscans and Umbrians and also rise again.
295	The Romans recover all Lucania. Victory of the Romans at Sentinum in Umbria. Decius Mus.
292	The Samnites totally defeated; their commander Pontius taken.
290	Samnium, and soon after Etruria and Umbria, recognize the supremacy of Rome.
285-282	War against the Ganls. Subjugation of the Senones and Boii.
282	The Romans relieve Thurii, which is beseiged by the Lucanians.
281	Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, lands in Italy.
280	The Romans defeated by Pyrrhus near Heracleia.
279	The Romans again defeated by Pyrrhus at Asculum.
278	Truce between the Romans and Pyrrhus, who goes to Sicily.
276	Pyrrhus returns to Italy.

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B.C.
275 Pyrrhus, defeated at Beneventum, abandons Italy.
273 Embassy of Ptolemy Philadelphus to Rome
272 All Southern Italy submits to Rome.
271 Rhegium also is recovered by the Romans.
268 Fourth and last war against the Samnites.
264 The Romans ally themselves with the Mamertines of Messene. Peace with Hiero.
264-241 The first Punic war.
262 Agrigentum besieged and taken by the Romans.
260 C. Duilius defeated the Carthaginians off Mylæ.
258 Atilius Calatinus carries on the war in Sicily.
256 The Carthaginians defeated off Ecnomus
255 Success of Regulus in Africa, but he is afterwards defeated by Xanthippus and taken prisoner. Wreck of the Roman fleet on the coast of Sicily.
254 A new fleet is equipped and Panormus taken.
252 The Roman fleet sails to Africa, but is wrecked on its return.
250 The Carthaginians defeated near Panormus. Regulus sent as ambassador to Rome. Siege of Lilybæum.
249 Defeat of Appius Claudius by land and sea.
242 The Romans build a new fleet.
241 C. Lutatius Catulus defeats the Carthaginians off the Ægates insulæ Peace with Carthage. Sicily the first Roman province.
238 Sardinia and Corsica are taken from Carthage.
229 War against the Illyrian pirates Agrarian law of C. Flaminius. Death of Hamilcar in Spain: he is succeedes by Hasdrubal.
228 Peace with the Illyrians
226 The Gauls invade Etruria.
225 The Gauls defeated in the battle of Telamon.
224 Reduction of the Boii.
223 C. Flaminius conquers the Insubrians.
222 M. Claudius Marcellus, in the battle of Clastidium, brings the Gallic war to a close. Cremona and Placentia founded.
221 Assassination of Hasdrubal, who is succeeded by Hannibal.
219 Second war against the Illyrians, who are conqured by L. Æmilius Paulus. Capture of Saguntum.
218-202 The second Punic or the Hannibalian war.
218 The Romans defeated on the Ticinus and the Trebia. Cn. Cornelius Scipio goes to Spain.
217 Defeat of the Romans on Lake Trasimenus.
216 The Romans defeated at Cannæ.
215 Losses of Hannibal at Nola and Beneventum. Syracuse revolts from Rome. Treaty of Hannibal with Philip of Macedonia.
215-205 First war against Macedonia.
214-212 Siege and capture of Syracuse by M. Claudius Marcellus.
212 The two Sciopios slain in battle in Spain,
211 The Romans conquer Capua. P. Cornelius Scipio goes to Spain.

B.C.
210 Scipio takes Carthage Nova in Spain.
209 Tarentum recovered by the Romans.
207 Hasdrubal goes to Italy, but is defeated and slain on the Metaurus.
205 P. Cornelius Scipio, consul, goes to Scily.
204 Scipio crosses over into Africa.
203 Syphax taken prisoner.
202 Hannibal, recalled to Africa, is defeated in the battle of Zama.
201 Peace with Carthage ratified at Rome.
200-197 Second war against Macedonia.
200-181 War against the Ligurians, Insubrians, and Boians.
198 T. Quinctius Flamininus undertakes the war against Macedonia.
197 Philip defeated in the battle of Cynoscephalæ. Peace between Macedonia and Rome.
196 Flamininus proclaims the independence Greece.
192 Antiochus, invited by the Ætolians. crosses over into Europe.
191 Antiochus and the Ætolians defeated at Thermopylæ.
190 L. Cornelius Scipio crosses over into Asia, and defeats Antiochus in the battle of Magnesia. Peace concluded.
188 Peace with Antiochus ratified at Rome.
183 Death of Hannibal.
181-179 War in Spain brought to a close by Tib.
171-168 Third and last Macedonian war.
168 Battle of Pydna, in which Perseus is defeated. One thousand Achæans sent to Italy.
155 Greek philosophers expelled from Rome.
151 The surviving Achæans return to Greece.
149 Andriscus, a pretender to the throne of Macedonia.
149-146 The third and last Punic war.
148 Andriscus is defeated and slain by Q. Cæcilius Metellus.
148-140 War in Spain. Viriathus.
147-146 War against the Achæans.
146 Destruction of Corinth, and subjugation of Greece. Capture and destruction of Carthage.
143-133 War against the Celtiberians in Spain.
141 Peace with Viriathus.
140 Viriathus murdered by hired assassins.
139 The Gabinian law, ordaining vote by ballot at the elections.
137 Final subjugation of the Lusitanians. C. Hostilius Mancinus concludes peace with the Numantines.
134-132 Servile war in Sicily.
133 Numantia taken and destroyed. Attalus of Pergamus dies, bequeathing his kingdom to the Roman people.
131-130 War against Aristonicus, who claimed the kingdom of Pergamus.
126 First conquests of the Romans in Gaul.
123 Tribuneship of C Sempronius Gracchus.
122 Second tribuneship of C. Sempronius Gracchus.
121 Murder of C. Gracchus, and civil bloodshed at Rome.
113 The Cimbri and Teutones begin their imigration westward.
111-106 The Jugurthine war.
109 Q. Cæcilius Metellus undertakes the command against Jugurtha C. Marius.
107 First consulship of C. Marius, who succeeds Metellus in Africa.

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B.C.
106 Jugurtha taken prisoner by L. Cornelius Sulla. Birth of Cicero.
104 Marius consul, and appointed to conduct the war against the Cimbri and Teutones.
102 The Cimbri return from Spain, and are joined in Gaul by the Teutones. Battle of Aquæ Sextiæ, in which the Teutones are defeated.
102-99 Second servile war in Sicily.
101 The Cimbri defeated in the Campi Raudii.
100 C. Marius consul for the sixth time.
91 The tribune, M. Livius Drusus, attempts to confer the franchise upon the Italian allies, but is murdered.
90-88 The Social or Marsic war.
90 The Lex Julia confers the franchise on the Latins.
88 The Etruscans and Umbrians obtain the franchise. End of the Social war.
88-84 First war against Mithridates. Civil war between Marius and Sulla. Marius flees to Africa.
87 Marius returns to Rome. Scenes of horror at Rome.
86 Siege and capture of Athens by Sulla. Marius dies in his seventh consulship.
84 Peace concluded with Mithridates.
83 Sulla returns to Italy and is successful against his opponents.
83-81 Second war against Mithridates.
82 Capture of Prænestè. Young Marius kills himself. Battle at the Colline gate.
79 Sulla lays down his dictatorship, and withdraws to Puteoli.
79-72 War against Sertorius.
78 Death of Sulla. Commencement of the war against the pirates.
74-64 Third war against Mithridates.
74 Sertorius allies himself with Mithridates of Pontus
73-71 Servile war in Italy. Spartacus.
73 Lucullus defeats Mithridates.
72 Murder of Sertorius at Osca.
71 The slaves defeated by M. Licinius Crassus.
70 Cn. Pompey consul. The political reforms of Sulla abolished.
69 Lucullus defeats Tigranes and Mithridates of Tigranocerta.
67 Cn. Pompey undertakes the war against the pirates. Lucullus recalled.
66 Cn. Pompey obtains the command against Mithridates.
65 Cn. Pompey pursues Mithridates into Albania and Iberia. J. Cæsar is curule ædile, and puts himself at the head of the popular party.
63 Mithridates, being conspired against by his own son, takes poison Consulship of Cicero. Catalinarian conspiracy.
62 Cn. Pompey returns to Italy.
61 Cæsar as proprætor in Spain. P. Clodius.
59 J. Cæsar consul.
58 P. Clodius tribune. Cicero goes into exile. Cæsar proceeds to Gaul.
57 Cicero recalled.
55 Cæsar receives the administration of Gaul for five years more. He crosses the Rhine, and invades Britain.
54 Cæsar invades Britain a second time. Death of Julia, Cæsar's daughter.

B.C.
53 Cæsar again crosses the Rhine. Crassus defeated in Syria.
52 General insurrection in Gaul. Fall of Alesia. Pompey for a time sole consul.
51 Cæsar returns to Cisalpine Gaul.
50 Cæsar is called upon to disband his army.
49 Cæsar crosses the Rubicon. Pompey and his party flee from Italy. Cæsar in Spain. On his return he is made dictator.
48 Cæsal consul. Battle of Pharsalus.
47 Cæsar defeats Pharnaces of Pontus; crosses over into Africa.
46 Battle of Thapsus, in which the Pompeians in Africa are defeated.
45 Battle of Munda: the Pompeians defeated.
44 Cæsar murdered.
43 War of Mutina. The triumvirate between Octavanius, Antony and Lepidus. Proscription. Death of Cicero.
42 Battles of Philippi.
41 War of Perusia.
40 Capture and destruction of Perusia. War with the Parthians begins.
39 Peace of Misenum with Sext. Pompeius.
38-36 War against Sext. Pompeius
36 Sext. Pompeius defeated in the battle of Mylæ. Lepidus deposed. Antony sustains great loss against the Parthians.
34 Antony conquers Armenia, and gives it to Cleopatra.
32 War declared against the Queen of Egypt.
31 Battle of Actium.
30 Death of Antony and Cleopatra.
29 Octavianus returns to Rome.
27 Octavianus receives the title of Augustus and Imperator.
25 13 War against the Alpine tribes.
24 Augustus returns from Spain.
23 Augustus obtains the tribunician power for life.
20 The Parthians send back the Roman standards.
19 The Cantabri finally subdued by Agrippa.
16-13 Augustus in Gaul, to protect its eastern frontiers.
12 Death of Lepidus and Agrippa.
12-9 Drusus has the command against the Germans.
8-6 Tiberius succeeds Drusus against the Germans.
6 Domitius Ahenobarbus takes the command against the Germans.
5 or 4 Birth of Jesus Christ.

A. D.
4 Tiberius resumes the war against the Germans.
5 Western Germany a Roman province.
6-9 War against the revolted Dalmatians and Pannonians.
9 Defeat of Varus
14 Death of Augustus.
14-37 Reign of Tiberius.
14 Revolt of the legions in Germany and Pannonia.
16 Germanicus recalled from Germany.
19 Germanicus dies in Syria.
20 Ælius Seianus guides the counsels of Tiberius.

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A.D.
23 The *castra prætoria* established near Rome. Drusus, son of Tiberius, poisoned.
26 Tiberius withdraws to Capreæ.
31 Execution of Ælius Seianus.
33 Crucifixion of Jesus Christ.
37 Tiberius murdered by suffocation
37–41 Reign of Caligula.
39 A conspiracy formed against Caligula.
41 Caligula murdered.
41–54 Reign of Claudius.
43 Commencement of permanent conquests in Britain.
50 Successful war against the Parthians.
51 The southeastern part of Britain a Roman province.
54–68 Reign of Nero.
54 Corbulo drives the Parthians from Armenia.
61 Insurrection in Britain under Boadicea.
62 Nero banishes Octavia. Burrus put to death.
64 Great fire at Rome.
65 Seneca, the philosopher, and Lucan, the poet, put to death.
66 Tridates recognized as king of Armenia.
67 Nero goes to Greece. Insurrection of the Jews. Vespasian conducts the war against them.
68–69 Servius Galba is murdered
69 Salvius Otho, defeated at Bedriacum, kills himself.
69 Vitellius is murdered in the prætorian camp.
69–79 Vespasian. The siege of Jerusalem is left to Titus.
70 Vespasian arrives at Rome. Capture and destruction of Jerusalem. Insurrection of Claudius Civilis and the Batavi.
71 Petilius Cerealis, governor of Britain, is accompanied by Agricola.
74 Philosophers expelled from Rome.
77–85 Agricola governor of Britain.
79–81 Reign of Titus.
79 First recorded eruption of Vesuvius, and destruction of Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabiæ.
80 Great fire at Rome. Completion of the Colosseum.
81–96 Reign of Domitian.
83 Dominitian undertakes an expedition against the Chatti.
84 Agricola defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus.
86 The Dacians make war against the Romans.
90 Domitian purchases peace of the Dacians.
96–98 Reign of Nerva.
98–117 Reign of Trajan.
100 Trajan sets out against the Dacians.
103 Peace with the Dacians
104–106 Second Dacian war, at the end of which Dacia becomes a Roman province.
114 War against the Parthians.
115 Armenia a Roman province
117–138 Reign of Hadrian; he makes the Euphrates the boundary in the east.
118 Hadrian returns to Rome from the East. War against the Sarmatians
120–131 Hadrian travels through the provinces of the empire.
131–136 War against the Jews.
138–161 Reign of Antonius Pius. Peace throughout the empire.

A.D.
161–180 Reign of M. Aurelius.
162 L. Verus goes to the East against the Parthians.
166 Peace concluded with the Parthians.
167 War against the Marcomanni and Quadi.
169 Death of L. Verus.
175 Peace with the Marcomanni concluded. Revolt of Avidius Cassius in the East.
178 Renewal of the war against the Marcomanni.
180–192 Reign of Commodus.
180 Commodus purchases peace of the Marcomanni.
183 Conspiracy against Commodus, headed by his sister Lucilla.
184 War against the Caledonians terminated.
185 Perinnis recalled from Britain and put to death
193 Reign of Pertinax lasts only three months.
193 Reign of Didius Julianus. Purchases the imperial dignity, but reigns only two months.
193–211 Reign of Septimius Severus.
194 Pescennius Niger, who had been proclaimed in Syria, is defeated.
197 The rebel Clodius Albinus defeated in Gaul.
198 Severus carries on a successful war against the Parthians.
208 Severus goes to Britain, which had been invaded by the Caledonians.
210 The wall between the Tyne and Solway completed.
211–212 Reign of Caracalla and Geta.
212 Geta murdered by Caracalla.
212–217 Caracalla reigns alone.
213 Caracalla visits Gaul.
214 He invades Germany, but purchases peace.
215 Massacre at Alexandria, Egypt.
217–218 Reign of Macrinus. Purchases peace of the Parthians.
218–222 Reign of Elagabulus.
222–235 Reign of Alexander Severus.
226 Foundation of the new Persian empire of the Sassanidæ on the ruins of that of Parthia.
228 Ulpian, the jurist, murdered by the soldiers.
231 Alexander Severus makes war upon the Persians.
233 He returns to Rome, and triumphs.
234 He proceeds to Gaul, to protect it against the Germans.
235–238 Reign of Maximinus; is successful against the Germans.
238 Gordian and his son proclaimed emperors by the senate
238 Maximus and Balbinus made emperors by the senate Young Gordian raised to the rank of Cæsar.
238–244 Reign of Gordian III.
241 Gordian marries the daughter of Misitheus, and sets out against Sapor I., king of Persia.
244–249 Reign of Philippus Makes peace with the Persians.
248 Ludi Sæculares at Rome.
249–251 Reign of Decius.
250 The Goths cross the Danube and invade Thrace.
251–253 Reign of Gallus Trebonianus.

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A.D.
252 Death of Hostilianus by the plague, which rages for fifteen years.
253 Æmilianus proclaimed emperor in Mœsia, but is murdered after a reign of four months.
253-268 Valerian and Gallienus emperors. The barbarians invade the empire on all sides.
256 Successful war against the Franks.
258 Valerian sets out against the Persians. Postumus sets himself up as emperor in Gaul.
260 Valerian taken prisoner by the Persians.
260-268 Gallienus sole emperor. Period of the Thirty Tyrants.
261 Macrianus assumes the purple.
262 Aureolus proclaimed in Rætia.
264 Odenathus of Palmyra recognized as an independent sovereign.
267 Odenathus is slain, and succeeded by his wife Zenobia. Tetricus sets himself up as emperor in Gaul.
268-270 Claudius II., surnamed Gothicus, emperor. Defeats the Alemanni.
269 Claudius sets out against the Goths, who are defeated.
270 Claudius dies at Sirmium.
270-275 Reign of Aurelian; he concludes peace with the Goths.
272 Aurelian proceeds to the East against Zenobia, who had invaded Egypt.
272 Zenobia besieged at Palmyra and taken prisoner.
284 Tetricus in Gaul submits io Aurelian.
275 Aurelian murdered. Interreign of six months.
275-276 Claudius Tacitus emperor; successful in the East.
276 Annius Florianus emperor for scarcely three months.
276-282 Probus defeats the barbarians in Gaul, and secures the German frontier.
279 Probus reduces the Isaurians and Blemmyæ.
282 Probus murdered by his soldiers at Sirmium.
282-283 Carus emperor.
283 Carus, with his son Numerianus, sets out against the Persians, but dies at Ctesiphon.
284-305 Reign of Diocletian; he assumes Maximian as his colleague.
286 Maximian defeats the Bagaudæ in Gaul, and drives the Alemanni across the Rhine. The Saxons.
287-293 Carausius assumes the imperial dignity in Britain.
292 Diocletian at Nicomedeia nominates Constantius, Chlorus, und Galerius Cæsars. The empire divided among the four rulers.
293 Carausius slain by Alectus, who maintains himself for a period of three years.
295 Galerius defeats the Carpi.
296 Constantius defeats Alectus and recovers Britain.
298 Galerius compels the Persians to conclude peace.
301 Constantius defeats the Alemanni.
303 The four sovereigns meet at Rome to devise means against Christianity.
305 Diocletian abdicates and retires to Salonæ. Maximian follows his example.

A.D.
305 Constantius and Galerius succeed as emperors, but the former dies the year after.
306 Constantine assumes the rank of Cæsar in Britain.
306-337 Reign of Constantine.
307 Severus, one of the Cæsars, put to death at Ravenna. Licinius raised to the imperial dignity by Galerius.
310 Maximian commits suicide.
311 Death of Galerius.
312 War between Maxentius and Constantine. The former is defeated, flees, and perishes in the Tiber.
313 Maximinus defeated at Adrianople. Death of Diocletian. Constantine and Licinius the only surviving sovereigns. Edict in favor of the Christians.
314 War between Constantine and Licinius.
323 War between Constantine and Licinius, in which the latter is completely defeated, and Constantine remains sole emperor.
325 The council of Nicæa Orthodoxy defined.
325-334 Extension and fortification of Constantinople.
332 War against the Goths.
334 A large body of Sarmatians receive settlements in the empire.
337 Death of Constantine near Nicomedeia. Constantine II., Constantius, and Constans divide the empire.
338 Constantius commences war against Persia.
340 War between Constantine II. and Constans, in which the former is defeated and killed. Constans sole emperor of the West.
350 Magnentius assumes the purple at Autun in Gaul. Death of Constans.
351 War between Magnentius and Constantius, in which the former is defeated.
353 Magnentius kills himself. Constantius sole emperor
354 Gallus is recalled from the East, and murdered at Pola.
355 Silvanus assumes the purple in Gaul, but is slain. Julian appointed to the command in Gaul.
356 Successful campaign of Julian against the Germans.
357 Julian clears the eastern frontier of Gaul from enemies.
360 Julian proclaimed emperor at Paris.
361 Death of Constantius
361-363 Reign of Julian the Apostate.
363 Julian attempts to have the temple of Jerusalem rebuilt. Is afterwards slain.
363-364 Jovian emperor. Concludes peace with the Persians, who recover their lost provinces.
364-375 Valentinian emperor. Associates his brother Valens with himself in the empire.
365 War between Valens and the usurper Procopius.
366 The Alemanni repulsed in Gaul. Procopius defeated by Valens.
367 Gratian, son of Valentinian, declared Augustus.
368 The Alemanni again defeated.
370 Peace concluded with the Goths.
371 Saxon pirates cut to pieces.

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A.D.
375 Valentinian takes the field against the Quadi and Sarmatians. Death of Valtinian. The Huns cross the Volga and throw themselves upon the Goths.
376 A portion of the Goths are allowed by Valens to settle in Mœsia and Thrace.
377 The Goths rise against the Romans.
378 The Goths defeat Valens with immense slaughter at Adrianople.
379 Gratian raises Theodosius I. to the rank of Augustus, who defeats the Goths.
383 Revolt of Maximus in Britain. Death of Gratian.
387 Maximus expels Valentinian from Italy.
388 Theodosius sets out against Maximus, who is put to death.
392 Valentinian murdered in Gaul. Arbogastes proclaims Eugenius emperor.
394 Theodosius defeats both Arbogastes and Eugenius near Aquileia.
395 Death of Theodosius at Milan. He is succeeded by his sons Arcadius and Honorius, the former emperor of the East and the latter of the West.
397 Stilicho sets out against the Goths, who are devastating Greece. Revolt of Gildo in Africa.
398 Gildo defeated and killed.
402 Alaric and the Goths invade Italy, but are induced to return.
403 Alaric plunders the north of Italy. Battle of Pollentia. Peace with Alaric.
406 The Goth Radagaisus, and afterwards the Vandals, enter Gaul.
407 Ravages in Gaul continued. Constantine in Britain usurps the imperial title and crosses over into Gaul.
408 Alaric again appears in Italy. Stilicho murdered. Alaric lays siege to Rome, which in the end capitulates. Death of Arcadius.
409 Alaric again appears before Rome. Attalus proclaimed emperor instead of Honorius. The Vandals establish themselves in Spain.
410 Alaric besieges and takes Rome the third time. Death of Alaric.
411 The usurper Constantine taken and killed.
412 Jovinus assumes the purple at Mayence.
414 Peace between Adolphus and Honorius.
415 Adolphus is murdered in Spain, and succeeded by Wallia, the founder of the empire of the Visigoths in Spain.
421 Constantius made Augustus by Honorius.
423 Death of Honorius. Joannes assumes the purple.

A.D.
425 Joannes is defeated. Valentinian III. emperor.
426 The last Roman garrisons are withdrawn from Britain.
429 Bonifacius invites the Vandals, under their king Genseric, to come to Africa.
430 Bonifacius defeated by the Vandals at Hippo.
432 War between Bonifacius and Aëtius.
433 Restoration of Aëtius.
435 Peace with Genseric, to whom a part of Africa is ceded.
438 The Codex Theodsianus published.
439 Carthage taken by Genseric.
441 The Huns under Attila cross the Danube.
442 New peace with Genseric, in which further concessions are made to him.
447 Attila invades Thrace and Thessaly.
450 Death of Theodosius II., who is succeeded by Marcianus.
451 Attila crosses the Rhine and invades Gaul. Battle of Chalons, in which the Huns are defeated.
452 Attila invades Italy.
453 Death of Attila.
454 Aëtius murdered by Valentinian.
455 Valentinian slain by conspirators.
456 Avitus is obliged to abdicate.
457-461 Majorian.
460 Majorian goes to Spain, intending to cross over into Africa against the Vandals.
461 Majorian deposed and put to death. Severus proclaimed, but Ricimer reigns in his name.
465 Death of Severus, after which Ricimer rules until 467.
467-472 Anthemius emperor.
468 A great undertaking against the Vandals fails through the misconduct of Basiliscus.
472 Civil war between Anthemius and Ricimer. The former is killed, and Ricimer having captured Rome, proclaims Olybrius emperor. Death of Ricimer and Olybrius.
473 Glycerius proclaimed emperor.
474 Julius Nepos made emperor. Deposes Glycerius.
475 Nepos dethroned by Orestes, who causes his son Romulus Augustulus to be proclaimed
476 Orestes defeated and slain at Placentia by the Gorman troops under Odoacer. Romulus resigns his dignity. Odoacer king of Itaiy. End of the Western Empire.

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The University Association has my best wishes and hearty endorsement. Its great and comprehensive plans deserve the cordial approval of those interested in the education of our people.

REV. JOHN HENRY BARROWS, CHAIRMAN,
Parliament of Religions, World's Congresses.

I have examined your plan and it seems to me that it ought to meet the approval of anyone who is interested in seeing our people generally engaged in some sort of systematic study. I hope you will succeed in enlisting a large number of people in the work of your Association.

JOHN W. COOK, PRESIDENT,
State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

I have read this statement to President Cook and find he has expressed my own opinions about the work proposed, and the feasibility of the plan of doing it.

EDWIN C. HEWETT, EX-PRESIDENT,
State Normal University.

I have given the University Association a careful investigation, and feel justified in giving the plan my unqualified approval. I know of no movement of our day that seems so well fitted to bring the best thought of the age into the American homes as this. The men who are the originators and managers of this work are a sufficient guarantee as to its real worth. J. F. KNIGHT,
Superintendent of Schools, La Porte, Ind.

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W. T. BUSHMAN,
Superintendent of Schools, Van Wert, Ohio.

We, the Ministerial Association of Harrisburg, Pa., in convention assembled, Resolved: that after carefully examining the courses of systematic study, as laid down by the University Association, of Chicago, Illinois, do most heartily endorse the course of said Association, and thoroughly commend it to others. That for systematic arrangement of subject matter; for thoroughness of treatment, omitting unimportant details, placing this historical course of instruction at our very doors—so to speak—the University Association has no superior, and very few, if any, equals.

Signed: REV. J. T. MORELAND, PRESIDENT.
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REV. R. D. EPPS, SECRETARY.

To those desiring to pursue a course of reading in the history of the world, the University Association seems to present an excellent opportunity. The men engaged in the preparation of the work are well fitted for their task, and the plan appears to be delightfully and satisfactorily arranged.

FRANK B. COOPER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
Editor Iowa School Journal, Des Moines, Iowa.

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THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION

COURSE IN UNIVERSAL HISTORY

FIRST HALF MIDDLE AGES

PREPARED BY

WILLIAM CRAIG WILCOX, A.M., Professor of History, University of Iowa

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED

THIS period extends from the downfall of the Western Roman Empire in 476 A.D. to the dissolution of the Carlovingian Empire which was completely disintegrated by the year 1000 A. D. The study of this period deals mainly with Europe. Of the six continents three were unheard of at this time. Northern Africa was merely the remains of a Roman province, and Southwestern Asia was in a state of progressive collapse until invigorated by the rise of Islam.

1. THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN 500 A.D.

The Roman Empire had absorbed the entire civilized world. Not only all the known world, but all that was known in the world was embodied in Rome. In 395 A.D. the Roman Emperor Theodosius the Great, dying, left to his sons Arcadius and Honorius, respectively, the eastern and western portions of the Empire. In 330 A.D. the Roman Emperor Constantine had removed the capital of the Empire from Rome to Constantinople, formerly known as Byzantium. This city remained in 395 A.D. the capital of the Eastern Empire under its Emperor Arcadius, while Rome became the capital of the Western Empire under the rule of Honorius. The Eastern Empire, through various vicissitudes and by a variety of expedients, managed to maintain its identity till 1453 A.D. It was then invaded and overthrown by the Ottoman Turks, who still hold a portion of the Balkan peninsula and the city of Constantinople. Both empires were frequently subject to invasion from the time of Theodosius. The Western Empire after being invaded by the Visigoths, Burgundians, Vandals, Huns and Franks, finally collapsed in 476

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A.D. The history of the next three centuries consists of the repeated attempts, by the invaders from the north, to reconstruct Roman society in barbarian forms.

1. THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN 500 A.D.

Arcadius, Honorius, Theodosius. (See pp. 137, 140 and 142.)

The Barbarians.—Yet Rome might have stood long, perhaps, by incorporating new elements of life, even till now, but for the inroads of the barbarians. Between these and the empire, the Rhine, the Danube and the Roman wall had till nearly A.D. 375 formed an efficient dividing line. Three great belts of peoples dwelt beyond, (i) farthest north and east certain non-Aryan tribes, (ii) nearest them some Slavic, (iii) skirting the empire, leaders in attacks, the Germans.—*Andrews.*

Ottoman Turks.—A curious account has been preserved of the reception of the Roman ambassadors at the royal camp. After they had been purified with fire and incense, according to a rite still practiced under the sons of Zingis, they were introduced to the presence of Disabul. In a valley of the Golden Mountain, they found the great khan in his tent, seated in a chair with wheels, to which a horse might be occasionally harnessed. As soon as they had delivered their presents, which were received by the proper officers, they exposed, in a florid oration, the wishes of the Roman emperor, that victory might attend the arms of the Turks, that their reign might be long and prosperous, and that a strict alliance, without envy or deceit, might forever be maintained between the two most powerful nations of the earth. The answer of Disabul corresponded with these friendly professions, and the ambassadors were seated by his side, at a banquet which lasted the greatest part of the day; the tent was surrounded with silk hangings, and a Tartar liquor was served on the table, which possessed at least the intoxicating qualities of wine. The entertainment of the succeeding day was more sumptuous; the silk hangings of the second tent were embroidered in various figures; and the royal seat, the cups and the vases were of gold. A third pavilion was supported by columns of gilt wood; a bed of pure and massive gold was raised on four peacocks of the same metal; and before the entrance of the tent, dishes, basons and statues of solid silver, and admirable art, were ostentatiously piled in wagons, the monuments of valor rather than of industry.—*Gibbon.*

The Goths.—The traditions of the Goths state that they were settled in Sweden before they were found by the Greek navigators on the southern shore of the Baltic, in 330 B.C. It is probable that only a portion of the tribe migrated, and that the present Scandinavian race is descended from the remainder. As the Baltic Goths increased in numbers, they gradually ascended the Vistula, pressed eastward along the base of the Carpathians and reached the Black Sea, in the course of the second century after Christ. They thus possessed a broad belt of territory, separating the rest of Europe from the wilder Slavonic races who occupied Central Russia. The Vandals and Alans, with the Heruli, Rugii and other smaller tribes, all Germanic, as well as a portion of the Slavonic Sarmatians, were incorporated with them; and it was probably the great extent of territory they controlled which occasioned their separation into Ostrogoths (East-Goths) and Visigoths (West-Goths). They first came in contact with the Romans, beyond the mouth of the Danube, about the beginning of the third century.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Burgundians occupied the valley of the Rhone and the country about the Swiss lakes, the region called Burgundy, whose ruler was a powerful rival of the French kings for a thousand years.—*Clare.*

The Huns was a name formerly given to several nomadic Scythian tribes which devastated the Roman Empire in the fifth century. They inhabited the plains of Tartary, near the boundaries of China many centuries before the Christian era. They were known to the Chinese by the name of Hiongun, and also Han. It was in order to put a stop to the continued aggressions of the Huns that the great wall of China was built. After this the Huns split up into two separate nations, named respectively the Northern and the Southern Huns. The Northern Huns gradually went westward and settled on the Volga. They later invaded Rome under the leadership of Attila, and after the death of this leader they separated and were driven beyond the Tanais by the Goths. The Hungarians are the descendants of the Huns.—*Zell.*

The Huns.—The pressure of the Huns upon Europe had first been felt in the fourth century of our era. They had long been formidable to the Chinese Empire, but the ascendancy in arms which another nomadic tribe of Central Asia, the Sienpi, gained over them, drove the Huns from their Chinese conquests westward; and this movement once being communicated to the whole chain of barbaric nations that dwelt northward of the Black Sea and the Roman empire, tribe after tribe of savage warriors broke in upon the barriers of civilized Europe. The Huns crossed the Tanais into Europe in 375 and rapidly reduced to subjection the Alans, the Ostrogoths, and other tribes that were then dwelling along the course of the Danube. The armies of the Roman emperor that tried to check their progress were cut to pieces by them, and Pannonia and other provinces south of the Danube were speedily occupied by the victorious cavalry of these new invaders. Not merely the degenerate Romans, but the bold and hardy warriors of Germany and Scandinavia, were appalled at the number, the ferocity, the ghastly appearance of the lightning-like rapidity of the Huns. . . . Tribe after tribe, and city after city fell before them. Then came a pause in their career of conquest in southwestern Europe, caused probably by dissensions among their chiefs, and also by their arms being employed in attacks upon the Scandinavian nations. But when Attila (or Atzel, as he is called in the Hungarian language) became their ruler, the torrent of their arms was directed with augmented terrors upon the west and the south, and their myriads marched beneath the guidance of one master mind to the overthrow both of the new and the old powers of the earth.—*Creasy.*

Franks.—This name was applied to a confederation which was formed about 240 A.D. by the tribes dwelling on the banks of the lower Rhine and the Weser. The Ripuarian Franks dwelt on both sides of the Rhine near Cologne, their capital. The Salian Franks dwelt on both sides of the lower Rhine, spreading down to the sea and inhabiting the marshy delta of the rivers. The Salian Franks became masters of Gaul and henceforth their history falls under that of France.—*Lippincott.*

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2. THE INVASION OF THE OSTROGOTHS.

Theodoric became king of the Ostrogoths in 476 A.D., the same year in which Odoacer, the ruler of the Heruli, overthrew the last western Roman Emperor, RomulusAugustulus. In 493 A.D., Odoacer himself, now ruling in the seat of the Cæsars, was in turn overthrown at Ravenna by Theodoric and his Ostrogoths. The latter, who had already invaded the outer limits of the Empire on the northeast, now became the inheritors and inhabitants of Italy. Under Ostrogothic rule Italy seemed to revive, and Theodoric comes down to us in history as far less a barbarian than many of the Roman Emperors of the third and fourth centuries. In 552 A.D., Narses, a general of Justinian, the Eastern Emperor, overthrew the Ostrogoths, although similar attempts had previously failed. The victory of Narses annexed Italy to the Eastern Empire. The Ostrogoths were scattered, and gradually became amalgamated with other races.



Emperor Justinian and his Courtiers.

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2. INVASION OF THE OSTROGOTHS.

The Ostrogoths.—The Visigothic kingdom under Euric embraced all of Spain and that part of Gaul south of the Loire and west of the Rhone; and its capital, Arles, was considered the center of western civilization. The Sueves in northwestern Spain were tributary to Euric. The Heruli, the German tribe under Odoacer, who put an end to the Western Empire, held Italy, but were soon conquered by the Ostrogoths, who at this time occupied the region between the Danube and the Adriatic. The Gepidæ, also a Gothic tribe, as we have seen, possessed the region of the modern Roumania and Eastern Hungary.—*Clare.*

Odoacer fixed his capital at Ravenna, and distributed the lands of Italy among his followers, making the peasants who lived upon the lands their slaves. He, however, allowed the old Roman laws and institutions to remain, and retained the Roman magistrates in their offices. Odoacer was the first barbarian monarch who reigned over Italy, and was worthy of the high honor to which he had been called. He restored the Consulship of the West within seven years after his accession. He compelled the barbarians of Gaul and Germany to respect the Italian frontiers, and devoted himself to the restoration of tranquility and good government to his subjects. Notwithstanding his exertions, misery and desolation prevailed all over Italy. The population of the country was reduced by famine and pestilence, and the means of subsistence were diminishing in the same proportion.—*Editor.*

Overthrow of Odoacer.—From the Alps to the extremity of Calabria, Theodoric reigned by the right of conquest; the Vandal ambassadors surrendered the island of Sicily as a lawful appendage of his kingdom; and he was accepted as the deliverer of Rome by the Senate and the people, who had shut their gates against the flying usurper. Ravenna alone, secure in the fortifications of art and nature, still sustained a siege of almost three years, and the daring sallies of Odoacer carried slaughter and dismay into the Gothic camp. At length, destitute of provisions and hopeless of relief, that unfortunate monarch yielded to the groans of his subjects and the clamors of his soldiers. A treaty of peace was negotiated by the bishop of Ravenna; the Ostrogoths were admitted into the city, and the hostile kings consented, under the sanction of an oath, to rule with equal and undivided authority the provinces of Italy. The event of such an agreement may be easily foreseen. After some days had been devoted to the semblance of joy and friendship, Odoacer, in the midst of a solemn banquet (A.D. 493, March 5), was stabbed by the hand, or at least by the command, of his rival.—*Gibbon.*

Theodoric broke up with his nation in the year 488, pressed through the passes of Italy, and encountered Odoacer near Aquileja and Verona. But the Italians fought with little zeal for their king, and he was both times obliged to fly. King Theodoric, from this last battle, was styled in legendary songs and ballads, in a multitude of which his fame was recorded, the great hero, Dieterich of Berne (which signifies Verona).—*Kohlrausch.*

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3. THE INVASION OF THE LOMBARDS.

For sixteen years after the overthrow of the Ostrogoths in 552 A. D., the Eastern Empire retained control of Italy. The next conquerors of Italy were the Lombards. In 568 A.D. Alboin, king of the Lombards (or Longobards), drove the forces of the Eastern Empire from a portion of northern Italy. The Lombards, like most of the other invaders of Italy, both before and after them, were Teutons. The Lombard name and some of the Lombard blood still remain in Northern Italy. For over two centuries the Lombards retained control of Italy, extending their sway and making another unsuccessful attempt to reconstruct Roman society. Several of the Lombard kings were men of heroic mould and again it seemed, as formerly under Theodoric the Ostrogoth, that Rome might once more become a power of the world. All such prospects were rudely disappointed by the Franks who, under the famous Charles the Great, conquered the Lombards in 774 A. D. In this year the Lombard rule came to an end, and Charles the Great (Charlemagne), the victorious Frank, assumed their crown in addition to his own.



Crown of Charlemagne.

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3. THE INVASION OF THE LOMBARDS.

The Lombards Prepare to Invade Italy.—The destruction of a mighty kingdom established the fame of Alboin. In the days of Charlemagne, the Bavarians, the Saxons, and the other tribes of the Teutonic language, still repeated the songs which described the heroic virtues, the valor, liberality, and fortune of the king of the Lombards. But his ambition was yet unsatisfied; and the conqueror of the Gepidæ turned (A.D 567) his eyes from the Danube to the richer banks of the Po and Tiber. Fifteen years had not elapsed, since his subjects, the confederates of Narses, had visited the pleasant climate of Italy, the mountains, the rivers, the highways, were familiar to their memory, the report of their success, perhaps the view of their spoils, had kindled in the rising generation the flame of emulation and enterprise. Their hopes were encouraged by the spirit and eloquence of Alboin; and it is affirmed that he spoke to their senses, by producing, at the royal feast, the fairest and most exquisite fruits that grew spontaneously in the garden of the world. No sooner had he erected his standard, than the native strength of the Lombards was multiplied by the adventurous youth of Germany and Scythia. The robust peasantry of Noricum and Pannonia had resumed the manners of Barbarians; and the names of the Gepidæ, Bulgarians, Sarmatians, and Bavarians, may be distinctly traced in the provinces of Italy. Of the Saxons, the old allies of the Lombards, 20,000 warriors, with their wives and children, accepted the invitation of Alboin. Their bravery contributed to his success; but the accession or the absence of their numbers was not sensibly felt in the magnitude of his host. Every mode of religion was freely practiced by its respective votaries. The king of the Lombards had been educated in the Arian heresy; but the Catholics, in their public worship, were allowed to pray for his conversion; while the more stubborn Barbarians sacrificed a she-goat, or perhaps a captive, to the gods of their fathers. The Lombards and their confederates were united by their common attachment to a chief, who excelled in all the virtues and the vices of a savage hero; and the vigilance of Alboin provided an ample magazine of offensive and defensive arms for the use of the expedition. The portable wealth of the Lombards attended the march; their lands they cheerfully relinquished to the Avars, on the solemn promise, which was made and accepted without a smile, that if they failed in the conquest of Italy, these voluntary exiles should be reinstated in their former possessions.—*Gibbon.*

The Lombards.—Italy then became the kingdom of the Longobards, and the permanent home of their race, whose name still exists in the province of Lombardy. Only Ravenna, Naples and Genoa were still held by the Eastern Emperors, constituting what we call the Exarchy. Rome was also nominally subject to Constantinople, although the Popes were beginning to assume the government of the city. The young republic of Venice, already organized, was safe on its islands in the Adriatic.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Lombards, or Longobards (men with long beards) originally occupied Jutland, whence they migrated to the banks of the Elbe, and afterwards to the region between the Danube and the Vistula, where they were settled at the time of the fall of the Western Roman Empire. A century later they migrated to Northern Italy, where they occupied the region since called Lombardy.—*Clare.*

Alboin defeated and nearly exterminated the the Gepidæ; killed Cunimund, their king, and compelled his daughter Rosamond to become his wife. After conquering most of Northern Italy, and while drinking deeply, he ordered a cup which he had made out of the skull of Cunimund, to be brought, and invited his wife Rosamond to drink out of it. This so aroused her that she conspired with two officers, and they killed the king while in his afternoon sleep.—*Zell.*

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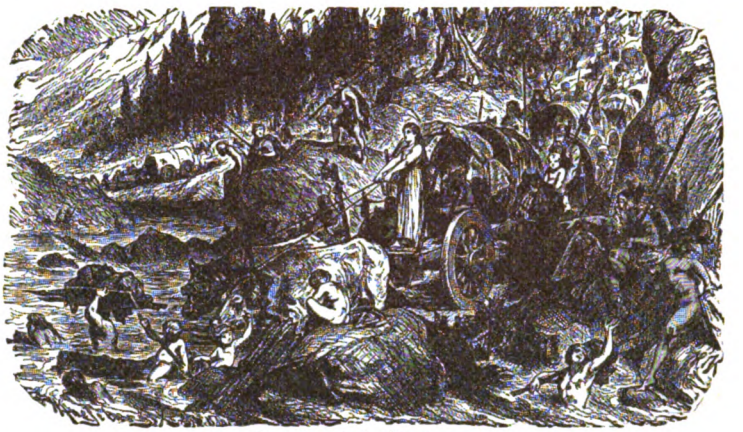
4. THE INVASIONS OF THE NORTHMEN.

The Northmen were also Teutonic in blood, but they differed in many ways from their German kinsmen, the Goths, Burgundians, Franks, etc. The Northmen invaded more portions of the world during a longer period of time. They traveled by sea rather than by land and were decidedly piratical in their nature and methods. The invasions of the Northmen cover a period of about three centuries—from the eighth to the eleventh. They conquered Britain under Cnut about 1016 A.D. after it had been settled by the Anglo-Saxons. They settled also in northwestern France, where their chief, Rollo or Rolf, became the vassal of Charles the Simple in 911 A.D. These people became feudalized and Romanized and their name was softened into Normans. In 1066 A.D. they conquered the English at Senlock or Hastings under their duke, William the Conqueror. The Northmen conquered other parts of western Europe and some of them settled in Italy, Sicily and northern Africa.



Invasion of the Northmen.

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4. THE INVASIONS OF THE NORTHMEN.

Northern Invasions.—The Danes and Normans, along with their Germanic kinsmen, the Angles, Saxons and Jutes furnished almost the entire population of England by means of the successive conquests by the Anglo-Saxons, Danes and Normans. These rude Northmen colonized themselves in every portion of Northern Europe, and even as far south as Italy and Greece, everywhere leaving the familiar stamp of their ideas and habits in all of modern civilization.—*Clare.*

Hastings, the Sea-King of the Northmen.—One of the most audacious of the piratical leaders was the sea-king Hastings. Several times he appeared with his fleets in the rivers and harbors of France. Not satisfied with the spoils of the western coasts he made his way into the Mediterranean. On the shore of Tuscany he descried a city which he mistook for Rome, but being unable to take the place by assault, he resorted to stratagem. Pretending to repent of his past life, he sent for the Christian bishop, and was baptized as a convert. Soon afterwards he caused the report to be circulated that he was dead, and his followers claimed for him the rights of burial. The body was borne to the cathedral, but while the priests, with dolorous accent, were chanting his requiem, up sprang the prostrate Hastings, drew his sword, and slew the ecclesiastics right and left. His men, at the signal, joined in the bloody work. The Cathedral was plundered, and the robbers made away with the spoils before the stupefied population could realize what was done.—*Ridpath.*

The Treaty Between Charles and Rollo.—Franco, archbishop of Rouen, acting on behalf of the king, was authorized to offer the Dane a considerable part of Neustria and the hand of Gisele, daughter of Charles the Simple, on condition that Rollo would become the king's vassal and embrace Christianity. The Northman regarded this proposition in so favorable a light that he consented to a three months' truce in order that the negotiations might continue. A day was appointed for a conference between Rollo and the French monarch. A meeting was held at St. Clair-sur-Epte, Charles taking his station on one side of the river and the Dane on the other. The king offered to cede Flanders, but this was refused. Nor would the Northman accept only the maritime parts of Neustria. He demanded also that those districts of Brittany which had been seized by the French should be added to the cession, and that the dukes of the ceded provinces should become his vassals. To these demands the king at last consented, and a treaty was formed accordingly.—*Ridpath.*

The Oath.—When Rollo went to take the oath of fealty to his new feudal sovereign, he was told that it was necessary for him to kneel and kiss the king's foot. He indignantly refused to perform so humiliating a ceremony. But the courtiers of Charles the Simple insisted upon this point of etiquette, and the Norman chief finally consented to do the act by proxy, ordering one of his followers to kiss the royal foot for him. The rude Norman soldier, instead of kneeling down to salute the king's foot, caught it up and performed the ceremony by lifting it to his mouth, thus causing the monarch to fall backward violently from his seat. The Northmen showed their want of respect by bursting into a loud shout of laughter; and as the French were in no condition to resent the insult, they were obliged to allow it to pass without remark.—*Clare.*

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5. INVASION OF ENGLAND BY THE JUTES, SAXONS AND ANGLES.

While Clovis the Frank was settling in Gaul and Theodoric the Ostrogoth was reigning in Rome, the Island of Britain was invaded by the Jutes. Since 43 A.D., in the reign of the Roman Emperor Claudius, for over three centuries, Britain had been held by the Romans. In 410 A.D. the Roman soldiers finally left Britain in order to protect the Roman frontier on the continent. A generation later, about 449 A.D., Britain was invaded by the Jutes, followed by the Saxons and Angles. These three people were all pure Teutons and lived on the shores of the Baltic, on and east of the Danish peninsula. Their invasions of England continued for over a century. The native Celtic population of Britain was killed, driven off or enslaved until few remained. The Jutes settled in Kent on the east and the Saxons settled in Essex, Wessex and Sussex, and the Angles in East Anglia. From here they spread to other parts of the island and gave the name English to the entire people.



Crown of Louis the Pious.

5. INVASION OF ENGLAND BY THE JUTES, SAXONS AND ANGLES.

Jutes.—The first coming of the English is assigned to the year 449. "Hengist and Horsa, invited by Vortigern, King of the Britons, sought Britain, but afterwards they fought against them." These are the words of the shortest, and, we may suppose, the earliest form of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. A longer form gives us some more particulars, the truth of which there is no reason for doubting, that the reason why King Vortigen asked the help of the two chiefs, leaders as they were of a people that had harried the shores of Britain for two centuries, was, that they might help him against the Picts, and that they came with three ships, and that they were rewarded for their service with land in the southeast of the island. Further on it adds that these first comers were Jutes, i. e., dwellers, in the country which is still known as Jutland. Both forms of the Chronicle give the name of the place where Hengist and Horsa landed as "Ypwines fleot," or "Heopwines fleot." There is little difficulty in making out that this is Ebbsfleet, near Ramsgate, in the district which is still called the Isle of Thanet, and which was then separated from the mainland by a channel navigable at high water by ships; and at low water to be crossed only by a single ford.—*Church.*

The Saxons.—This was one of the small original tribes, settled in Holstein; the name is derived from their peculiar weapon, a short sword, called sahs. We find them now occupying nearly all the territory between the Hartz Mountains and the North Sea, from the Elbe westward to the Rhine. The Cherusi, the Chauci, and other tribes named by Tacitus, were evidently incorporated with the Saxons, who exhibit the same characteristics. There appears to have been a natural enmity—no doubt bequeathed from the earlier tribes out of which both grew—between them and the Franks. —*Bayard Taylor.*

The Celts.—Colonies of Britons, who had been driven from their native island by the conquering and freebooting Angles and Saxons, had crossed the British Channel and were at this time mingled with their Celtic kinsman in the Northwest of Gaul, in that portion of France afterwards known as Brittany, or Bretagne.—*Clare.*

New Languages.—The establishment of the Teutonic race in the Celtic and Latin countries of Western and Southern Europe gave rise to new languages. At the time when the Northern barbarians established themselves in Italy and the provinces of the Western Roman Empire, Latin had become the common speech of Gaul and Spain, as well as of Italy. The old Celtic language of Gaul and the Celtiberian of Spain only lingered in a few remote places, so that a corrupt Latin was the prevailing speech in those two countries of Western Europe. As the Teutonic settlers were far outnumbered by the native populations, they were obliged to acquire the Latin in order to communicate with the people among whom they had established themselves; but in learning it they still further corrupted it, thus giving rise to corrupt Latin dialects, which by the close of the Dark Ages, had developed into the modern Italian, French, Spanish and Portuguese.—*Clare.*

English Language.—In Britain, the Angles, Saxons and Jutes did not mingle with the Celtic Britons; so that the language of Anglo-Saxon England was purely Teutonic or Germanic, and thus remained until England was conquered by the French-speaking Normans near the close of the Dark Ages. From that time the Anglo-Saxon language of England began to be modified; so that toward the close of the Middle Ages the English language took shape, in consequence of the introduction of many Norman-French words, and the mingling together of the Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French.—*Editor.*

Teutonic Language.—The new nations of purely Teutonic or Germanic origin which arose in Germany and Scandinavia were entirely unaffected in their speech by Latin influences, so that the languages of those countries remained purely Teutonic. Such are the modern German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish and Norwegian.—*Editor.*

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6. THE INVASION OF THE FRANKS.

In 481 A.D. Clovis became king of the Franks. Clovis was the founder of the first line of barbarian kings who succeeded in reconstructing Roman society in any permanent form. In 486 A.D. Clovis attacked Syagrius, the Roman governor of Gaul, near Soissons, and totally defeated him. This gave the Franks a permanent



Alemanni Crossing the Rhine.

foothold in Gaul. Clovis married Clotilda, niece of the King of the Burgundians. This marriage had important results in the final destiny of the Franks. Clotilda was an orthodox Catholic, not an Arian. Through her influence Clovis and his Franks were baptized into the orthodox Catholic faith. Thus the Franks gained the friendship of the Roman clergy, a fact which largely explains why Clovis succeeded where his predecessors, who were Arians, had failed. The Franks also displayed unusual capacity in adapting their mode of life and government to the Roman institutions which they found in Gaul.

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6. THE INVASION OF FRANKS.

Clovis.—In 481 Hilderic, chief of the Salian Franks, died, leaving behind him a boy of fifteen, Hlodowig, or Clovis. This youth, endowed with unusual vigor and fierceness, soon won a great reputation among the Franks, and in 486 broke in on the only Roman power now left in northern Gaul, the degenerate legions commanded by the patrician Syagrius of Soissons. These were swept away like the autumn leaves before the wind, and Hlodowig settled down in the lands which he had won, . . . When he died in 511 the settlement of the German on the soil of Gaul had been accomplished, and Hlodowig, who has no claim to honor as a man of constructive power, still stands out in history as the founder of a new world in France. To him France owes that feudal relation which has so deeply marked her story; in him the church first made that connection with feudalism, which lowered her character, while it strengthened her power and influence. Not without reason does France inscribe on the first page of her history this German conqueror, a robber, a liar, a murderer, for it is from him that modern France rightly dates her beginning.—*Kitchin.*

Clovis.—Upon Childeric's death, in A.D. 481, his son Chlodowig (meaning famous warrior), who is better known by his Latin name, Clovis, or Ludovicus, which is equivalent to the modern German name Ludwig, the modern Italian Ludovico and the English Lewis, reigned.—*Clare.*

The Franks.—It is not known whence this name was derived, nor what is its meaning. The Franks are believed to have been formed out of the Sicambrians, in Westphalia, together with a portion of the Chatti and the Batavi in Holland, and other tribes. We first hear of them on the Lower Rhine, but they soon extended their territory over a great part of Belgium and Westphalia. There chiefs were already called kings, and their authority was hereditary.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Aruis denied of Christ that he was unoriginate; or part of the unoriginate; or consubstantial with the Father; or without beginning; or a mere development of God. The Son, he said, "did not exist before he was begotten." In other words, "He is of a substance that once was not." But,

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on the other side, Arius affirmed of the Son that he was in being before time; that he was perfect God; only begotten; that God made the worlds or ages through Him; that he was the making or offspring of the Father, and yet not as one amongst things made.—*Tulloch.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **THE ROMAN EMPIRE:** Arcadius, Honorius and Theodosius; Ottoman Turks, Visigoths, Burgundians, Vandals, Huns and Franks.
2. **THE INVASION OF THE OSTROGOTHS:** Theodoric, Odoacer, Narses, and Ostrogoths.
3. **THE INVASION OF THE LOMBARDS:** Alboin and Charles the Great; Lombards, Teutons and Franks; the Pope.
4. **THE INVASIONS OF THE NORTHMEN:** Northmen and Anglo-Saxons; Cnut, Rollo, Charles the Simple and William.
5. **INVASION OF ITALY BY THE JUTES, SAXONS AND ANGLES:** Clovis, Jutes, Saxons, Celts, and Angles; Britain, Kent, Essex, Sussex and East Anglia; Languages.
6. **THE INVASION OF THE FRANKS:** Clovis, Syagrius, Clotilda; Arians and Catholics.

QUESTIONS.

1. *What was the condition of the Roman Empire at this time? Who were the Ottoman Turks? The Visigoths? Burgundians? Vandals? Huns? Franks? What can you say of each of these people? How did they compare with the Romans?*
2. *Who were the Ostrogoths? What can you say as to the characteristics of the Goths? What became of the Ostrogoths? State what you can of the conflict between Theodoric and Odoacer.*
3. *Who were the Lombards? State what you can of Alboin. Who were the Teutons? What was the general character of the Lombards? By whom were they overthrown?*
4. *Who were the Northmen? Why so-called? By what name are they now known? What was their peculiar characteristic? What countries did they conquer? Where did they settle? What ideas have we derived from them? What can you say of the "Norman Character"?*
5. *Who were the Jutes? The Saxons? The Angles? The Celts? Where were these races located? Give the origin of the "New Languages"? Give the origin of the English language? Why did the languages of Germany and Scandinavia remain Teutonic?*
6. *Who was Clovis? How did his marriage affect the final destiny of the Franks? What was the doctrine of Arius? What was the feeling now existing between the Catholics and Arians?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What did Rome seem to the church and the empire of the fourth and fifth centuries? To the barbarians? What reason can you give for your conclusions?*
2. *What was the comparative power of the church in Rome and Constantinople? Why did Rome exercise a greater influence?*
3. *What causes developed the great power exercised by the church of Rome? Give your reasons for your answers.*
4. *Study carefully any of the following races: Turks, Goths, Burgundians, Vandals, Huns, Franks, Lombards, Northmen, Jutes, Celts, Saxons, Angles. Under each note: To what branch of the human family do they belong? Where were they when first appearing in history? Direction and causes of their migrations? What seems to have been their ambition? How have they influenced civilization? What agencies or races have most influenced them? What became of them as a nation? Name two or three things which they adopted from the Romans? What is the leading characteristic of the nation?*
5. *Trace out the history of the origin of the following languages: Modern Italian, French, Spanish, English, German and others. Which is the newer language? What tongues enter into their make up? How? What languages may be grouped together? To what extent does Latin enter into the make-up of each? Why? What causes gave us many new languages in place of one language? What conditions would have given us one language?*
6. *What nation or nationalities now exercised greatest influence?*

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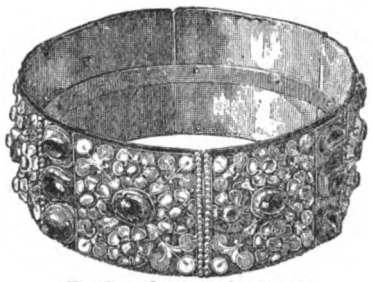
7. THE FINAL TRIUMPH OF THE FRANKS IN GAUL.

At first Clovis and the Franks had to share the province of Gaul with the Visigoths and the Burgundians. Alaric II, King of the Visigoths, formed an alliance with Clovis, while Gundobald, King of the Burgundians, gave Clovis his niece Clotilda in marriage. But Clovis was as ambitious as he was skillful in war. He determined to have Gaul all to himself. In 496 A.D. he conquered the Alemanni and the Thuringians, who threatened him on the Rhine. Step by step Clovis asserted his supremacy over all the Teutonic tribes near him, with few exceptions. Although nominally a Christian, Clovis chose artifice and deceit to gain his ends as well as straightforward warfare. Clovis united under his personal rule the Ripuarian as well as the Salian Franks. At his death in 511 A.D. he left his Merovingian successors a barbarian state well settled. Clovis himself became a combination of three elements, Roman, barbarian and Christian, and as such he is a prototype of the powerful Charles the Great.



The Iron Crown of Lombardy.

7. THE FINAL TRIUMPH OF THE FRANKS IN GAUL.

The Alemanni.—The name of this division (Alemannen, signifiying "all men") shows that it was composed of fragments of many tribes. The Alemanni first made their appearance along the Main, and gradually pushed southward over the Tithe-Lands, where the military veterans of Rome had settled, until they occupied the greater part of South-western Germany, and Eastern Switzerland, to the Alps. Their descendants inhabit the same territory, to this day.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Thuringians.—This branch had only a short national existence. It was composed of the Hermunduri, with fragments of other tribes, united under one king, and occupied all of Central Germany, from the Hartz soutward to the Danube.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Sacred Phial.—In this crisis Clovis raised his hands toward heaven, invoking "the God of Clotilda," and vowing that if that God would give him the victory he would embrace the Christian faith and receive Christian baptism. He triumphed in the battle, and when it ended he accepted Christianity; and on Christmas (A.D. 496) he was baptized with great pomp and splendor, along with three thousand of his subjects, by St. Remi, bishop of Rheims, in the great cathedral in that historic city. Clovis gave the bishop, as a fee, all the land he could ride around while the king slept after dinner—a gift exceedingly characteristic of a conqueror who felt that he could acquire new dominions whenever he awoke. The sacred phial filled with oil for the consecration of the king has been preserved to the present day, and the superstitious people of the time of Clovis believed that the phial and sacred oil were brought from heaven by a dove. The kings of France have ever since been called "Most Christian King," and have been solemnly crowned in the great cathedral at Rheims.—*Clare.*

Clovis was a warrior from his youth. His disposition was audacious in the extreme. In one of his earlier campaigns he captured the cathedral of Rheims and despoiled the altar of its treasures. Among the rich booty was a marvelous vase of great size and value. When it came to a division of the spoil, the king—against that usage of the German race which required that all the spoils of war should be divided by lot—sought the vase for himself. For the bishop of Rheims had sent to him a request for a return of the priceless trophy, and Clovis would fain make friends with the Christian nobleman. But one of the Frankish chiefs struck the vase with his battle-ax and destroyed it. Clovis was greatly angered, but for awhile concealed his wrath. In the course of time there was a military inspection of the Franks, and when the king came to examine the arms of him who had broken the vase he found them rusty and unfit for use. He wrenched the battle-ax out of the hands of the chief and threw it on the ground, and when the owner stooped to recover it dashed his own ponderous weapon into the skull of the stooping warrior. "Thus," said he, "didst thou to the vase at Soissons." Nor did any dare resent the murder of the chief.—*Ridpath.*

Clovis, a Barbarian and Christian. In order to secure his own authority, Clovis caused the heads of many of his relatives to be shaved, and afterwards he put them to death, lest time should renew their long hair, the emblem of royalty. Clovis may be regarded as the original founder of the French monarchy, as he reunited the Frankish and Romanized Gallic elements into one nation.

Queen of France.—Though Clovis was so cruel, he was a wise monarch, and established several just and humane codes. One of these codes was the Ripuarian, derived from the Ripuarian Franks. Another code was the Salic Law, derived from the the Salian Franks. One of the provisions of the Salic Law has ever since remained in force, that which excludes females from the throne of France. The wives of the Kings of France have always been called queens; but, from the time of Clovis to the very last French monarchy, there has never been a sole reigning queen of France.—*Clare.*

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8. RISE AND FALL OF THE MEROVINGIANS.

Clovis was not the earliest Merovingian on record, but he is the earliest one who comes distinctly into view. His descendants held the Frankish throne from 511 A.D. to 752 A.D. Some of his immediate successors were able men, but family feuds kept the different parts of the kingdom in perpetual hostility to one another. The Merovingians themselves made unwise use of their power, which lay in the war-bond. They also became morally corrupt. The dissoluteness of their lives told disastrously upon their descendants, and finally caused their overthrow in 752 A.D. Then the Mayors of the Palace, later known as the Carlovingians, came to the throne in the person of Pepin the Short. The Merovingian period falls into three subdivisions: (1) The period of the early Merovingians, from 511 A.D. to 614 A.D.; (2) the period of the Rise of the Mayors, from 614 A.D. to 687 A.D.; and (3) the period of the Supremacy of the Mayors, from 687 A.D. to 752 A.D. The two great divisions of the Franks, Austrasia and Neustria, became united, and the successors of the Merovingians ruled over the entire country.

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8. RISE AND FALL OF THE MEROVINGIANS.

The Pagan Germans.—But, although their conversion and other civilizing influences operated powerfully upon the Germans in Gaul, and although the Franks (who were originally a confederation of the Teutonic tribes that dwelt between the Rhine, the Maine, and the Weser) established a decisive superiority over the other conquerors of the province, as well as over the conquered provincials, the country long remained a chaos of uncombined and shifting elements. The early princes of the Merovingian dynasty were generally occupied in wars against other princes of their house, occasioned by the frequent subdivisions of the Frank monarchy; and the ablest and best of them had found all their energies tasked to the utmost to defend the barrier of the Rhine against the pagan Germans, who strove to pass the river and gather their share of the spoils of the empire.—*Creasy.*

Under the rule of Pepin of Heristal and his son Charles Martel, Mayors to the palace to the last feeble Merovingians, the Austrasian Franks in the lower Rhineland became acknowledged heads of the nation, and were able, while establishing a firmer government at home, to direct its whole strength in projects of foreign ambition. It was not solely or even chiefly to their own valor that the Franks owed their past greatness and the yet loftier future which awaited them; it was to the friendship of the clergy and the favor of the Apostolic See. The other Teutonic nations, Goths, Vandals, Burgundians, Suevians, Lombards, had been most of them converted by Arian missionaries, who proceeded from the Roman Empire during the short period when Arian doctrines were in the ascendant. The Franks, who were among the latest converts, were Catholics from the first, and gladly accepted the clergy as their teachers and allies. Thus it was that, while the hostility of their orthodox subjects destroyed the Vandal kingdom in Africa and the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy, the eager sympathy of the priesthood enabled the Franks to vanquish their Burgundian and Visigothic enemies, and made it comparatively easy for them to blend with the Roman population in the provinces. They had done good service against the Saracens of Spain; they had aided the English Boniface in his mission to the heathen of Germany; and at length, as the most powerful among Catholic nations, they attracted the eyes of the ecclesiastical head of the West, now sorely bested by domestic foes.—*Bryce.*

Charles Martel at Tours.—Charles Martel, like his father, Pepin Heristal, was Duke of the Austrasian Franks, the bravest and most thoroughly Germanic part of the nation, and exercised, in the name of the titular king, what little paramount authority the turbulent minor rulers of districts and towns could be persuaded or compelled to acknowledge. Engaged with his national competitors in perpetual conflicts for power, and in more serious struggles for safety against the fierce tribes of the unconverted Frisians, Bavarians, Saxons, and Thuringians, who at that epoch assailed with peculiar ferocity the Christianized Germans on the left bank of the Rhine, Charles Martel added experienced skill to his natural courage, and he had also formed a militia of veterans among the Franks. Hallam has thrown out a doubt whether, in our admiration of his victory at Tours, we do not judge a little too much by the event, and whether there was not rashness in his risking the fate of France on the result of a general battle with the invaders. But when we remember that Charles had no standing army, and the independent spirit of the Frank warriors who followed his standard, it seems most probable that it was not in his power to adopt the cautious policy of watching the invaders and wearing out their strength by delay.—*Creasy.*

Tours.—This region has been signalized by more than one memorable conflict, but it is principally interesting to the historian by having been the scene of the great victory won by Charles Martel over the Saracens, A.D. 732, which gave a decisive check to the career of Arab conquest in Western Europe, rescued Christendom from Islam, preserved the relics of ancient and the germs of modern civilization, and re-established the old superiority of Indo-European over the Semitic family of mankind.—*Creasy.*

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9. RISE OF THE CARLOVINGIANS.

The chief officer of the Merovingian state, next to the king, was the Mayor of the Palace. This office gradually became hereditary in one family. As the kings grew weaker, the mayors grew stronger, until finally they embodied in themselves all the power which the Merovingians normally possessed. Yet the mere name of king kept the Merovingians on the throne long after they had ceased to direct its policy. Pepin of Landen, Pepin of Heristal, and Charles Martel were the three famous mayors of the palace under the last Merovingians. Finally Pepin the Short befriended the Pope against the Lombards and was rewarded by the Papal See in its final recognition of him as king. The last puny Merovingian was deposed in 752 A.D., and Pepin the Short crowned king in his stead by the Pope. This coronation marks the beginning of the second dynasty of kings, the Carlovingians, who finally were superseded in France in 987 A.D. by the Capetians in the person of Hugh Capet.



Gold Medal of Theodosius the Great.

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9. RISE OF THE CARLOVINGIANS.

Pepin of Heristal.—From Testry (687) to the end of his life in 714, Pepin of Heristal was unquestioned master of all Franks, the kings under him being utterly insignificant. While he kept his Neustrian subjects submissive, he applied the enthusiasms of the sword and the cross to the wild Germans on his eastern border. Under him began the heroic labors of those English monks whose is the high honor of having first introduced the Christian faith among the pagan Teutons. —*Kitchin.*

Charles Martel's many victories over the Saxons, the Frisians and the Burgundians rendered his name illustrious, but the greatest of all his exploits was his brilliant triumph over the Saracen invaders of France. In accordance with a deliberate plan of conquest, the Saracens of Spain crossed the Pyrenees and overran the Frankish dominions as far north as the Loire. Charles Martel led his Christian Franks against them and inflicted upon them so overwhelming a defeat near Tours, in A. D. 732, that the remnants of their immense host fled southward, thus freeing Christian Europe from the danger of Mohammedan conquest. Charles Martel followed up his victory, bnt was unable to drive the Saracens entirely from France, as they lingered in Septimania, in the extreme south of France, until A. D. 759, when they were driven back into Spain by Pepin the Little, the son and successor of Charles Martel. —*Clare.*

Pepin the Short.—His father and brother had opposed the power of the bishops by the help of the monks; it remained for Pepin to go a step further, and linking together the monks with the papacy, to win for himself the name of king. The monks had been the papal militia for the conversion of the Germans; the converted Germans in their turn became firm friends of the Frankish dukes. The head of the whole movement was St. Boniface, the founder of the church in Germany; he it was who, acting under command of Pope Zachary, crowned Pepin king of Franks in the cathedral at Soissons. Pepin thereby became lord by a new title of the eastern and western Francia, or Frank-land, ruling over a large part of modern Germany and of modern France north of the Loire at least.—*Kitchin.*

Hugh Capet, eldest son of Hugh the Great, duke of France, was but a Neustrian noble when he was elected king. The house of the Carolings was entirely set aside, its claims and rights denied, by the new force now growing up, the force of feudalism. The head of the barons should be one of themselves; he should stand clear of the imperial ideas and ambitions which had ruled the conduct of his predecessors; he should be a Frenchman in speech and birth and thought, and not a German; but, above all, he must be strong enough to hold his own.—*Kitchin.*

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10. THE KINGDOM OF CHARLES THE GREAT.

Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, was the ablest of all the Carlovingians. He marks the highest point which the Frankish state ever reached. Under him were blended the Roman law and administration, the barbarian life and vigor, and the religion of the orthodox Christian church. From 768 A.D. to 771 A.D. Charles ruled the Frankish kingdom conjointly with his brother Carloman. From 771 A.D. to 800 A.D. Charles was king of the Franks. From 800 A.D. to 814 A.D. Charles was emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, to be described later. Charles was successful in war and in administration. He made the Frankish state not only triumphant in Europe, but also the strongest political power in the world. He inherited the greatness of his ancestors and stands forth as one of the world's great conquerors of nations. When in 800 A.D. Charles was crowned emperor of the Holy Roman Empire by the Pope, an important epoch in European history was begun.

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10. THE KINGDOM OF CHARLES THE GREAT.

Charlemagne encouraged the arts, agriculture, commerce and literature. He made the greatest exertions for the advancement of civilization among his subjects, and founded schools and cathedrals for the diffusion of intellectual enlightenment and Christianity.—*Clare.*

Relations with the Church.—Karl was pope as well as emperor. His policy was to reform the church and unify it around Rome as center, yet keeping it, including the pope as its supreme official, subject to himself. Full of theocratic ideas and lacking clear conception of the state as possessing legitimate function independently of the church, he still assigned to the state the higher place. The state he considered bound to further the ends of the church; thus each of Karl's campaigns was a crusade—yet church property and office were to be administered as belonging to the state. Karl considered his care as well the doctrine and life of the clergy as external ecclesiastical affairs. He exhorts the pope to a godly walk, opposes him in doctrinal matters, provides for no appeal to him even by ecclesiastics.—*Andrews.*

Aids Culture and Letters.—Himself scarcely able to write, the emperor was cause of a most powerful impulse to the intellectual life of his time. The studies which England and Italy had in the seventh and eighth centuries preserved from an earlier age and themselves seduously pursued, which Columban and Boniface had introduced in France and Germany, he helped to a vigorous life and influence, regarding effort of this kind his duty to both people and church. . . . The court school, directed by Alcuin and attended by Karl with his children, became a center of letters for the realm, its pupils, made abbots and bishops, founded copies of it everywhere. Text books were composed, classics and fathers translated, annotated, learned by heart. For the times, culture was not narrow. Einhard was historian, literator, architect. History, poetry, astronomy and theology were ardently cultivated. On multitudes of questions, especially in theology and ethics, earnest discussions were had, formal treatises composed. Many studied critically, thought deeply. . . . In this intellectual movement the great monarch participated personally. The healthy reaction in favor of classical study, though originally due to English influence, he earnestly patronized. In two points his interposition was positive and direct, viz., in aid (1) toward rendering German a literary speech, (2) toward deepening and intensifying in the Germans the conceptions of the Christian religion.—*Andrews.*

His Government.—Karl was far greater as conqueror and diplomatist than as law-giver, in personal force and tact than in large and statesman-like plans. Note his project to leave his realm divided, his recognition of the eastern emperor, his ambiguous and perilous relation to the papacy. While restoring the empire he made no effort to reproduce its unity, law or system of administration. Italy and Saxony remained separate kingdoms. The genius as well as the form of government continued Germanic: the people, the army, no salaried governmental functionaries, national assemblies, not without influence on legislation. Yet rule was chiefly personal, the emperor practically absolute. Legislation and the administration of justice were little systematic, capitularies regarded momentary needs, flagrant wrongs, especially bribery and favoritism, went unpunished. Karl's great merit lay in imparting strength and centralization to public authority.—*Andrews.*

Summary.—The elements of society in Gaul at this time may be easily summed up There were great Frankish lords, gradually diminishing in numbers as they grew in power and territorial independence; there were great bishops, chiefly in the cities, and lordly abbots in country places, who were all by degrees becoming assimilated in condition to the Frankish nobles; there was also a rustic clergy, whose state was poor in the extreme; then there were the free Franks, scarcely above the level of slaves, and ever slipping down into the servile class; then Gallo-Romans in much the same condition; and lastly the slaves, who are said to have formed nine-tenths of the population. The picture is one of great wretchedness, oppression, injustice; the great Charles himself felt no sure ground under his feet in dealing with the social condition of his subjects.—*Kitchin.*

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11. HISTORY OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH FROM 500-800 A.D.

For purposes of study in medieval history the development of the church may be divided into three periods. 1. The period from the death of Christ to the formal recognition of the Christian religion by the Roman Emperor Constantine about 325 A.D. During this period the church worked its way up slowly against tremendous opposition. 2. The period from the recognition by Constantine to the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire in 800 A.D. 3. The period subsequent to 800 A.D.

During the second period the destinies of the church were closely interlinked with those of the Roman Empire. The church, however, survived the overthrow of the Western Empire in 476 A.D. During the following three centuries the machinery of the church was perfected, the Bishop of Rome became the Pope, and the successive inroads of barbarians failed to overthrow the system. On the other hand the church gained an enormous influence over the barbarians, was succored by the Franks and finally joined with them in the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire.

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11. HISTORY OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH FROM 500-800 A.D.

Both Papacy and Empire rose in an age when the human spirit was utterly prostrated before authority and tradition, when the exercise of private



Emperor Constantine.

judgment was impossible to most and sinful to all. Those who believed the miracles recorded in the Acta Sanctorum, and did not question the Isidorian decretals, might well recognize as ordained of God the two-fold authority of Rome, founded, as it seemed to be, on so many texts of Scripture, and confirmed by five centuries of undisputed possession.—*Bryce.*

The Influence of Rome.—Under the first point of view—that is to say, the influence of Roman on Gallo-Frankish society, from the fifth to the tenth century—the result of our inquiries is that the Roman world, when it broke up, bequeathed to the future the wrecks of three great facts—1st, central sole power, empire, and absolute royalty; 2d, imperial administration, government of provinces by the delegates of the central power; 3d, the municipal system, the primitive mode of existence of Rome and most of the countries which had successively formed the Roman Empire.—*Guizot.*

The Material Wealth of the Church.—The ecclesiastical hierarchy never received any territorial endowment by law, either under the Roman Empire or the kingdoms erected upon its ruins. But the voluntary munificence of princes, as well as their subjects, amply supplied the place of a more universal provision Large private estates, or, as they were termed, patrimonies, not only within their own dioceses, but sometimes in distant countries, sustained the dignity of the principal sees, and especially that of Rome. The French monarchs of the first dynasty, the Carlovingian family and their great chief, the Saxon line of emperors, the kings of England and Leon, set hardly any bounds to their liberality, as numerous charters still extant in diplomatic collections attest. Many churches possessed seven or eight thousand mansi; one with but two thousand passed for indifferently rich. But it must be remarked, that many of these donations are of lands uncultivated and unappropriated The monasteries acquired legitimate riches by the culture of these deserted tracts, and by the prudent management of their revenues, which were less exposed to the ordinary means of dissipation than those of the laity. Their wealth, continually accumulated, enabled them to become the regular purchasers of landed estates, especially in the time of the crusades, when the fiefs of the nobility were constantly in the market for sale or mortgage.—*Hallam.*

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12. THE EMPIRE OF THE EAST, 500-1000 A.D.

The Eastern Empire really begins with the year 330 A.D., when the Emperor Constantine removed the Imperial Capital from Rome to Byzantium. Another step was taken in 395 A.D. when the two sons of the Emperor Theodosius divided the Empire between them, Arcadius taking the East and Honorius the West. Soon the religious and political interests of the two empires clashed. After the overthrow of the Western Empire in 476 A.D., the Empire of the East regarded all Christian Europe as its property. The doctrinal and ceremonial schism between the churches and the rise of the Carlovingians completed the breach. The establishment of the Holy Roman Empire in 800 A.D. marks the supremacy of the Western church, although the Eastern church refused to acknowledge it. The Eastern church became known as the Greek Catholic church and as such is prevalent in Eastern Europe and Western Asia today.

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12. EMPIRE OF THE EAST, 500-1000 A.D.

The Crowning of Charlemagne at Rome was regarded as a revival of the Roman Empire of the West, and Charlemagne was considered a successor of the Cæsars. The capital of Charlemagne's Empire was Aix-la-Chapelle. There were now two great Empires in Christendom—that of the East with Constantinople for its capital, and that of the West with Aix-la-Chapelle for its seat of government. The division which had for a long time existed in the Christian Church now ended in a complete separation; and thus arose the Eastern or Greek Catholic, and the Western or Roman Catholic Churches.—*Clare.*

The Empire of the East.—The hierarchy of the bishops, metropolitan patriarchs, arose in correspondence with the gradations of the civil administration. It was not long before the Roman bishops assumed the highest rank. It is indeed an idle pretence to assert that they enjoyed in the first century, or at any period whatever, a supremacy universally recognized by East and West; but unquestionably they speedily attained a consequence that exalted them above all other ecclesiastical dignitaries. Many circumstances combined towards this consummation. Seeing that in every instance the superior importance of a provincial capital endowed its bishop with a peculiar preponderance, how much more must this have been the case with the ancient capital of the entire Empire, from which the latter even de rived its name? Rome was one of the most illustrious apostolic sees; here had the greatest number of martyrs shed their blood; the bishops of Rome had borne themselves with pre-eminent firmness during the persecutions, and frequently had they succeeded each other not so much in office as in martyrdom and death. But now, in addition to all this, the emperors were disposed to favor the rise of a great patriarchal authority. In a law that proved decisive of the supremacy over Christendom, Theodosius the Great enjoins, that all nations subject to his clemency should follow the faith propounded to the Romans by St. Paul. Valentinian III. forbade the bishops both of Gaul and of the other provinces to depart from the received customs of the Church, wi'hout the sanction of that venerable authority, the pope of the holy city. Thenceforth the power of the Roman bishop grew up under the protection of the emperor himself; but at the same time a limit was set to it by the very circumstances of this political connection. Had there been but one emperor, the universal supremacy might then have been firmly established: but this was forbidden by the partition of the empire. It was impossible that the eastern emperors, who clung so jealously to their ecclesiastical rights, should have favored the outspread of the power of the western patriarchs in their dominions. In this respect, too, the constitution of the Church reflected that of the empire.—*Ranke.*

Greek Colleges at Rome.—Gregory may be regarded as the proper founder of this institution, from which, since that day, a vast number of champions of Catholicism have year by year been sent into Germany. He also founded an English college in Rome, and found means to endow it. He aided the colleges in Vienna and Graetz out of his privy purse; and there was probably not a Jesuit school in the world that had not cause in some way or other to applaud his liberality. By the advice of the bishop of Sitia he founded a Greek college likewise, in which young people from thirteen to sixteen years of age were received, not merely from lands already under Christian rule, such as Corfu and Candia, but also from Constantinople, the Morea and Salonichi. They had Greek teachers, wore the caftan and the Venetian baret; they were to be kept thoroughly Greek, and the thought was always to be impressed upon them that they were to return to their native land. Their own ritual was to be retained as well as their language; and the instruction to be given them was modeled on the principles laid down by the council, in which the Greek and Latin churches had been united.—*Ranke.*

Many Difficulties.—Hardly had this grand change been accomplished, the Christian religion planted, and the Church founded, when new events of vast magnitude arose: The Roman Empire, so long victorious, was now in its turn assailed by its neighbors, invaded and vanquished. In the huge downfall that ensued, Christianity itself was once more shaken to its foundations. . . . But these were only transient emotions: whilst the empire was shattered in the western provinces, the entire edifice of the Church held out unbroken even there. Nevertheless, it too, unavoidably fell into manifold painful trials, and found itself in a wholly altered condition. A pagan nation laid hold on Britain. Arian kings subdued the greater part of the remaining west: the Lombards, for a long time Arians, and always dangerous and ill-disposed neighbors, founded a powerful realm in Italy before the gates of Rome. While the Roman

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bishops, thus hemmed in on all sides were bestirring themselves, and that with all the shrewdness and pertinacity which has ever since been their peculiar characteristic, to become once more masters, at least in their old patriarchal diocese, a new and still heavier calamity befel them. The Arabs, not mere conquerors like the Germans, but men inspired to fanaticism by a haughty dogmatic faith, radically and inveterately hostile to Christianity, swept over the West as they had done in the East; they conquered Africa after repeated attacks, Spain in a single campaign, and Musa boasted that he would push forward through the passes of the Pyrenees and over the Alps to Italy, and cause the name of Mohammed to be proclaimed from the Vatican.—*Ranke.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **THE FINAL TRIUMPH OF THE FRANKS IN GAUL:** Gauls, Burgundians, Alemanni, Thuringians, Ripuarian and Salian Franks.
8. **RISE AND FALL OF THE MEROVINGIANS:** Clovis, Pepin of Heristal, Charles Martel, and the Mayors of the Palace.
9. **RISE OF THE CARLOVINGIANS:** Pepin of Heristal, Charles Martel, Pepin of Landen, Pepin the Short and Hugh Capet: The Saracens.
10. **THE KINGDOM OF CHARLES THE GREAT:** Charles the Great, his government, relations to the church and aid to culture and letters: Summary.
11. **HISTORY OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH FROM 500-800 A.D.** Constantine, Bishop of Rome and Holy Roman Empire: Church Laws, Apostolic Constitutions, Canons and Church Order. Spread of Christianity.
12. **THE EMPIRE OF THE EAST, 500-1000 A.D.** Many difficulties, Colleges, Crowning of Charlemagne.

QUESTIONS.

7 *Who were the Alemanni? The Thuringians? Ripuarian Franks? Salian Franks? Relate the story of "The Sacred Phial"? What is meant by "Queen of France"?*

8. *Name the leaders of the Merovingians? What does Creasy say of "The Pagan Germans"? According to Bryce to what did the Franks owe their greatness? What reasons does he give for his statement? What important battle was won by Charles Martel? Why is the battle of Tours ranked as one of the important engagements of the world? What was the issue?*

9. *Who were the "Mayors of the Palace"? What may be said of the extent of the Saracen invasions? How did Pepin become Lord of the Frank-land? Upon what grounds did Hugh Capet set aside the house of the Carolings?*

10. *Give a sketch of the life of Charlemagne? What were his relations to the Church? What may be said of his government? How did he aid culture and letters? Why was he crowned Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire?*

11. *Into how many periods may the development of the church be divided? Give the statement of Bryce in reference to the "Papacy and Empire"? State what you can of the church laws? Apostolic Constitution? Apostolic Canons? Apostolic Church Order? State what you can of the "Spread of Christianity"?*

12. *When did the Eastern Empire really begin? Which branch became supreme? What became of the Eastern branch? State what you can of the colleges? According to Ranke what were some of the difficulties of the Eastern branch?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

7. *What was the early history of the Franks up to the overthrow of Gaul?*

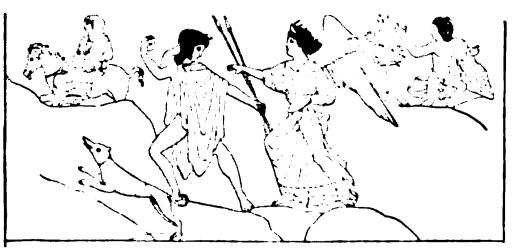
8. *What were the leading features in the history of the "Mayors of the Palace"? Give the reasons for your conclusions.*

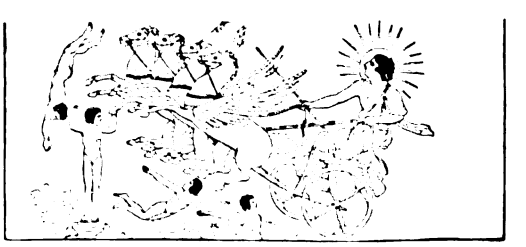
9 *The Capetians claimed that their rulers "should be a Frenchman in speech and birth and thought and not a German." What changes in the course of the growth of Frank-land gave rise to this belief? Give your reasons.*

10. *Write a sketch of the life of Charlemagne; what were the good features of his reign?*

11. *Why was the crowning of Charlemagne by the Pope an important point in European history? Explain.*

12. *What causes gave the Romish Church great prestige? Why? To what extent has the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire influenced civilization? Give the reasons for your answers.*





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13. THE RISE OF MOHAMMEDANISM (ISLAMISM).

The two great events in Medieval history after the migrations, were the reappearance of Imperialism in the West under Teutonic forms, and the rise of Islamism in the East. The one event began a new historical epoch in the West; the other in the East. Mohammed was born at Mecca in Arabia in 570 A.D., and died at



Entry of Mohammed into Constantinople.

Medina in 632 A.D. In his lifetime of sixty-two years he founded the religious system which, next to Christianity, has had the most marked influence upon history. But it was not until the flight of Mohammed and his few followers to Medina—a flight known as the Hegira 622 A.D., that the Mohammedan era really begins. Ten years later Mohammed died. During these ten years he abandoned the policy of peaceful persuasion and relied largely upon the sword as the most efficient means of making converts. This example was not lost upon his successors as subsequent history abundantly proves.

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13. THE RISE OF MOHAMMEDANISM (ISLAMISM).

The Rise of Islamism.—In the midst of these obscure calamities, Europe felt the shock of a revolution which first revealed to the world the name and nation of the Turks. (A.D. 545.) Like Romulus, the founder of that martial people was suckled by a she-wolf, who afterward made him the father of a numerous progeny; and the representation of that animal in the banners of the Turks, preserved the memory, or rather suggested the idea, of a fable which was invented, without any mutual intercourse, by the shepherds of Latium and those of Scythia. At the equal distance of two thousand miles from the Caspian, the Icy, the Chinese, and the Bengal Seas, a ridge of mountains is conspicuous, the center, and perhaps the summit, of Asia; which, in the language of different nations, has been styled Imaus, and Caf, and Altai, and the golden mountains, and the Girdle of the Earth. The sides of the hills were productive of minerals; and the iron forges, for the purpose of war, were exercised by the Turks, the most despised portion of the slaves of the great khan of the Geougen. But their servitude could only last till a leader,

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bold and eloquent, should arise, to persuade his countrymen that the same arms which they forged for their masters, might become, in their own hands, the instruments of freedom and victory. They sallied from the mountain; a sceptre was the reward of his advice; and the annual ceremony, in which a piece of iron was heated in the fire, and a smith's hammer was successively handled by the prince and his nobles, recorded for ages, the humble profession and rational pride of the Turkish nation. Bertezena, their first leader, signalized their valor and his own in successful combats against the neighboring tribes; but when he presumed to ask in marriage the daughter of the great khan, the insolent demand of a slave and a mechanic was contemptuously rejected. The disgrace was expiated by a more noble alliance with the princess of China; and the decisive battle which almost extirpated the nation of the Geougen, established in Tartar the new and more powerful empire of the Turks. They reigned over the north; but they confessed the vanity of conquest, by their faithful attachment to the mountain of their fathers. The royal encampment seldom lost sight of



Signature of Mohammed.

mount Altai, from whence the river Irtish descends to water the rich pastures of the Calmucks, which nourish the largest sheep and oxen in the world. The soil is fruitful, and the climate mild and temperate; the happy region was ignorant of earthquake and pestilence; the emperor's throne was turned toward the east, and a golden wolf on the top of a spear, seemed to guard the entrance of his tent.—*Gibbon.*

Mohammed was a man of medium stature and of a well-knitted and sinewy frame. His body was of the Oriental type, and his consitution delicate. He had a fine oval face, full of tender lines, and a massive head with slightly curling dark hair. His long well-arched Arabian eyebrows were separated midway by a vein which swelled and throbbed visibly when he was excited. His eyes were large, black and restless. His hand, which in salutation he never first withdrew from another, was exceedingly small, and soft as the hand of woman. His step was quick and energetic, and is described in tradition as being like that of one who steps from a higher place to a lower. When his attention was called he stopped short, and turned not only his face but his whole body in that direction.—*Ridpath.*

The Arabs from Darkness into Light.—To the Arab nation it was as a birth from darkness into light; Arabia first became alive by means of it. A poor shepherd people, roaming unnoticed in its deserts since the creation of the world; a hero-prophet was sent down to them with a word they could believe; see, the unnoticed becomes world-notable, the small has grown world-great; within one century afterwards, Arabia is at Grenada on this hand, at Delhi on that; glancing in valor and splendor and the light of genius, Arabia shines through long ages over a great section of the world. Belief is great, life-giving. The history of a nation becomes fruitful, soul-elevating, great, so soon as it belives. These Arabs, the man Mohammed, and that one century—is it not as if a spark had fallen, one spark, on a world of what seemed black unnoticeable sand; but lo, the sand proves explosive powder, blazes heaven high from Delhi to Grenada! I said, the great man was always as lightning out of heaven; the rest of men waited for him like fuel, and then they too would flame.—*Carlyle.*

The Koran.—It was during these wild warfarings and strugglings, especially after the flight to Mecca, that Mohammed dictated at intervals his sacred book, which they name "Koran," or "Reading," "thing to be read." This is the work he and his disciples made so much of, asking all the world, Is not that a miracle? The Mohammedans regard their Koran with a reverence which few Christians pay even to their Bible. It is admitted everywhere as the standard of all law and all practice; the thing to be gone upon in speculation and life; the message sent direct out of heaven, which this earth has to conform to, and walk by; the thing to be read. Their judges decide by it; all Moslems are bound to study it, seek in it for the light of their life. They have mosques where it is all read daily; thirty relays of priests take it up in succession, get through the whole each day. There, for twelve hundred years, has the voice of this book, at all moments, kept sounding through the ears and the hearts of so many men. We hear of Mohammedan doctors that had read it seventy thousand times.—*Carlyle.*

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14. THE SPREAD OF ISLAMISM.

The spread of Islamism dates from the death of its founder in 632 A. D. During the next century the new religion rose into a sudden and threatening prominence. Its spread was due to the fiery zeal of its early devotees, to the military methods employed to make converts, and to the weakened condition of the entire European world. The Saracens spread over Asia Minor and threatened the integrity of the Eastern Empire. They swept westward along the northern shore of Africa, and entered Europe again at the Straits of Gibraltar. The tenets of the new faith were such as to enlist the ignorant and carnal inhabitants of the east and south in its behalf. The less desirable parts of the Mohammedan teaching were emphasized and absolute intolerance to any other faith was constantly exhibited. For a time both the eastern and western churches stood in danger. The east owed its rescue largely to good fortune. The west was saved by the Franks.

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14. THE SPREAD OF ISLAMISM.

The System of Mohammed may be defined, first of all, as an effort to rescue the Arabs from idolatry. But in a larger and more philosophic sense it was an effort on the part of the Prophet to furnish a common ground and basis of union between the Christians and the Jews, by which all the descendants of Abraham might be gathered into a single religious household. The scheme was worthy of a great and capacious genius. It showed that Mohammed realized the condition of the religious world.—*Ridpath.*

Mohammed's Morals.—We will not praise Mohammed's moral precepts as always of the superfinest sort; yet it can be said that there is always a tendency to good in them; that they are the true dictates of a heart aiming towards what is just and true. The sublime forgiveness of Christianity, turning of the other cheek when the one has been smitten, is not here; you are to revenge yourself, but it is to be in measure, not over-much, or beyond justice. On the other hand, Islam, like any great faith, and insight into the essence of man, is a perfect equalizer of men; the soul of one believer outweighs all earthly kingships; all men, according to Islam, too, are equal. Mohammed insists not on the propriety of giving alms, but on the necessity of it; he marks down by law how much you are to give; and it is at your peril if you neglect. The tenth part of a man's annual income, whatever that may be, is the property of the poor, of those that are afflicted and need help. Good, all this; the natural voice of humanity, of pity and equity dwelling in the heart of this wild son of nature speaks so.—*Carlyle.*

Mohammed's Paradise is sensual, his hell sensual: true; in the one and the other there is enough that shocks all spiritual feeling in us. But we are to recollect that the Arabs already had it so: that Mohammed, in whatever he changed of it, softened and diminished all this. The worst sensualities, too, are the work of doctors, followers of his, not his work. In the Koran there is really very little said about the joys of paradise; they are intimated rather than insisted on. Nor is it forgotten that the highest joys even there shall be spiritual; the pure presence of the highest, this shall infinitely transcend all other joys.—*Carlyle.*

Islamism, Judaism and Christianity Compared.—It may be of interest, before proceeding to notice the political development of Mohammedanism, to review briefly the points of concord and dissonance between the three religious systems here referred to. In many of their fundamentals they were all at one. All had a common historical basis. That there is one God, Father Omnipotent and Maker of heaven and earth, Judaism, Islam and Christianity all emphatically affirm. Secondly, that the Dvine authority in the world is to be upheld by a government—a kingdom—and that this kingdom is to be perpetually ruled by a Messiah, Judaism and Christianity affirm; Islam denies. Thirdly, that Moses was an inspired law giver and prophet, Judaism, Islam, and Christianity all affirm. Fourthly, that Christ was an inspired Teacher and Prophet, Islam and Christianity affirm; Judaism denies. Fifthly, that Christ is the Messiah and Saviour of the world, Christianity affirms; Judaism and Islam strenuously deny. Sixthly, that Mohammed was an inspired teacher and prophet, Islam vehemently affirms; Judaism does not affirm; Christianity denies. Seventhly, that the Scriptures of the Old Testament contain the inspired and authoritative doctrines of God, Judaism, Islam, and Christianity affirm. Eighthly, that the Scriptures of the New Testament are the words of Divine truth, Christianity affirms; Islam affirms in part; and Judaism denies. Ninthly, that the Book Al Koran is the revealed truth of God, Islam strongly affirms; Judaism denies in part, and Christianity denies in whole. Tenthly, that the world is ruled by eternal Fate, Islam affirms; Judaism does not affirm, and Christianity denies. Eleventhly, that man is a free or, at any rate, responsible agent, Christianity affirms; Judaism does not deny, and Islam denies. Twelfthly, that man is rewarded for those actions which are called virtuous and punished for those which are called vicious, Christianity, Judaism, and Islam all affirm. Thirteenthly, that there is a resurrection of the body after death, Christianity and Islam affirm; Judaism neither affirms nor denies. Fourteenthly, that it is the highest duty of man in this life to serve God in faith and obedience, Christianity, Judaism and Islam all affirm. Fifteenthly, that God is Triune, Christianity affirms; Judaism and Islam deny. Sixteenthly, that God made the universe out of nothing, Christianity, Judaism and Islam all affirm. Seventeenthly, that there is appointed a Day of Judgment in which God will judge all men according to their works, Christianity and Islam affirm; Judaism either does not affirm or denies.—*Ridpath.*

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15. THE FINAL STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE CRESCENT AND THE CROSS.

By the end of the third decade of the eighth century Islamism had practically conquered two continents, Asia and Africa. It was sweeping up into Europe through the Spanish peninsula. The military ability and the fanatical zeal of Saracen Califs had given the Crescent marvelous success. Europe and the Christian church remained to be subdued. But this was never done. Charles Martel, the grandfather of the famous Charles the Great, met the Saracens at Tours, in France, in 732 A.D. and completely overthrew them. This is one of the decisive battles of history and was followed by momentous consequences to Europe and the world. The Saracens were driven back into Spain. Here they maintained a foothold for many centuries and were not finally dislodged till after the conquest of the Moorish system of Granada in 1492 A. D. The battle of Tours saved Western Europe and the Christian church. From this time Islamism was checked; its brilliant career of conquest was over, but it has continued the dominating religion of Africa and Asia.

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15. THE FINAL STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE CRESCENT AND THE CROSS.

Mohammed's Death.—As he felt his danger increasing and his end approaching, he recommended himself to the prayers of his faithful followers, and asked forgiveness of all whom he might have offended. Said he: "If there be any man among you whom I have struck unjustly, I submit myself to be scourged in return. If I have injured any man's reputation, let him proclaim my faults. If I have taken any one's property, or owe money to anyone, let him demand justice that I may satisfy him." A voice in the multitude responded: "Yes, you owe me three drachms of silver." The dying Apostle paid the debt, and thanked his creditor for demanding it in this world, rather than accusing him at the Judgment Day. He then freed his slaves, ordered the affairs of his burial, calmed the lamentations of his friends, and pronounced a benediction upon them. Until his final hour he continued acting the character of God's Apostle, evincing the same remarkable fortitude and presence of mind that he had exhibited on the battlefield.—*Clare.*

Civilization of Islam.—From the Hellenism now pervading the east, the Arabs derived a new intellectual life and zeal, by which they considerably aided to advance the world's civilization. In the early middle age Spain, not Constantinople, was the main medium of classical light to central Europe. Literature, philosophy, arts, sciences flourished in all Mussulman capitals before Christian Europe emerged from barbarism. So did architecture, music and arabesque work, but neither sculpture nor painting. 1. We seem to be indebted to Mohammedan poets for several forms of verse if not for rhyme. However, in literature at large, Islam's scholars, so patient and curious, did little more than copy, comment and transmit. Study did not set them free. The peoples who obeyed the prophet were apparently incapable of attaining culture, literary or other, in its finest forms. Greek was as good as unknown even to their learned; oratory and belles-lettres they neglected, their history was wholly uncritical. 2 Of philosophers, the Arabians cultivated Aristotle alone, and only through Arabic translations of Syriac ones. . . . It was in Arabic-Latin versions that Aristotle, Theophrastus and the other great Greeks, whom they knew, were first introduced to Christian savants. 3. The Arabian thinkers were especially creative in science, and in astronomy, geography, medicine and surgery they led the world. The observatory of Samarcand long antedated the earliest in Europe. Arabian astronomers calculated the length of the earth's great circle, the obliquity of the ecliptic, the precession of the equinoxes, and perfected algebra and the Arabic notation, knowledge of both of which they probably derived from Alexandria. 4. The Arabians, famous inventors, gave the world paper, which doubled the value of printing when that came, arabesque decoration, the source of so many modern forms of ornamentation, distillation, a large number of medicines, and many novelties in arms, agriculture and business.—*Andrews.*

Causes of Success.—A full explanation of the causes which contributed to the progress of Mohammedanism is not perhaps at present attainable by those most conversant with this department of literature. But we may point out several of leading importance: In the first place, those just and elevated notions of the Divine nature, and of moral duties, the gold ore that pervades the dross of the Koran, which were calculated to strike a serious and reflecting people, already perhaps disinclined, by intermixture with their Jewish and Christian fellow-citizens, to the superstitions of their ancient idolatry; next, the artful incorporation of tenets, usages and traditions from the various religions that existed in Arabia; and thirdly, the extensive application of the precepts in the Koran, a book confessedly written with more elegance and purity, to all legal transactions and all the business of life.—*Hallam.*

Causes.—For this gigantic revolution, history is at a loss fully to account. The main secret of it, beyond question, lay not in numbers, but in a certain wonderful inspiration which, at this particular juncture, transformed the Arabian people, due to (1) the truth in their religion, especially its central idea, Divine unity; (2) the enthusiasm and skill of leaders, notably Mohammed, Amrou, Chaled and Omar; (3) the new sense of national unity; (4) hope of rewards, both temporal and eternal; (5) fatalism. "Woe," preached Mohammed, "to the Mussulman, who hugs his hearth rather than go fight. Death he cannot shun, for the term of life is fixed. Fear the heat of combats? Hell is hotter! Flee? Paradise is before you, hell's flames behind."—*Andrews.*

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16. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

The Holy Roman Empire began in 800 A.D. and came to an end in 1806 A.D. One great military leader founded it; another overthrew it. During the ten centuries from Charles the Great to Napoleon Bonaparte the Holy Roman Empire maintained a nominal existence. It rested upon a triple foundation, Roman, barbarian, and Christian. On Christmas day, 800 A.D., Pope Leo III., the professed successor of St. Peter, and Charles the Great, the professed successor of the Roman Augustus, joined issues. The secular and the sacred met in one system, a union of church and state, which exercised a marked influence in the world for over 1,000 years. The world-state and the world-church, with the Emperor as the vice-gerent of God in the former and the Pope as the vice-gerent of God in the latter, marked the final revival in a modified form of the glory of ancient Rome. The glory faded, but the influence remained.

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16. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

The Church of Rome was by far the most important one for all the west. According to Eusebius, it had in the middle of the third century one bishop, forty-six presbyters, seven deacons with as many sub-deacons, forty-two acolytes, fifty readers, exorcists and door-keepers, and fifteen hundred widows and poor persons under its care. From this we might estimate the number of members at fifty or sixty thousand, i.e , about one twentieth of the population of the city, which can not be accurately determined indeed, but must have exceeded one million during the reign of the Cæsars.—*Schaff.*

As the Empire fell to pieces, and the new kingdom which the conquerors had founded themselves began to dissolve, the Church clung more closely to her unity of faith and discipline, the common bond of all Christian men. That unity must have a center; that center was Rome. A succession of able and zealous pontiffs extended her influence (the sanctity and the writings of Gregory the Great were famous through all the West); never occupied by barbarians, she retained her peculiar character and customs, and laid the foundations of a power over men's souls more durable than that which she had lost over their bodies.—*Bryce.*

Christianized from Rome.—Somewhere about the year 580, almost the time when the English conquest reached its first stage, one Gregory, a noble Roman, abbot of a monastery which he had himself founded, passing through the slave-market of Rome, was attracted by the fair faces and flaxen hair of some youths exposed for sale. "Who are these?" he asked of the slave-driver. "They come from Britain." "Are they Christians or pagans?" "Pagans" "Alas! that men so bright of face should be possessed of the author of darkness! of what tribe are they?" "Angles." "Well called, for they have the faces of angels, and should be co-heirs with the angels in heaven. But, from what province do they come?" "They are Deiri." "It is well; rescued from the wrath of God and made Christians" A few days afterwards he set out with some of his monks on a missionary journey to the people of whom he had thus heard. . . . He chose from among the monks of his old monastery a certain Augustine, and sent him with some companions to do the work from which he had been hindered himself.—*Church.*

During the Ten Centuries.—From the eleventh to the sixteenth century, the papal power was at its height. During that period the power of the Pope was so great that the most powerful monarch of Europe could be subjected to the greatest humiliation by his holiness. The most powerful, the most illustrious, and the ablest of the Popes, and the one who raised the papacy above every other power in Christendom, was Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), who compelled Henry IV., king of Germany, to come to Italy and stand three days and three nights barefooted and bareheaded, without tasting a mouthful of food.—*Glare.*

Augustine did his best to make the scene impressive. He came up from the shore in solemn procession. A cross-bearer carried in front a large cross of silver. Next came another attendant bearing a picture of Christ, richly worked on a panel with gold and colors. Behind came the rest of the company chanting a litany in which they besought the mercy of God on the people of Kent and themselves. The king knew no Latin; the missionaries could not speak English. But some priests who had come with Augustine from Gaul interpreted his words when he explained what the Christ whose picture they saw had come to do. Ethelbert answered that the promises of the strangers sounded well. He could not undertake to leave the faith and customs of his fathers, but his people might do as they thought best. He invited the missionaries to come back with him to his capital town of Canterbury. There they were permitted to worship in the church of St. Martin. Their success was rapid.—*Church.*

Charles the Great.—Thus the early Carlovingians, and especially Charlemagne, were the most useful allies to the papacy—1st, in ensuring to the Pope a power over the Italian church, which they had not hitherto possessed; 2d, in giving them a very active influence in the affairs of the Gallo-Frankish church; 3d, in recognizing in these, by language and all demonstrations which strike the imagination of nations, a majesty and supremacy which had not yet been admitted by princes; 4th, and finally, in increasing, whether by wealth or by its indirect consequences, their temporal power. Nevertheless, you must not believe that, in their relations with the papacy, they had abdicated their empire. As you have seen that Charlemagne favored the influence of the clergy within the Gallo-Frankish church, and yet subjected them to his own power, so he ruled the Popes even while he prepared for them the means of ruling his successors. In the first place, their election was **not** complete until it had received the approbation of the emperor.—*Guizot.*

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17. DECLINE OF THE CARLOVINGIAN EMPIRE UNDER LOUIS THE PIOUS.

In 814 A.D. Charles died. Like most great men in history he failed to leave a son able to carry on his father's work. The son and successor of Charles is known as Louis the Pious, or more properly as Louis the Weak. He in turn was disappointed in his sons. The latter combined against their father and against one another. The power of the imperial name declined, while the papal power slowly grew. In 817 A.D. Louis had settled the order of succession among his sons. In 829 A.D. he changed this order to make way for a son by a second wife, Judith. The resentment of the older sons led them to make war upon Louis, whom they captured and imprisoned but afterwards released. Louis at his death in 840 A.D. had failed to control his empire and left it a prey to discord and strife. This marks the beginning of its decline and disintegration.

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17. DECLINE OF THE CARLOVINGIAN EMPIRE UNDER LOUIS THE PIOUS.

Louis the Pious.—On the death of Charles the Great, the eyes of all turned hopefully to his only surviving son, the gentle Hlodowig, Louis the Pious. His father had summoned him to Aix-la-Chapelle, had made him emperor, and then had sent him again to Aquitaine till his time should come. In him all sweet qualities of piety, morality, culture, seemed to find their home. His Aquitanian rule had brought with it untold blessings to the south; he, too, had learnt their best lore, had become acquainted with their art, their poetry, above all with the Roman law; he was a man of thirty-five when he became emperor, vigorous, pure-souled, intelligent. Men thought that his father had done the rough-hewing of his great work, and that the new emperor would be the organizing Augustus following the creative Cæsar. His soul was full of high and conscientious aims; he would make reforms which should regenerate without weakening society; he would restore the clergy to high authority, would give full powers to the great lords, would save free Franks from slavery, and thus secure harmony and peace throughout his vast dominions. How different was the actual result! This noble prince, so dignified, earnest, right-minded, of "sound mind in sound body," gentle and simple, had all the dangerous virtues which grow to be calamities in rough times; his monkish tastes, his Christian forbearance, his want of an unscrupulous will, all pointed towards failure. Even within his house he was not master; and in the broad wild territories of the empire he was destined to a like failure. On the death of his first wife, Hermingond, who had borne him three sons, he married Judith, daughter of Welf the Bavarian, a dangerous and ambitious lady. Her son Charles, afterwards styled "the Bald," brought the emperor many troubles, for the natural jealousies sprang up between the children of the first bed and the second wife and her son. Struggle followed struggle, partition led to partition; there is no drearier piece of history than Nithard's short chronicle of those years. The unlucky Hlodowig was buffeted about, now desposed, then restored again; now bowing his head before the clergy of Roman France, now recalled to rule, as it seemed, by the unanimous voice of his sons and his subjects. The main result was the separation, which then began, of France from Germany.—*Kitchin.*

Louis Re-crowned.—Louis made every preparation to receive him in state at Rheims, and in less than two months after his election Stephen was on his way. Evidently nothing was more important to him than his relations with the Franks. The few days of his stay at Rheims were filled by almost uninterrupted negotiations, of which we have only meagre accounts, though it is clear that they were mainly concerned with the maintenance of papal rights in Italy through the Frankish alliance. The most important event of the week was the solemn re-coronation of Louis by the pope with a crown, which one writer assures us was the same which had once belonged to Constantine. The ancient church of St. Mary, where the ceremony was performed, was that in which the baptism of Clovis was said to have taken place. The full meaning of the act was that the successor of Clovis was also to become the successor of Constantine. Our interest in it is with the question whether the imperial rights were in any way changed by it. Louis had signed himself emperor ever since his father's death, and would unquestionably have continued to do so if he had never received the papal sanction; but at the same time he opened the way for an arrangement in favor of the papal right by permitting himself to be re-crowned—an argument which the papal party did not fail promptly to make use of.—*Emerton.*

The Invasion of the Northmen.—During the whole of this period of strife and anarchy France suffered fearfully from the incessant invasions and depredations of the fierce Scandinavian freebooters called Northmen, and in later times Normans. This coming danger had been distinctly foreseen by the sagacity of Charlemagne; but during his vigorous rule the coasts of the empire remained secure from foreign aggression. His degenerate descendants left the seaboard without defense; and in 841 the Norman vikings entered the mouth of the Seine with a flotilla of 120 galleys, and, sailing up to Rouen, pillaged and burnt that city. Every year their devastations were repeated, until 845, under a famous chieftain named Regnor Lodbrog, they penetrated into the very heart of the kingdom, and appeared before the walls of Paris. Such was the helplessness of Charles, that the capital was abandoned without resistance to these ruthless invaders; they rifled the rich abbeys of Ste. Genevieve and St. Germain des Pres; and having amassed an enormous booty, were at length persuaded to make terms with Charles, who purchased their retirement at the price of 7,000 pounds of silver.—*Jervis.*

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18. THE FOUNDING OF FRANCE.

On the death of Louis the Pious, in 840 A.D., his three sons flew to arms again. This was the first dynastic quarrel of modern Europe. It culminated in the battle of Fontenay in 841 A.D. in which Charles the Bald and Louis the German defeated their older brother Lothaire, who had succeeded his father as emperor. The result of this battle was summed up in the treaty of Verdun, 843 A.D. By this treaty Lothaire was confirmed as emperor. He also received Italy and a long narrow strip on the west of the Rhine from Italy to the North Sea. Louis the German received the territory between the Rhine and the Elba. Charles the Bald received the region west of the narrow strip belonging to Lothaire. This was the beginning of modern France. Charles and his successors held this Frankish throne in the west till 987 A.D. In this year Hugh Capet was chosen to succeed the last Carlovingian. Hugh Capet founded the Capetian line whose last representative left the French throne in 1848.



Louis the Pious.

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18. THE FOUNDING OF FRANCE.

The Beginnings of France.—Among the new kingdoms, that of the Franks, many-wise least promising at first, was alone destined to permanence. Its superior strength lay in the facts (1) that it was not a transplanted kingdom, (2) that it was Catholic. The omnipotent clergy prepared and aided all its conquests.—*Andrews.*

Their Christianity.—It would be hard to find in the life of the Frankish people, as told in the history of their bishop, Gregory of Tours, a contemporary of the Roman Gregory, evidence that Christianity had done much to soften the manners or to touch the hearts of the nation at large. It is clear that this is worse than barbaric society; it is a society of barbarians suffering the first inevitable evils of contact with civilization, the meaning of which they could not understand, and which offered them peculiar temptations. The history of the Merovingian Franks is one of the darkest chapters in the records of Europe. Its interest for us here is that through it all we see the gradual gain of the only agency by which the forces of civilization could be brought to triumph over the forces of barbarism, namely, the Christian Church. —*Emerton.*

Fontenay.—No sooner had Lothaire ascended the imperial throne than he prepared to deprive his brothers Louis and Charles of their dominions; but they took the field against their ambitious eldest brother, and defeated him in a sanguinary battle of three days at Fontenay, in Burgundy, in the year A D. 841, on which occasion so many of the Frankish nobles and soldiers were slain that no successful resistance could be made to the ravages of the Norman freebooters.—*Clare.*

Treaty of Verdun.—For the purpose of obtaining the aid of the Saxons, Lothaire had promised to suspend Charlemagne's laws, which compelled them to observe the ordinances of Christianity. This gave his brothers a pretext to attempt to procure his dethronement. A large assembly of bishops was convened at Aix-la-Chapelle, and the two victorious princes preferred their complaint before this body. The bishops examined the charge, and then declared that Lothaire had forfeited his right to the imperial dignity, which they conferred on his triumphant brothers. But Lothaire was still sufficiently formidable to defy the decree of the bishops, and forced his brothers to consent to a new partition. Thus was concluded the Partition Treaty of Verdun, in A.D. 843, by which the sons of Louis divided among themselves the great Frankish empire which their illustrious grandfather, Charlemagne, had built up. Lothaire took Italy, Burgundy and Lorraine; the name of the last-named province being a corruption of Lotharingia, or land of Lothaire. Louis obtained Germany, and is therefore called the German. Charles, surnamed the Bald, received France. The treaty of Verdun (A.D. 843) is one of the most important events in the history of Europe, as it marks the beginning of France and Germany as separate nations.—*Clare.*

Hugh Capet, 987-996.—Hugh Capet was the representative of the new nationality of France, as opposed to the old Teutonic element and the foreign dominion of the Carlovingians. The great feudatories had determined to place the crown upon the head of one of their own order; and they naturally gave the preference to the possessor of the most extensive, important, and central fief of the kingdom, especially as three members of his family had already been raised successively to the royal dignity, and in each instance had proved themselves worthy of the public confidence and gratitude. Thus the throne, to use the words of Montesquieu, was by the accession of the Capetians "annexed to a great fief." The king was simply the head of a confederate aristocracy—the premier baron of France.—*Jervis.*

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The Growth of Law.—It may be interesting in this connection to add a few paragraphs respecting the growth of law, and, in general, of the social usages which prevailed among the barbarian peoples, especially among the Franks, in the times of the Merovingians kings. Before the elevation of the house of Meroveus, namely, in the beginning of the fifth century, the Franks appointed four of their sagest chieftains to reduce to writing the usages of the nation. Their work resulted in the production of a code known as the Salic Laws. These statutes were reported to three successive assemblies of the people, and were duly approved. When Clovis became a Christian, he found it necessary to modify several of the laws which touched upon questions of religion. His successors in the kingdom further revised the Salic code, until in the course of a century from the time of Clovis the statutes were reduced to their ultimate form. About the same time the laws of the Ripuarian Franks were codified and promulgated; and these two bodies of law were made the basis of the legislation of Charlemagne. It will be remembered that when the Alemanni were conquered by the Franks they were permitted to retain their own local institutions. The same was true in the case of the conquest of the Bavarians. The Merovingian kings took care that the laws of the two peoples last mentioned should also be compiled as a part of the local statutes of the kingdom. In the case of the Visigoths and the Burgundians, written legislation had already preceded the Frankish conquest. Among the former people King Euric himself was the tribal legislator, by whom the immemorial usages of his nation were reduced to statutory form.—*Ridpath.*

Paris.—It was Charles the Bald who also allowed the county of Paris to become a part of the duchy of France, so that the dukes of France were also counts of France; from this arrangement sprang eventually the decision of the momentous question as to what city should become the capital of modern France.—*Kitchin.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **THE RISE OF MOHAMMEDANISM.**—The rise of Islamism, Mecca, Hegira; the Arabs, Koran.

14. **THE SPREAD OF ISLAMISM.**—Islamism, His Doctrine, Tenets, Christianity, Judaism, and Islamism compared.

15. **THE FINAL STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE CRESCENT AND THE CROSS.**—The Battle of Tours, Causes of the Success of Islamism, Civilization of Islam, Mohammed's Death and Last Words.

16. **THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.**—Influence of Charles the Great, *Influence of Rome.*

17. **DECLINE OF THE CARLOVINGIAN EMPIRE UNDER LOUIS THE PIOUS.**—Louis the Pious, His Wife Judith, Deplorable Condition of Western Europe.

18. **THE FOUNDING OF FRANCE.**—Beginning of France, Fontenay, Verdun, Charles the Bald, Hugh Capet.

QUESTIONS.

13. *Give a sketch of the history of the rise of Islamism? Where is Mecca located? Give the use of the term Hegira? Who were the Arabs? What can you say of their mode of life? Civilization? Religion? What does Carlyle say of the Koran?*

14. *What can you say of the spread of Islamism? The doctrine and tenets? Later Mohammedan teaching? Mohammed's personal life? What were the strong features of Islamism? The weak features? Give Ridpath's comparison of Christianity, Judaism, and Islamism?*

15. *What was the general condition of the Crescent at this time? What had given this success? What yet remained to be subdued? What people rescued the East? Under whose leadership? Where was the battle fought? What were the consequences of this battle? In what country does Islamism still remain the dominating religion?*

16. *When was the Holy Roman Empire established? What was its foundation? What influence was exerted by Rome? Why? What resulted from the issue between Leo III. and Charles the Great? To what extent did this union of church and state influence the times?*

17. *What caused the decline of the Carlovingian Empire? How did this decline influence the growth of the papal power? What marked the "glory of the Carlovingian dynasty"? What was now the condition of Western Europe?*

18. *What led to the treaty of Verdun? What issues were settled by this treaty? Upon what basis was the division made? What people invaded France at this time? What can you say of the Capetian line?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

13. *What reasons do you give for the spread of Islamism?*

14. *What do you consider the commendable features of the doctrine of Mohammed? Do you consider Carlyle's estimate of Mohammed correct?*

15. *Study some of the peculiar doctrines of the Koran considered in the light of this period.*

16. *Compare the history of the Turks with that of the Teutons. In what ways are they similar? In what respects are they different?*

17. *Why does the Holy Roman Empire practically include only Germany and Italy? Give reasons for your answer.*

18. *Carefully study the events which led up to the founding of France as a distinct nation. How do you account for the formation of their peculiar language? Religion? Civilization? What nationalities enter into the make-up of the nation?*

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19. THE FOUNDING OF GERMANY.

Louis the German received the eastern district at the treaty of Verdun in 843 A.D. From this time he and his successors were rulers in Germany till 911 A.D., when Louis the Child, the last German Carlovingian, passed away. Germany at first was more fully united than France, but soon began to disintegrate while France recovered from the dynastic wars and began to consolidate. From 843 A.D. to 1000 A.D. Germany became split up into a number of large districts, each under the control of an independent duke. The Franconians, Saxons, Bavarians and Suabians fought one another and intensified the centrifugal forces already at work. While France finally became completely unified at the close of the fifteenth century, Germany continued to be a mosaic of petty and mutually jealous states until 1866 and 1870, when the unification of Germany finally took place.

19. THE FOUNDING OF GERMANY.

Louis the Child.—The Hungarian army consisted of huge masses of cavalry, and was victorious in almost every battle with the Germans, whose army consisted mainly of infantry. As Germany was an open country without fortresses or towns in which the people could find refuge, many of them were massacred, and many more were carried into captivity by the Hungarians. Louis the Child was unable to resist these barbarians, who ravaged Germany so terribly that they reduced the country almost to a desert. The Carlovingian dynasty in Germany ended with the death of Louis the Child in A.D. 911.—*Editor.*

Louis the German.—The dominion of Louis the German, who was called King of the East Franks, embraced all of the German territories east of the Rhine. The principal State of Germany was Francia, or Franconia, which comprised the valleys of the Main, the Neckar and the Lahn; Saxony and Thuringia lying to the north of it, and Suabia and Bavaria, embracing the territory of the ancient Alemania, to the southeast.—*Clare.*

The Primitive Germans.—History first hears of the Germans about 320 B C. Their contact with Rome begins 113 B.C , the date of their victory over the consul Cn. Carbo at Noreia. It continues through the periods (1) of Roman superiority, to the defeat of Varus, 9 A.D,; (2) of equilibrium, to the death of Aurelius, 180; (3) of German superiority, to 375; (4) of the founding of German kingdoms in the empire, to 568. Even after Marius crushes the Cimbri, 101 B.C., are hordes of Germans on Roman soil, at length forming an important element in the population (*a*) as slaves, (*b*) as coloni, (*c*) as legionary soldiers, (*d*), as laeti, (*e*) as auxiliaries, (*f*) as hostages, (*g*) as individual adventurers. Many of the last obtained high Roman offices, civil and military. Till the fourth century Germans settled in the empire as Romans: thenceforward most retained a pronounced German feeling. From 375, which is therefore an epoch, the invaders brought ideas of German preponderance and conquest. The springs to German emigration were mainly tribal feuds, over-population combined with indolence and ignorance of agriculture, and pressure from non-Germanic peoples.—*Andrews.*

Their Culture.—As pictured by Tacitus the Germans were taking the first steps in civilization. Their susceptibility therefor was great, progress rapid. At the time of the migration the Goths especially had considerable culture, though as yet no writing. Significant that among the northern nations Germans alone founded kingdoms in the empire. German social, judicial, economic and administrative arrangements are each noteworthy, also their personal bravery and dislike for city life. The German trait most weighty for history as well as most anti-Roman was individualism, seen: 1. In private relations.—If females and slaves were chattels, the free man was, in his person and domicile, almost above law. Yet family and clan were important 2. Politically.—There was never a pan-Germanic nation or even federation, and loyalty to government was scarcely conceived. Nations divided, clans and individuals seceded, on the slightest provocation. Nothing was commoner than joining a foe to fight one s own nation and kin.—*Andrews.*

Germany in 911.—Thus we see Germany at the death of Ludwig the Child divided into four nearly independent states, each one with some rallying point for its own action, and impatient of royal control. Lorraine, which might be counted as a fifth, was at this moment in the hands of the French Carlovingian, Charles the Simple, handed over to him by a faction of its nobility at the death of Zwentibold. It seemed as if a moment had come when men would follow the example of their fathers and invite the only remaining "legitimate" sovereign of Charlemagne's blood, the French Charles, to reunite the Frankish Empire. That they did not do this is the best proof that Germany was beginning to be conscious of itself and to feel the instinct of Nationality in politics as well as in blood.—*Emerton.*

Their Religion.—The Germans were deeply religious, yet, for pagans, little superstitious. Their priesthood was too weak to tyrannize their investment of natural forces with divinity poetic rather than theological. The Supreme Power, conceived by other Arian heathen as light, sky or sun, they worshiped as the god, a moral being, "Gott," "God," this word existing without any article in all the primitive dialects. Owing in part to their lofty and ethical notion of the Godhead, the Christian faith found here readier acceptance than among any heathen elsewhere. Other reasons concurred. Worship was held in groves instead of temples, originally and to the last, mainly without idols.—*Andrews.*

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ENGLAND
(Saxon Period)
5 West 4 3 Longitude 2 from 1 Greenwich 0 1 East
SCALE OF MILES.
0 5 10 20 30 40 50
Firth of Forth
Alcluyd (Dunbarton)
WALL OF ANTONINUS
Graham's Dyke
Clyde
STRATHCLYDE
REGED
GALLOWAY
IRELAND
Solway Firth
Whithorn (Pwiterne)
Isle of Man (Manaw)
Edwinsburgh
Berwick (Beornicawic)
Lindisfarne (Holy Isl.)
Bamburgh
Ebbanburgh (Bamborough)
NORTHUMBERLAND
Alnwick
PICTS WALL
Tyne
Jarrow
Wearmouth (Egferth's Minster)
Hexham
Carlisle (Caerleol)
CUMBERLAND
Durham (Dunholme)
Wear
Tees
Whitby
St. Bees
WEST-MORELAND
DEIRA
DEIFYR
Scarborough
Flamborough Head
Lancaster
York
Eoforwic
Stamford Bridge
Fulford
Gowmundham
Winwidfield
Hatfield
LANCASTER
Mersey
Dee
Manchester
Humber
Trent
Lindsey
Gainsborough
LINCOLN
Lincoln
Bardney
Burgh
Boston
Anglesey
Runcorn
Chester (Legaceaster)
Aberfraw
Rhuddlan
Bangor
Snowdon
CHESHIRE
NORTH
WALES
Derby
Nottingham
Osvestry
Maserfield
STAFFORD
Stafford
Repton
Lichfield
Stamford
Shrewsbury (Pengers)
Tettenhall
Tamworth
LEICESTER
Leicester
Mothrafal
Buttington
SHROPSHIRE
Cherbury
Bridgenorth
Watling
Crowland
NORFOLK
Norwich
EAST ANGLES
Ramsey Mere
Thetford
EAST ANGLIA
MERCIA
Coventry
Huntingdon
Warwick
Northampton
Cambridge
Bury St. Edmunds
SUFFOLK
Ipswich
Bedford
Aslingdon
Dunwich
Cardigan
Worcester
Bevern Isl.
Severn
Hereford
Avon
SOUTH WALES
Brecknock
HEREFORD
GLOUCESTER
Tewkesbury
Aney Isl.
Gloucester (Gleowecester)
Burford
Merton
Oxford
Cirencester (Cyrencester)
Colchester
Hertford
Malden
ESSEX
EAST SEAXE
Stanbridge
Waltham Ab.
Beaulieu
Thames
LONDON
Lundenwic
Crayford
Rochester
Milton
Isl. of Sheppey
Medway
Isle of Thanet
Eoblefleet
Sandwich
Deal
Dover
Romney
Canterbury
KENT
CANTWARA
Appledore
Monmouth
Caerleon
Caerwent
Cherbow
Farringdon
Wallingford
Malmesbury
Chippenham
Ashdown
Æscledune
Reading
Windsor
Kingston
Guildford
SURREY
Ockley
Lyelesford
Bristol
Bath (Bathanceaster)
Wodnesberg
Basing
Wedmor
Mt. Badon
Selwood
Glastonbury
Wherwell
Farnham
Andreade Forest
SUSSEX
SUTH SEAXE
Senlac Hill
Battle
Hastings
Bulverhythe
Pevensey (Anderedes Ceaster)
Winchester (Wintancester)
Salisbury
Stonar
Chichester (Cissaceaster)
Steyning
Selsea Isl.
Cymen's Ora
Portsmouth
Isl. of Wight (Wight Isl.)
Cerdicshore
Cerdic's Ora
Cerdic's Ford
Southampton
Wimburn
Wareham
Dorchester
Corfe Castle
Frome
Egbertstone
Ellandune
Pen
Wilton
Shaftesbury
Sherborne
Athelney Isl.
Exeter
Teignmouth
Tintagel Castle
Padstow
Hingston Hill
Wembury
St. Germans
St. Michael's Mt.
Kinwith
Charmouth
Exe
Parret
Tone
Somerton
SOMERSET
Forest
STONEHENGE
WILTSE
SUDSEAXE
DEVONSHIRE
DORSET
WEST SEAXE
DAVNANT PEVONEL
CERNAUW
CORNWALL
Lyme
Axe
Tamar
Ouse
Lumme
St. Valery
NORMANDY (FRANCE)
NORMA
ERITH
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MAP OF
EUROPE
A. D. 800
By I. S. Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 200 300 400
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
BAY OF BISCAY
FAROE ISLES
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
HEBRIDES ISLES
Corsica
Sardinia
BALEARIC ISLES
Malta
SICILIA
Hellgoland
Rugen
Oelana
Gothland
Zealand
Bergen
Upsala
Aland Is.
Lago Oesel
Bremen
Deventer
Paderborn
Magdeburg
Erfurt
Fulda
Ingolstadt
Ratisbon
Augsburg
Constance
Salzburg
Villach
Buda
Verona
Venice
Ravenna
Ancona
Spoleto
Rome
Gaeta
Naples
Salerno
Messina
Reggio
Syracuse
Catania
Palermo
Trapani
Malaga
Algeciras
Gibraltar
Tangier
Ceuta
Tlemsen
Fez
Carthage
Tunis
Constantina
Kairwan
Tripolis
Barca
Alexandria
Jerusalem
Damascus
Antioch
Tarsus
Cyprus
Rhodes
Crete
Candia
Cydonia
Athens
Thessalonica
Durazzo
Ragusa
Spalatro
Zara
Jadera
Aquileia
Trieste
Pola
Fiume
Segna
Scodra
Dyrrachium
Epirus
Terentum
Tarentum
Brundusium
Otranto
Hydruntum
Cotrone
Locri
Rhegium
Syracuse
Agrigentum
Panormus
Lilybaeum
Cagliari
Bona
Hippo
Cirta
Utica
Carthage
Tripolis
Barca
Cyrene
Leptis Magna
Sabrata
Oea
Gadames
Ghadames
Fezzan
Augila
Siwah
Ammonium
Memphis
Cairo
Alexandria
Damietta
Pelusium
Heliopolis
Babylon
Bagdad
Ctesiphon
Seleucia
Nineveh
Mosul
Tigris River
Euphrates River
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
Mecca
Medina
Aden
Abyssinia
Nubia
Dongola
Meroe
Sennaar
Kordofan
Darfur
Bornu
Lake Tchad
Timbuctoo
Senegal River
Niger River
Gambia River
Sierra Leone
Cape Verde
Canary Islands
Madeira
Azores
Cape Bojador
Cape Nun
Cape Blanco
Cape Bon
Cape Spartivento
Cape Matapan
Cape Malea
Cape Colonna
Cape Passero
Cape Carbonara
Cape Spartel
Cape Trafalgar
Cape St. Vincent
Cape Finisterre
Cape Ortegal
Cape Clear
Cape Wrath
Cape Duncansby
Cape Lindesness
Cape Skagen
Cape Nord
Cape Stadt
Cape Lopphavet
Cape Nord
Cape Nord
Cape Nord



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CHARLEMAGNE CROSSING THE ALPS.

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20. THE FOUNDING OF ITALY.

Although Lothaire was the oldest of the three sons of Louis the Pious, and presumably the greatest, yet his descendants came to a more speedy and inglorious end. Italy faced three enemies, the papacy, the empire, and herself. Disintegration took place even more rapidly than in Germany and was attended with more disastrous results. Italy soon became "a geographical expression." It served as a battle field between the Pope and the Emperor, sometimes siding with the one, sometimes with the other, sometimes fighting both. Part of Italy belonged to the Pope, part to the Emperor, part to the Eastern Empire and part to the Northmen. Other parts were nominally independent. History affords no more complete example of disunion. Not until the dawn of this century did Napoleon finally awaken the national consciousness. In 1870 Italy was finally united.



William the Conqueror.

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20. THE FOUNDING OF ITALY.

State of Italy at 888.—At the death of Charles the Fat in 888, that part of Italy which acknowledged the supremacy of the western empire was divided, like France and Germany, among a few powerful vassals, hereditary governors of provinces. . . . Though princes of the Carlovingian line continued to reign in France, their character was too little distinguished to challenge the obedience of Italy, already separated by family partitions from the trans-Alpine nations, and the only contest was among her native chiefs.—*Hallam.*

Italy Overwhelmed.—The brothers, Lothaire and Buccelin, the dukes of the Alemanni, stood forth as the leaders of the Italian war, and seventy-five thousand Germans descended in the autumn from the Rhaetian Alps into the plain of Milan. . . . On the confines of Samnium, the two brothers divided their forces. With the right wing Buccelin assumed the spoil of Campania, Lucania and Bruttium; with the left, Lothaire accepted the plunder of Apulia and Calabria. They followed the coast of the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, as far as Rhegium and Otranto, and the extreme lands of Italy were the term of their destructive progress The Franks, who were Christians and Catholics, contented themselves with simple pillage and occasional murder. But the churches which their piety had spared, were stripped by the sacrilegious hands of the Alemanni, who sacrificed horses' heads to their native deities of the woods and rivers; they melted or profaned the consecrated vessels, and the ruins of shrines and altars were stained with the blood of the faithful. Buccelin was actuated by ambition, and Lothaire by avarice. The former aspired to restore the Gothic kingdom; the latter, after a promise to his brother of speedy succors, returned by the same road to deposite his treasure beyond the Alps. The strength of their armies was already wasted by the change of climate and contagion of disease, the Germans revelled in the vintage of Italy, and their own intemperance avenged, in some degree, the miseries of a defenceless people. —*Gibbon.*

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21. THE FOUNDING OF ENGLAND.

It is sometimes claimed that England is the most purely Teutonic state in Europe. The Jutes, Saxons and Angles, who began the successive invasions about 449 A.D., gradually settled down as victors in the lands wrested from the Celts. Soon the seven kingdoms of Essex, Sussex, East Anglia, Kent, Northumberland, Mercia and Wessex began to emerge from the chaos of conquest. Kent became Christianized from Rome and spread the new faith. Ireland Christianized Britain on the north and west. Kent strove for supremacy over the rest of the island and failed. Northumberland and Mercia next in turn attempted the task in which Kent had failed. They also failed. Finally Wessex under its King Egbert in 827 A.D., succeeded where the other three states had failed. The Saxon Heptarchy became united under the supremacy of Wessex and the rulers of Wessex maintained their supremacy until the Norman conquest in 1066 A.D.

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21. THE FOUNDING OF ENGLAND.

Wrested from the Celts.—And what, it may be asked, became of the inhabitants of the country that thus became English instead of being British? This is a question that has been variously answered; some writers holding that the Britons were exterminated; others, that large numbers of them were left. Possibly the right answer lies between the two, but nearer to the first than to the second. It is not too much to say that the language was absolutely changed, and that with the British language the laws and the religion of the conquered people disappeared. But it is only reasonable to suppose that the native race did not fare alike in all parts of the country. There is a large part of England in which, except in the names of some large natural features, such as rivers and hills, not a trace of the Celt remains. . . . But westward of this line the Celtic element becomes more and more evident. No one, for instance, who compares a Herefordshire peasant with his fellow in Sussex, can doubt that there is considerable difference of race between them, and that this difference comes from a mixture of Celtic blood. And when we come to the extreme west of the island (I leave Wales out of consideration), we find in Cornwall a Celtic language which has only ceased to be spoken within the memory of persons still living.—*Church.*

The Ancient Celts.—All ancient writers agree in representing the first inhabitants of Britain as a tribe of the Gauls or Celtae, who peopled that island from the neighboring continent. Their language was the same, their manners, their government, their superstition; varied only by those small differences, which time or a communication with the bordering nations must necessarily introduce. . . . The southeast parts, however, of Britain had already, before the age of Cæsar, made the first and most requisite step towards a civil settlement; and the Britons, by tillage and agriculture, had there increased to a great multitude. The other inhabitants of the island still maintained themselves by pasture. They were clothed with skins of beasts; they dwelt in huts, which they reared in the forests and marshes, with which the country was covered; they shifted easily their habitation, when actuated either by the hopes of plunder or fear of an enemy. The convenience of feeding their cattle was even a sufficient motive for removing their seats; and as they were ignorant of all the refinements of life, their wants and their possessions were equally scanty and limited.—*Hume.*

Mercia. — Another kingdom remains to be spoken of—Mercia, the settlement of the Angles in central England. No part of the history of the Conquest is more obscure. The name of Mercians signifies "Men of Marshes," and refers to their position as living on the boundaries of the British kingdom. It must, therefore, be somewhat late in date. That the tribes who had conquered eastern England, which was then, it must be remembered, largely occupied by marsh and fen, pushed their way to the westward, may be fairly conjectured. And it is also probable that advance parties from the west Saxons, after these had resumed their career of conquest, came northwards. Mercia, therefore, may be regarded as mainly an Anglian settlement, but with the admixture of a certain Saxon element. It has been pointed out that in history it appears as less united in feeling and action than any other of the English states. Its first king is said to have been Crida, whose death is assigned to the year 600.—*Church.*

Establishment of the Saxons in England.—Saxons belonged to those races of barbarians who overran the Roman Empire. As they invaded England by sea they could not deluge it with large armies like those that overran the Roman Empire—conquests smaller at each invasion in England than on the continent—hence the formation of one little kingdom after another until they reached the number of seven (Heptarchy). All these finally united under one monarch (Egbert). About the conclusion of the eighth century Scandinavia poured forth a race of pirates under the name of Danes, who, with their little sea kings, met with various fortune in England, till Canute the Dane was seated on the English throne. This invasion of Danes produced but little influence on the general history of England, because of the same character with the Saxons; they early embraced the Christian religion, adopted manners of the Saxons, and, besides, the people had soon an opportunity of returning to the ancient stock of kings. —*Dew.*

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22. REVIVAL OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE UNDER OTHO I.

From the death of Charles the Great in 814 A.D. till 962 A.D. the Holy Roman Empire had steadily declined. Disintegration and internecine warfare had done their worst and the dream of Charles had come completely to naught. Otho was the son of Henry I. the Fowler, first Saxon king of Germany. Otho succeeded Henry in 936 A.D. Otho was a revival of Charles the Great. First he subdued the turbulent nobles of his own realm. Next he defeated the Bohemians and Magyars who threatened his borders. Finally he became conqueror in Italy, where he married Adelaide. In 962 A.D. Otho was crowned Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. It seems as if the work of Charles the Great might be permanently restored. It certainly was revived. Otho died in 973 A.D. Although many of his successors were powerful men, the empire declined until in 1250 A.D. it was temporarily suspended for twenty-three years. This was known as the Great Interregnum, and from it the empire never fully recovered.

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22. REVIVAL OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE UNDER OTHO I.

Otho.—Powerfully as Karl the Great's reign has affected all political evolution since, the age immediately following his was one of deplorable reaction, of anarchy worse than that which he had succeeded in settling, a profound night, wherein, though present, the principles of order for a mo-



King Henry I.

ment realized by him eluded men's grasp and gaze. None of his successors were his peers, the earliest the least so. . . . Several German kings forego the imperial dignity, still a larger number disgrace it. Henry the Fowler having brought a good degree of order to the German kingdom, his greater son, Otho, 936-'73, not only completes this work, but crosses the Alps to claim and receive the Cæsar's crown, 962. In effect Otho created the empire anew as truly as Karl, though his act was far less decisive theoretically. Constitutionally considered his empire only continued Karl's, whose program Otho exactly pursued in all its main features: Conquest, enforcement of order, mastery and direction of the church. The papacy, grown weak and base, he dominated and purified. —*Andrews.*

Otho's Loud Alleluia.—In 978 Otho invaded France at the head of 60,000 soldiers, and, without encountering any serious resistance, encamped at length upon Montmartre. Here Otho announced to Hugh Capet, who defended Paris, that he would salute him with a louder Alleluia than he had ever yet heard, and accordingly caused the Te Deum to be intoned by the priests, the responses being sustained by the united voices of his whole army, to the dismay of the astounded Parisians, whose ears were well-nigh deafened by this martial chorus. The imperial army remained three days before Paris, and then retired without attacking the city. —*Jervis.*

Otho Crowned.—Through precedent coupled with the prestige and power of German kings, not otherwise, the Roman empire from the imperial coronation of Otho the Great, 962, became attached to, almost identical with, the German kingdom. The kings as such came to be styled kings of the Romans, the empire a German empire, the latter the more naturally as the empire remained longest efficient in Germany. That the emperor should be a German king was from this date thought constitutionally necessary, though several earlier emperors had lacked this character. The relation between empire and kingdom was never exactly determined, for many centuries scarcely considered. Imperial sovereignty and the king's feudal sovereignty, so different in nature, hence reacted upon and greatly modified each other, producing among others these weighty consequences: 1. The Roman law became law for the German land. 2. The empire remained elective. The rise of the electoral college is obscure. The earliest German kings were, we have seen, chosen in popular assembly. By degrees the number fell off, only the foremost imperial vassals at length remaining.—*Andrews.*

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23. HISTORY OF THE PAPACY 800-1000 A.D.

For many centuries after the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire in 800 A.D. a constant struggle went on between the Pope and the Emperor. It was not merely a struggle of arms, but a struggle of prestige and influence. The advantage lay increasingly with the Pope, although he was frequently inferior personally to the Emperor. The enormous power of the church as a spiritual force enabled the Pope to sway men's minds. The material wealth of the church was constantly growing. The church of western Europe was a unit under the successors of Leo III. The papal claims grew more pretentious. The way was being prepared for Gregory VII., Innocent III. and Boniface III. The temporary triumph of Otho the Great was more than counterbalanced by the defeat and death of Frederick II. in 1250 A.D. The year 1000 A.D. found the Emperor and the Pope more on a footing of equality than they ever were afterwards, with the possible exception of the times of Frederick Barbarossa and Charles V.

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23. HISTORY OF PAPACY 800-1000 A.D.

Rome's Special Advantage.—There is a primitive fact with regard to the development of papacy in Europe, which, I think, has never been taken sufficiently into account. Not only was Rome always the most important city in the west; not only did the recollection of its ancient grandeur tend to the good of the bishop, who, without as yet reigning, was already the chief of its people; but Rome also had a particular advantage in the west, that of never remaining in the hands of the Barbarians, Heruli, Goths, Vandals or others; they had many times taken and pillaged it -they never long retained possession of it. Alone among all the great western cities, and whether as united to the empire of the west, or as independent, it never passed under the German yoke; alone it remained Roman after the ruin of the Roman empire. It happened without premeditation, without labor, by the sole nature of its situation, that Rome found herself, morally at least, at the head of the ancient population disseminated throughout the new Western States. In this struggle, at first public, afterwards secret, but for a long period so active—this struggle of the conquered against the conquerors—the attention of the Gallo-Romans, of the Hispano-Romans, of all the cities desolated by their barbarous conquerors, naturally turned toward Rome, so long their sovereign and now the only living wreck of the ancient society, alone exempt from new masters, alone capable of still preserving the respected traditions of the people that they still governed. For this reason, Rome was a name dear to the whole mass of the population in the west, the center of recollections and ideas, the image of all which remained of the Roman world. It was under the influence of this fact that papacy took rise; it was, so to speak, its cradle; it placed it in its very origin at the head of nations; it rendered it a kind of national power for the race of the conquered.—*Guizot.*

Church and Empire.—The centuries next succeeding Karl the Great developed two radically antagonistic theories concerning the nature of the empire. The state church theory though already centuries old we find most formally set forth in Dante's De Monarchia. Dante seeks to prove that (1) rule over the world belongs of right to the Roman people and through them to the emperor; (2) such an empire is indispensable to the weal of human society; (3) the emperor's authority is directly from God, not from or through the pope. According to this conception, borrowed from the idea of the Church, as this had been from the original notion of Rome's rulership and office on earth, the empire was the one indispensable, responsible mediator of humanity's corporate interests, itself a revelation of the Divine Spirit, the Church being simply the empire's organ for the empire's own moral and spiritual work. It was conceived as incapable of cessation, as unbroken from Augustus and as thus anterior and superior to Christianity, which it had taken up into itself. Many great minds, especially after, in the twelfth century, the study of Roman law was renewed, passionately espoused this view, nowise staggering at the palpable failure of both emperors and empire to conform to the ideal. The papal or church-state theory, originating in Augustine's City of God, mightily furthered by the false Isidorian decretals and slowly working its way first to the consciousness of the Church, then into the formulæ of canon law, was in principle exactly the reverse of the above. It made the church supreme, God's sole institute and agent for working human welfare, the state only its functionary. It nowise set the state aside; so long as docile, exalted it rather. Yet in practice the empire could not but be degraded by its prevalence. Civil power was denounced as wordly, originating in sin, no more comparable with spiritual than body with soul —*Andrews*

The Spread of Christianity.—From Rome the church spread to all the cities of Italy. The first Roman provincial synod, of which we have information, numbered twelve bishops In the middle of the third century (255) Cornelius of Rome held a council of sixty bishops. The persecution of the year 177 shows the church already planted in the south of Gaul in the second century. Christianity came hither probably from the east; for the churches of Lyons and Vienne were intimately connected with those of Asia Minor, to which they sent a report of the persecution. . . . Gregory of Tours states, that in the middle of the third century seven missionaries were sent from Rome to Gaul. One of these, Dionysius, founded the first church of Paris, died a martyr at Montmartre, and became the patron saint of France . . . Spain probably became acquainted with Christianity likewise in the second century, though no clear traces of churches and bishops meet us there till the middle of the third. The council of Eliberis in 305 numbered nineteen bishops.—*Schaff.*

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24. THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

The Feudal System was a combination of Roman and Teutonic elements. The best modern scholars are as yet unable to agree upon the proportions in which these elements were combined. Feudal tendencies were manifest among the Romans before the invasions, and also among the Germans before they met the Romans, just as they were manifest in England before the Norman Conquest. The time of the Carlovingian supremacy marks the full inauguration of the Feudal System. The Feudal System and the Christian Church are the two dominant facts of mediæval European history. Feudalism had its good and bad sides, but it served its excellent purpose of carrying over to modern times elements of civilization which have contributed largely to the foundation structure of our modern State system.

24. THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

The Feudal System Defined.—About the close of the ninth century the still half-barbaric society of western Europe began to be transformed into a new condition. The movement was apparently retrograde. The unity which had been attained in several states and kingdoms began to be broken up, and the people seemed to prefer a return to tribal independence. General government, in a measure, disappeared, and was replaced by local institutions. Gradually this process went on, now in France and Germany, and finally in England,



King Herold.

until the whole face of society was changed. By the close of the eleventh century the great governments which had been established by such rulers as Charlemagne and Alfred the Great were seen no longer. But in their stead had risen a multitude of dukedoms, counties and petty dependencies, dotting the whole face of the country, and bound together—if bound at all—by ties which had been voluntarily assumed and might generally be renounced at will. The state of society which thus supervened, and which prevailed throughout the greater part of Europe, from the epoch of the Carlovingians to the times of the Crusades, is known as the FEUDAL SYSTEM.—*Ridpath.*

A Property System.—The word Feudal, thus used to define the state of society which prevailed in Europe from the tenth to the twelfth century of our era, is derived from the low Latin foedum, and more remotely from the German word vieh, meaning cattle or more generally, goods, money or property. In other words, the thing defined was the property system, as contradistinguished from the political system which it supplanted. In its broadest sense, feudalism was a type of social organization based on the ownership of land. In the nature of the case the system implied several things: First, that the lands of the state should be concentrated in the hands of a few; secondly, that political rights should be made dependent on landed rights, and thirdly, that all public relations should be deduced from the private relations of those who held them.—*Ridpath.*

Conferring a Fief.—The ceremonies used in conferring a fief were principally three—homage, fealty, and investiture. 1. The first was designed as a significant expression of the submission and devotedness of the vassal towards his lord. In performing homage, his head was uncovered, his belt ungirt, his sword and spurs removed; he placed his hands, kneeling, between those of the lord, and promised to become his man from thenceforward, to serve him with life and limb and worldly honor, faithfully and loyally, in consideration of the lands which he held under him. None but the lord in person could accept homage, which was commonly concluded by a kiss. 2. An oath of fealty was indispensable in every fief, but the ceremony was less peculiar than that of homage, and it might be received by proxy. It was taken by ecclesiastics, but not by minors, and in language differed little from the form of homage. 3. Investiture, or the actual conveyance of feudal lands, was of two kinds, proper and improper. The first was an actual putting in possession upon the ground, either by the lord or his deputy, which is called, in our law, livery of seisin. The second was symbolical, and consisted in the delivery of a turf, a stone, a wand, a branch, or whatever else might have been made usual by the caprice of local custom. Du Cange enumerates not less than ninety-eight varieties of investitures. —*Hallam.*

Vassals, Fiefs, and Sub-Fiefs (see **Vassals,** Glossary).

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Crown-Lands.—The kings and barons owned large stone castles, to which they retired when attacked by an enemy. All the personal property of the conquered people was divided by lot among the conquerors, but the lands were regarded as the property of the king, not to retain, however, but to grant to his followers. The king kept a portion of the land for his own use. These were called crown-lands, and the king's power depended upon the extent of his private estates. The remainder of the lands was bestowed on his subordinate chiefs, the barons, to be held by them for life.—*Clare.*

Kings, Barons, and Serfs (see **Kings,** Glossary).

Origin of Hereditary Privileges.—These fiefs, which were at first granted only for life, at length became hereditary in the families of the great vassals of the crown, each of whose estates at his death passed into the possession of his eldest son. In the same manner, great offices and their titles, such as duke, marquis, count or baron, finally became hereditary also. In this way originated the exclusive privileges yet enjoyed by the nobility of Europe.—*Clare.*

Land, Offices and Money Included.—The great advantage of the feudal relation, and at the same time the source of the greatest confusions, was its flexibility. As this advantage came to be felt, it was used by ambitious princes to extend their control over all kinds of service, not merely over that connected with land. For example, in order to provide for the suitable maintenance of what we call the civil service, in all its stages, from the highest judicial functions down to menial labor, it became customary to let public officials change their offices into fiefs, without any connection with land, the official paying himself with the fees of his office, and holding his place by the same hereditary tenure as the landed vassal. Still further, as with time the demand for soldiers became greater than the landed fiefs could supply, even "money-fiefs" were invented, whereby a prince granted a fixed sum, yearly, to a vassal on condition of due performance of military service. Of course one sees at once that this was nothing more nor less than hiring soldiers at yearly wages, but it is, perhaps, the best illustration we have of how completely the feudal notion of obligation had come to be the only effective agency in controlling medieval society. If we allow ourselves here to take one step further, and suppose—as was frequently the case—that the person thus hiring soldiers was the king, we find ourselves at a point where the feudal theory must soon destroy itself. The later mercenary soldier, hired outright for money wages without any feudal formalities, is the chief agent in destroying the whole medieval fabric.—*Emerton.*

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **THE FOUNDING OF GERMANY.**—The Primitive Germans, Louis the German, Louis the Child; Franconians, Saxons, Bavarians and Suabians.
20. **THE FOUNDING OF ITALY.**—State of Italy at 888 A. D, Popes, Northmen, Napoleon.
21. **THE FOUNDING OF ENGLAND.**—Jutes, Saxons, Angles, Celts; Kent and Mercia; Augustine.
22. **REVIVAL OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE UNDER OTHO I.**—Otho.
23. **HISTORY OF THE PAPACY 800-1000 A. D.**—Struggle between Pope and Emperor, Material Wealth of the Church; Rome's Special Advantage.
24. **THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.**—The System Defined and Established Kings, Barons and Serfs; Vassals, Fiefs and Sub-Fiefs; Knights, Ceremonies of Admission and Tournaments.

QUESTIONS.

19. *Give Andrews' statement in reference to "Primitive Germans"? What can you say of the invasion of the Northmen? Compare France and Germany at this time.*
20. *What three enemies did Italy face at this time? Why were they enemies? When was Italy finally united? By whom?*
21. *Why is it sometimes claimed that England is the most Teutonic state in Europe? Who were the Jutes? Saxons? Angles? From whom did they wrest their lands? Who were the Celts? How and by whom was Britain Christianized?*
22. *Who was Otho? What can you say of his reign? What is meant by the "Great Interregnum"? A. D.? What does Hallam say of the struggle between the Pope and Emperor immediately after 800 "The Church and Empire"? Why did Rome possess special advantage according to Guizot? What does Andrews say of*
23. *What led up to the establishment of the Feudal System? What were the privileges of the Kings? The Barons? Serfs? Vassals? What was meant by fiefs and sub-fiefs? What can you say of Knights? The ceremonies of admission to Knighthood? The Tournament?*
24.

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

19. *Name the modern countries or provinces of Europe which begin their individual existence during this period. At whose expense does each begin it? Give reasons for answers.*
20. *What races of people are mingled at the close of this period in France? England? Italy? Spain? Byzantine Empire?*
21. *What are the centers of intellectual impulse during this period? Among whom is this civilization most advanced? What direction does it take? Proofs.*
22. *How do you explain the causes which produced the Feudal System?*
23. *In what ways was the Feudal System a combination of Roman and Teutonic elements? Give reasons for your answers. Trace out the gradual growth and development of the power possessed by the Church at the close of this period. Briefly discuss the history of each people studied since the Fall of Rome. Where were they when first appearing in history? What has become of them? What events have most influenced them?*
24.

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Al'aric II. His reign was distinguished by the formation of a body of laws known as "The Compilation of Alaric."

Aleman'ni, the term signifying all men, or a union of many tribes. Specifically applied to a confederation of several German tribes who in the third century approached the Roman territory.

Arabs.—Thus the Arabs as well as the Jews, are descended from Abraham; but while the Jews have a history from the time of Abraham, the Arabs have none until the time of Mohammed, twenty-five centuries after Abraham. During that long interval the nomad wanderers of the desert roamed to and fro, engaged in mutual wars, thus verifying the prediction in Genesis concerning Ishmael: "He will be a wild man; his hand will be against every man, and every man's hand against him."

Arabian Religion.—Thus when Mohammed appeared, the Arabian religion was a jumble of monotheism and polytheism—Judaism, Christianity, Magism and idolatry.

Austrā'sia, or Ostrasia (meaning eastern-kingdom) the most eastern of the portions into which the empire of Charlemagne was divided by his successors. It appears to have extended from the Meuse on the west to the Bohmerwald Mountains on the east, and to have included the west part of the archduchy of Austria.

Bavā'ria, the largest German state, except Prussia.

Bohemia (bo-hee'-me-a) a province and nominal kingdom of Austro-Hungary.

Cā'lif, or Caliph, the spiritual and civil head of a Mohammedan state.

Cā'pet, king of France, was the head of the third dynasty, and the ancestor of thirty-two French kings. His posterity continued to reign till the revolution of 1789.

Carlovin'gians.—The word is formed on a false analogy from Merovingian or Merwings; it should be Carolings or Karlings, and means pertaining to, or descendants of Karl the Great, or Charlemagne.

Clō'vis (see p. 165).

Cnut or **Canū'te,** original Cnut, Knut, or Knud. He was king of Denmark and conqueror of England. He died 1014.

Constantinō'ple, capital of the Ottoman Empire and named after Constantine the Great.

Cres'cent, either of two orders of knighthood, now extinct, instituted respectively by Mohammed II. and Selim, sultans of Turkey.

Francō'nian, an inhabitant or native of Franconia. The Franconian Dynasty of Emperors were established in 1027, under Conrad, and became extinct in 1125 on the death of Henry V.

Franks, or Freemen, who originally occupied Belgium and the region of the Lower Rhine, overran Gaul soon after the fall of the Western Roman Empire, expelling the Visigoths from the south and conquering the Burgundians in the south-east; and the name of France was given to their new country (from Francia, the land of the Franks). The modern French are the descendants of the Latinized Gauls and their Frankish conquerors. The history of these people for several centuries is the history of France and Germany. They subdued Gaul and their own kinsmen, and laid the foundations of the kingdoms of Germany and France. They commenced their attacks upon the Roman dominions on the west bank of the Rhine in the third century of the Christian era; and, notwithstanding their frequent repulses, their persistent efforts were eventually rewarded with perfect success. By the latter portion of the fifth century they had subjugated the entire region between the Middle Rhine and the Meuse, and had established their capital at Cologne. These were the Ripuarian Franks. The Lower Rhine was held by the Salian Franks, who were mainly descended from the Sicambri, whom the Emperor Tiberius had settled there. These people only submitted to the Roman dominion with great reluctance, and were ever on the eager watch for an opportunity to recover their independence. They were severely chastised by the Emperor Julian the Apostate, but he permitted them to retain the lands which they had seized west of the Rhine, and which extended west of the Meuse. By the beginning of the fifth century they had become so formidable that they refused any longer to recognize the supremacy of Rome, though they still furnished mercenary soldiers to the Roman army.

Fris'ians or **Friesians.** Friesland of Modern Netherland is much smaller than the province of history.

Gibral'tar.—On the 30th of April, 711, a formidable Saracen and Moorish army under Tarik, an able and experienced general, effected a landing at Gibraltar, which received its name from him, Gibraltar meaning Gibal-Tarik, or mountain of Tarik.

Granā'da, the last stronghold of the Moors in Spain.

Gund'obald, or Gondebaud, king of Burgundy. He drew up a system of laws known as the "Burgundian Code." In religion he was an Arian.

Heg'ira—Mohammed's flight from Mecca to Yatreb—which occurred in the summer of A.D. 622—is called the Hegira, and is the point from which Mohammedans reckon time, as the Christian nations do from the birth of Christ; though this computation was not introduced until some years after the Prophet's death. The year 1 after the Hegira is 622 of our era and the fifty-third of Mohammed's life.

Isidō'rian, pertaining to Isidore, who promulgated the "Isidorian Decretals" while archbishop of Seville.

Justin'ian was one of the most celebrated emperors of the east. He also rendered great service to civilization by the publication of what is known as the "Justinian Code."

Jū'tēs, an ancient people of Germany, who belonged to the Gothic race, and gave name to Jutland. They belonged to the low Germans.

King, Barons and Serfs.—We will now proceed to give an account of the Feudal System, or form of government which prevailed throughout Europe during the Middle Ages. The barbarians who overthrew the Western Roman Empire divided the conquered lands among themselves. The chief of each of these tribes of barbarians was called a king. Under him were other chiefs or leaders called barons. Under each of these barons were still other chiefs, and under each of these last was a large body of people. The military organization was kept up in the conquered countries. The barbarian conquerors devoted themselves entirely to war, leaving the tilling of the soil to the conquered inhabitants, who became slaves or

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serfs. The serfs were bought and sold with the lands on which they lived.

Magyars', a number of the Hungarian race who appeared in Europe in 884. They are believed to have been of Turanian blood and descended from the Scythians.

Mecca is located in a winding valley at the foot of three barren mountains. The soil is a rock, and the waters are brackish. The pastures are distant from the city, and good fruits cannot be obtained at any nearer place than the gardens of Tayef, about seventy miles away.

Mer'ovin'gian, a Salian Frankish tribe who, under Clovis, founded the first French Dynasty A.D. 486.

Nar'sēs was supposed to have been a native of Asia.

Neus'tria, one of the Latin forms for Normandy, and an ancient province of France; bounded north and west by the English Channel.

Old Northern Ideas.—Many of the old Northern ideas are still mingled with our methods of thought. We retain the names of the Teutonic and Scandinavian gods in the designation of five of our week days—Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday and Saturday. The popular assemblies, or Things, of the Northern nations were the



Charlemagne.

origin of our modern parliaments, Diets, Congresses, National Assemblies, Legislatures, etc. Our trial by jury was of Scandinavian origin; and Montesquieu tells us that we are indebted to the Northern nations for that desire for freedom which is one of the main elements in Christian civilization—the most glorious inheritance of all. The modern nations which have led the world in civilization and liberty are the English-speaking nations, the direct descendants of Anglo-Saxons, Danes and Normans.

Odo'acer (see PROGRESS No. 2, p. 142).

Ot'toman, derived from Othman, Othoman, or Osman, the founder of the Turkish Empire. It designates that branch of the Tartar race that founded the Turkish Empire.

Raven'na a city of Italy in the province of Ravenna.

Saracens.—The conquests which the Saracens effected over the southern and eastern provinces of Rome were far more rapid than those achieved by the Germans in the north, and the new organizations of society which the Moslems introduced were summarily and uniformly enforced. Exactly a century passed between the death of Mohammed and the date of the battle of Tours. During that century the followers of the prophet had torn away half the Roman empire; and besides their conquests over Persia, the Saracens had overrun Syria, Egypt, Africa, and Spain, in an unchecked and apparently irresistible career of victory. Nor, at the commencement of the eighth century of our era, was the Mohammedan world divided against itself, as it subsequently became. All these vast regions obeyed the caliph; throughout them all, from the Pyrenees to the Oxus, the name of Mohammed was invoked in prayer, and the Koran revered as the book of the law.

Saxons (knife-men, from Sachs), originally occupied the region of the modern Holstein; but about the time of the downfall of the Roman dominion in Western Europe they had overspread the whole of Northern Germany from the Rhine to the Baltic. Two of the leading Saxon tribes were the Angles and the Jutes; the first occupying the region of the modern Schleswig, and the latter the peninsula of Jutland. The Saxons had never come in contact with the Romans, and were therefore unaffected by Roman influences. They were still pagans and worshipers of Odin and Thor. Their piratical craft had carried terror along the entire coast of Europe for a century. Many of the Saxons were at this period settled among the wooded inlets in the North of Gaul; while roving bands of Saxons, Angles and Jutes had settled in Britain and thus laid the foundations of England (Angle-land) and the English language. The modern English are the descendants of the savage Angles, Saxons and Jutes, who thus migrated to and conquered Britain in the fifth century of the Christian era.

Scandinavians, under the name of Northmen or Norsemen, or Normans and Danes, began their piratical voyages in the ninth century, and ravaged and plundered Germany, France, England and Ireland, establishing themselves in Northern Russia late in the ninth century; in that province of Northwestern France to which they gave the name of Normandy late in the tenth century; and in Southern Italy about the middle of the eleventh century, while bands of Normans even terrorized the Eastern Roman, or Greek Empire, spreading alarm even to the walls of Constantinople. For two centuries the Normans, under the name of Danes, ravaged Anglo-Saxon England, which they finally conquered early in the tenth century; and in the latter half of the same century the Normans of France conquered the same country, thus entirely changing its destiny.

Soissons (swois' swang) the last Roman stronghold in Gaul that withstood the arms of Clovis, who made it the seat of the Frankish monarchy.

Suab'ians, one of the old circles of south Germany inclosed by France, Italy and the circles of the Upper Rhine, Franconia and Bavaria.

Sy-a'grĭ-us, the Roman governor of Gaul.

Theod'oric.—Though Theodoric was himself an Arian, he protected his Catholic subjects, thus tolerating all forms of religious belief in his dominions. The fanatical mob burned the shops and dwellings of the Jews in several cities, but the king compelled them to restore the destroyed buildings. This exact justice brought down upon Theodoric the wrath of the Catholics, and he became convinced that his efforts in behalf of his subjects had not been sufficient to overcome their prejudice against him as an Arian.

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Theod'oric, king of the Ostrogoths. He reigned thirty years and made lasting impressions on the Goths and Italians.

Tours (tūrs), a city of France famous as the battle ground where Charles Martel defeated the Saracens.

Thuringia (thoo-rin'je-a) a name formerly applied to a portion of territory now in central Germany.

Van'dals, one of a teutonic race formerly inhabiting the southern shores of the Baltic, who about the beginning of the fifth century ravaged Gaul, and overran Spain and Nothern Africa. Later they pillaged Rome. Besides their original homes south and east of the Baltic they were now masters of Northern Africa, with Corsica, Sardinia and the Balearic Isles.

Vas'sals, Fiefs and Sub-fiefs.—Those to whom the king granted fiefs were called vassals of the crown, or liegemen. The giver of the lands was called a liege-lord, or lord-paramount, or suzerain. The king bestowed the lands on his vassals on condition that they should join him with a certain number of soldiers whenever he should call them to arms. To do this they bound themselves every year by a solemn oath, which was called swearing fealty. The king, who was lord-paramount, or liege-lord, in return swore to protect his vassal, and not to continue in arms more than forty days at a time, nor to war against the Church. On the same condition, the vassals of the crown distributed their lands among their followers or vassals. Thus each vassal bestowed fiefs and sub-fiefs on his vassals, each of whom did homage for his lands to his liege-lord. So there were many grades of fiefs and sub-fiefs.

Verdun', a town of France famous for the treaty of Verdun.

Visigoths.—The primitive home of the Goths was in Scandinavia, in that part of northern Sweden still known as Gothland. But the roving spirit so natural to barbarism prompted them to seek homes beyond their native swamps and forests. They began their migrations about A. D 200; soon after which they appeared in Central Europe in three great divisions: Visigoths (West Goths), Ostrogoths (East Goths), and Gepidæ (Laggards). The Goths were the first of the Teutonic nations to embrace Christianity. A considerable time before the fall of the Western Roman Empire they had been converted to Aryan Christianity.



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NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

By Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

Member of the International Congress of Orientalists. Author of "Hindu Literature," "Persian Literature," etc.

The Serapeum.—Among the most important of recent discoveries in Egypt is that of the Serapeum, where the last of the great libraries of Alexandria was preserved. It is the first fixed point which has been gained in the recovery of the ancient topography of Alexandria, and the world is indebted for this to the excavations of Dr. Botti, of the Alexandrian Museum. He has also discovered inscriptions of the time of Hadrian and Severus, dedicated to "Serapis and the deities worshiped with him in the temple" Besides the inscriptions, Dr. Botti has found the remains of gilded ornaments, and a bull of fine workmanship, all of which come from the great central court (Biblia, Oct. '95).

Standards of Egyptian Rulers.—Among the important results of the excavations at Bubastis, Edouard Naville reports the discovery of the standard of Cheops, and the standard and name of Chefren, the constructors of the two great pyramids, who have both written their names in the temple of Bubastis in large and beautiful hieroglyphs; the great antiquity of the temple is thus established. In the second hall in 1887, they found the name of a king of the sixth dynasty, Pepi, and they also found the titles which he had engraved with his name on the entrance of a room. The name of this monarch is in company with the signatures of two other kings who belong to a still earlier period. Thus we are carried back to the beginning of historic times in Egypt, and the foundations of Bubastis are apparently contemporary with the pyramids which are the oldest monuments These three early kings were the warriors who fought against the inhabitants of Sinai.

Two Hyksos Heads.—Another very interesting discovery which was made by Dr. Naville, is two pieces of colossal statuary, which evidently represent the Shepherd kings. The sculptor has worked in black granite, and although the substance was extremely hard, the result is a masterpiece of art, aside from its historic value. The first statue was broken, but the height of the head was estimated at more than three feet, while the features were recognized at once as being of the Hyksos type. The head-dress, however, is that of an Egyptian king, and both figures were finally recovered. The first (which was broken across the upper portion of the head) was sent to the Bulak Museum, and the other which is incomplete is now in the British Museum. Dr. Naville has no hesitation in saying, that although there is one piece wanting, "The statue is one of the most precious Egyptian monuments which has been preserved." The worship of Set Baal, the influence of the Hyksos invasion over the customs of Egypt, and especially over the language, points clearly to a Semitic element among the conquerers, although their kings were apparently non-Semitic. (Trans. Vic. Inst. Vol XXIII, No. 90).

Excavations in Bosnia.—Dr. Munro has given an account before the Anthropological Section of the British Association, of the recent excavations at Butmir in Bosnia. Over an area of about five acres were found stone implements in the form of knives, arrow heads, axes and tools of all stages of manufacture. There was also a number of clay images representing the human form, and among these was a head in terra cotta which showed a wonderful development of art.

Prof. Flinders Petrie thought it possible that these people lived about 3000 B C , for the general manufacture of black pottery could be referred with certainty to the definite period from 3300 to 3000 B.C.

Dictionaries.—Excavations carried on three years ago by Prof. Flinders Petrie have brought to light fragments of the dictionaries which were



Candlestick. Henry II.

used by the scribes in the Egyptian Foreign Office, and among the tablets previously discovered were fragments of Babylonian stories which had served as reading lessons for the Egyptian or Canaanite student in the Babylonian language and script.

A Babylonian Tablet.—Mr. Theo. G. Pinches of the British Museum has made a remarkable discovery of a tablet recounting the war waged by Khammurabi of Babylon (B.C. 2250) against Eri-Aku, or Arioch of Larsa, and his Elamite allies, which ended in a rise of a united monarchy in Babylonia, with Babylon as its capital. Among the opponents of Khammurabi, mention is made of Kudar-lagamar, the Elamite, Eri-Aku, and Tudkhal, the Tidal of the Book of Genesis.—(Sayce, London Academy.)

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Specimens of Assyrian Correspondence.—In his work in the British Museum, Mr. Pinches is constantly finding specimens of Assyro-Babylonian literature in the shape of letters which are generally oblong tablets of baked clay, across which the lines of writing are incribed in the narrow way. These documents vary in length from one to six inches, and in width from three quarters of an inch to about two inches and a half. These letters furnish the students with valuable light upon the history, religion, manners, and customs of the ancient people who wrote them. They also furnish important philological information concerning the peculiar idioms and pronounciation of the different districts. One of these letters, which was lately translated, contained a complaint to the king concerning some gold which had been lost. Another is an important letter or proclamation, written by King Assur-bani-pal to the Babylonians while they were subject to Assyria. This document contains the usual royal greeting and speaks of one who is claimed to have uttered seditious words, and warns the people to pay no attention to this "lord of slander." He also reminds them of their duties in relation to the tribute which is due to Assyria.—(Rec. of P. V. ii., p. 185.)

A Hittite Seal.—The London Times of Sept. 24 devotes a column and a half to the description of a Hittite seal which has been recently acquired by the British Museum. It bears several figures and the symbol of the equilateral triangle. So far as known all other Hittite inscriptions are in cuneiform characters, but this seal has an inscription which though partially effaced appears to have been written in Cypriote characters.

The Fountain Gate.—One of the most valuable discoveries which has been made of late by the Palestine Exploration Fund, is the Fountain Gate at Jerusalem which has recently been excavated by Dr. Bliss. This is the gate to which allusion is made in Nehemiah, chap ii. and iii., and it is thought that this discovery must lead to the finding of the "sepulchres of David."—(Biblia, Oct. '95.)

Carthage.—The excavations in the Romano-Carthaginian amphitheatre have yielded fragments of architecture, inscriptions on slabs, and the bones of wild beasts. The amphitheatre was the scene of the martyrdom of Perpetua and Felicitas, to whom a chapel was dedicated in the vault of the building.

Sicily.—At Selinute a temple has been excavated which contained a large number of terra-cottas, bronzes and fragments of glass. Among these were more than ten thousand lamps, and several archaic statuettes. Since the excavations were begun a large portion of the north wall of the Acropolis, built about 409 B C., have been laid bare. Among the late discoveries here, there is a head in Greek marble of the fifth century and several fragments in terra cotta relief, besides many Campanian coin which are in perfect condition.—(Ibid, July.)



Heraldic Sign, Eighth Century.

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SIDE LIGHTS.

Europe After the Fall of the Western Roman Empire.—The history of Europe during several centuries after the overthrow of the Western Roman Empire offers little real instruction to repay the labor of wading through the intricate and bloody annals of a barbarous age. The fall of the Roman empire had carried away with it ancient civilization; and during many generations the elements of society which had been disruptured by the surges of barbarian power, continued to be widely agitated, like the waves of the ocean, long after the fury of the storm had passed. It is only when the victors and the vanquished inhabitants of the same country had become fused into



Frederick II.

one people, and a new order of things, new bonds of society, and new institutions began to be developed, that the useful history of the Middle Ages begins.

We must bear in mind that it was not Italy alone that was affected by the tide of barbarian conquest; but that the storm spread likewise over Gaul, Spain, Britain, and Northern Africa, while the feeble empire which had Constantinople for its center, alone escaped the general ruin. Here the majesty of Rome was still faintly represented by the imaginary successors of Augustus, who continued until the time of the crusades to exercise a partial sovereignty over the East, from the Danube to the Nile and the Tigris. The remainder of the Roman world exhibited one scene of general ruin, for wherever the barbarians marched in successive hordes, their route was marked with blood. cities and villages were repeatedly plundered and often destroyed; fertile and populous provinces were converted into deserts; and pestilence and famine, following in the train of war, completed the desolation.

When at length, toward the close of the sixth century, the frenzy of conquest was over, and a partial calm was restored, the Saxons, from the shores of the Baltic, were found to be in possession of the southern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks or Freemen, a confederation of Germanic tribes, were masters of Gaul; the Huns, from the borders of the Caspian Sea, occupied Pannonia; the Goths and the Lombards, the former originally from Northern Asia, and the latter of Scandinavian origin, had established themselves in Italy and the adjacent provinces; and the Gothic tribes, after driving the Vandals from Spain, had succeeded to the sovereignty of the peninsula. A total change had come over the state of Europe; scarcely any vestiges of Roman civilization remained; but new nations, new manners, new languages, and new names of countries were everywhere introduced; and new forms of government, new institutions, and new laws began to spring up out of the chaos occasioned by the general wreck of the nations of the Roman world.

Monarchy of the Ostrogoths.—Theodoric, the first of the Ostrogoth kings of Italy, had been brought up as a hostage at the court of Constantinople. At times the friend, the ally, and the enemy of the imbecile monarchs of the Eastern empire, he restored peace to Italy, and a degree of prosperity unusual under the sway of the barbarian conquerers. Like Odoacer he indulged his Roman subjects in the retention of their ancient laws, language, and magistrates; and employed them chiefly in the administration of government; while to his rude Gothic followers he confided the defence of the State; and by giving them lands which they were to hold on the tenure of military service, he endeavored to unite in them the domestic habits of the cultivator, with the exercises and discipline of the soldier.

Theodoric encouraged improvement in agricultures, revived the spirit of commerce and manufacture, and greatly increased the population of his kingdom, which, at the close of his reign, embraced nearly a million of the barbarians, many of whom, however, were soldiers of fortune and adventurers who had flocked from all the surrounding barbarous nations to share the riches and glory which Theodoric had won. Theodoric reigned thirty-three years, and at the time of his death his kingdom occupied not only Sicily and Italy, but also Lower Gaul, and the old Roman provinces between the head of the Adriatic and the Danube. If he had had a son to whom he might have transmitted his dominions, his Gothic successors would probably have had the honor of restoring the empire of the West; but on his death (A.D., 526) the two nations of the Ostrogoths and the Visigoths were again divided; and the reign of the Great Theodoric passed like a brilliant meteor, leaving no permanent impression of its glory.

Seven Ostrogoth kings succeeded Theodoric on the throne of Italy during a period of twenty-seven years. Nearly all met with a violent death, and were constantly engaged in a war with Justinian, emperor of the East, who finally succeeded in reducing Italy under his dominion. The reign of that monarch is the most brilliant period in the history of the Eastern empire; and as it follows immediately after the career of Theodoric in the West,

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and embraces all that is interesting in the history of the period which it occupies, we pass here to a brief survey of its annals.

Justinian and the Vandals.—The year after the death of Theodoric, Justinian succeeded his uncle Justin on the throne of the Eastern empire. His reign is often alluded to in history as the "Era of Justinian." On his accession he found the kingdom torn by domestic factions; hordes of barbarians menaced the frontiers, and often advanced from the Danube three hundred miles into the country; and during the first five years of his reign he waged an expensive and unprofitable war with the Persians. The conclusion of this war, by the purchase of a peace at a costly price, enabled Justinian, who was extremely ambitious of military fame, to turn his arms to the conquest of distant provinces.

Justinian never led his armies in person; and his troops consisted chiefly of barbarian mercenaries —Scythians, Persians, Heruli, Vandals and Goths, and a small number of Thracians; the citizens of the empire had long been forbidden, under preceding emperors, to carry arms—a short-sighted policy which Justinian's timidity and jealousy led him to adopt, and so little of military spirit remained among the people, that they were not only incapable of fighting in the open field, but formed a very inadequate defence for the ramparts of their cities. Under these circumstances, with but a small body of regular troops, and without an active militia from which to recruit his armies, the military successes of Justinian are among the difficult problems of the age.

Africa, still ruled by the Vandals, first attracted the military ambition of Justinian, although his designs of conquest were concealed under the pretence of restoring to the Vandal throne its legitimate successor, of the race of the renowned Genserich. The first expedition, under the command of Belisarius, the greatest general of his age, numbering only 10,000 foot soldiers and 5,000 horsemen, landed, in September, 533, about five days' journey to the south of Carthage. The Africans, who were still called Romans, long oppressed by their Vandal conquerors, hailed Belisarius as a deliverer; and Gelimer, the Vandal king, who ruled over eight or nine millions of subjects, and who could muster 80,000 warriors, of his own nation, found himself suddenly alone with his Vandals in the midst of a hostile population. Twice Gelimer was routed in battle; and before the end of November, Africa was conquered, and the kingdom of the Vandals destroyed. Gelimer himself, having capitulated, was removed to Galatia, where ample possessions were given him, and where he was allowed to grow old in peace, surrounded by his friends and kindred, and a few faithful followers. The bravest of the Vandals enlisted in the armies of Justinian; and ere long the remainder of the Vandal nation in Africa, being involved in the convulsions that followed, entirely disappeared.

Justinian next projected the conquest of the Gothic empire of Italy, and its dependencies; and in the year 535 Belisarius landed in Sicily at the head of a small army of 7,500 men. In the first campaign he subdued that island; in the second year he advanced into southern Italy, where the old Roman population welcomed him with joy, and the Goths found themselves as unfavorably situated as the Vandals had been in Africa; but, deposing their weak prince, they raised Vitiges to the throne, who was a great general and a worthy rival of Belisarius. The latter gained possession of Rome (Dec., 536), where for more than a year he was besieged by the Goths; and although he made good his defence, almost the entire population of the city in the meantime perished by famine.

Vitiges himself was next besieged in Ravenna, and was finally forced to surrender the place, and yield himself prisoner (Dec., 539). He was deeply indebted to the generosity of Justinian, who allowed him to pass his days in affluence in Constantinople. The jealousy of Justinian, however, having recalled Belisarius from Italy, in a few years the Goths recovered their sway; but it was over a country almost deserted of its inhabitants. At length, in the year 552, Justinian found in Italy an army of 30,000 men, which he placed under the command of the eunuch Narses, who unexpectedly proved to be an able general. In the following year the last of the Ostrogoth kings was slain in battle, and the empire of Justinian was extended over the deserted waters of the once fertile, populous Italy. (A.D. 554.)—*Prof. Willson.*

The Norman Character.—The establishment of the Normans in the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, is an event most romantic in its origin, and in its consequences most important both to Italy and the Eastern empire. The broken provinces of the Greeks, Lombards and Saracens, were exposed to every invader, and every sea and land were invaded by the adventurous spirit of the Scandinavian pirates. After a long indulgence of rapine and slaughter, a fair and ample territory was accepted, occupied and named by the Normans of France; they renounced their gods for the God of the Christians; and the dukes of Normandy acknowledged themselves the vassals of the successors of Charlemagne and Capet. The savage fierceness which they had brought from the snowy mountains of Norway, was refined, without being corrupted, in a warmer climate; the companions of Rollo insensibly mingled with the natives; they imbibed the manners, language and gallantry of the French nation; and in a martial age, the Normans might claim the palm of valor and glorious achievements. Of the fashionable superstitions, they embraced with ardor the pilgrimages of Rome, Italy and the Holy Land. In this active devotion, their minds and bodies were invigorated by exercise; danger was the incentive, novelty the recompense; and the prospect of the world was decorated by wonder, credulity and ambitious hope. They confederated for their mutual defense; and the robbers of the Alps, who had been allured by the garb of a pilgrim, were often chastised by the arm of a warrior.—*Gibbon.*

The Forge of Mankind.—The great prerogative of Scandinavia is, that it afforded the greatest resource to the liberty of Europe, that is, to almost all of liberty there is among men. The Goth Jornandes calls the north of Europe the forge of mankind. I would rather call it the forge of those instruments which broke the fetters manufactured in the South.—*Montesquieu.*

Justinian and Belisarius.—In the East, Justinian was involved in a second war with Chosroes, or Nashirvan, the most celebrated Persian monarch of the Sassanid dynasty. Hostilities were carried on during sixteen years (A.D., 540-556), with unrelenting obstinacy on both sides; but after a prodigious waste of human life, the frontiers of the two empires remained nearly the same as they were before the war. When Justinian was nearly eighty years of age he was again obliged to have recourse to the services of his old general Beli-

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sarius, not less aged than himself, to repel an invasion of the barbarians who had advanced to the very gates of Constantinople. At the head of a small band of veterans, who in happier years had shared his toils, he drove back the enemy; but the applause of the people again excited the jealousy and fears of the ungrateful monarch, who, charging his faithful servant with aspiring to the empire, caused his eyes to be torn out, and his whole fortune to be



Queen Clotilda.

confiscated; and it is said that the general who had conquered two kingdoms, was to be seen blind, and led by a child, going about with a wooden cup in his hand to solicit charity. Justinian died at the age of eighty-three, after a reign of more than thirty-eight years. (Nov. 565.) The character of Justinian was a compound of good and bad qualities; for although personally inclined to justice, he often overlooked, through weakness, the injustice of others, and was in a great measure ruled during the first half of his reign by his wife Theodora, an unprincipled woman, under whose orders many acts of oppression and cruelty were committed.

The Saracen Empire and Mahomet.—In the parched, sandy, and in great part, desert Arabia, a country nearly four times the extent of France, the hardy Arab, of an original and unmixed race, had dwelt from time immemorial, in a constant struggle with nature, and enjoying all the wild freedom of the rudest patriarchal state. The descendants of Ishmael—the "wild men of the desert"—have always been free, and such they will ever remain; an effect at once of their local position and, as many believe, the fulfillment of prophecy; and although a few of the frontier cities of Arabia have been at times temporarily subjected by the surrounding nations, Arabia, as a country, is the only land in all antiquity that never bowed to the yoke of a foreign conqueror.

The ancient religion of the Arabs was Sabaism, or star-worship, which assumed a great variety of forms, and was corrupted by adoration of a number of images, which were supposed to have some mysterious affinity to the heavenly bodies. The Arabs had seven temples dedicated to the seven planets; some tribes exclusively revered the moon, others the dog star; Judaism was embraced by a few tribes, Christianity by some, and the Magian idolatry of Persia by others. So completely free was Arabia, each sect of tribes being independent, that absolute toleration existed; and numerous refugee sects that fled from the persecution of the Roman emperors found in the wild wastes of that country a quiet asylum.

About the beginning of the seventh century, Mahomet or Mohammed, an Arabian impostor, descended from the Sabæan priests of Mecca, where was the chief temple of the Sabæan idolatry, began to preach a new religion to his countrymen. He represented to them the incoherence and grossness of their religious rites, and called upon them to abandon their frail idols, and to acknowledge and adore the one true God—the invisible, all-good, and all-poweful ruler of the universe. Acknowledging the authenticity both of the Jewish Scriptures and the Christian revelation, he professed to restore the true and primitive faith, as it had been in the days of the patriarchs and the prophets, from Adam to Messiah.

Like Numa of old, Mahomet sought to give to the doctrines which he taught the sanction of inspired origin and miraculous approval; and as the nymph Egéria was the ministering goddess of the former, so the angel Gabriel was the declared medium of divine communication with the latter. During a period of twenty-three years, occasional revelations, as circumstances required, are said to have been made to the Prophet, who was consequently never at a loss for authority to justify his conduct to his followers, or for authoritative counsel in any emergency. These revelations, carefully treasured up in the memories of the faithful, or committed to writing by amanuenses (for the Moslems boast that the founders of their religion could neither read nor write), were collected together two years after the death of the Prophet, and published as the Koran, or Mohammedan Bible.

Mohammed.—And now the man who for forty years had been a simple citizen and led a quiet family life—who for thirteen years afterward had been a despised and persecuted but patient teacher of the Unity of God—passed the last ten years of his wonderful career in raising and organizing a fanatical army of warriors, destined to conquer half of the civilized world. The simple, earnest zeal of the original believers in Islam raised up a power which then took the sword and conquered with it. Influence is the reward of patient, long-enduring faith, and ambition serves itself with this influence for its own purpose. This is more or less the history of every religion and of every political party. Sects are not founded by politicians, but by men of faith, by men to whom ideas are realities, by men who are willing to die for those ideas. Such faith always triumphs in the end, makes many converts, becomes a great power. Ambitious men make use of these deep and strong convictions for their own purposes.

The Koran.—The materials of the Koran are borrowed chiefly from the Jewish and Christian Scriptures, and from the legends, traditions, and fables of Arabian and Persian mythology. The

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two great points of Moslem faith are embraced in the declaration: "There is but one God, and Mahomet is His Prophet." The other prominent points of the Moslem creed are the belief in absolute predestination, the existence and purity of angels, the resurrection of the body, a general judgment, and the final salvation of all the disciples of the prophet, whatever be their sins. Wicked Moslems are to expiate their crimes during different periods of suffering, not to exceed 7,000 years; but infidel contemners of the Koran are to be doomed to an eternity of woe. A minute and appalling description is given of the place and mode of torment—a vast receptacle full of smoke and darkness, dragged forward with roaring noise and fury by 70,000 angels through the opposite extremes of heat and cold, while the unhappy objects of wrath are tormented by the hissing of numerous reptiles and the scourges of hideous demons, whose pastime is cruelty and pain.

The Moslem paradise is all that an Arab imagination can paint of sensual felicity, groves, rivulets, flowers, perfumes, and fruits of every variety to charm the senses, while, to every other conceivable delight, seventy-two damsels of immortal youth and dazzling beauty are assigned to minister to the enjoyment of the humblest of the faithful. The promise to every faithful follower of the prophet of an unlimited indulgence of the corporeal propensities constitutes a fundamental principle of the Mohammedan religion. The predestinarian doctrine of Mahomet led his followers towards fatalism, and exercised a marked influence upon their lives, and especially upon their warlike character, for, as it taught them that the hour of death is determined beforehand, it inspired them with an indifference to danger and gave a permanent security to their bravery. Mahomet promised to those of his followers who fell in battle an immediate admission to the joys of paradise. The practical part of the new religion consisted of prayer five times a day, and frequent ablutions of the whole body, alms, fastings, and the pilgrimage to Mecca. Tradition asserts that Mahomet confirmed by miracles the truth of his religion; and a mysterious hint in the Koran has been converted by the traditionists into a circumstantial legend of a nocturnal journey through the seven heavens, in which Mahomet conversed familiarly with Adam, Moses, and the phrophets, and even with Deity Himself.

Charles Martel and Abdelrahman.—After the conquest of Spain, Mussulman ambition began to look beyond the Pyrenees; the disunited Gallic tribes of the southern provinces soon began to negotiate and to submit; and in a few years the south of France, from the mouth of the Garonne to that of the Rhone, assumed the manners and religion of Arabia. But these narrow limits were scorned by the spirit of Abdelrahman, the Saracen governor of Spain, who, in the year 732, entered Gaul at the head of a host of Moors and Saracens, in the hope of adding to the faith of the Koran whatever yet remained unsubdued of France or of Europe. An invasion so formidable had not been witnessed since the days of Attila; and Abdelrahman marked his route with fire and sword, for he spared neither the country nor the inhabitants.

Everything was swept away by the overpowering torrent, until Abdelrahman had penetrated to the very center of France and pitched his camp between Tours and Poictiers. His progress had not been unwatched by the confederacy of the Franks, which, torn asunder by intrigues and the revolts of discontented chiefs, now united to oppose the common enemy of all Christendom. At the head of the confederacy was Charles Martel, who, collecting his forces, met Abdelrahman on the plains of Poictiers, and, after six days' skirmishing, engaged on the seventh in that fearful battle that was to decide the fate of Europe. In the light skirmishing the archers of the East maintained the advantage, but in the close onset of the deadly strife the German auxiliaries of Charles, grasping their ponderous swords with "stout hearts and iron hands," stood to the shock like walls of stone, and beat down the light-armed Arabs with terrific slaughter. Abdelrahman and, as was reported by the monkish historians of the period, 375,000 of his followers were slain. The Arabs never resumed the conquest of Gaul, although twenty-seven years elapsed before they were wholly driven beyond the Pyrenees. Europe to this day owes its civil and religious freedom to the victory gained over the Saracens before Poictiers by Charles, "*the hammer*" which shattered the Saracen forces.—*Prof. Willson.*

The Saxon Period, A.D. 449 to 1066.—RELIGION.—The Saxons, at the time of their invasion of Britain, were idolators. The names of some of their deities are preserved in the names of the days of the week: The Sun, Moon, Tiue or Tyr, Woden or Odin, Thor, Freya the wife of Odin, and Sæter. Of these the hero-god, Odin, was the object of their greatest veneration. The *Edda* of the Scandinavians gives us an account of their worship in the ninth and tenth centuries, and it is believed that the religion of the Saxon tribes, when they came to England, did not materially differ from it. We learn from this record that, in addition to the gods just mentioned, there were several others of lesser influence, such as Balder and Bragi; and that there was an evil spirit, named Loki, who is spoken of as the calumniator of the gods, the grand contriver of deceit and frauds, the reproach of gods and men; to him owed their birth, the wolf Fenrir, the Midgard serpent, and Hela or Death. Their place of supreme happiness was the palace of Odin, called Valhalla, to which none were admitted save those who died in warfare; and their place of punishment was named Niflheim, whither were sent those who died of disease or old age, for every death except a violent one was deemed dishonorable. "The Teutonic nations had a firm conviction that the soul did not perish with the body. Of their conception of the essence of the Divine Being the Anglo-Saxon language affords a singular testimony, for the name of *God* signifies *good*."

The conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity was mainly due to the instrumentality of Gregory, who became pope in 590, and whose attention had been directed to their condition, some years before, by seeing a number of youthful Saxon slaves in the market at Rome. He at first intended to visit Britain himself, but important circumstances prevented him from carrying out his design, and not long after his elevation he sent Augustine to Kent, whose mission has been already referred to. The longing of some of the more thoughtful of the heathens to gain information relative to a future life is forcibly represented in a speech made by one of the nobles, at a conference held in Northumbria, to decide whether the people should adopt Christianity: "The life of man," said he, "is like the swift flight of a sparrow through a banquet hall on a winter's night, it

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flies in at one door, and out at another, and vanishes out of sight. So we know nothing of our origin—nothing of our end, and if this new doctrine can teach us anything certain of our destiny, well is it worth that we should follow its law."

The various states of the Octarchy were gradually brought under the meliorating influence of Christianity; but it was not till 681 that the South Saxons were persuaded to renounce Paganism. An ecclesiastical organization was established in each kingdom as soon as it adopted the faith, and bishoprics were founded, that of Canterbury being the first. Provisions were made for the sustenation of the clergy; and in the course of time a tithe of the produce of the land was set apart for purposes of religion. This tithe appears to have been divided into four parts; one, to maintain the fabric of the church; the second, to support the poor; the third, for the bishop, and the fourth, for the clergy. According to some writers, parishes existed in England as early as the year 970. Monasteries began to be built soon after the introduction of Christianity; but vows of celibacy and poverty were not fully enforced. Under Dunstan, however, a great change took place. The married clergy, who refused to separate from their wives, were expelled and persecuted; and nearly fifty Benedictine monasteries were founded in the single reign of Edgar. The rule of this order involved seclusion from the world, celibacy, abstinence from flesh and wine, and the exercise of manual toil.

The inroads of the idolatrous Danes, at various periods, were very injurious to the progress of the gospel. Churches and monasteries were plundered and burnt, and large numbers of the clergy slain. Of the effect of their earlier invasions we have a proof in the fact that Alfred found, on his accession, that very few of the clergy could translate the Latin service into the vernacular tongue. But in the course of time, most of the Danes became converts to Christianity, and King Canute showed himself a zealous disciple and munificent patron of the church.

GOVERNMENT.—As the germ of our most valuable and peculiar political institutions of England may be traced to the Anglo-Saxon period, it is of paramount importance that we should become acquainted with the character of the government which then existed.

The King.—When settlements were effected in Britain by the several invading tribes, the leaders of the expeditions took the titles of king (Cyning), and a regularly organized government was established. According to the theory of the Anglo-Saxon constitution, the king was only one of the people, and attained to his dignity by the election; but their choice was limited to one family, and the recognized rules of hereditary succession were usually observed, except when the deceased king's nearest heir was a minor, in which case an elder member of the family sometimes succeeded to the throne, for "the public security in those times was thought incompatible with a minor king; and the artificial substitution of a regency, which stricter notions of hereditary right have introduced, had never occurred to so rude a people." Alfred was thus preferred to the son of his elder brother, and Elred to the children of Edmund. The power and prerogatives of the king were considerable, and definitely ascertained. He was the commander of the army when it assembled; he was, to some extent, the fountain of honor and of justice; and to him belonged, in certain cases, the high prerogative of granting pardon. He was the guardian of the coinage. It was by his summons that the Witena-gemot, or great council of the nation, assembled; and by the concurrent consent of the king and this council all laws were enacted. His regal dignity was sustained by the revenues which accrued from the large domains annexed to the crown, from customs at sea-ports, from toll-duties and from mulcts. His life was regarded as of special value; if he was slain by a subject, the pecuniary punishment was much greater than in the case of a person of inferior rank; and such regard was paid to his veracity, that his word was ordered to be taken without an oath.

The Bretwaldas.—Bede enumerates seven princes with this title; and some historians have gone so far as to assert that they possessed a monarchical supremacy in the constitution of the Octarchy; but it is pretty clear that it was not a recognized distinction, and that "the plain history is this—that four princes from among the southern Anglo-Saxon kingdoms at different times obtained, probably by force, a superiority over the rest; that afterwards three Northumbrian kings united a similar supremacy with the government of their own dominions; and that having been successful in reducing the Britons of the north, and also the Scots, into subjection, they assumed the title of Bretwalda, or ruler of Britain."

Ranks of Persons.—The free population consisted of two classes, the *thanes* and *ceorls*, who have been respectively defined as the owners and cultivators of the land, or as the men of noble and ignoble descent. There appear to have been two kinds of thanes, those called the king's thanes and those of an inferior grade. Inaccurate writers have mentioned the ceorls as being in a state of servitude; but it is evident that they were regarded as freemen, for they were able to hold land; were protected against personal injuries, and were entitled, if they came into possession of five hides of land (*i.e.*, about six hundred acres), to the rank of thane. Besides these was the servile class, who are supposed to have been, for the most part, the descendants of the conquered inhabitants of Britain; they were called *theow*, *thræl*, or *esne;* and those freemen who, for some legal offense, were reduced to slavery, received the name of *wite theow*. The *servi*, or slaves, mentioned in Doomsday Book, are about twenty five thousand.

The Witena-gemot.—The great council, which aided the king in all the leading matters of government, was the Witena-gemot, or assembly of wise men. It was held at Christmas, Easter and Whitsuntide; and occasionally at other times. Its constituent members are designated the prelates, abbots, ealdormen and the noble and wise men of the kingdom. Who the latter were, has never been certainly determined; but there seems no satifactory ground for the theory, held by some historians, that they were the representatives of the body of the people. The functions of the Witan, according to Kemble, were: 1. The Witan possessed a consultative voice and right to consider every public act which could be authorized by the king. 2. The Witan deliberated upon the making of new laws, which were to be added to the existing folcright (common law), and which were then promulgated by their own and the king's authority. 3. The Witan had the power of making alliances and treaties of peace, and of settling their terms. 4. The Witan had the power of electing the king. 5. The Witan had the power to depose him, if his

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government was not conducted for the benefit of the people. 6. The king and the Witan had power to appoint prelates to vacant sees. 7. They had also power to regulate ecclesiastical matters, appoint fasts and festivals, and decide upon the levy and expenditure of ecclesiastical revenue. 8. The king and the Witan had power to levy taxes for the public service. 9. The king and the Witan had power to raise land and sea forces, when occasion demanded. 10 The Witan possessed the power of recommending, assenting to and guaranteeing grants of land, and of permitting the conversion of folc-land into boc-land, and *vice versa*. 11. The Witan possessed the power of adjudging the lands of offenders and intestates to be forfeit to the king. 12. The Witan acted as the supreme court of justice, both in civil and criminal causes.

Judicial Courts.—The principal ordinary court for the administration of justice—civil, criminal, and ecclesiastical—was the *county court*, which was presided over by the bishop and the ealdorman, or his deputy, the sheriff (*scirgerefa*). It was held twice a year. After the Norman Contest, if not before, the criminal part of the business was transacted in a court called the *sheriff's tourn*. There were inferior courts, such as the *hundred-mote* and the *hall mote*, the former of which was the court of a division of the county, and was held every month, under the presidency of the *hundredes*, *ealdor* or *gerefa* (reeve), who had both civil and criminal jurisdiction. The hall-motes were the courts of certain districts, in which particular individuals had the privilege of *sac*, *soc* and *infangthef*;* the powers possessed by these lords varied according to the terms of the original grant, and were very similar to those enjoyed by the barons, in their manorial courts, during the Norman dynasty. Besides the ordinary matters of justice, much business of a commercial character was transacted in these several courts, especially that of the hundred, as, in the absence of writing, it was important that, should litigation ensue at any future period, a competent number of witnesses might be produced to decide the question.

Mode of Trial.—Till recently, it has been generally supposed that trial by jury obtained during the Saxon period; but its establishment really dates considerably later than the Norman Conquest. The modes of trial which were in use were trial by *compurgation*, by *ordeal*, and perhaps by *combat*. The first depended on personal reputation, since an individual, when charged with the commission of an offence, was acquitted if he could produce the required number of compurgators (generally twelve), who would come forward and swear that they believed him innocent. Trials by ordeal were of three kinds; the hot water ordeal, the hot iron, and the corsned (*cor*, proof; *snaed*, crumb). They were conducted under the surveillance of the clergy; and since the two first were often resorted to, and were apparently perilous tests, we cannot but suspect that deception was frequently practised. The culprit was required to prepare himself for the trial by fasting and prayer during three days, and on the last day he took the sacrament. When hot water was employed, the accused plunged his hand up to the wrist or elbow, according to the nature of the offence, into a caldron of boiling water, and then a piece of clean linen was wrapped by the priest round the part that was scalded; and if, on opening it on the third day, it was completely healed, the party was adjudged innocent. In the hot iron ordeal, the accused carried a piece of heated iron, just taken off the fire, a distance of nine feet, and then threw it down, and his hand was dealt with as in the other case. The corsned was a piece of bread which the alleged culprit took, with the imprecation that it might choke him if he were guilty; so that if he ate it freely he was considered innocent. In all these trials it was supposed, at least in theory, that the Almighty would interfere so as to secure a just decision.

Punishments.—The principle of pecuniary compensation is the characteristic feature of the Anglo-Saxon codes: almost all offences, including homicide, could be atoned for by a money payment. Every man's life was regarded as having a definite legal value, called his *were gild*, *man-bote*, or *leod-gild*,* which, in case he was killed, was paid to his family, or, if he had no relations, in equal proportions to the king and the *gild-scipe*, or fraternity to which he belonged. But as homicide was regarded as a crime against the state as well as against the individual, an additional payment was made to the chief magistrate of the district, or to the king, if it occurred in his jurisdiction, called the *wite*. These *were* varied according to the rank of the person killed; thus, that of the king was thirty thousand thrymsas (500*l*?); a bishop's, eight thousand; a thane's, two thousand; a ceorl's, two hundred. The compensation for personal injuries was carefully adjusted, and for almost every possible offence a definite mulct was named. In the most ancient Saxon laws we find that a person who inflicted a wound that caused the loss of an eye or leg was punished by a fine of 50s.; for a wound which involved the loss of hearing there was a fine of 25s.; for cutting off the little finger, 11s.; for striking out a front tooth, 6s. Another penalty was the *mund*, which was a payment imposed on those who violated the *mundbyrd*, or right of protection, which persons had for their own benefit and that of others. Thus, to give an illustration, if a man drew a weapon where people were drinking, and any blood was spilt, the delinquent had to pay a fine to the king, and a compensation to the tenant of the house, for violating the mundbyrd.

Some crimes were regarded as inexpiable, for which death was inflicted without remission; these were (though not all at the same period), wilful murder, treason, desertion from the lord's banner in battle, housebreaking, arson, and open theft.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—**Dress.**—The ordinary attire of the people consisted of a plain tunic, which enveloped the body and reached as far as the knees. It was fastened round the waist with a girdle. Over the tunic was generally worn a short cloak. Few wore stockings, but all shoes. They had large beards, and the hair was allowed to grow long; but in the time of Harold II. they shaved the face. The females wore a loose gown, which fell in folds over the feet; a wide mantle covered the upper part of the body; and their head-dress, or *coverchief*, was formed of a long piece of silk or linen, which was wrapped round the head and neck, and sometimes covered the upper part of the body as far as the knees. The garments of both sexes were made of silk, linen, and woolen, and

* *Sac* means jurisdiction in litigious suits; *soc* refers, sometimes, to the privilege of executing laws; at others, to the territory wherein that immunity is possessed; *infangthef* is the right to apprehend and judge thieves, taken within the allotted jurisdiction, and to receive the pecuniary penalty of their crimes.

* *Were* and *leod* signify man, and therefore *were-gild*, or *leod-gild* the worth or payment of a man; *bote* means compensation or atonement.

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a part of the male costume of leather. They liked a variety of colors, of which the favorites were red, blue and green; and all who could afford it decked themselves with ornaments.

Residences.—For a long time after the Saxon invasion the houses were made of wood or mud, with a thatched roof, and rarely consisted of more than one room, in the midst of which the fire was kindled; nor does it appear that any great improvements were made during the whole of this period, though stone structures were occasionally erected.

Furniture.—This was of comparatively rude manufacture, though the materials were often costly. The wealthy suspended tapestry on their walls, which served not merely as an ornament, but was of great utility in keeping out draughts of air; for the buildings, from their imperfect construction, were full of crevices. In various documents of the times we find mention made of benches, seats, beds, candlesticks, silver cups, horns, and many other articles; but the use of the more expensive was very limited.

Food.—The Saxons partook of different kinds of animal food, such as the flesh of oxen, sheep, and especially of swine. They also liked the flesh of deer, goats, hares, and fowls. Fish was eaten, and eels were as abundantly used as swine. But animal diet was chiefly partaken of by the richer classes; and the same remark applies to wheat bread. Barley and oat bread were the staple diet of the peasantry. The chief beverages were ale and mead, the latter of which was made of honey. Wine was occasionally drunk, as well as morat (a liquor composed of honey and the juice of the mulberry), and pigments (made of wine, honey, and different kinds of spices). Excessive drinking was one of the characteristic vices of the people.

Sports.—Hunting and hawking were the favorite out-door amusements, and our English ancestors appear to have enjoyed the degrading sport of bear-baiting. Among their in-door diversions were dancing and music, and a game of hazard called tæfl. Their convivial meetings were enlivened by the music and mimicry of gleemen.

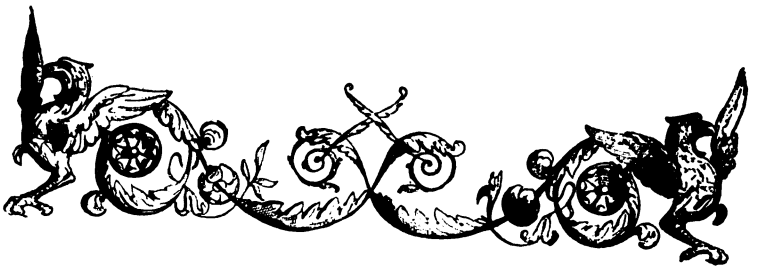
Weapons.—These consisted of long broad swords, and long daggers.

Knights.—This peculiar institution called Chivalry originated in the piety of some nobles who wished to give to the profession of arms a religious tendency. These nobles devoted their swords to God, and bound themselves by a solemn oath to use them only in the cause of the weak and the oppressed. Those who took upon themselves these vows were called knights.

The Ceremonies of Admission to the order of knighthood were somewhat singular. The candidate was first placed in a bath to denote that in presenting himself for knighthood he must present himself washed from his sins. When he left the bath he was clothed—first, in a white tunic, to signify the purity of the life he was vowing to lead; then, in a crimson vest, to denote that he was called upon to shed blood; and lastly, in a complete suit of black armor, which was an emblem of death, for which he must always be prepared. He took an oath to speak the truth, to maintain the right, to protect the distressed, to practice courtesy, to defend the Christian religion, to despise the allurements of ease, and to vindicate the honor of his name.

A Tournament.—Those knights who traveled about from place to place, independent of each other, were called knights-errant. Sometimes a great entertainment, called a tournament, was given by some king or rich prince, at which a mock combat was held for the knights to display their skill in the use of arms. A vast number of ladies and gentlemen assembled to witness these friendly trials of skill. At the conclusion of the exercises, the judges, who were usually old knights, declared the victors, and the prizes were presented to the successful knights by the noblest or most beautiful lady present.

The Teutons had no influence upon the progress of history until the series of events connected with the overthrow of the Roman dominion in Western Europe. At that period the Germanic and Teutonic race commenced to play its mighty part in the great drama of the world's history. From its home in Central and Northern Europe the great Teutonic race began immediately, upon the overthrow of the Western Roman Empire, to absorb and shape the destiny and character of nearly the whole European continent; and the development of European civilization during the six centuries of the Dark Ages is mainly connected with the wonderful growth and expansion of the Germanic race.



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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE ANCIENT HISTORY OF PROF. LEONARD SCHMITZ. (LONDON UNIVERSITY.)

A.D.

480 Great earthquake destroys the larger part of Constantinople.
481 French Monarchy founded by Clovis I. Theodoric made general and consul by Zeno.
482 St. Sidonius Apollinaris, Bishop of Clermont, dies.
483 Acacius, bishop of Constantinople, excommunicated Pope Felix III.
484 Evaric, king of the Visigoths, dies. Alaric II. retgns king of the Visigoths in Spain.
485 Clovis gains battle of Soissons in France.
486 Beginning of conquest of the Franks in Gaul and rise of the feudal system in France under Clovis.
487 Prince Arthur and Ambrosius defeated by the Saxons.
490 Kingdom of Sussex founded by Ella. The Barbarians ravage Italy.
491 Thuringia subdued by Clovis.
493 Ostrogoths rule the kingdom of Italy under Theodoric the Great after a three years' siege. Odoacer, king of Italy, dies.
494 The Pope of Rome assumes to be supreme Bishop of the Church.
496 Christianity begun in France by Baptism of King Clovis.
499 Theodoric and Clovis make peace in Italy,
500 Burgundy becomes tributary to Clovis.
501 Laws of Burgundy published.
502 Carbades, king of Persia, ravages the Eastern Empire and destroys its army.
503 Fergus leads the Scots from Ireland to Scotland.
504 Carbades effects peace with the Eastern Empire.
507 Gesalric becomes king of Spain. Alaric defeated by Clovis near Poictiers. Visigoths conquered by Clovis and the kingdom of the Franks established.
508 Prince Arthur reigns over the Britons.
510 Paris made the capital or kingdom of the Franks by Clovis.
511 Clovis dies; Kingdom of the Franks divided into Austrasia and Neustria. Thierry I., Childebert I., Clodomir and Clotaire I., sons of Clovis, reign jointly. Amalaric becomes king of Spain. Constantinople suffers from very great insurrection. The Salic Law established in France.
512 Anastatius permits the Heruli to settle in Thrace.
513 Carbades, the Persian king, embraces Christianity.
514 Vitalianus besieges Constantinople and burns its fleet with a brazen Speculum made by Proclus.
516 Dionysius, the monk, introduces the computation of time by the Christian era.
517 Illyricum, Macedon and other cities ravaged by the Getæ.
518 Anastatius is killed by lightning and is succeeded by Justinel, a peasant of Dalmatia. Byzantine empire begun.

A.D.

519 The orthodox bishops restored by Justin. Prince Arthur defeated at Charford in Briton by Cerdic. The third Saxon kingdom of Wessex begun.
522 Amalaric begins his reign in Spain as the first Gothic king. Establishes Seville, its capital.
524 Boethius, the philosopher and statesman, dies.
525 Justin deposes the Arian bishops.
526 Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths dies. Athalaric, his grandson, succeeds him. Amalasontha, his mother, administers the government.
526 Antioch overthrown by an earthquake; 250,000 persons destroyed. Antioch rebuilt.
527 Justinian I., nephew of Justin, begins his reign. His generals are Belisarius and Narses. Ercenwin founds Essex.
529 Justinian Code published. Persians defeated by Belisarius
531 Amalaric succeeded by Theodat or Theudis in Spain. Chess introduced from India into Persia.
532 First use of the Christian era in Italy. Conspiracy at Constantinople is quelled by Belisarius. Childebert conquers Burgundy.
533 Successful campaign conducted by Belisarius. St. Fulgentius, bishop of Rusp, dies.
534 Belisarius conquers Africa. Kingdom of the Vandals destroyed. Theodatus begins his reign in Africa.
535 Sicily subdued by Belisarius. Amalasontes or Amalasontha dies.
536 Naples subdued by Belisarius. French king received possessions in Gaul from Vitiges, king of the Ostrogoths.
537 Rome taken by Belisarius. Ostrogoths defeated by him in Italy.
538 The Huns defeated by Belisarius in Thrace. The church of St. Sophia erected in Constantinople.
539 Famine, Pestilence and War in Italy. The Goths ravaged Milan.
540 Ravenna conquered by Vitiges, who annexes North Africa, Corsia and Sardinia to the Eastern Empire. Dionysius Exiguus, the monk, dies
541–552 Totila reigns and pillages Rome twice.
542 Justinian suppresses the Roman consulship. Great plague at Constantinople. Thousands die daily. Prince Arthur of Britain murdered at Cornwall.
543 St. Benedict, founder of the Benedictine order, dies.
545 Turkish empire begins in Asia.
547 Angles established kingdoms north of the Humber.
548 Pannonia settled by the Lombards.
549 Agila becomes king of Spain.
550 Poland made a dukedom under Lechus I.
551 Silk manufacture brought from India to Europe by monks.

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A.D.

552 Totila defeated and killed by Narses, Gothic, king of Italy.
553-554 Kingdom of the Ostrogoths destroyed. Battle of Casilino. Totila and Teias, kings of the Ostrogoths, die.
554 Greek exarchs govern Italy.
556 France desolated by Civil wars.
557 General plague in Europe, Asia and Africa, continuing half a century.
558 France ruled by Clotaire.
559 Saxon king's authority limited by the Wittenagemot.
560 Bernicia and Deira formed the kingdom of Northumbria in Britain. Saxon kings subdued by Ethelbert, king of Kent. Claribert I. Gontran, Chilperic, and Sigebart, sons of Clotaire, reign jointly and Justinian disgraces Belisarius.
562 Belisarius restored to favor and quells a conspiracy. Cassiodorus, statesman and doctor, dies.
563 Constantinople almost destroyed by fire.
565 Belisarius, general, and Procopius, historian, die. Justin II., son of Vigilantia the sister of Justinian, reigns in the East, Columbi introduces Christianity among the Picts.
568 The Lombards in Italy under Alboin conquer Italy. Exarchate of Ravenna remains to the Greeks. The feudal system established in Italy by Lombards. The nations of German origin compile written laws. Such laws first compiled by Visigoths in Spain.
568 Narses, general of Justinian, dies.
569 Roman Pontiff acquires the supreme power in Ravenna. The Turks first mentioned in history, who form an alliance and send embassies to Justin.
569 Mahomet or Mohammed, the Arabian prophet, born.
570 Leovigild, king of Spain.
574 Justin and Tiberius associated in government. Alboin, king of the Lombards, dies.
575 East Anglia is formed into a province and called Angle-land-England.
576 Chosroes, king of Persia, defeated by Justin.
578 Tiberius II. becomes emperor in the East.
580 The Latin language spoken no longer in Italy. Takes the place of the Gothic in Spain.
581 Paris destroyed by fire.
582 Maurice, son-in-law of Tiberius, reigns in his place and extends the empire almost to the Caspian Sea.
583 Visigoths conquered the Suevi in Spain.
584 Extraordinary inundations in Italy. Fiefs originated.
586 The Angles found Mercia. Establishment of the Roman Catholic Church in Spain.
587 Conversion of the Visigoths. Recared, king of Spain.
588 Gregory of Tours, called the father of French history.
590 Gregory I., called the great Pope of Rome. Mass introduced and doctrine of purgatory taught.
591 Ethelbert, king of Kent, rules in Britain under the name of Bretwalda III.

A.D.

592 Bloody revolutions in Persia.
595 Sclavonians invade Poland, Istria and Bohemia.
596 Bretwalda, king of England, embraces Christian faith.
597 Anglo-Saxons begin to embrace Christianity, under St. Augustine, the monk, with forty other assistants.
600 The Sclavonians ravaged Italy.
602 Tragical end of the Emperor Mauritius, Maurice, and his family.
604 Ethelbert, king of Kent, founds St. Paul's church. St. Gregory, the great, dies.
605 Bells in churches.
606 Phocas makes Pope Boniface III. supreme head of the church, who assumes the title of Universal Bishop. The Waldeneses refuse to recognize the Roman Church.
607 Britain acknowledged the supremacy of the Pope. St. Augustine, first archbishop of Canterbury, dies.
610 After the murder of Phocas, the usurper, Heraclius succeeds.
611 Chosroes, king of Persia, conquers Syria, Egypt, Asia, Minor, and lays siege to Rome.
612 The Koran published by Mohammed. The Britains defeated by Ethelfrith, king of the Northumbria.
614-615 Ravages of the Persians in Syria and Palestine. Jerusalem taken with great slaughter.
615 Lombardy and Ravenna at war.
617 First code of laws published by Ethelbert. Sabert, king of Kent, founds Westminster Abbey, then called St. Peter's.
618 The Avari pillage Constantinople.
622 Exploits of Heraclius against the Persians, under Chosroes. Mohammed flees from Mecca to Medina, Friday, July 16th, the first year of the Hegira.
626 Persians and Arabs besiege Constantinople.
629 Mecca taken.
631 Title of king of Bohemia assumed by Samo, a merchant of France.
632 Mohammed dies, aged 63 years. Abu Bekir becomes caliph of the Saracens. The power of the Caliphs and Islamism regnant in the East. The Caliphs unite in themselves the highest spiritual and regal authority, through Mohammedanism. Africa and Asia, with the churches of Antioch, Alexandria and Jerusalem lost to Christendom.
634 Moslems conquer Persia. Saracens invade Syria.
636 Saracens invade Persia. St. Sophronius, Patriarch of Jerusalem, dies. Christianity introduced into China.
637 Palestine conquered by the Saracens, which they hold for 463 years.
639 Saracens invade Mesopotamia.
640 Saracens invade Egypt.
640-41 Alexandrian library burned by the Saracens.
641 Constantine III. poisoned by his stepmother. His son Constans is declared emperor.

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A.D.

642 Pope Theodorus assumes the title of sovereign pontiff
643 The temple of Jerusalem changed into a Mohammedan mosque.
644 Celibacy of the clergy obtained by pope Martin I. Separation of the Greek from the Roman Church. Sigebert king of E. Anglia founds the University of Cambridge.
647 Africa and Cyprus conquered by the Saracens.
651 Extinction from the second Persian monarchy.
657 The universal use of the Latin language established by Pope Vitalian in church services.
659 The Saracens obtain peace from Constans by agreeing to pay him 100,000 crowns.
660 Organs first used in churches.
663 Constans plunders the treasury of Rome.
664 Benalt, a monk, brings glass into England.
668 Arabs besiege Constantinople.
669 Sicily attacked by the Saracens.
673 Callinicus having invented the Greek fire, wards off the Saracens who have been besieging Constantinople for seven years.
674 The Teutonic language takes the place of Latin in France.
675 Arabs defeated in a naval victory in Spain. Callinicus, a famous chemist, dies.
680 The sixth general council at Constantinople called by Constantine. Founding of the kingdom of Bulgaria.
682 Wamba abdicates throne of Spain and becomes a monk.
685 Saxons totally defeat the Britons after a struggle of 150 years and are driven into Wales and Cornwall. Constantine succeeded by his son Justin II. The Mohammedan religion supersedes the Magian in Persia.
687 Jews terribly persecuted in Spain.
690 France governed nearly 24 years by Pepin de Heristal, mayor of the palace.
698 An elective monarchy established in Poland. City of Cracow founded. Carthage destroyed and ravaged by the Saracens.
700 The Anglo-Saxon Octarchy founded in Britain.
705 200,000 Saracens slain and Syria recovered.
708 German nations and peoples in the north of Europe receive Christianity.
709 Arabs make final conquest of Africa.
711 Invasion of Spain. Battle of Xeres, which puts an end to the kingdom of the Visigoths.
713 Saracens conquer Spain under Muca.
714 France governed by Charles Martel, son of Pepin. Pepin dies.
716 The art of paper making brought by the Arabs from Samarcand. Arabs besiege Constantinople a second time.
718 Saracens defeated by land and sea near Constantinople.
725 Constantinople invaded by the Arabs with 120,000 men and 1,800 ships. The Arab fleet being almost entirely destroyed by the Greek fire and the city saved.

A.D.

Charles Martel having crossed the Rhine subdues Bavaria.
730 Pope Gregory III. excommunicates the emperor.
732 Battle of Tours. Saracens defeated by Charles Martel between Tours and Poictiers in October.
735 The venerable Bede doctor and historian, dies.
741 Charles Martel dies.
743 Luitprand, king of the Lombards, dies.
746 The Arabs defeated by Constantine. Rhodes, Cyprus and Antioch captured. A terrible pestilence over Europe and Asia extends for three years.
748 The computation of time from the birth of Christ first used in historical writings.
752 St. Zachary, pope, dies. Morovingian family succeeded on the throne of France by the Dynasty of Carlovingian kings. Exarchate of Ravenna conquered by the Lombards, after having continued 183 years.
755 Beginning of the Pope's temporal power under the auspices of Pepin who bestows on Stephen the exarchate of Ravenna. St. Boniface, apostle of Germany, dies.
756 Foundation of the kingdom of Cordova in Spain by revolting Saracens.
763 Excessive cold beginning October 1 continuing 150 days, followed by excessive heat.
766 The Turks ravage Asia Minor.
768 Pepin, king of France, dies.
772 Charlemagne reigns sole monarch of France.
774 Extinction of the kingdom of the Lombards by Charlemagne who annexes Italy to his empire.
780 St. John Damascene, doctor of the Church, dies.
785 Haroun al Raschid invades the Eastern Empire. In his reign is the golden period of learning in Arabia. Charlemagne forces Saxons to embrace Christianity.
787 Seventh General Council at Nice. First recorded invasion of the Danes upon the English coast.
794 The Huns extirpated by Charlemagne.
796 The Saxons subdued, and the Avari prostrated by the arms of Charlemagne.
800 Charlemagne crowned emperor of the West by the Pope at Rome, under the name of king of Italy. The Pope becomes supreme bishop of the western empire, having separated from the eastern.
803 Asia Minor ravaged by the Saracens. Cyprus captured. The republic of Venice founded.
804 Alcuin, doctor, dies.
811 Nicephorus defeated and slain by the Bulgarians.
813 The Britons defeated by Egbert, king of Wessex.
814 Charlemagne dies, aged 72 years, succeeded by Louis I. the Gentle.
816 Earthquakes, famine and fires desolate the Eastern Empire.

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A.D.

822 Constantinople besieged ineffectually by the Saracens.
823 Crete held by the Saracens of Spain and called Candia.
824 Saracens defeated in battle by Ramiro I., king of Spain. 70,000 Saracens killed.
827 End of the English Heptarchy. The seven kingdoms united under the name of England, or the land of the Angles, by Egbert, king of England. England invaded by the Danes.
839 Beginning of the Russian monarchy.
841 Battle of Fontenay.
843 Picts conquered by Kenneth MacAlpine. The whole country united under one government and called Scotland. England ravaged by the Danes and the city of London burned.
844 Wars between the Greeks and Saracens.
845 Christians persecuted in Spain. Germany and Hamburg ravaged by the Normans.
846 An earthquake over the greater part of the known world. Venetian fleet destroyed and Rome besieged by the Saracens.
849 Alfred the Great born. The Pope's allies defeated by Saracens.
851 Danes defeated in the Isle of Thanet by Ethelwolf.
857 Commencement of the Greek schism.
858 First crowning of a pope. Unsuccessful invasion of France by Louis the German.
867 England ravaged by the Danes.
868 Ahmed, the Saracen governor, makes Egypt independent of the caliphs of Bagdad.
870 Saracens conquer Malta.
871 Saracens defeated at the battle of Otranto.
372 Danes defeated by Alfred the Great, king of England.
874 The Norwegians people Iceland, having discovered it three years previously.

A.D.

878 King Alfred compelled to take refuge in a small island; then defeats the Danes, and recovers his kingdom.
885 Archbishop Goslin heroically defends Paris, besieged by the Normans.
889 Germany invaded by the Hungarians.
900 England divided into counties, hundreds and tithings.
901 Alfred the Great dies and is succeeded by Edward the Elder.
912 Imperial crown transferrred from the French to the German princes. Normans take possession of Neustria.
917 Bulgarians besieged Constantinople.
921 Battle of Jonquera. Christians of Spain defeated by the Moors.
925 Athelstan becomes first sole monarch of England.
934 Turks begin to be paramount in the Saracenic empire.
937 Russians conquered in a naval victory by Romans.
939 Battle of Simancas. Moors defeated by the Christians.
940 Swiatoslaf introduces Christianity into Russia.
Saracens bring arithmetic into Europe.
955 Battle of Mersburg; Hungarians completely defeated by Otho I.
957 Slavonians defeated in Saxony by Otho.
964 Italy united to the German empire by Otho.
971 Tremendous battle of Drista between the Greeks and the Russians.
972 Fatimites in Egypt.
981 Norwegians discover Greenland.
987 Capetian kings in France. Invention of clocks with balance. Gothic Cathedrals.
993 Saints first canonized.
1000 With the conquests of Mahmud Gazni begins the authentic history of Hindostan.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

For those who wish to read extensively, the following works, used in the preparation of this number, are especially commended.

AUTHOR.	TITLE OF WORK.
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Taylor, Bayard	History of Germany.
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LAWS OF LYCURGUS.

THESE laws are commonly divided into twelve tables, arranged by subjects:

1. That the people might conceive a military life the most noble and honorable, the statues of all gods and goddesses were represented armed. The sacrifices were of small value, that want might not hinder the poor from worshiping the gods. Long or "rash prayers" were forbidden; they were not permitted to ask more "than that they might live honestly and discharge their duty." The dead were buried within the , near the temple, "that all degrees of people might be made familiar with death, and not conceive it to be such a dreadful thing." "As to the mode of burying, it was also rendered simple and inexpensive; nothing was thrown into the grave with the dead body; costly sepulchres were forbidden; neither was there so much as an inscription, however plain and modest, permitted. Tears, sighs and outcries were not allowed in public, because they were thought dishonorable in Spartans."

2. *Laws.*—Laconian lands were divided into thirty thousand equal shares, and buying and selling thereof prohibited. If a stranger acquired any of these shares, he might quietly enjoy it, provided he submitted to the laws of the country. The city of Sparta was without walls, Lycurgus "trusting it rather to the virtue of its citizens than to the art of masons." In order "that luxury might have no instruments among them," the ceilings of the houses could only be wrought by the ax, and the gates and doors only by the saw, "and their utensils were to be of a like stamp."

3. The number of citizens was to correspond to the number of city lots, and if there were more they were to be led out in colonies. The "father was directed to carry his new-born infant to a certain place, where the gravest men of his tribe looked upon the infant; and if they perceived its limbs straight and thought it had a wholesome look, then they returned it to its parents to be educated; otherwise it was thrown into a deep cavern." Strangers were not allowed to dwell long in the city, that they might not corrupt the Spartans "by teaching them new-fangled customs."

4. *Marriage.*—Among the laws relating to marriage we find the following: "Celibacy in men was infamous, and was punished in a most extraordinary manner; for, in the first place, the old bachelor was constrained to walk naked, in the depth of winter, through the market-place; secondly, while he did this he was obliged to sing a song in disparagement of himself; and, thirdly, he had none of the honors paid him which otherwise belonged to old age." The time of marriage was also fixed by law, and such as had as many as four children were exempt from all taxes.

5. *Appetites.*—It was the boast of Lycurgus that from infancy the *Lacedæmonians* should be taught to conquer their appetites. Hence, he directed that children become accustomed to spare meals and often to fasting. The strictest laws were enacted concerning their education. When twelve or thirteen years old, the children were taken to those who should examine their education; who should carefully observe whether they were able to be in the dark alone, and had gotten over all other follies and weaknesses common to children. Children of all ranks were brought up in the same way, that they might consider each other as equals. Only youths were allowed to eat flesh, and lads s ept together in chambers. Their beds, in summer, were very hard; in winter, softer, but by no means downy. All ate together in public, and if any abstained from coming to the tables they were fined. This was intended to serve as a kind of school or academy, where the young were instructed by the old, the former relating the great things that had been performed, in their memory. It was strictly forbidden for any to eat or drink at home before they came to the common meal. Drunkenness was severely punished, and slaves were compelled to drink to excess, that the beastliness of the vice might appear. When they retired from the public meal, they were not allowed any lights, because it was thought that men who were perfectly sober should be able to find their their way in the dark.

6. *Clothing.*—The rich could wear nothing better than the poor. They neither changed the fashion nor the material of their garments, and hence they were made for service and not for show. Even the kings conformed to this custom. The young lads wore a tunic till they were twelve years old; afterwards they had a cloak given them, which was to serve them a year. Boys went without shoes till grown. Even then they were inured to run without them. Boys were not permitted to wear their hair, but when they grew up they did not cut it. Young women wore their vests, or jerkins, only to their knees. Gold, precious stones and other costly ornaments were permitted only to the common women. Married women wore veils, but virgins went without them.

7. *Discipline and Manners.*—The laws required strict obedience to superiors. Old age was an unfailing title to honor. To the old men the youth rose up whenever they came into any public place; they gave way to them when they met them in the streets, and were silent whenever their elders spoke. All the old men had the authority of parents; they reprehended whatever they saw amiss. It was enacted that the youth might be nowhere without a monitor. If an old man was present when a young person committed a fault, and did not reprove him, he was punished equally with the delinquent. Among the youths was one of their own number who had authority to question all their actions and punish them. The punishments were severe, whereby the youth were made hardy and accustomed to bear stripes. Silence was commended, and it was directed that the young "should look forward, or on the ground, and that they should always keep their hands within their robes."

8. *Studies and Learning.*—They measured all things by their usefulness; and "therefore, if they wrote to be read and spoke to be understood, it was all they sought." Soldiery was the only reputable profession in Sparta; a mechanic or husbandman was thought a low fellow. They reasoned that the professions, being continually in the house or always about a fire, weakened the body and depressed the mind. Husbandry, agriculture, etc , were left to the slaves. The "curious arts," such as served only as luxuries, they would not permit introduced into the city, in consequence of which rhetoricians, augurs, bankers and dealers in money were excluded. "Theatrical diversions" were not permitted, but other entertainments were allowed provided the magistrates had the perusal of the pieces before they were given to the public. Brevity of speech was taught the children from infancy. The youths were in-

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structed in the "right ideas of men and things." The master proposed questions confined to such subjects as were of the highest importance in civil life. Music of the kind which had been in favor with their ancestors was encouraged; but they would not permit the slaves to learn either the tune or the words of their most admired odes, nor allow them to sing them if they were learned.

9. *Exercises.*—Hunting was the usual pleasure of the youths, being considered a part of their education. Also they had a kind of public dance, in which they exceedingly delighted. These were common alike to girls and young men. Indeed, it seems that in all their sports girls were associated with the boys, insomuch that at darting, throwing the quoit, pitching the bar and other exercises the women were as skillful as the men. The Spartans had a custom of whipping, at certain times, young lads in the temple of Diana, and we are told that "it was esteemed a great honor for lads to sustain these flagellations without weeping, groaning or showing any sense of pain; and the thirst of glory was so strong in these young minds that they very frequently suffered death without shedding a tear or breathing a sigh.

10. *Moneys.*—Gold and silver were of no value in Sparta; "the very possession of them was penal." Lycurgus directed the coinage of iron, a very small sum of money being sufficient "to load a couple of horses." In order to further prevent accumulation, "the coming of all foreign money was also prohibited, that corruption might not enter under the name of commerce." Interest was forbidden, and alienation of lands and accepting presents from foreigners was not allowed.

11. *Courts.*—Persons under thirty years of age could not engage in judicial proceedings Indeed, it was "held indecent and of ill report" for a man to have any fondness for lawsuits. Men of abandoned characters lost all rights of voting and speaking in public assemblies.

12. *Military Laws.*—Spartans were forbidden to fight often against the same enemy. In early times they were not allowed to meddle with maritime affairs from a persuasion that "sailors and strangers corrupted those with whom they conversed." In time of war they relaxed somewhat their customs. They did not remain long encamped in one place, and slept all night in their armor. After their evening meal was over, the soldiers sung together hymns to their gods. When they were about to charge, the king sacrificed to the muses, and himself sung the pæan, which was the signal to charge. This was done with all the solemnity imaginable, and the soldiers were sure to either die or conquer, since to flee was infamy. It is said that a Spartan lady, on the news of her son's having fled from a battle, wrote: "Fame speaks ill of you; efface it, or be no more." The Spartan women, if possible, exceeded in bravery the men, never lamenting over husbands or sons, if they died honorably in the field. We are told that "he who overcame by stratagem offered up an ox to Mars, whereas he who conquered by force offered up only a cock, the former being esteemed more manly than the latter."—*Editor.*

Training of Women.—The Lycurgean system, considering the woman as a part of the state, and not as a part of the house, placed them under training hardly less than the men. Its grand purpose, the maintenance of a vigorous breed of citizens, determined both the treatment of the younger women, and the regulation as to the intercourse of sexes. "Female slaves are good enough (Lycurgus thought) to sit at home spinning and weaving—but who can expect a splendid offspring, the appropriate mission and duty of a free Spartan woman towards her country, from mothers brought up in such occupations? Pursuant to these views, the Spartan damsels underwent a bodily training analogous to that of the Spartan youth—being formally exercised and contending with each other in running, wrestling and boxing, agreeably to the forms of the Grecian agons. They seem to have worn a light tunic, cut open at the skirts, so as to leave the limbs both free and exposed to view—hence Plutarch speaks of them as completely uncovered, while other critics in different quarters of Greece heaped similar reproach upon the practice, as if it had been perfect nakedness. The presence of the Spartan youths, and even of the kings and the body of citizens, at these exercises, lent animation to the scene. In like manner, the young women marched in the religious processions, sung and danced at particular festivals, and witnessed, as spectators, the exercises and contentions of the youth, so that the two sexes were perpetually intermingled with each other in public, in a way foreign to the habit, as well as repugnant to the feelings of other Grecian States. We may well conceive that such an education imparted to the women both a demonstrative character and an eager interest in masculine accomplishments, so that the expressions of their praise was the strongest stimulus, and that of their reproach the bitterest humiliation, to the youthful troop who heard it.—*Grote.*



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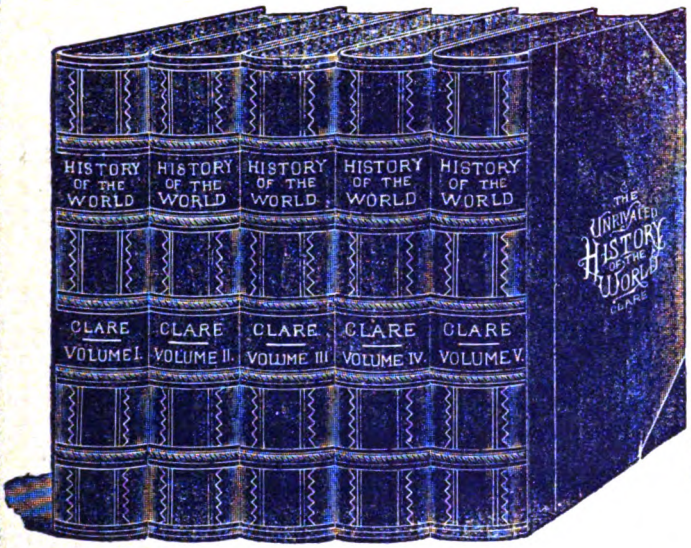

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INTRODUCTION

THE second period of medieval history has been called the Age of Revival. In it the peoples of Europe emerged from the intellectual and political night of the preceding five centuries; progress was made in government, social and political order, industries and commerce, and general enlightenment. For the first three centuries feudalism gave form to the social and political structure, while the next three saw the turbulent and unsettled social conditions that ushered in the modern order of things. The opening of the period saw Europe a mass of unorganized peoples, with government and geographical lines indistinct; at its close the great states of Europe had become organized and territorial boundaries were well defined.



Cup of St. Denys.

The study of the period groups itself around (1) the rise and fall of feudalism; (2) the struggle between the papacy and the empire; (3) the crusades; (4) the founding, growth and rivalry of national governments; (5) the growth of commerce and industry; (6) the revival of learning. The general institutions of the period will first be studied, and later the outline history of each of the leading countries.

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1. FEUDALISM.

This political and social system, which prevailed over Europe from the ninth century, was at its height from the tenth to the thirteenth. All governmental and social relations were based on it. Its essential features were: (1) A peculiar kind of land tenure; (2) special powers of sovereignty attached to the holding of land; (3) a peculiar personal relation between individuals in different classes. The origin of the system is found in a mixture of Teutonic systems and Roman legal ideas and forms.

Classes of Society.—Lords, having complete jurisdiction over their fiefs; Freemen, mainly the inhabitants of the cities; Villeins, or serfs, who were the artisans in the villages and the cultivators of the soil in the rural districts; Slaves, captives in war, few in number after the middle of our period.

1. FEUDALISM.

Origin of the Feudal System.—The German governments, being more a confederacy of independent warriors than a civil subjection, derived their principal force from many inferior and voluntary associations, which individuals formed under a particular head or chieftain, and which it became the highest point of honor to maintain, with inviolable fidelity. The glory of the chief consisted in the number, and bravery, and the zealous attachments of his retainers; the duty of the retainers required that they should accompany their chief in all wars and dangers, that they should fight and perish by his side, and that they should esteem his renown, or his favor, a sufficient recompense for all their services. The prince himself was nothing but a great chieftain, who was chosen from among the rest, on account of his superior valor or nobility, and who derived his power from the voluntary association or attachment of the other chieftains.—*Hume.*

The Feudal System.—This new division of property, however, together with the maxims and manners to which it gave rise, gradually introduced a species of government formerly unknown. This singular institution is now distinguished by the name of the Feudal System; and though the barbarous nations which framed it settled in their new territories at different times, came from different countries, spoke various languages, and were under the command of separate leaders, the feudal policy and laws were established with little variation in every kingdom in Europe This amazing uniformity has induced some authors to believe that all these nations, notwithstanding so many apparent circumstances of distinction, were originally the same people. But it may be ascribed with greater probability to the similar state of society and of manners to which they were accustomed in their native countries, and to the similar situation in which they found themselves on taking possession of their new domain.—*Robertson.*

Feudal Obligations.—We have thus far emphasized especially the obligations of the vassal; those of the seignior were no less definite and binding. The duties of the vassal may be summed up in the one word, "protection." The chief duties of the lord were to protect his vassal against enemies, to grant him full justice before the law, and to abstain from any form of violence against him or against the members, especially against the female members, of his house. Denial of any of these obligations gave the vassal the right to demand justice of the lord's suzerain and to withdraw his allegiance until justice should be done. The seignior is bound further not to divert to himself the allegiance of the sub-vassal, not to build fortresses on the land of his vassal, not arbitrarily to increase the burdens of taxation, especially by new (inauditæ) demands, and not to alienate the fief to the disadvantage of its holder—*Emerton.*

The Development of the Idea of Property.—But there is a great difference, in the consequences, between the distribution of a pecuniary subsistence and the assignment of lands burdened with the condition of military service. The delivery of the former, at the weekly, monthly, or annual terms of payment, still recalls the idea of a voluntary gratuity from the prince, and reminds the soldier of the precarious tenure by which he holds his commission. But the attachment, naturally formed with a fixed portion of land, gradually begets the idea of something like property, and makes the possessor forget his dependent situation, and the condition which was at first annexed to the grant. It seemed equitable that one who had cultivated and sowed a field should reap the harvest; hence fiefs, which were, at first, entirely precarious, were soon made annual. A man, who had employed his money in building, planting, or other improvements, expected to reap the fruits of his labor or expense; hence they were next granted during a term of years. It would be thought hard to expel a man from his possessions, who had always done his duty, and performed the conditions on which he originally received them; hence the chieftains, in a subsequent period, thought themselves entitled to demand the enjoyment of their feudal lands during life. It was found that a man would more willingly expose himself in battle, if assured that his family would inherit his possessions, and should not be left, by his death, in want and poverty; hence fiefs were made hereditary in families, and descended, during one age, to the son, then to the grandson, next to the brothers, and afterwards to more distant relations. The idea of property stole in gradually upon that of military pay; and each century made some sensible addition to the stability of fiefs and tenures.—*Hume.*

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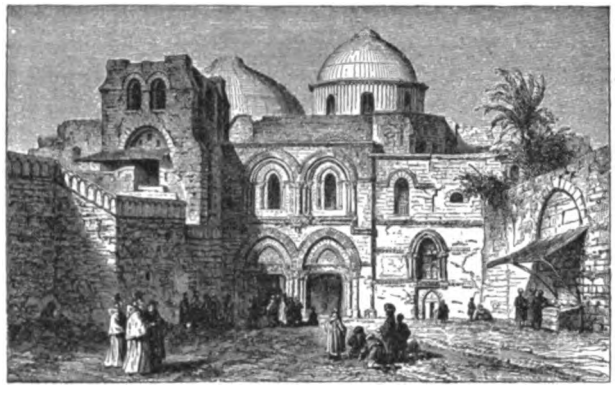
2.

Good Features.—(1) It developed the idea of individuality, personal freedom and independence; (2) it preserved the outward form of a general government, while allowing great independence to the individual; (3) it elevated the notions of personal honor and courage.

Bad Features.—It was a society based on force; it exalted the landed classes at the expense of the landless and the serf; it made strong, orderly, centralized government impossible.



Church of the Holy Sepulchre.

It began to lose force in the eleventh century, but continued in England till the Wars of the Roses; in Spain till the fifteenth century, while many remnants lingered in France till 1789, and in Germany until the present century. The *causes of its decadence* were (1) the growth of royal power; (2) the growth of the cities; (3) the growth of commerce and trade; (4) the modification in methods of warfare; in short, civilization advanced beyond the feudal stage.

2.

Good Features.—*The Education of the Boy.*—Thus the entire education of the nobility connected itself with the sole object of attaining knightood by passing through all its gradations. As soon as the boy had escaped from his maternal guide, he was transferred to the charge of some esteemed knight and friend, whom he served as a page; and, subsequently, after he had become versed in arms, and received his sword, he attended him as his esquire (famulus, armiger), regarding him as the model of his future life. He accompanied his lord at all hours, and in every occupation. In the pleasures of the chase, the festival, the tournament and military jousts, as well as in the dangers of the battle. His first duty was the most faithful attachment to the vigilant care of his lord; and if, in the heat of the battle, he had defended him with sword and shield, and had saved his life, he thence acquired the highest degree of fame that could be earned by a young nobleman.—*Kohlrausch.*

Bad Features.—The most frightful disorders arose from this state of feudal anarchy. Force decided all things. Europe was one great field of battle, where the weak struggled for freedom, and the strong for dominion. The king was without power, and the nobles without principle; they were tyrants at home and robbers abroad. Nothing remained to be a check upon ferocity and violence. The Scythians in their deserts could not be less indebted to the laws of society than the Europeans during the period under review. The people, the most numerous as well as the most useful class in the community, were either actual slaves, or exposed to so many miseries, arising from pillage and oppression, to one other of which they were a continual prey, and often to both, that many of them made a voluntary surrender of their liberty for bread and protection. What must have been the state of that government where slavery was an eligible condition!—*Russell.*

The Passion for War.—A circumstance related by Priscus in his history of the embassy to Attila, king of the Huns, gives a striking view of the enthusiastic passion for war which prevailed among the barbarous nations. When the entertainment to which that fierce conqueror admitted the Roman embassadors, was ended, two Scythians advanced towards Attila, and recited a poem in which they celebrated his victories and military virtues. All the Huns fixed their eyes with attention on the bards. Some seemed to be delighted with the verses; others remembering their own battles and exploits, exulted with joy; while those who were become feeble through age burst out into tears, bewailing the decay of their vigor, and the state of inactivity in which they were now obliged to remain.—*Robertson.*

The King Supreme.—According to the principles of the feudal law, the king was the supreme lord of the landed property; all possessors, who enjoyed the fruits, or revenue of any part of it, held those privileges, either mediately or immediately, of him; and their property was conceived to be, in some degree, conditional. The land was still apprehended to be a species of benefice, which was the original conception of a feudal property; and the vassal owed in return for it, stated services to his baron, as the baron himself did, for his land, to the crown.—*Hume.*

Results of its Diffusion.—The period of the Middle Ages has also been called the period of Chivalry, and it was knighthood indeed which chiefly gave to it its great and peculiar lustre. By the diffusion of the feudal system over the whole of Germany, as has already been shown, the nobility became the influential portion of the empire, to the extent that, beyond the cities, few common freemen were to be found.—*Kohlrausch.*

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3. THE CRUSADES.

These were a series of enormous religious-military expeditions undertaken by the Christian people of Europe at intervals from the eleventh to the thirteenth century. The motives were: (1) Religious zeal showing itself in a desire to protect the Eastern Empire, and to recover the Holy Sepulchre from the Mohammedan Turks; (2) the love of adventure; (3) mercenary and political ambition. Of the eight crusades the first four are the most important.

The First Crusade (1096–1099), undertaken by an unwieldy mass of soldiers, priests, adventurers, women and children, captured Antioch from the Turks, took Jerusalem (1099), and founded the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem, with Godfrey of Bouillon at its head.

The Second Crusade (1147–1149), undertaken to prevent the recapture of Jerusalem by the Turks, was a total failure.

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3. THE CRUSADES.

The Crusades had the most important influence and shed the greatest lustre upon chivalry, for it was in the sacred service of God and the Savior that the swords of the knights obtained for them the greatest glory on earth. The goal which was to be attained lay far distant from home, and in other climes; the imagination became more enthusiastically excited, and the descriptions given by such as had returned from those eastern countries were perfectly adapted to heighten and render still more vivid the glowing colors of the picture their heated fancy had already formed. Thence this period was inspired by such daring and fanatic enthusiasm, that no enterprise was deemed too difficult to undertake, and such heroic deeds were actually achieved, that in modern times they have been regarded almost in the light of fabulous creations of the mind.—*Kohlrausch.*

The Crusades, or expeditions in order to rescue the Holy Land out of the hands of infidels, seem to be the first event that roused Europe from the lethargy in which it had been long sunk, and that tended to introduce any change in government or in manners. It is natural to the human mind to view those places which have been distinguished by being the residence of any illustrious personage, or the scene of any great transaction, with some degree of delight and veneration. From this principle flowed the superstitious devotion with which Christians, from the earliest ages of the church, were accustomed to visit that country which the Almighty had selected as the inheritance of his favorite people, and in which the Son of God had accomplished the redemption of mankind. As this distant pilgrimage could not be performed without considerable expense, fatigue and danger, it appeared the more meritorious, and came to be considered as an expiation for almost every crime. An opinion which spread with rapidity over Europe about the close of the tenth and beginning of the eleventh century; and which gained universal credit, wonderfully augmented the number of these credulous pilgrims, and increased the ardor with which they undertook this useless voyage. The thousand years mentioned by St. John were supposed to be accomplished, and the end of the world to be at hand A general consternation seized mankind; many relinquished their possesions, and abandoning their friends and families, hurried with precipitation to the Holy Land, where they imagined that Christ would quickly appear to judge the world.—*Robertson.*

Antioch.—Sixty-nine thousand Turks died in the battle of Antioch, while the loss of the Crusaders is not estimated at more than ten thousand; but it must be remembered that this is the account of the Christians themselves. One of the immediate consequences of this great victory was the surrender of the citadel of Antioch, which was now given up in despair. A considerable number of the soldiers forming its garrison embraced Christianity, and remained in the town, while the rest, who firmly adhered to their ancient faith, were honorably conducted beyond the conquered territory.—*James.*

After a siege of five weeks, they took Jerusalem by assault, and impelled by a mixture of military and religious rage, they put the numerous garrison and inhabitants to the sword without distinction. Neither arms defended the valiant, nor submission the timorous: no age or sex was spared; infants on the breast were pierced by the same blow with their mothers, who implored for mercy: even a multitude, to the number of ten thousand persons, who had surrendered themselves prisoners, and were promised quarter, were butchered in cold blood by those ferocious conquerors. The streets of Jerusalem were covered with dead bodies; and the triumphant warriors, after every enemy was subdued and slaughtered, immediately turned themselves, with the sentiments of humiliation and contrition, towards the Holy Sepulchre. They threw aside their arms, still streaming with blood; they advanced with reclined bodies, and naked feet and heads to that sacred monument; they sung anthems to their Savior, who had there purchased their salvation by his death and agony; and their devotion, enlivened by the presence of the place where he had suffered, so overcame their fury, that they dissolved in tears, and bore the appearance of every soft and tender sentiment. So inconsistent is human nature with itself! and so easily does the most effeminate superstition ally, both with the most heroic courage, and with the fiercest barbarity!—*Hume.*

Superstition, which in that age was at its height in Europe, was, of course, not unknown in Palestine, and all sorts of visions were seen. Battles, according to the monkish accounts, were won by relics and prayers more than by swords and lances. A part of the Holy Cross was said to be found in Jerusalem, a thousand more martyrs were dug up than ever were buried. . . . Ghosts of saints, too, were seen on every occasion, and the Devil himself, in more than one instance, appeared to the Crusaders, tempting them with consummate art to all kinds of crimes.—*James.*

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4.

The Third Crusade (1189–1192), was caused by the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin in 1187; it was led by Richard the Lion-hearted of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederick Barbarossa, Emperor of Germany. The death of Frederick and the disagreement between the other two leaders made the Crusade a failure.

The Fourth Crusade (1202–1204), starting for the Holy Land, became a commercial and military adventure, directed against Constantinople, without ever reaching the Holy Land. By the time of the later Crusades the spirit of the age had changed and its energy was expended in other directions.



Barbarossa on the March to Inconium.

Results of the Crusades.—In their immediate object—the recovery and retention of the Holy Land for the Christians—they were not successful. In other ways they had important effects: (1) They brought the peoples of Europe into closer contact and stimulated intercommunication, thus breaking down the isolation of the Dark Ages; (2) they increased geographical knowledge and stimulated travel and discovery; (3) they made the people of Europe acquainted with the higher civilization of the Mohammedan countries, thus liberalizing and broadening European ideas; (4) they stimulated commerce by giving Europe a knowledge of Oriental and other foreign products, and a desire to possess them; this was probably the greatest and most direct effect; (5) they tended to break down the feudal system and to uphold the middle class—the Third Estate. The net effect of the Crusades was to broaden human industry, ideas, intelligence and sympathies.

4.

Saladin.—For some time the Christians of the Holy Land enjoyed an interval of repose. Saladin was a religious observer of his word; and during the short space that intervened, the Latins received the full benefit of the treaty which had been executed between those monarchs. A year had scarcely elapsed ere Saladin was seized with a mortal sickness; and, finding his end approaching, he commanded the black standard, which had so often led the way to victory, to be taken down, and replaced by the shroud which was to wrap his body in the grave. This was then borne through the streets, while the criers called all men to behold what Saladin, the mighty conquerer, carried away with him of all his vast dominion. Saladin died, a monarch in whose character, though the good was not unmixed with evil, the great qualities so far preponderated, that they overbalanced the effects of a barbarous epoch and a barbarous religion, and left in him a splendid exception to most of the vices of his age, his country, and his creed. —*James.*

The Children's Crusade.—In the midst of the excitement caused by this persecution, there appeared in France in the year 1212 a shepherd-lad who, with all the apparatus of more mature prophets, declared himself called upon by God to lead an army into the Holy Land and recover the sacred soil. The attempts of the saner authorities—half-hearted attempts, lest this might after all, be the will of God—availed nothing to stem the tide of infant enthusiasm. Thousands of children, we are credibly informed, let themselves be carried away; swarms of elder innocents joined them and a regular army found its way to Marseilles, only to fall a prey to land-sharks and water-sharks, some of its members reaching the East in misery, and others, more fortunate, lost by the road. A similar story, local in Germany, carries an army of children first to Genoa and then to Brindisi, where they were prevented from embarking and sent back, as many as could get there, to their homes. Adorned as these stories undoubtedly are, by the additions of a pious legend, there is no ground for rejecting them entirely, and they are wholly in harmony with the instinct of idealism we are illustrating.—*Emerton.*

Twenty Thousand Children.—On one occasion twenty thousand children left their homes in Europe on a journey to the Holy Sepulchre, but they perished from hunger and fatigue, or were sold into slavery.—*Clare.*

The Number of Women and Children who followed the first Crusaders to the Holy Land is known to have been immense; but it is not a little extraordinary, that in spite of all the hardships and dangers of the way, a great multitude of both arrived safe at Jerusalem. The women we find, on almost all occasions, exercising the most heroic firmness in the midst of battles and destruction; and Guibert gives a curious account of the military spirit which seized upon the children during the siege of Antioch. The boys of the Saracens and the young Crusaders, armed with sticks for lances,

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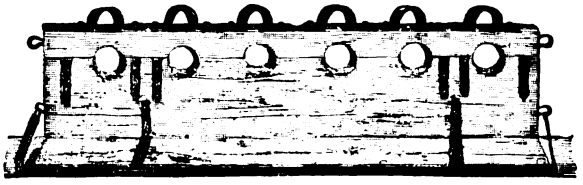
and stones instead of arrows, would issue from the town and the camp, and under leaders chosen from among themselves, who assumed the names of the principal chiefs, would advance in regular squadrons, and fight in the sight of the two hosts, with a degree of rancor which showed to what a pitch the mutual hatred of the nations was carried. Even after the Crusaders had fallen in battle or had died of the pestilence, their children still pursued their way, and getting speedily accustomed to fatigue and privation, evinced powers of endurance equal to those of the most hardy warriors.—*James.*

Influence of the Crusades Overestimated.—Perhaps the influence of the Crusades, as it respects the diffusion of the learning of the East, has been overestimated. It has been the custom of writers to draw an analogy between the effects of the conquests of Alexander the Great and those which followed the establishment of the Latin kingdom in the East. A closer examination of the facts destroys the parallel. The comparative barbarity of the Crusaders, their want of learning and complete depravity of literary taste, forbade the absorption by them of the intellectual wealth of the peoples whom they conquered. Even in Constantinople the French barons and knights appear not to have been affected by the culture and refinement of the city. Only their cupidity was excited by the splendor and literary treasures of the Eastern metropolis. It does not appear that the Crusaders, even the most enlightened of the leaders, were sufficiently interested in the possibilities of the situation to learn the language of the Greeks. The literary imagination of the invaders and conquerors of Palestine seem not to have been excited in the midst of scenes which might have been supposed to be the native sources of inspiration. Poetry followed not in the wake of these devastating excursions. Art came not as the fruit of war-like agitation, or to commemorate the exploits of medieval heroes.—*Ridpath.*

No Wars Were Ever More Disastrous than the Crusades in their immediate effects, in any way they be viewed. It is all one dark view of disappointment, sorrow, wretchedness, and sin. There were no bright spots, no gains, only calamities. Nothing consoled Europe for the loss of 5,000,000 of her most able-bodied men—no increase of territory, no establishment of rights, no glory, even; nothing but disgrace and ruin.—*Lord.*

Preserved a Reverence for Sacred Worship.—About the close of the tenth century, when it was expected that the world would soon come to an end, these pilgrimages to the East naturally greatly increased. Many rough men, like the father of William the Conqueror, sought to appease their consciences and expiate lives of crime and blood-shed by making the journey to Jerusalem. . . . They took with them their ascension robes, in the firm faith that at the Judgment Day they would be caught up from their prayers at the grave of the dead Christ to meet the triumphant Savior as he descended in glory from the heavens. . . . In a rude age such pious journeys served an important purpose. At a time when few could read, they familiarized multitudes with the places closely connected with sacred history, and thus helped to keep alive that spirit of religion and reverence which barbarism and violence threatened to utterly destroy.—*Montgomery.*



Stocks of the Middle Ages.

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5. THE MILITARY ORDERS.

Between the First and Second Crusades were formed in the Holy Land three great military orders or societies—the Knights of St. John or of the Hospital, the Knights of the Temple, and the Teutonic Knights. These orders combined the monastic and the military idea. The Knights of St. John were organized to care for and defend sick and wounded pilgrims and Crusaders; the Knights of the Temple to defend the pilgrims coming to the Holy Land; the Teutonic Order to succor German pilgrims, but soon became a military order. Their services to Christianity made them the recipients of large estates and other wealth, to be used for the purposes of the orders. After the era of the Crusades they retired and established themselves in Europe, where, owing to their wealth, they wielded great influence. During their prime these orders were of great benefit to Christian Europe, but their later life was characterized by profligacy and vice, and their extermination left no void in society.



St. Jean D'Acre.

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5. THE MILITARY ORDERS.

The Knights.—In the interval between the First and the Second Crusade, we find the beginnings of the three great military orders, the most singular combination of the dominant ideas of the Middle Ages that we shall meet anywhere. The monastic ideas, excluding the very thought of fighting and the knightly theory, totally opposed to monastic seclusion, were here combined into a most effective machine. The origin of the Knights of St. John or of the Hospital was found in the necessity of providing effective hospital service for the great numbers of wounded soldiers and sick pilgrims whom the peculiar conditions of the country were always bringing down along the routes of travel. Such care included the idea of defense, and thus out of a body of nurses grew a society of armed men. Vows followed as a matter of course. Property was acquired as a means of supplying the pressing necessities of their work. Before very long, lands and houses of the Hospital were to be found scattered about, in all the western countries, and the organization had grown to rival the existing monastic orders and came even to equal the popularity of the mendicants of the thirteenth century.

More secular in its origin was the Order of the Temple, so called from the quarters in the enclosure of the old temple at Jerusalem granted them by the king as their first abiding-place. Their mission was strictly one of defense, to provide for the safe passage of the pilgrims coming southward and eastward and then to give their services in the border warfare continually going on. The Teutonic Order began with the hospitality of a German merchant in Jerusalem towards those of his own countrymen who might need help while in the East. It was thus in its beginnings a national affair, but soon outgrew those limits and came to be, like the Order of the Temple, a purely military body with the primary duty of defending the sacred soil. During the heroic period of the Crusades these military orders were the chief reliance of the new states.—*Emerton.*

Military Orders (See Glossary).

St. Jean D'Acre Taken.—At last an important defense, by the name of the Cursed Tower, yielded to the assailants, and went down with a crash. The breach thus effected in the defenses opened into the heart of the city. Then it was that Lusignan, whom the folly of the times still designated as king of Jerusalem, gathering together a band of friends and favorites, fled in the darkness, went on shipboard, and left the city to its fate. But the Teutonic Knights, scorning the conduct of the royal poltroon, rallied in the breach with an energy born of heroism rather than despair, and beat back the Moslems with terrible slaughter. The latter rallied again and again to the charge, and at last the bleeding Knights, reduced to a handful, were overborne by the Infidel host, and hurled backward from their post of glory. In poured the savage tides of victorious Islam, hungry for blood and revenge. The few inhabitants who remained in the city were quickly butchered or seized as slaves. In the last hours, the surviving Knights of the Hospital and the Temple shared the dying glory of the Teutonic chivalry. Sallying forth from the parts of the defenses which had been assigned to their keeping, they charged upon the Moslems, and fought till only seven of the gallant band remained to tell the tale of destruction. This remnant of an Order, which it is impossible not to admire for its stubborn exhibition of medieval virtues gained the coast, and, with good reason, considering that their monastic vows had been fulfilled, saved themselves by embarkation —*Ridpath.*

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6. CHIVALRY.

One of the most prominent of the institutions of the Middle Ages was at its height during the Crusades. The early German ideas of personal bravery, fondness for feats of arms and respect for woman, coupled with regard for the oppressed and unfortunate, inculcated by Christianity, were the fundamentals of chivalry. It became a formal institution, prevalent over Europe. All sons of noblemen were trained in its ceremonies and ideas, and at the age of twenty-one were knighted. Jousts, tournaments, expeditions and wars were their occupation. Feudalism and the Crusades tended to develop chivalry, the former easily adapting itself to such ideas of life, and the latter giving opportunity for the activity of the knights. The bad side of chivalry was that it fostered aristocracy, and that under the guise of knighthood many excesses and vices were committed. "Probably the perfect knight was as rare a creature as the perfect gentleman in this or in any age." The external forms of chivalry passed away in the fifteenth century, but its spirit, its ideal of life and manners and character continued in force. Manhood marked by truth, loyalty, courtesy, bravery, devotion to the weak, reverence for woman, is traceable in large degrees to chivalry.

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6. CHIVALRY.

The Noble Institution of Chivalry, was, in fact, of the highest importance in its results to the whole of the Christian nations, inasmuch as even when the imperial dignity lost its powerful influence, and the authority of the church began to totter on its base, the principles of honor and rectitude, together with the irresistible force commanded by the manly, chivalric word, in all cases of need and succor, operated so beneficially upon all classes, that this grand and illustrious foundation of knighthood served as a tower of strength, impregnable against all subsequent attacks attempted by uncivilized and barbarous assailants. —*Kohlrausch.*

Chivalry and Religion.—What preceded the regular recognition of chivalry as an institution is entirely traditional; yet in all the old romances, fabliaux, sirventes, ballads, etc., not one instance is to be found in which a squire becomes a knight, without some reference to his religious faith. If he be dubbed in the battle-field, he swears to defend the right, and maintain all the statutes of the noble order of chivalry, upon the cross of his sword; he calls heaven to witness his vow, and the saints to help him in its execution. Even in one of the most absurd fables of the chivalrous ages, wherein we find Saladin himself receiving the order of chivalry from the hands of the Count de Tabarie, that nobleman causes the infidel sultan to be shaved, and to bathe as a symbol of baptism, and then to rest himself upon a perfumed bed, as a type of the repose and joy of Paradise. These tales are all fictitious, it is true; and few of them date earlier than the end of the twelfth century; but at the same time, as they universally ascribe religious ceremonies to the order of knighthood, we have every reason to suppose that such ceremonies formed a fundamental part of the institution.—*James.*

Solemnities of the Ceremony.—But chivalry, considered as a civil and military institution, is as late as the eleventh century. The previous discipline and solemnities of initiation were many and singular. The novice in chivalry was educated in the house of some knight, commonly a person of high rank, whom he served first in the character of page, and afterward of squire, nor was he admitted to the supreme honor of knighthood, until he had given many striking proofs of his valor and addresses. The ceremony of initiation was very solemn. Severe fastings, and nights spent in the church or chapel in prayer; confessions of sins and the receiving of the sacraments with devotion; bathing, and putting on white robes, as emblems of that purity of manners required by the laws of chivalry, were necessary preparations for this ceremony. When the candidate for knighthood had gone through all these, and other introductory formalities, he fell at the feet of the person from whom he expected that honor, and on his knees delivered to him his sword. After answering suitable questions, the usual oath was administered to him; namely to serve his prince, defend the faith, protect the persons and reputation of virtuous ladies, and to rescue, at the hazard of his life, widows, orphans, and all unhappy persons groaning under injustice or oppression. Then the knights and ladies, who assisted at the ceremony, adorned the candidate with the armor and ensigns of chivalry; beginning with putting on the spurs, and ending with girding him with the sword. Seeing him thus accoutred, the king or nobleman, who was to confer the honor of knighthood, gave him the accolade, or dubbing, by three gentle strokes with the flat part of the sword on the shoulder, or with the palm of his hand on the neck, saying, "In the name of God, St. Michael, and St. George, I make thee a knight! be thou loyal, brave, and hardy."—*Russell*

Feudalism and the Crusades Tended to Develop Chivalry.—Under the influence of Feudalism arose the institution of chivalry; and though the virtues of chivalry may be poetic, and exaggerated, there can be no doubt that it was a civilizing institution, and partially redeemed the Middle Ages. It gave rise to beautiful sentiments; it blazed in new virtues, rarely seen in the old civilization.—*Lord.*

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FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

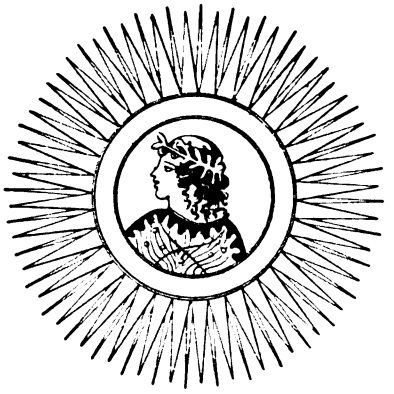
1. **FEUDALISM.**—Origin, Causes, Obligations, Idea of Property.
2. **FEUDALISM.**—Good Features, Bad Features, Passion for War, Kings, Results.
3. **THE CRUSADES.**—First Crusade, Second Crusade, Antioch, Superstition.
4. **THE CRUSADES.**—Third Crusade, Fourth Crusade, Saladin, Children's Crusade, Results and Influences of the Crusades.
5. **THE MILITARY ORDERS.**—Knights of the Hospital, Knights of the Temple, Teutonic Knights, The Assassins, Chivalry Foretold.
6. **CHIVALRY.**—Chivalry and Religion, Ceremonies of Knighthood. Causes and Results.

QUESTIONS.

1. *Define the Feudal system? What was its origin? What were the feudal obligations? How was the idea of property developed?*
2. *Name the good features of feudalism? The bad features? Give reasons for your answers. What may be said of the passion for war during these ages? What was the position and power of the king? Name some of the results of the diffusion of feudal ideas? Give reasons for your answers.*
3. *What were the causes of the Crusades? The motives? Give reasons for your conclusions. How were the Crusades conducted? Who engaged in them? Give an account of the battle of Antioch. Give illustrations of the superstitions of the time.*
4. *What can you say of the number of Crusades? The Children's Crusade? Name the results of the Crusades? The influences? Give reasons for your answers.*
5. *Name the military orders. How did each originate? Give the individual history of each. How did their origin foretell the Age of Chivalry?*
6. *What was the origin of Chivalry? How was chivalry and religion connected? How did chivalry influence the education of the youth? Give the ceremony connected with knighthood.*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What causes produced the Feudal System? How was its decline brought about? What systems, laws, customs or conditions were the outgrowth of it? Give reasons for your answers.*
2. *Repeat the questions under "1" with reference to the Crusades? Chivalry?*
3. *Repeat the questions under "1," carefully comparing the Feudal System, the Crusades and the Age of Chivalry. What do you consider the strongest feature of each? What part have all, taken collectively, played in developing our present civilization? Had there ever been, in all previous history, anything comparable to either of these systems? Why not?*
4. *What do you consider the greatest good derived each from the Feudal System, the Crusades, and Age of Chivalry? Why?*
5. *Trace out the origin, growth and history of the idea of "land tenure."*
6. *Trace out the origin, growth and history of the establishment of lords, barons, and other titled nobility.*
7. *Carefully compile a few historical illustrations showing the origin, cause, extent and character of the superstitions of the fifteenth century.*
8. *What was the origin, character, extent and result of the Children's Crusade?*
9. *What causes gave rise to the military orders? What relation did they sustain to the Age of Chivalry? Give reasons for your answers.*



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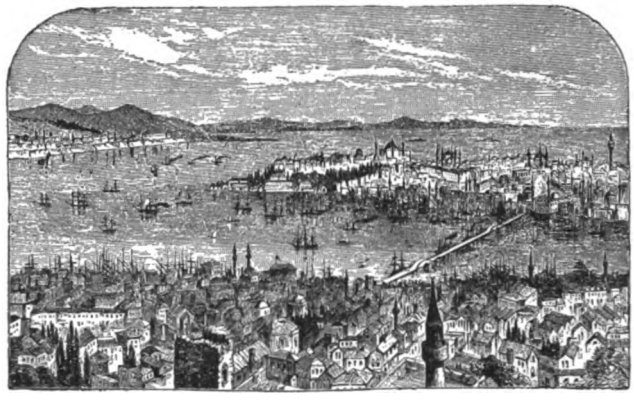
7. THE RISE OF COMMERCE.

During the Dark Ages there was little exchange of products between different parts of the same country, still less between different countries of Europe, and almost none between Europe and the Oriental countries. Commerce received a great impetus from the Crusades, which created a desire in Europe for eastern products and stimulated the activity of the merchants of the Mediterranean ports, who became the middlemen between the West and the East. New routes and increased means of traffic were demanded, thus leading to exploration and discoveries, and to the development of the art of navigation. Immediate consequences of this commercial activity were the growth of manufacturing industries, improvement of monetary systems, creation of banks, all of which were evidences of an advancing civilization. Among the chief effects was the impetus given to the cities of Europe which were at this time beginning to assume importance.



Constantinople from the Tower of Galata.

7. THE RISE OF COMMERCE.

Commerce and the Cities.—If the noble became impoverished, the merchant became enriched; and the merchant lived, not in the country, but in some mercantile mart. The Crusaders had need of ships. These were furnished by those cities which had obtained from feudal sovereigns charters of freedom. Florence, Pisa, Venice, Genoa, Marseilles, became centers of wealth and political importance.—*Lord.*

The Holy Wars.—Not only did the crusading expeditions inure to the benefit of the Italian Republics, but also to the general commerce of the western states. The naval enterprises were conducted with so great success by the merchant sailors of Italy that trading-posts were established in the Levant, into which were poured and out of which were exported the riches of the Orient. Merchandising became the most profitable of all pursuits. Not only the cities of Italy, but those of Germany, of England, and of the north of Europe, felt the life-giving impulse of the new commerce established with the East. No other circumstance between the time of the downfall of the Roman Empire of the West and the double discovery of the New World and an all-water route to India, did so much to revive the dormant commercial spirit of Europe as did the Holy Wars of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.—*Ridpath.*

Baronial Lords Cleave the Skulls of the Turks While the Burghers Grow Rich.—The chief manufactures of Medieval Europe were located in the towns, and to these the Crusaders must apply for their war-harness and accoutrements. The tradesmen were sufficiently pious to furnish the pilgrims with arms and to charge therefor such rates of profit as would have been satisfactory to an Israelite. By this means a large part of the wealth of feudal Europe flowed into the towns, so that by the middle of the century most of the baronial estates had either consumed their resources or were heavily mortgaged to capitalists living in the cities. The burghers grew great in wealth, while the baronial lords were cleaving the skulls of Turks and Mamelukes in the kingdom of Jerusalem.—*Ridpath.*

Moneyed Institutions.—The growth of commerce, in the course of time, led to the establishment of moneyed institutions. Most nations in the Middle Ages treated the lending of money for profit as a crime. This trade was at first entirely conducted by the Jews, who were long subjected to cruel persecution, being maltreated and swindled to a shameful extent. In the thirteenth century the merchants of Lombardy and Southern France took up the trade in money by beginning the business of remitting money on bills of exchange and of making profits on loans. The "Lombard usurers," in spite of much prejudice, established themselves in all the leading commercial centers of Europe. As the practical utility of this business was soon recognized, this ancient prejudice gradually died away. The earliest bank of deposit is said to have been that of Barcelona, in Spain, founded in 1401. The bank of Genoa was established in 1407, and soon became a great power.—*Clare.*

Free Cities.—Their riches soon gave them the means to purchase their freedom and independence from the princes who held them in dominion, for as in those ancient times, when but few or no regular imposts were levied, the privileges of those princes and lords were not so productive as now, no large sum was required to obtain this emancipation. The cities then acknowledged the emperor alone as their superior feudal lord, and thence were called free imperial cities.—*Kohlrausch.*

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8. THE RISE OF THE CITIES.

The cities are an evidence of a high civilization. The overthrow of the Roman Empire had been fatal to the activities and the liberties of the cities in the Empire. Under the civilization of the feudal system agriculture was the natural and the chief occupation, hence during that epoch there was little reason for the revival of cities. When trade, commerce and manufactures began to spring up, the artisans and traders crowded to the villages, towns and cities, which thus took on a new importance. In France, Germany, and England the cities in return for fixed payments to the feudal lords or sovereign often obtained exemptions from feudal dues and services. Charters were obtained from the sovereigns conferring rights of self-government on the cities and exempting them from the jurisdiction of the holder of the fief on which they stood. In Italy the cities acquired almost complete independence, and became petty states. The Crusades and the resulting commercial activity benefited especially the Italian cities. Venice, Pisa, Genoa and others illustrate the rapid growth of the cities in power and position.

Trade requirements led to the formation of the Hanseatic League of German cities for mutual protection, and the league became an important political element in Germany.

The rise of the cities was fatal to feudalism because it set up the commercial and artisan class against the prerogatives of the landed feudality, broke down the power of the nobles, and, especially in France, helped to upbuild the authority of the king. The cities of Europe came to be the centers of free thought and prompt action in behalf of political liberty, and have been the radical element in revolution and reform at all times since.

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8. THE RISE OF THE CITIES.

Advantages of Towns.—As one part of the people owed their liberty to the erection of communities, another was indebted to them for their security. Such had been the state of Europe during several centuries, that self-preservation obliged every man to court the patronage of some powerful baron, and in times of danger his castle was the place to which all resorted for safety. But towns surrounded with walls, whose inhabitants were regularly trained to arms, and bound by interest, as well as by the most solemn engagements, reciprocally to defend each other, afforded a more commodious and secure retreat. The nobles began to be considered as of less importance, when they ceased to be the sole guardians to whom the people could look up for protection against violence.—*Robertson.*

Germany a By-way of Commerce.—While the aristocracy of the German nation thus vigorously cultivated itself and wore the sword equally for the honor of their faith and defence of their country, the citizens in the towns labored with industry and activity for their commercial prosperity. The German cities during this period daily increased in population and riches, and the source of all was commerce, for which also the Crusades operated very advantageously. The spirit for great undertakings and speculations was aroused, the costly wares of southern countries were brought more frequently and in greater abundance to Europe. The Italian maritime cities, particularly Venice, Genoa and Pisa, introduced the merchandise of the east, and then it was conveyed the same as the produce of Italy itself along the ancient commercial roads, through the passes of the Alps to Germany, there extending its transit upon the high roads and rivers, and what was not consumed in the country itself was carried still farther towards the territories bordering upon the North Sea and the Baltic. All that was brought to the northern countries from across the ocean was forwarded through Germany, and by means of this extensive commercial agency, to which was added the produce of native German industry, the ancient cities of the empire progressed and flourished in all their wealth and prosperity.—*Kohlrausch.*

The Hanseatic League.—As civilization advanced new towns arose, especially in Germany and Italy, and the old towns recovered their ancient greatness The real importance of the German towns began with the Hanseatic League, which was of the greatest importance to commerce and freedom. The Hanseatic League, comprising seventy cities and towns, maintained powerful fleets and defended commerce in the northern seas against piracy. In Italy the Lombard cities rose to greatness, and finally threw off the nominal yoke of the German Emperor. The great Italian republics of Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Florence engrossed the commerce of the Mediterranean and the East.—*Clare.*

Charters of Community.—Louis the Gross, in order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals who controlled, or gave law to the crown, first adopted the plan of conferring new privileges on the towns situated within his own domain. These privileges were called charters of community, by which he enfranchised the inhabitants, abolished all marks of servitude, and formed them into corporations or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magistrates of their own nomination.—*Robertson.*

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9. THE PAPACY AND THE EMPIRE.

(A.) **The Ascendency of the Papacy.**—The year 1000 saw the world-monarchy, represented by the Holy Roman Empire, and the world-church, the Holy Catholic Church, claiming position as joint rulers of the earth; but a struggle was imminent, since neither Emperor nor Pope was long content to admit the equality, still less the supremacy, of the other. In the eleventh century Hildebrand (Gregory VII.) first fully conceived the idea of absolute Papal supremacy in all temporal as well as spiritual affairs in Europe, and sought to carry it into effect. By reform within the church, and the destruction of the feudal authority of laymen over ecclesiastical vassals, he aimed to establish first the independence of the church and then its domination over the temporal rulers. The struggle between Gregory and the Emperor, Henry IV., over the investitures, immensely increased the prestige of the Pope. During the twelfth and the thirteenth centuries the papal authority reached its height. Not only was the Pope head of the spiritual power, but nearly all the kings of Europe acknowledged fealty to him for their possessions. The triumph of Innocent III. (1198-1216) over Philip Augustus of France and John of England carried the papal power to its highest point. The temporary ascendency of Frederick II. (1212-1250) was followed by the completer loss of power on the part of the Empire, and by the unrivaled domination of the papacy until the time of Boniface VIII.



Henry IV.

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9. THE PAPACY AND THE EMPIRE.

An Unmarried Priesthood.—It remained for Gregory VII. to conceive the stupendous scheme of raising the papal scepter above all powers and dominions of the earth. The project was no less in its design than the establishment of a colossal religious empire, to which all kingdoms, peoples and tribes should do a willing obeisance. In carrying out this prodigious design Gregory conceived that the first steps necessary were certain reforms in the church itself. He began by espousing the doctrine of a celibate clergy. He resolved that every priest of Christendom should belong wholly to the church, and should know no tie of earthly kinship of affection. The struggle which had been begun in the times of Charlemagne for the obliteration of a married priesthood was renewed in all western Europe. In the meantime the spread of the monastic orders, all of which were celibate, had greatly strengthened the cause of an unmarried priesthood. In 1074 the law of celibacy was proclaimed as a fundamental principle of the Romish hierarchy, and from that day forth the power and influence of the opposing party in the church began to wane until it was finally extinguished in the fourteenth century.—*Ridpath.*

Henry IV. Humiliated.—In 1075, Gregory promulgated a law against simony. . . . The same year, he sent messengers to Henry IV., calling upon him to enforce this law in Germany, under penalty of excommunication. The surprise and anger of the king may easily be imagined; it was a language which no Pope had ever before dared to use towards the imperial power. . . . Henry IV. called a synod, which met at Worms. The bishops declared that Gregory VII. was deposed from the Papacy. . . . He answered Henry IV. with the ban of excommunication. . . . In October, 1076, finally, a convention of princes was held on the Rhine, near Mayence. . . . As soon as Henry IV. learned that Gregory had accepted the invitation, he was seized with a panic as unkingly as his former violence. Accompanied only by a small retinue, he hastened to Burgundy, crossed Mont Cenis in the dead of winter, encountering many sufferings and dangers on the way, and entered Italy with the single intention of meeting Pope Gregory and persuading him to remove the ban of the church. At the news of his arrival in Lombardy, the bishops and nobles from all the cities flocked to his support, and demanded only that he should lead them against the Pope. . . . Victory was assured to Henry, if he had but grasped it; but he seems to have possessed no courage except when inspired by hate. He neglected the offered help, went to Canossa, and, presenting himself before the gate barefoot and clad only in a shirt of sack-cloth, he asked to be admitted and pardoned as a repentant sinner. Gregory, so unexpectedly triumphant, prolonged for three whole days the satisfaction which he enjoyed in the king's humiliation; for three days the latter waited at the gate in snow

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and rain, before he was received. Then, after promising to obey the Pope, he received the kiss of peace, and the two took communion together in castle-chapel! This was the first great victory of the papal power.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Temporary Ascendency of Frederick II.—Upon this occasion Frederick also held, in 1235, a grand diet at Mentz, where 64 princes, and about 12,000 nobles and knights were present. Here written laws were made relative to the peace of the country; and other regulations adopted, which showed the empire the prudence of its emperor. Before the diet assembled, he celebrated, at Worms, his espousal with his second consort, the English princess, Isabella. The imperial bride was received upon the frontiers by a splendid suite of nobles and knights; in all the cities through which she passed, the clergy met her, accompanied by choirs of sacred music, and the cheerful peals of the church-bells; and in Cologne, the streets of which were superbly decorated, she was received by ten thousand citizens on horseback, in rich clothing and arms. Carriages with organs, in the form of ships, their wheels and horses concealed by purple coverings, caused an harmonious music



Bishops of the Eleventh Century.

to resound, and throughout the whole night choirs of maidens serenaded beneath the windows of the emperor's bride. At the marriage in Worms, four kings, eleven dukes, and thirty counts and margraves, were present. Frederick made the most costly presents to the English ambassador; and among the rest, he sent rich gifts of curiosities from the east to the king of England, as well as three leopards, the leopards being included in the English coat of arms.—*Kohlrausch.*

The Pope's Arrogance and the bitter and cruel hostility which he manifested toward the Emperor Frederick II., disgusted the great sovereigns of Europe. Even St. Louis, King of France, refused to permit Innocent IV. to take up his residence in the French dominions. James I., King of Aragon, courteously declined to receive the Pope in his kingdom. When King Henry III. of England was appealed to for this purpose, he bluntly replied: "We have already suffered too much from the usuries and simonies of Rome; we do not want the Pope to pillage us." Henry III. had only a short time before dismissed the papal legate at the demand of the barons, with the hearty exclamation: "The devil take thee away to hell!"

The crowned heads of Europe were alarmed by the growing power and the insatiable ambition of the Pope, who claimed authority over all the kingdoms of the world, the right to set up and pull down whom he pleased, and whose claims were well expressed by the following remark of Innocent IV.: "We are no mere man; we have the place of God upon Earth!" Innocent IV. was not content with merely asserting his pretensions. He promptly proceeded to enforce them by the power of the sword.

Thus being obliged by the coldness of the great powers of Europe to remain at Lyons, Pope Innocent IV. summoned a council of the Church at that city. This council convened in June, A.D, 1245, but was very far from representing the entire Church. The Pope accused the Emperor Frederick II. of many crimes, and charged him with being false to the Church, a believer in Mohammedanism, and a blasphemer of God. The learned jurisconsult, Thaddeus of Suessa, ably and fearlessly defended Frederick II.; but the animosity of Innocent IV. prevailed over every form of law and justice recognized by the Church. The council excommunicated the Emperor, declared him to have forfeited his dominions, absolved his subjects from their allegiance to him, threatened his adherents with the ban of the Church, urged the Pope to appoint a new king for Sicily, and ordered the German princes to elect a new king for Germany.

When the Emperor was informed of the council's decision, he exclaimed haughtily: "I hold my crown of God alone; neither the Pope, the council nor the devil shall rend it from me!"

The civil war between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines was now renewed with the most desperate fury in Italy and Germany. The Emperor's enemies conspired against his life, and he was in constant peril everywhere. The Pope seemed desperate and unscrupulous enough to use any means, and base enough to sanction any plot. The better nature of Frederick II. was overcome by this disreputable method of warfare, and he became suspicious and cruel. The Emperor's partisans injured his cause with the Northern Italians by their severities, and he speedily lost ground among them.—*Edited.*

The Church was the Great Popular Institution of the Middle Ages, cheering and protecting the poor and friendless; the teacher, the healer, the feeder of the "little people of God." The services of monastic and secular clergy alike, their offices of faith, charity and labor in the field and the hovel, in the school and the hospital, as well as in the church, were for centuries the chief witnesses of the spirit of human brotherhood, and of the one essential doctrine of Christianity.—*Norton.*

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10.

(B.) **Decadence of the Papacy as a Temporal Power.**—The attempt of Boniface VIII. (1294–1303) to interfere in the government of France (Philip the Fair) was met by the denial from the French monarch and states-general of the right of the Pope to supremacy over the state. Similar denial of the Pope's temporal authority came from England (Edward I.) and other states of Europe. The rising spirit of national patriotism and independence overcame the temporal power of the Pope, while his spiritual primacy was still recognized. The removal of the papal throne from Rome to Avignon (1309–1378) still further destroyed the universal character of the Papacy by placing it under the domination of the French monarch. This was the period of the Babylonian captivity, during which, in proportion as the Pope came under French control, he lost authority with other nations, and even at last with some of the clergy.

The Great Schism (1378–1417) resulted from the discontent of the Italians and the confusion in the papal states during the Babylonian captivity. Each party elected a Pope. Two Popes, two capitals and the church divided were fatal to papal power. With the election of Martin V. as Pope (1417) after the councils of Pisa and Constance, the schism was outwardly healed, but the temporal authority of the Pope was largely gone and the spiritual authority was weakened.

10.

Religious Opinions.—It is far more important to observe the disposition of the public mind in respect of religion, which not only claims to itself one great branch of literature, but exerts a powerful influence over almost every other. The greater part of literature in the Middle Ages, at least from the twelfth century, may be considered as artillery levelled against the clergy. I do not say against



Seal of Edward I.

the church, which might imply a doctrinal opposition by no means universal. But if there is one theme upon which the most serious as well as the lightest; the most orthodox as the most heretical writers are united, it is ecclesiastical corruption. Divided among themselves, the secular clergy detested the regular; the regular monks satirized the mendicant friars, who, in their turn, after exposing both to the ill-will of the people, incurred a double portion of it themselves. In this most important respect, therefore, the influence of mediæval literature was powerful towards change. But it rather loosened the associations of ancient prejudice, and prepared mankind for revolutions of speculative opinion, than brought them forward. —*Hallam.*

Condition of the Church.—Amid such ideas and currents of feeling it was impossible that the church should be reverenced and valued as before. Various special causes aided the depreciation of her, turning it in many quarters into contempt and hatred. 1. The great schism of the west, 1378–1417, two rival popes, seven years of the time three, with credentials of apparently equal validity, thundering excommunications at each other. 2. Dissidence of view during and after the councils of Pisa, 1409, and Constance, 1414–1418, on the question whether or not Pope was superior to council. 3. The Inquisition, organized by Innocent III., and extensively used against the Albigenses, but always unpopular with the masses, especially in Germany. 4. The discovery that Aquinas had many wise misinterpreted Aristotle, also the prevalence of Averroistic views on several important questions, notably that of immortality. 5. The chill zeal for the positive element in Christianity received from the ardent study of the classics. 6. The contrast of the poverty of even the royal laity with the wealth of ecclesiastical institutions and the exorbitant demands on their behalf urged by greedy and assuming churchmen. 7. Most serious of all, the moral corruption in ecclesiastical circles, especially in Italy. Popes practiced open concubinage and simony, and in governing the church, purely in their own interest, made free use of poison and the dagger. Prelates who had paid high for places were butchered that these might be sold again. The worst was under Alexander VI.; his court was a den of fiends, embracing an assassin-in-chief, a professional poison mixer, a numerous harem. The moral gangrene spread to monasteries, nunneries, laic life. Bastards were too common to bear stigma, the words "honor" and "virtue" lost their old meanings, morality sunk to a level lower than Epicurean.—*Andrews.*

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11. THE NORMANS IN ENGLAND.

We have seen the various kingdoms in England united under the supremacy of Wessex. On the death of Edward the Confessor (1066) the election of Harold, Earl of the West Saxons, precipitated the Norman invasion. The Normans, originally Scandinavians (Norsemen), after settling in Normandy (North France) had become civilized and their duke was one of the mightiest of the continental barons. William, duke of Normandy, claimed the throne of England on the death of Edward, by previous promise of Edward, and sworn assent of Harold, and invaded England to make good his claim. The defeat of the English (Hastings, 1066), the coronation of William, and the conquest of the kingdom speedily followed. William established the Norman barons in possession of the land while the Saxons who constituted the mass of the population were placed in subordinate relations. The personal force of William gave to England a strong central government, a thing necessary to her advancement. The Saxon laws were, as a rule, allowed to remain in force. The infusion of Norman blood gave a valuable new element to the English people.

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11. THE NORMANS IN ENGLAND.

Normandy, one of the largest and most considerable provinces of France, was possessed by the Normans ever since the forced grant made by Charles the Simple to Rollo the Dane, the first duke. Rollo and his immediate successors, content with this noble acquisition, were less solicitous about enlarging their bounds, than securing the possession to their posterity. By means of numerous colonies of their own nation, who by reciprocal marriages were incorporated with the natives, they soon caused the two nations to become one people, under the common name of Normans. For so the French called the foreigners lately settled in Neustria, which from them took also the name of Normandy. The first dukes made it their principal care to gain the affection of their subjects, by causing them to enjoy, as far as possible, the sweets of peace, and governing them with justice and equity. By this prudent conduct they not only destroyed the seeds of rebellion, which might lurk in the hearts of the ancient inhabitants, but also screened themselves from the secret practices of the kings of France, who grieved to see so noble a province torn from their monarchy. Accordingly, when the French, at any favorable juncture, attempted to recover it, they always found the dukes of Normandy able to defend themselves with their own forces, because they were assured of the people's affection.—*Rapin.*

Hastings.—It is well known that after the death of Edward the Confessor, there were two great competitors for the throne, Harold, an English noble of great possessions and power, and William, Duke of Normandy. The latter raised a great army, composed of his own nobility, together with a great portion of the chivalry of Europe, who flocked to his standard to engage in what was considered the greatest enterprise of the age. Besides these he carried a large force of hired troops. He completely defeated the English army under Harold, at Hastings, and the prize was the crown of England.—*Dew.*

Doomsday Book.—He therefore judged it reasonable that the foreigners who were proprietors of the estates in England, should be liable to the same impositions as the English. But that he might proceed in due proportion, he wanted to know the value of every person's estate. To this end he ordered an exact survey to be taken of the lands, goods and chattels of all his subjects. This survey contained the number of acres in each man's estate, what he was wont to pay in the Saxon reigns, and how much he had been taxed of late years since the Revolution. Moreover, what stock each had of horses, cattle, sheep, etc, How much ready money in his house, what he owed, and what was owing to him. All this was set down in great order in a book called Doomsday Book, that is, the book of the Day of Judgment, apparently to denote that the means of the English were sifted in that book, as the actions of mankind will be at that great day. This general register, which some term the Great Terrar, or Land-Book of England, was laid up in the exchequer or king's treasury, to be consulted upon occasion; that is, as an historian expresses it, when it was required to know, of how much more wool the English flocks might be fleeced.—*Rapin.*

William and the Feudal System.—He introduced into England the feudal polity, which he found established in France and Normandy; and which, during that age, was the foundation both of the stability and of the disorders in most of the monarchical governments of Europe. He divided all the lands of England, with few exceptions, besides the royal domain, into baronies; and he conferred these, with the reservation of stated services and payments, on the most considerable of his followers. The barons, who held immediately of the crown, shared out part of their lands to other foreigners, who were denominated knights or vassals, and who paid their lord the same duty and submission, in peace and war, which he owed to his sovereign. None of the native English were admitted into the first rank; the few who retained any landed property were therefore glad to be received into the second, and, under the protection of some powerful Norman, to load themselves and their posterity with a grievous servitude for estates which had been transmitted free to them from their ancestors.—*Russell.*

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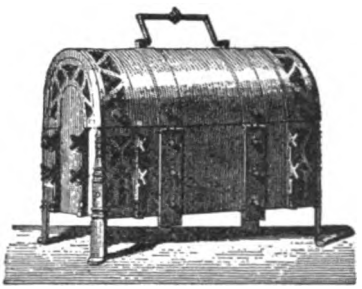
12. THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLAND.

The Norman Period (1066-1154.)—The firm government of the Conqueror was continued by his successors and under it England flourished. A disputed succession to the throne in 1135 deluged the kingdom with civil war, which was not wholly settled until 1153. During the century of Norman kings the government was strengthened and England was brought into closer contact with the continent.



Trunk of the Fourteenth Century.

The Plantagenets (1154-1399).—Henry II., the first of the Plantagenets (Angevins), was also the chief vassal of the French King, hence followed a period of rivalry between the King of France and the King of England as possessor of fiefs in France, until with John nearly all French possessions of England were lost. The quarrel of John with the Pope and his humiliating acknowledgment of the Pope's overlordship of England aroused the indignation of the English barons and people. This feeling and John's exactions led to the uprising of the barons and won from the King the Magna Charta, which is the foundation of the English constitution.

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12. THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLAND.

William.—The authority of William was more complete than that of any other monarch of Europe in his domains. 1st. William himself was one of the ablest kings and greatest generals of the age. 2d. He had conquered England at the head of the finest army in Europe, a large portion of which consisted of mercenary Brabancons devoted to his will; 3d. The great crown vassals were disposed to acquiesce in his power for two reasons. First, they held estates in England and likewise in Normandy, therefore they did not wish the two countries severed, which might cause the confiscation of their property in one or the other, and they felt that the union of the two under one government must depend upon the power of the crown. Second, they were afraid of the Anglo-Saxons, who had been recently conquered. Hence we find barons during William's time constantly united among themselves, and rallying around the king, in order the better to prevent the terrible insurrections of the Anglo-Saxons. It was for this reason that while we behold on the continent each nation gradually splitting up into a number of independent local powers, in England the aristocracy never set up for this individual independence, but remained united for the sake of security. What could the barons of William have done if each one had been entirely independent and isolated? The native English would soon have conquered them in detail. Whereas, by union, by making common cause with each other, they were enabled to maintain their government.—*Dew.*

The King's Great Affection for Normandy was another of his governing passions. Everything practiced there, was, in his opinion, the pattern of perfection. Accordingly he endeavored to abolish the Saxon laws, and establish the Norman in their room. Perhaps he would have pushed this matter further, had it not been represented to him, that the laws of England, bearing the name of his benefactor, all the world would look with horror upon his ingratitude. However, he made several innovations in the English laws, and the methods of administering justice. For instance, he would not suffer the bishops to preside at the Shiregemots or County-Courts, but assigned them a court of their own. His pretense for so doing was, that the ecclesiastical matters might not be intermixed with the civil. But the true motive was, because he had a mind to deprive the bishops of their share of the fines and mulcts. He erected also several courts before unknown to the English, and which were very incommodious to them. They were not only ignorant of the rules and practices of these courts; but, as they always attended the prince, the suitors were obliged to follow him wherever he went to prosecute their suits. Amongst these several courts there was one, however, which became very advantageous to the people; since it was designed to moderate the rigor of the laws by equity, I mean, the Court of Exchequer, which is still in being.—*Rapin.*

The Norman Language.—King William was not satisfied with obliging the English to try their causes in these courts, but forced them also to make use of the Norman language, and did all he could to abolish the English tongue. With this view it was he erected in all the cities and boroughs schools where Norman was taught, and obliged parents under heavy penalties to send their children thither. I have elsewhere observed the nature of the Norman language, which was very difficult, and hard to be understood by the French themselves, by reason of the great mixture of Danish with the French. However, the king was so bent to introduce his native tongue, that he made it his chief business. They who had any concern at court and did not speak Norman, were looked upon with an evil eye, as persons that had no complaisance for the king.

The most effectual means he made use of to oblige the English to learn Norman, was the publishing his laws in that tongue, the ignorance of which was no sufficient excuse for the violators. . . . Thus much is certain, the language spoken in England after the Conquest, was not exactly the same with what was used in the time of the Saxon kings. However the Normans cannot be said to learn English, or the English to admit of Norman, but rather out of the two languages was formed a third, which was neither one nor other, but partook of both. Nevertheless, all public acts were in Norman till Edward the Third's time.—*Rapin.*

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SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **THE RISE OF COMMERCE.**—Holy Wars, Moneyed Institutions, Free Cities.
8. **THE RISE OF THE CITIES.**—Advantages of Towns, Germany a By-way of Commerce, Hanseatic League, Charters of Community.
9. **THE PAPACY AND THE EMPIRE.**—An Unmarried Priesthood, Henry IV. Humiliated.
10. **THE PAPACY AND THE EMPIRE.**—Religious opinions, Conditions of the Church.
11. **THE NORMANS IN ENGLAND.**—Normandy, Hastings, Doomsday Book, William and the Feudal System.
12. **THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLAND.**—The Norman Period, The Plantagenets, William, Norman Language.

QUESTIONS.

7. *How did the Crusades influence commerce? Navigation and discoveries? What pursuits became most profitable? What countries were most affected? What was the condition of "money lending"? In what ways did the increase of commerce influence the formation of free cities?*

8. *How did cities obtain exemption from feudal dues and services? What rights were allowed chartered cities? Where did the free cities first arise? Why was the rise of cities fatal to feudalism? What facts gave rise to the formation of cities? How did the cities of this age compare with modern cities? Who were the Hansa merchants? What was the character of the Hanseatic League? How was it regarded by the people?*

9. *What influence was now exercised by the church? What steps were now taken by Gregory VII.? What reason did he advance in favor of an "unmarried priesthood"? What fact greatly aided in the promulgation of this idea? How was Henry VI. humiliated? Describe the reception given the English princess Isabella?*

10. *What was the feeling now existing in France and England in reference to the Pope? What causes produced this feeling? What was the general tendency of the religious literature of the period? What was now the general condition of the church? Why?*

11. *Who were the Normans? What was now their general character? Why was the battle of Hastings of special importance? What was meant by William's "Doomsday Book"? What customs and laws were introduced into England?*

12. *What was meant by the "Norman period"? Who were the Plantagenets? How did the rivalry between the kings of England and France originate? Why was the authority of William more complete than that of any other European monarch? Give evidences showing the king's affection for Normandy.*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Where did the efforts for political liberty first arise, i.e., in the cities or among the "landed feudality"? Give reasons for your answer. Why have the cities ever since been the radical element in revolutions and reforms? (See Woodrow Wilson's "The State".)*

2. *During this age Germany was a By-way of Commerce: How do you account for the cause of this? How did this fact influence the growth of cities? What peculiar feature of the German government had its origin in the formation and growth of these independent cities? (See Woodrow Wilson's "The State.")*

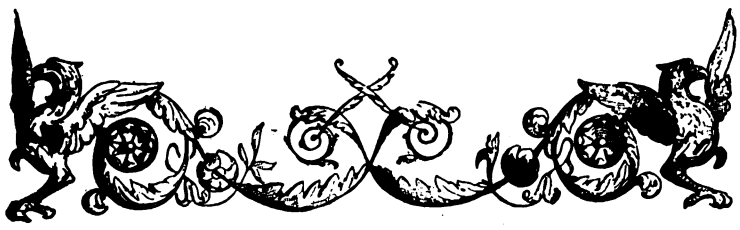
3. *Look up the history of the Hanseatic League. Were its motives and plan of work upright? Did the people have just cause for the ill feeling which they bore toward it? Was this league what we would now call a "trust"? (See the Hansa Towns, by Helen Zimmern.)*

4. *What influences led up to the great influence now exerted by the Pope? Give reasons for your conclusions.*

5. *France, England and other countries now protested against the interference of the Pope: What causes in your opinion led up to this protest?*

6. *The history, condition and doctrine of the Church during the fifteenth century.*

7. *Trace out the history of the Normans from their earliest appearance to the beginning of the sixteenth century. What agencies have operated in developing their civilization? What influences have they exerted on other nations?*



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13.

Magna Charta contains five fundamental principles: (1) Trial by jury; (2) *habeas corpus;* (3) taxation only with the consent of the people taxed; (4) fixed places for holding courts; (5) security for life, liberty and property against illegal attacks. The first complete Parliament of England, composed of two houses, met in 1265.

The Conquest of Wales (1282) made that country a part of Great Britain, while wars with Scotland over feudal homage, etc., ended in 1328 with English acknowledgement of Scottish independence. The thirteenth and fourteenth centuries saw England becoming more and more a constitutional monarchy.

13.

The Magna Charta.—A conference between the king and the barons was appointed at Runnemede, between Windsor and Staines; a place which has ever since been extremely celebrated on account of this great event. The two parties encamped apart, like open enemies; and after a debate of a few days, the king, with a facility somewhat suspicious, signed and sealed the charter which was required of him. This famous deed, commonly called the Great Charter, either granted or secured very important liberties and privileges to every order of men in the kingdom; to the clergy, to the barons, and to the people.—*Hume.*

Extracts from the Great Charter.—14. No scutage or aid shall be imposed in our kingdom, unless by the common council (parliament) of our kingdom, except to redeem our person, and to make our eldest son a knight, and once to marry our eldest daughter; and for this there shall only be paid a reasonable aid.

15. In like manner it shall be concerning the aids of the city of London, and the city of London shall have all her ancient liberties and her free customs, as well by land as by water.

16. Furthermore, we will and grant that all other cities, and boroughs, and towns, and ports shall have all their liberties and free customs, and shall have the common council of the kingdom concerning the assessments of their aids, except in the three cases aforesaid.

* * * * * *

20. We will not, for the future, grant to any one that he may take the aid of his own free tenants, unless to redeem his body, and to make his eldest son a knight, and once to marry his eldest daughter, and for this there shall only be paid a reasonable aid.

* * * * * *

22. Common pleas shall not follow our court, but be holden in some certain place. . . .

* * * * * *

33. No constable or bailiff of ours shall take corn or other chattels of any man, unless he presently give him money for it.

* * * * * *

36. No sheriffs or bailiffs of ours, or any others, shall take horses or carts of any man for carriage.

37. Neither we, nor our officers, or others, shall take any man's timber, for our castles or other uses, unless by the consent of the owner of the timber.

* * * * * *

41. There shall be one measure of wine, and one of ale, through our whole realm, and one measure of corn, that is to say, the London quarter; and one breadth of dyed cloth; . . . and the weight shall be as the measures.

* * * * * *

45. No bailiff, for the future, shall put any man to his law upon his single accusation, without creditable witnesses produced to prove it.

46. No freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or disseized, or outlawed, or banished, or any ways destroyed, nor will we pass upon him, or commit him to prison, unless by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land. [*Habeas corpus.*]

47. We will sell or deny, or defer, right or justice to no man.

48. All merchants shall have secure conduct to go out of England and to come into England, and to stay and abide there, and to pass as well by land as by water, to buy and sell, by the ancient and allowed customs, without any evil toils, except in time of war. . . .

* * * * * *

60. If any one hath been dispossessed or deprived by us, without the legal judgment of his peers, of his lands, castles, liberties, or rights, we will forthwith restore them to him; and if any dispute arises upon this head, let the matter be decided by the five-and-twenty barons hereafter mentioned, for the preservation of the peace.

* * * * * *

69. All the aforesaid customs, privileges, and liberties which we have granted to be holden in our kingdom, as much as it belongs to us towards our people—all our subjects, as well clergy as laity, shall observe . . . towards their dependents.

* * * * * *

78. Wherefore, we will and firmly enjoin that the Church of England be free, and that all men in our kingdom have and hold all the aforesaid liberties, rights, and concession, truly and peaceably, freely and quietly, fully and wholly, to themselves and their heirs, of us and our heirs, in all things and places, forever, as is aforesaid.

79. It is also sworn, as well on our part as on the part of the barons, that all things aforesaid shall faithfully and sincerely be observed.—*Sheldon.*

Conquest of Wales (1283).—The Celts had long preserved their liberty among the mountains of Wales and Scotland. Edward I.'s ambition was to rule over the whole of the island. When Llewellyn, the Welsh chieftain, refused to yield him the usual homage, he invaded the country and annexed it to England. To propitiate the Welsh, he promised them a native-born king who could not speak a word of English, and thereupon presented them his son, born a few days before in the Welsh castle of Caernarvon. The young Edward was afterward styled the Prince of Wales—a title since borne by the sovereign's oldest son.—*Steele.*

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14.

The Hundred Years' War (1336-1453).—This long contest took place between England and France over (1) rivalry as to certain feudalities in France and Flanders, and (2) the claim of the English King, Edward III., to the French throne. The first period (1336-1360) saw the English victorious at Crecy and Poitiers, and ended in the treaty of Bretigny, by which the English King obtained full feudal possession of Aquitaine and other lordships, but gave up all claim to the French crown. The second period (1360-1420) saw Aquitaine overrun by the French, the renewal of war by Henry V. of England, and the humiliation of France by internal dissensions and English arms (Agincourt, 1415). The treaty of Troyes (1420) arranged for the union of the two crowns on the head of the English King after the death of the reigning French monarch. The third period (1420-1453) came because the French people refused to carry out the terms of the treaty. The French, inspired by Joan of Arc, finally drove the English out of the country. In 1453 the war ended, the English regaining Calais alone on the continent. The great effect of long war was to deepen and broaden national spirit in both countries.



Angels Appearing to Joan of Arc.

The Wars of the Roses (1455-1485), a series of family quarrels over the throne, devastated England for a quarter-century, with the net result of harmonizing conflicting titles to the crown, the destruction of a large part of the nobility, and the upbuilding of despotic power of the monarch.

By the end of the Middle Ages the English constitution, political institutions and ideas of liberty had become well developed. Swept aside and obscured for a century after the Wars of the Roses, these institutions and this liberty reappeared in the seventeenth century.

14.

Joan.—In the village of Domremy on the borders of Lorraine, there was a poor peasant of the name of Jaques d'Arc, respected in his station of life, and who had reared a family in virtuous habits and in the practice of the strictest devotion. His eldest daughter was named by her parents Jeanette, but she was called Jeanne by the French, which was Latinized into Johanna, and Anglicized into Joan. At the time when Joan first attracted attention, she was about eighteen years of age. She was naturally of a susceptible disposition, which diligent attention to the legends of saints and tales of fairies, aided by the dreamy loneliness of her life while tending her father's flocks, had made her peculiarly prone to enthusiastic fervor. At the same time she was eminent for piety and purity of soul, and for her compassionate gentleness to the sick and the distressed. . . . A feeling of intense patriotism grew in her with her growth. The deliverance of France from the English was the subject of her reveries by day and dreams by night. . . . Her faith was undoubting; her prayers were fervent. "She feared no danger, for she felt no sin," and at length she believed herself to have received the supernatural inspiration which she sought.—*Creasy*.

Public Feeling.—Thus all things favored the influence which Joan obtained both over friends and foes. The French nation as well as the English and the Burgundians, readily admitted that superhuman beings inspired her; the only question was whether these beings were good or evil angels; whether she brought with her "airs from heaven or blasts from hell." This question seemed to her countrymen to be decisively settled in her favor by the austere sanctity of her life, by the holiness of her conversation, but still more by her exemplary attention to all the services and rites of the Church.—*Creasy*.

Joan Burned at the Stake.—In May of 1430 she headed a sortie which was made against the besiegers, but the movement was a failure, and the maid was taken prisoner. She was conveyed to Beaurevoir and there confined in a fortress. Afterwards she was taken to Rouen and again put in

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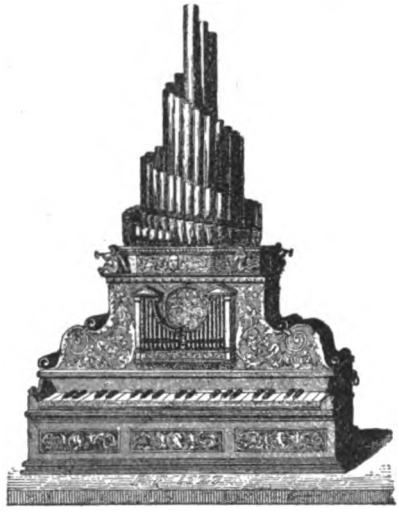
prison. In the meantime, the University of Paris, then completely under the influence of the Burgundians, and hoping to curry favor with the English by destroying her who had been instrumental in overturning their dominion in a large part of France, demanded that she should be tried on a charge of sorcery. To this the English authorities, more generous than the Parisian bigots, gave a reluctant consent An inquisition was accordingly set to investigate the alleged crimes of the girl of Domremy. After a trial of several months' duration, the papers of the tribunal were made up and sent to Paris. Here they were passed upon by the magnates of the university, and a verdict rendered that the acts and sentiments of the Maid were of diabolical origin, and that she should be burned at the stake. When the sentence of death was read to her by the Bishop of Beauvais she was given the alternative of recantation or death.



Organ of the Fifteenth Century.

Being in mortal terror, she denied the reality of her visions and was taken back to prison. But here the voices returned, and being caught in man's apparel, which had been perfidiously left in her cell, she was declared by the bishop to have relapsed into her old-time familiarity with the devil, and was brought forth and burned to death in the market-place of Rouen. Not satisfied with the infamous deed which they had done on the innocent, the ecclesiastics gathered up her ashes and scattered them in the Seine.—*Ridpath.*

In Order to Obtain Material of Interrogation, revelations were drawn from her by a priest under the seal of confession, and taken down by notaries concealed in an adjoining chamber. . . . For sixteen days did this infamous tribunal exhaust every artifice of legal and theological chicanery in order to embarrass and entrap a simple and uneducated girl, whose only crime was an enthusiastic and unbounded patriotism. Though denied the assistance of an advocate, Jeanne baffled the practiced subtlety of her judges, maintained immovably the Divine origin of her visions and "voices," and made no single admission which could justify conviction. Twelve articles were at length drawn up and submitted to the final decision of the University of Paris. The sentence, unfavorable in all points to the prisoner, was published April 18th. . . . The unhappy girl was handed over a relapsed penitent to the secular arm; and on May 30th, 1431, being brought out upon the market-place of Rouen, she was burnt to death at the stake.—*Jervis.*

Her Sentence Reversed. — Though Jeanne d'Arc suffered death by the sentence of the Roman Catholic Church, at the demand of the English, in May, 1431, a tribunal of the same church re-examined and reversed this sentence twenty-five years later, A.D. 1456. King Charles VII., whose failing fortunes the valiant Maid of Orleans had restored, but who had ungratefully made no effort to save her in her peril, was now better advised, and in 1450 he ordered a new trial of her case. In consequence of this royal demand and in compliance with the request of the martyred heroine's mother and brothers, Pope Calixtus III. directed the Archbishop of Rheims and the Bishops of Paris and Coutances to preside at the trial, which took place in 1456. This investigation lasted from seven to eight months, and witnesses came from all parts to testify in the heroine's favor. The old people from Domremy, her native town; the younger companions of her childhood; Dunois and the Duke d'Alencon, her comrades in military leadership; Louis de Contes, her page; D'Aulon, her squire; Pasquerel, her confessor; those who saw her in her prison, and those who stood near her at the scaffold; even the officials and notaries employed by her enemies—all testified in this trial to different traits in her lovely character.

These witnesses all testified to Jeanne's pure and modest life in her father's home, her simplicity of character and her inspired firmness of soul during her famous career, her patience amid her sufferings after she had been sold to the English, her boldness before the tribunal of her enemies, and the sudden illuminations which showed her the crafty purposes of her judges. After hearing this evidence the Court of Revision declared that the charges under which the heroine was condemned were calumnious and false, and that the sentence under which she had suffered martyrdom was null and void; thus vindicating the memory of the valiant maid. The Court of Revision ordered that this decree be read publicly in the city of Rouen, where she had been so cruelly put to death, and likewise in the city of Orleans, which she had delivered from the English.—*Editor.*

Character of Joan.—The character of this maiden was stainless; and she was remarkable for her piety and serious cast of thought. The misfortunes of her king and country made a strong impression on her mind, and incessant solitary brooding soon produced imaginary visions. She fancied that the saints Margaret and Catharine used to appear to her, and urge her to undertake the defense of her country. She was examined by a council of lawyers and divines at Poitiers, who pronounced her inspired. Mounted on a stately gray charger, which she managed with a dexterity acquired in her village (but which, to those who knew not her origin, appeared miraculous), and preceded by a banner, in which the Deity was represented as a venerable old man, bearing a globe in his hand, and surrounded by fleurs-de-lis, the Maid was exhibited to the people, whose joy and enthusiasm knew no bounds. Care at the same time was taken that the most exaggerated accounts of the Heaven-sent deliverer should reach the English camp; where, in spite of the efforts of Suffolk and his officers, a secret terror soon began to pervade the minds of the soldiers.—*Keightly.*

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15. THE DEVELOPMENT OF FRANCE.

The kingdom of France begins with Hugh Capet in 987. The last Capetian left the throne in 1848, though the direct line died out in 1328. During these four centuries France grew from a loose feudal state into a compact kingdom. The chief things contributing to this were: (1) The acquisition from the English King John of the English possessions in what is now France; (2) the weakening of the feudal nobility during the crusading era; (3) the destruction of papal influence in France, already noted. In accomplishing the last the Third Estate (the Commons of France) were first admitted to the national assembly or legislature (1302). The now corrupt order of the Knights of the Temple was abolished and their estates confiscated during this period, while heresy-hunting was engaged in against the Albigenses, who were cruelly persecuted by the French nobility on the summons of the Pope. Leading monarchs of the Capetian dynasty were Louis VI. (1108–1137), Philip Augustus (1180–1223), Louis IX. (1226–1270), Philip IV. (1285–1314).

The House of Valois (1328).—The main events of the medieval period of this dynasty center in the Hundred Years' War, already given—a war, on the part of England, to gain the French crown; on the part of France, to expel the English and still further build up and strengthen monarchial power in France. The event of the war not only made France French, but it established a centralized state. Under Charles VIII. (1483–1498), the last medieval king, France entered, with the invasion of Italy, on the career of aggrandizement that ended only in the eighteenth century. At the close of the medieval age France was the most powerful state in Europe.

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15. THE DEVELOPMENT OF FRANCE.

Fall of Military Orders (see Glossary).

The Knights Templars.—Philip was in the habit of meeting Clement privately in the wood of Avignon, and there the conspiracy against the Order of the Temple was perfected. It was agreed that the Grand Master De Molay and the leading knights of Christendom should be summoned to Paris to answer for their alleged crimes against the Church and the political society of Europe. The grand master and sixty members of the distinguished order answered the summons, and on arriving at the French capital were thrown into prison. In the Middle Ages the innocence of the accused amounted to little in the predetermined counsels of despotism. Fifty-seven of the knights, after being submitted to the mockery of a trial, were condemned and burned alive. De Molay and three of his companions were remanded to prison, but were afterwards inveigled into signing a confession of guilt. They were thereupon condemned to imprisonment for life; but when they were placed upon a scaffold to hear their confession read to the people, De Molay in a loud voice thundered forth his denunciation against the fraud which had been practiced against himself and his fellows. Philip thereupon ordered the prisoners to be at once disposed of by burning. De Molay and his companions died, as they had lived, without a fear. From the midst of the flames the undaunted grand master denounced the crime of the king and the Pope, and summoned them both to meet him in a brief period at the bar of an avenging God. Thus, in the year 1314, after a career of nearly two centuries, the treacherous death-wound was dealt to the Order of the Knights of the Temple.—*Ridpath.*

Germany's Loss France's Gain.—During the Romanesque period it had been Germany that took the lead and set the standard in architecture, and still more in other manual arts. Gothic, on the other hand, is French in its origin as in its development. The great days of the empire and of Imperial Germany were over. . . . In proportion as the process of disruption advanced in Germany, a counter-process of integration and union was advancing in France. . . . . The capital of the monarchy, Paris, already began to grow into a capital of the world, a center of industry, culture and science. The influence which now went abroad from France over the rest of Europe was only a part of those wider influences which she began to wield over the entire west. In France the institutions of chivalry had taken shape, and since the Crusades—which also had their origin in France—those institutions had become common to other lands. It was France that dictated the forms of courtly society, among the great, their fashions of costume, deportment and address, and the codes and principles of the Chivalric Art of Love. From France minstrels took both the matter and the mode of treatment alike of the love-lay and the epic tale. In other languages it was a sign of distinction to introduce words and phrases from the French.—*Woltmann and Woermann.*

House of Valois.—Philip's three sons came to the throne in succession, but died leaving no male heir. The question then arose whether the crown could descend to a female. It was decided that, according to the old Salic law of the Franks, the kingdom could not "fall to the distaff." During the short reign of Philip's sons, their uncle Charles, Count of Valois, secured almost royal power, and—the third instance of the kind in French history—his son obtained the crown, which thus went to the Valois branch of the Capet family. The succession was disputed by Edward III., of England, as son of the daughter of Philip IV.—*Steele.*

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16. THE DISINTEGRATION OF GERMANY.

The medieval period that made France a compact kingdom and gave England a constitutional government, disintegrated and disunited Germany. When the German kings should have been consolidating Germany they were wasting their energy in attempting to build up that ideal world-kingdom, the Holy Roman Empire. During this time the nobility became stronger, and thereafter it was impossible to establish in Germany more than the semblance of unity and the shadow of centralized power. During the period of the Saxon kings after Otto I. (to 1024) the entire effort of the kings was expended in a vain effort to reduce Italy. The Franconian rulers (1024–1125) were stronger. Henry III. (1039–1056) gave Germany the best monarchial government it had ever had, reduced the nobility to obedience, and as Emperor substantiated his claim of authority over the Pope. Henry IV. as Emperor lost prestige in the struggle with Gregory VII. over the investitures, while as King he lost control over the German nobles. By the end of the next reign much of the King's power had been permanently lost.

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16. THE DISINTEGRATION OF GERMANY.

Germany: Religious State.—Germany was the land where for special reasons this spirit of ecclesiastical rebellion was strongest. Real piety and morality had here their chief seat. The Bible was common and in the vernacular, preaching likewise, much of which was evangelical and earnest. The work of Tauler and of the Friends of God had taken lasting effect. John Wessel had proclaimed up and down the Rhine valley nearly the same doctrines which Luther was about to advocate with such success. Von Wesel and von Goch had been influential in the same direction. Italian vice was near enough to be known, not familiar enough to be popular. The spirit and beliefs of Huss had lived on, nourished by the memory of his holy life, of his brave and unjust death. With all this was joined that Teutonic individualism and love of independence, which, partly good, partly evil, have made Germany even to our day, a theatre of political disorder. It is noticeable that the sixteenth century found feudalism powerful in Germany alone. Once, most loyal to the emperor, the Germans had abhorred the pope as his foe, and this feeling still existed. Now princes, striving for sovereignty of their own, hated Rome as having become the empire's natural mate and helper. This animus infected the people and large numbers of the clergy.—*Andrews.*

The Holy Roman Empire.—When Otto the Great towards the close of his reign, neglected Germany and occupied himself with establishing his dominion in Italy, he prepared the way for the rapid decline of the Imperial power at home, in the hands of his successors. The reigning dukes, counts, and even the petty feudal lords, no longer watched and held subordinate, soon became practically independent; except in Friesland, Saxony and the Alps, the people had no voice in political matters; and thus the growth of a general national sentiment, such as had been fostered by Charlemagne and Henry I., was again destroyed. In proportion as the smaller states were governed as if they were separate lands, their populations became separated in feeling and interest. Henry II. tried to be an emperor of Germany; he visited Italy rather on account of what he believed to be the duties of his office than from natural inclination to reign there; but he was not able to restore the same authority, at home, as Otto the Great had exercised.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Triumph of Innocent III.—Through this unfortunate division of parties the empire became for the space of more than ten years the scene of devastation, robbery and murder, and both princes, who were equally endowed with good qualities, could do nothing for the country. On the contrary, in the endeavors made by each to gain over the pope to himself, they yielded to the subtle Innocent III., under whom the papacy attained its highest grade of power, many of their privileges. Otho IV. even acknowledged the pope's claim of authority to bestow the empire as he might appoint and called himself in his letters to the pope a Roman king by the grace of God and the pope. For which concession, and because he was a Guelph, Innocent protected him with all his power, and when Philip in 1208 was assassinated at Bamberg by Otho of Wittelsbach (a nephew of him to whom Frederick I. had given the duchy of Bavaria) in revenge because he would not give him his daughter in marriage as he had promised, Otho IV. was universally acknowledged as emperor, and solemnly crowned at Rome.—*Kohlrausch.*

This Break between the Empire and Rome was as much attributable to the arbitrary and willful character of the Pope as to the assumptions of the German king. It will be remembered that at this same time Philip the Fair of France was under the ban of Boniface for reasons not unlike those which occasioned the break with the Hapsburg. This circumstance brought Rudolph and Philip into an alliance, and the league was supported by the free cities of the Rhine, which were won over by a remission of the taxes claimed by the bishops. In a short time the combination against him had become so formidable that the Pope was led, for policy's sake, to make overtures to Albert, with a view to breaking up the alliance. To this end Boniface, who was more angry at Philip than at Albert, offered to the latter, as the price of abandoning the cause of France, the disposal of the crown of that kingdom. For the Holy Father had placed Philip under the ban of excommunication, and declared the crown a forfeit. But before this embroglio could be settled nature cut the complication by sending the pope out of the world in an insane rage, to which he had yielded on being seized by some of his Italian enemies.—*Ridpath.*

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17.

The Hohenstaufen Rulers (1138-1254).—The one striking figure is that of Frederick Barbarossa (1152-1190), who attempted to re-establish the authority of the empire in Italy and restore order in Germany. After him Germany fell into hopeless disorder through quarrels of different families of nobility, and by the middle of the thirteenth century was once more but a loose federation of petty feudal states, while the power of the nominal central government was gone. The Interregnum (1250-1273) completed the disintegration, and during the remainder of the Middle Ages Germany, like Italy, is but a geographical expression, indicating no organized or orderly government, but merely a region occupied by German people living under about three hundred petty governments nominally tied together.



German Village of the Middle Ages.

17.

Frederick's Humiliation.—He met Pope Adrian IV., and negotiations commenced in regard to his coronation as emperor, which, it seems, was not to be had for nothing. Adrian's first demand was the suppression of the Roman Republic, which had driven him from the city. Frederick answered by capturing Arnold of Brescia, who was then in Tuscany, and delivering him into the pope's hands. The latter then demanded that Frederick should hold his stirrup when he mounted his mule. This humiliation was accepted by the proud Hohenstaufen, in his ambitious haste to be crowned; but even then Rome had to be first taken from the republicans.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Death of Frederick.—When, on June 10th, 1190, the army resumed its march from Seleucia, and traversed the river Cydnus, or Seleph, the bold and venturesome old warrior, to whom the passage over the bridge was much too slow, dashed at once with his war-horse into the river, in order thus to overtake more speedily his son Frederick, who led the van. But the rapid course of the stream overpowered and bore him away, and when, at length, assistance could be rendered him, the veteran was found already dead. The grief and lamentation of his son, of the princes, and of the whole army were indescribable. Fate, nevertheless, had by this means saved him from experiencing, subsequently, bitter pain and mortification, and his noble soul was not doomed to suffer by the unfortunate termination of so great an enterprise. For the German army, after his death, was almost entirely destroyed by sickness before the city of Antioch; and the emperor's second son, Frederick, duke of Suabia, died at the siege of Acre, or Ptolemais, and Jerusalem was never reconquered.—*Kohlrausch.*

His Memory Still Sacred.—The most that can be said for Frederick Barbarossa as a ruler, is, that no other European before or after his time maintained so complete an authority over the German princes. The influence of his personal presence seems to have been very great; the imperial power became splendid and effective in his hands, and, although he did nothing to improve the condition of the people, beyond establishing order and security, they gradually came to consider him as the representative of a great national idea. When he went away to the mysterious east, and never returned, the most of them refused to believe that he was dead. By degrees the legend took root among them that he slumbered in a vault underneath the Kyffhauser—one of his castles, on the summit of a mountain, near the Hartz—and would come forth at the appointed time to make Germany united and free. Nothing in his character, or in the proud and selfish aims of his life, justifies this sentiment which the people attached to his name; but the legend became a symbol of their hopes and prayers, through centuries of oppression and desolating war, and the name of "Barbarossa" is sacred to every patriotic heart in Germany, even at this day.—*Bayard Taylor.*

The Interregnum.—The prevailing feature of this troubled period was the want of any central authority. For a season it appeared that the political society of Germany was again broken up to its foundations. After the downfall of the Hohenstaufens, there were more than sixty free cities within the limits of Germany proper. There were a hundred and sixteen ecclesiastical princes exercising the rights of secular government, besides a hundred independent dukes, counts, and barons; and though many were ambitious to gain the imperial distinction, none seemed able to rise against the opposition of the rest.—*Ridpath.*

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18. THE DISAPPEARANCE OF ITALY.

The union of Italy and Germany under Otto I. brought neither peace nor rest to Italy. Rome being the seat of the Pope, the peninsula became the battle-ground in the struggle between the Empire and the Church. The country was divided into two parties, of Guelphs and Ghibellines.

The cities of Italy gradually became self-governing, and the attempt of Frederick Barbarossa to reduce them caused the formation of the Lombard League, and resulted in their complete independence.

From the eleventh to the fourteenth century Italy was divided among several governments—the kingdom of Naples, the Papal States, the oligarchical city-republics of which Venice, Florence, Genoa, and Milan were the foremost. The constant wars of rivalry between these cities form one of the most important chapters in the history of the time. Italian nationality was a vague sentiment, having no realization, save in the fitful gleam of Rienzi's movement (1347), until the nineteenth century. The genius of Italy devoted itself to art, architecture and literature.

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18. THE DISAPPEARANCE OF ITALY.

Guelph and Ghibelline.—In this struggle, for the first time, the name of Welf and Waiblinger (from the little town of Waiblingen, in Wurtemberg, which belonged to the Hohenstaufens) were first used as party cries in battle. In the Italian language they became "Guelph" and "Ghibelline," and for hundreds of years they retained a far more intense and powerful significance than the names "Whig" and "Tory" in England. The term Welf (Guelph) very soon came to mean the party of the Pope, and Waiblinger (Ghibelline) that of the German Emperor The end of this first conflict was, that in 1142, young Henry the Lion (great grandson of Duke Welf of Bavaria) was allowed to be Duke of Saxony.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Women of Weinsberg.—Welf continued the struggle in Bavaria, in the interest of his young son, Henry, afterwards called "the Lion." He attempted to raise the siege of the town of Weinsberg, which was beleaguered by Konrad's army, but failed. The tradition relates that when the town was forced to surrender, the women sent a deputation to Konrad, begging to be allowed to leave with such goods as they could carry on their backs. When this was granted and the gates were opened, they came out, carrying their husbands, sons or brothers as their dearest possessions. The fame of this deed of the women of Weinsberg has gone all over the world.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Frederick, after the surrender of Milan, held a diet at Roncaglia, where the effect of his victories was fatally perceived. The bishops, the higher nobility, the lawyers, vied with one another in exalting his prerogatives He defined the regalian rights, as they were called, in such a manner as to exclude the cities and private proprietors from coining money, and from tolls or territorial dues, which they had for many years possessed. These, however, he permitted them to retain for a pecuniary stipulation. A more important innovation was the appointment of magistrates, with the title of podesta, to administer justice, concurrently with the consuls; but he soon proceeded to abolish the latter office in many cities, and to throw the whole government into the hands of his own magistrates.—*Hallam.*

Ezzelino, the Vicar of Frederick.—Regarding himself with a sort of awful veneration as the divinely appointed scourge of humanity, this monster in his life-time was execrated as an aberration from "the kindly race of men." . . . Ezzelino, a small, pale, wiry man, with terror in his face and enthusiasm for evil in his heart, lived a foe to luxury, cold to the pathos of children, dead to the enchantment of women. . . . At Padua alone he erected eight prisons, two of which contained as many as three hundred captives each; and though the executioner never ceased to ply his trade there, they were always full. . . . When he captured Friola he caused the population, of all ages, sexes, occupations, to be deprived of their eyes, noses, and legs, and to be cast forth to the mercy of the elements. On another occasion he walled up a family of princes in a castle and left them to die of famine.—*Symonds.*

League of Lombardy Against Frederick.—A league was secretly formed, in which Cremona, one of the chief cities on the imperial side, took a prominent part. Those beyond the Adige, hitherto not much engaged in the disputes of central Lombardy, had already formed a separate confederacy, to secure themselves from encroachments, which appeared the more unjust as they had never borne arms against the emperor. (A.D. 1164.) Their first successes corresponded to the justice of their cause; Frederick was repulsed from the territory of Verona, a fortunate augury for the rest of Lombardy. These two clusters of cities, on the east and west of the Adige, now united themselves into the famous Lombard League, the terms of which were settled in a general diet. Their alliance was to last twenty years; during which they pledged themselves to mutual assistance against any one who should exact more from them than they had been used to perform from the time of Henry to the first coming of Frederick into Italy; implying in this the recovery of their elective magistracies, their rights of war and peace, and those lucrative privileges, which, under the name of regalian, had been wrested from them in the diet of Roncaglia.—*Hallam.*

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(1572) CRUSADERS STORMING ANTIOCH.

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THE BLIND DOGE DANDOLO OF VENICE HEADING THE FOURTH CRUSADE.

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THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLAND.**—Magna Charta, Conquest of Wales.
14. **THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.**—Wars of the Roses, Joan.
15. **THE DEVELOPMENT OF FRANCE.**—The Kingdom of France, The House of Valois, Fall of Military Orders, The Knights Templars.
16. **THE DISINTEGTRATION OF GERMANY.**—The Religious State of Germany, The Holy Roman Empire, The Triumph of Innocent III., The Break Between the Empire and Rome.
17. **THE DISINTEGRATION OF GERMANY.**—The Hohenstaufen Rulers, Frederick, The Interregnum.
18. **THE DISAPPEARANCE OF ITALY.**—Guelph and Ghibelline, Women of Weinsberg, League of Lombardy.

QUESTIONS.

13. *Name the five fundamental principles of the Magna Charta? Give the substance of the contents of this Charta as determined from the extracts? Give the cause, events and results of the conquest of Wales?*

14. *What were the causes of the Hundred Years War? Leading events? Give a sketch of the life of Joan of Arc? What occasioned the War of the Roses? What changes did these wars produce in England? France?*

15. *What causes gave France a compact kingdom? In what respects was the history of the military orders similar to that of the monks? What became of these orders? Who were the Valois?*

16. *The Medieval period disunited Germany: Why? What was the religious condition of Germany? What caused such hatred towards Rome? What were some of the results of the "neglect of Germany" by Otho the Great? What was the "triumph of Innocent III."? What was the general condition of Germany at the close of the fifteenth century?*

17. *Who was Frederick Barbarossa? What was the character of his reign? What was Frederick's humiliation? What may be said in reference to his death? Why is the memory of Barbarossa still sacred? What followed the death of Frederick? What was the condition of Germany following the Interregnum?*

18 *What were the results of the union of Italy and Germany under Otho I.? By what names were the Guelphs and Ghibellines repectively known in Germany? What was Frederick's action in reference to Italy? What was the object of the Lombardy League? Relate Bayard Taylor's story of the "Women of Weinsberg"?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What was the history of the Magna Charta? Why was it granted? What are its leading features? Why is it considered an important document?*

2. *Why did the system which gave to France and England a compact government leave Italy and Germany disintegrated? What evidences of these conditions do we find now existing in these governments?*

3. *By the end of the Middle Ages the English constitution, political institutions and ideas of liberty had become well developed. Name in order of importance the causes which, in your opinion, were most instrumental in producing these changes.*

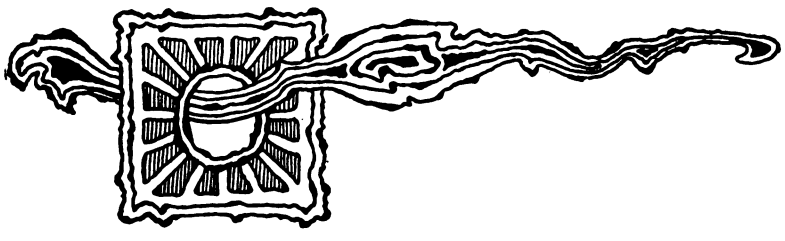
4. *The history of the Albigenses and the reasons why they were persecuted.*

5. *What were the most important causes, in your opinion, tending towards the destruction of papal influence in France? Give the reasons for your conclusions.*

6. *Carefully review and compare the history of France, Germany, Italy, England, etc. In what respects are these nations alike? In what ways different? How have these characteristics been developed?*

7. *Look up the history of Frederick Barbarossa in the light of the times in which he lived? What do you consider the admirable features of his life?*

8. *What causes are noticeable in producing the disintegration of the Italian nationality?*



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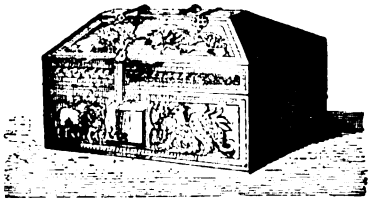
19. THE FOUNDING OF SPAIN.

Prior to the eleventh century Spain was a disputed territory between Christians and Mohammedans. Gradually the Christians pushed their opponents to the South; the story of the reconquest of the peninsula is fraught with interest, but the history of the struggle is almost distinct from that of the rest of Europe. The petty kingdoms that grew up from 1000 to 1400 had little individual strength and no unity among themselves. The union of Aragon and Castile (1479) brought about by the prior marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, was the real foundation of the kingdom of Spain. The conquest of Grenada, the expulsion of the Moors (1492), and the annexation of Navarre continued the work, while the political skill of Ferdinand, added to these things, brought Spain among the states of the first rank by the close of the century.



Jewel Case of the Eleventh Century.

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19. THE FOUNDING OF SPAIN.

Arabian Architecture was developed on the basis of the early Christian. . . . Its formation and peculiarity . . . was necessarily in part determined by the fact that every kind of figurative representation, whether of man or of animal, is forbidden by the Mohammedan creed. . . . It was only during the latter period of Saracenic rule in Spain . . . that Grenada, which had been founded in the tenth century, became powerful and important as the point of concentration for Moorish power and civilization in Spain, and as the seat of a brilliant court and a school of arts and sciences.—*Rosengarten.*

Alhambra was the royal abode of the Moorish Kings, where, surrounded with the splendors and refinements of Asiatic luxury, they held dominion over what they vaunted as a terrestrial paradise, and made their last stand for empire in Spain. The royal palace forms but a part of a fortress, the walls of which, studded with towers, stretch irregularly round the whole crest of a hill, a spur of the Sierra Nevada or Snowy Mountains, and overlooks the city; externally it is a rude congregation of towers and battlements, with no regularity of plan nor grace of architecture, and giving little promise of the grace and beauty which prevail within. In the time of the Moors the fortress was capable of containing within its outward precincts an army of 40,000 men, and served occasionally as a stronghold of the sovereigns against their rebellious subjects. . . . The desertion of the court, however, was a fatal blow to the Alhambra. Its beautiful halls became desolate and some of them fell to ruin; the gardens were destroyed, and the fountains ceased to play. By degrees the dwellings became filled with a loose and careless population; contrabandistas, who availed themselves of its independent jurisdiction to carry on a wide and daring course of smuggling, and thieves and rogues of all sorts, who made this their place of refuge. . . . During the recent troubles the place was in the hands of the French. With that enlightened taste which has ever distinguished the French nation in their conquests, this monument of Moorish elegance and grandeur was rescued from the absolute ruin and desolation that was overwhelming it. The roofs were repaired, the saloons and galleries protected from the weather, the gardens cultivated, the water courses restored, the fountains once more made to throw up their sparkling showers; and Spain may thank her invaders for having preserved to her the most beautiful and interesting of her historical monuments — *Washington Irving.*

Arabian Spain.—The intellectual darkness of Europe in the ninth and tenth centuries first broke in Arabian Spain, whither, with Mohammedan conquest, had pressed, as we have seen, the old culture of the east Mediterranean lands, taken up and for a time sedulously fostered by Islam. Through students from the North thronging their schools, the Arabians, both as free investigators and as editors and expounders of the classics, became the teachers of Europe. A most happy outcome of the Crusades was the quickened and enlarged intercourse of the western with Greek and Arabian savants. The Greek language now began to be known; Aristotle learned at first hand. Schools and studies flourished everywhere, national literatures had birth. Bologna and Oxford had each its group of students by 1150. The Universities of Paris and Salamanca date from 1200, the former often numbering 15,000 pupils, sometimes more. Many other universities were active before 1300. Intelligence grew more independent as well as broader; the clergy lost their monopoly of learning. Abelard, 1097–1142; Albertus Magnus, 1193–1280, and Roger Bacon, 1214–1294, were worthy prophets of the Renaissance, unless indeed we date the Renaissance from their days. The first dared to break with the traditional dogmatic realism and to assert the rights of reason. The others preached and introduced inductive, aposteriori scientific procedure in a spirit worthy of Stuart Mill.—*Andrews.*

The Primitive Moors were the inhabitants of the vast portion of Africa bounded on the east by Egypt, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the west by the Atlantic, and on the south by the deserts of Barbary. . . . The derivation of the name Moors is also supposed, in some degree, to confirm the impression that they came originally from Asia. . . . The Moors of Africa are known in ancient history under the name of Nomades, Numidae or Numidians, Getulae, and Massyli. They were by turns the subjects, the enemies, or the allies of the Carthaginians, and with them they fell under the dominion of the Romans.—*Florian.*

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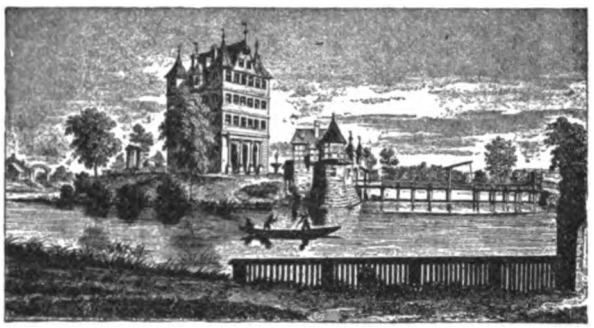
20. THE TURKS AND THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

The shifting succession of people in Asia Minor brought the Seljukian Turks to the front as the conquerors of the Saracens in the eleventh century. The overrunning of the Holy Land by these Turks caused the Crusades. The empire was broken by the Mongols, and later (thirteenth century) the Ottoman Turks overran Asia Minor, conquered the Asiatic possessions of the Eastern Empire, were invited into Europe as mercenary troops, where in the southeast they made conquests for themselves in the latter part of the fourteenth century. The battle of Nicopolis (1396), which was lost by the French, German, and Hungarian troops, failed to stop the progress of the Turks. During the first half of the fifteenth century the latter took all the possessions of the Eastern Empire, and finally in 1453 captured Constantinople and thereby put an end to it. The fall of Constantinople marks the end of the Middle Ages, as the fall of Rome marked their beginning.



Scene at Nuremberg.

The Eastern Empire under the rule of the Greeks had dwindled from the ninth century. It was the center of Greek learning during this age and its downfall scattered the scholars, and spread the Greek learning over Europe.

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20. THE TURKS AND THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

The Rule of the Caliphs in Central Asia was marked there as elsewhere by great literary activity. To this day Bokhara is a great literary center for Mohammedanism. Schools abound, and a regular university course demands fifteen or twenty years for its completion.—*Stokes.*

The Literature of the Ottomans was, like their civilization, borrowed from the Persians through the Seljuks; and it is natural that we should find a close resemblance between their writings and those of their Persian masters. In both the poetry is superior to the prose. Persian and Ottoman poems are, when at their best, marked by extreme grace and finish, by great elegance of diction, and not unfrequently by a beautiful harmony. But they are, on the other hand, highly artificial; the sentiment is often exaggerated, the ideas either conventional or far-fetched, and the language disfigured by a variety of verbal conceits, too often of very childish description.—*Lane-Poole.*

The Name of Turk being brought into great contempt in the east, by the Arabs and Persians, who have stigmatized it, as a word implying rudeness and barbarity, the Othman Port will not be called the Turkish Court, nor does it suffer that word to be used, but in reference to the language; as, *Turkije vilurmisin?* Do you understand Turkish? *Othmanije vilurmisin*, being improper: for Othmanije denotes politeness of manners; as, on the contrary, *Turkije* signifies rude and uncivilized. Hence the common saying, *Turk muddeti um rinde;* that is, A Turk through the whole course of his life: as much as to say, He will always be a clown, and never learn the politeness of the Othmans. Yet these Othmans were, perhaps, the most rude and unpolite of all the three Turkish branches, till they conquered Constantinople.—*Cantemir.*

Turkey.—Somewhere about the second decade of the thirteenth century the little Turkish tribe which in due course was to found the Ottoman empire fled before the Mongols from its original home in central Asia, and, passing through Persia, entered Armenia, under the leadership of Suleyman Shah, its hereditary chief. In 1300 (A. H. 699) the Seljuk empire fell to pieces under the onslaught of the Mongols, who were, however, powerless to replace it by any government of their own. Ten separate Turkish dynasties arose from its ruins. These principalities were all eventually merged in that of the Osmanlis, once the least among them, and the inhabitants assumed the name of Ottoman. Hence by far the greater portion of the people called Ottomans owe their name to a series of political events. On the collapse of the Seljuk power the Greeks retained hardly any possessions in Asia except Bithynia and Trebizond. Armenia was abandoned for a time to roving Tartar or Turkman tribes, till some sixty or seventy years later one or two petty local dynasties sprang up and founded short-lived states. To Suleyman the Ottomans owe their first establishment in Europe: one night that prince, accompanied by a few companions, crossed the Hellespont on a raft and suprised the town of Galipoli (Gallipoli). The next day he brought over a number of Turkish troops, with whose assistance he possessed himself of many of the neighboring towns and villages; but his career was cut short by a fatal fall from his horse when out hunting.—*Gibb.*

Seljuks (see Glossary).

Othmans and Seljuks (see Glossary).

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21. THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING.

From the tenth to the fifteenth century the intellectual night of Europe was lifting. Before the close of the era came the Revival of Learning—"The intellectual and scientific transformation of Europe." It embraced three main ideas: (1) A training of human intellect; (2) a turning back to the study of the past, hence a revival of classical literature and art; (3) the awakening of "the desire to wrestle with new problems of life."

The nature and various stages in the progress of the revival will best be understood by tracing (1) the Arabian schools in Spain; (2) the scholastic philosophy and debates; (3) the spread of schools and universities in Europe in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries; (4) the rise of the modern languages and literatures of Europe; (5) the revival of classic learning and art through the humanists (Dante, the forerunner, Petrarch, Boccaccio); (6) the dissemination of Greek learning throughout Europe by the fall of Constantinople; (7) the growing interest in, and modified methods of scientific research; (8) the invention of printing and the resultant spread of literature and means of learning.

The Revival of Learning showed that the new era had come, and was the prelude to the religious revolution and reformation of the next century. The revival reached and profoundly affected literature, philosophy, art and science.

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21. THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING.

The College at Bagdad.—The last prince that shed a ray of departing glory on his race was the caliph Mostanser, who adorned Bagdad by the celebrated college that bore his name. According to oriental historians, this edifice had no equal in the Moslem world, whether we consider the beauty and elegance of the building, the number of students it contained, or the splendid revenues assigned it by its founder. Each of the four chief sects of the Sonnees had its appointed professor, with a monthly salary and a maintenance from the royal exchequer. Every student had daily a very handsome allowance of provisions of all kinds. There were baths set apart for their use, and a physician employed to attend them at the caliph's expense.—*Crichton.*

The Example of the Sovereign was sometimes followed by viziers and governors. Achmed ibn Tolun, viceroy of Egypt, distributed every month among the most distinguished ecclesiastics in that country 1,000 dinars of gold (4621.10s.); and sent to Bagdad not less than 2,200,000 dinars (1,017,-5001.) for the benefit of the poor and learned in that city. Another vizier founded a college there at the expense of 200,000 dinars (92,5001.), and endowed it with an annual revenue of 15,000 dinars (60,371.10s.). The benefits of public instruction in that capital were communicated, perhaps at different times, to 6,000 students of every degree, from the son of the noble to that of the mechanic. The celebrity of its schools may be inferred from the vast numbers of poets, historians, physicians, and astronomers which it produced.—*Crichton.*

Genius of the Renaissance (see Glossary).

Universities Founded.—Colleges with endowments for poor scholars were founded in the beginning of the thirteenth century, or even before, at Paris and Bologna, as they were afterwards at Oxford and Cambridge, by munificent patrons of letters; charters incorporating the graduates and students collectively, under the name of Universities, were granted by sovereigns, with privileges perhaps too extensive, but such as indicated the dignity of learning and the countenance it received. . . . The schools of Charlemagne were designed to lay the basis of a learned education, for which there was at that time no sufficient desire. But in the twelfth century, the impetuosity with which men rushed to that source of what they deemed wisdom, the great University of Paris, did not depend upon academical privileges or eleemosynary stipends, which came afterward, though these were undoubtedly very effectual in keeping it up. The University created patrons, and was not created by them. And this may be said also of Oxford and Cambridge in their incorporate character, whatever the former may have owed, if, in fact, it owed anything to the prophetic munificence of Alfred. Oxford became, in the thirteenth century, second only to Paris in the multitude of its students and the celebrity of its scholastic disputations —*Hallam.*

The University of Paris, modelled after the schools of Alexandria, and much favored in its beginning by Phillip Augustus, king of France; it was especially famous for medicine and Roman law; the universities of Prague, Vienna, Heidelberg, Erfurt, and of Leipzig, Basle, Tubingen, and Mainz, all modelled after the University of Paris; their statutes sometimes begin with a eulogy on their Parisian Alma Mater; the universities of Cordova and Seville in Spain; in Italy the University of Bologna, especially famous for the study of Roman law, now much aided by the discovery of an excellent manuscript of Justinian's Pandects at Amalfi; the University of Salerno was famous for medicine, as well as that of Montpellier in France. In the fifteenth century nearly forty new universities on the continent, and many of the English colleges were founded. In these universities the courses included grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geography, music, astronomy, theology, law, medicine. The language of their books, their professors, and often of the students, was Latin; the instruction was generally given by monks and other churchmen. After the fall of Constantinople, however, the study of Greek was very generally introduced, and the philosophy of Plato was taught as well as that of Aristotle.—*Sheldon.*

Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio (see Glossary).

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22. THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES.

As the different nationalities of Europe took up their separate existence during the Age of Revival, so the languages of these separating peoples became distinct. In France, Italy, Spain, England, Germany, national languages developed, and the beginnings of a literature came that crystallized these new languages into definite forms. In the first three countries the language was built on the Latin tongue, while the other two languages are Teutonic, though the English has received a large element through the Norman French from the Latin.



Cardinal of the Fourteenth Century.

In southern France, Italy, and Spain the Troubadours, in northern France, the Trouveres, in Germany, the Minnesingers sung the ballads and songs of chivalry, adventure, and love, and the earliest literatures of those countries take these simple forms. The Niebelungenlied, the Poem of the Cid, the Legends of the Round Table, all reflect the spirit of the age. The Canterbury Tales and Pier's Ploughman give a picture of English life and manners, as well as a knowledge of the language in its formative state. The Divine Comedy of Dante shows the greatness and the beauty of Italian poetical thought at this time. In prose the Chronicles of both England and France (Froissart) show the beginnings of prose literature.

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22. THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES.

Translations of Scripture.—A translation of the Bible, by Malerbi, a Venetian, was published in 1471, and two other editions of that or a different version the same year. Eleven editions are enumerated by Panzer in the fifteenth century. The German translation has already been mentioned; it was several times reprinted in this decade; one in Dutch appeared in 1477; one in the Valencian language, at that city, in 1478; the New Testament was printed in Bohemian, 1475, and in French, 1477; the earliest French translation of the Old Testament seems to be about the same date. The reader will, of course, understand that all these translations were made from the Vulgate Latin. It may naturally seem remarkable that not only at this period, but down to the Reformation, no attempt was made to render any part of the Scriptures public in English. But, in fact, the ground was thought too dangerous by those in power. The translation of Wicliffe had taught the people some comparisons between the worldly condition of the first preachers of Christianity and their successors, as well as some other contrasts, which it was more expedient to avoid. Long before the invention of printing, it was enacted, in 1408, by a constitution of Archbishop Arundel, in convocation, that no one should thereafter "translate any text of Holy Scripture into English by way of a book, or little book or tract; and that no book should be read that was composed lately in the time of John Wicliffe, or since his death.—*Hallam.*

A Second Athens.—The fifteenth century took up the spirit of the fourteenth, extending and intensifying it. Florence became intellectually what she already was politically, a second Athens. By 1400 some ten thousand Florentine children could read, nearly six hundred were studying logic and Latin. Boccaccio's influence had drawn Leonzio Pilato thither from Venice and created for him the first Italian professorship of Greek. Other Greek teachers came. Greek manuscripts were imported, learned Byzantines visited Florence, young Florentines went to study at Constantinople. The Medici were not less zealous in aid of learning and culture than in business and their conduct of state.—*Andrews.*

The Reading of Dante is not only a pleasure, an effort, a lesson; it is a strong discipline of the heart, the intellect, the man. In the school of Dante I have learned a very great part of that mental provision, small as it may be, with which I have made the journey of human life until nearly 73 years old. He who serves Dante serves Italy, Christianity and the world —*Gladstone.*

The Love of Greek and Latin absorbed the minds of these Italian scholars, and effaced all regard to every other branch of literature. Their own language was nearly silent; few condescended so much as to write letters in it; a few gave a moment's attention to physical science, though we find it mentioned, perhaps as remarkable, in Victorin of Feltre, that he had some fondness for geometry, and had learned to understand Euclid. —*Hallam.*

Saracen Culture.—In every considerable town, schools, academies, and libraries were established. Bussora and Cufa almost equaled the capital itself

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in reputation, and in the number of celebrated authors and treatises which they produced. Damascus, Aleppo, Balkh, Ispahan, and Samarcand became renowned as seats of science. It was the glory of every city to collect the treasures of literature; and we are told that a private doctor refused the invitation of the sovereign of Bokhara, because the carriage of his books would have required 400 camels. The same enthusiasm was carried by the Saracens beyond the frontiers of Asia. Egypt became a second time the asylum of letters and art; and the Spanish Jew, Benjamin Tudela, relates in his Itinerary that he found in Alexandria more than twenty schools for the cultivation of philosophy. At a later period Cairo possessed numerous colleges, some of which were so substantially built as to serve, during a rebellion, the purpose of a citadel for the army. The royal library consisted of 100,000 manuscripts, elegantly transcribed and splendidly bound, which were lent out to the students without jealousy or avarice. In its arrangement, the first place was given to copies and interpretations of the Koran; the next to writings on the traditions of Mohammed; books on law succeeded; and after these, philology, poetry, and science, in their respective order.—*Crichton.*



Heraldic Sign, Eleventh Century.

Book Selling.—It is proved by various statutes of the University of Paris, originating, no doubt, in some authority conferred by the crown, and bearing date from the year 1275 to 1403, that booksellers were appointed by the university, and considered as its officers, probably matriculated by entry on her roll; that they took an oath, renewable at her pleasure, to observe her statutes and regulations; that they were admitted upon security, and testimonials to their moral conduct; that no one could sell books in Paris without this permission, and that they could expose no books to sale without communication with the university, and without its approbation; that the university fixed the prices according to the tariff of four sworn booksellers, at which books should be sold or lent to the scholars; that a fine might be imposed for incorrect copies; that the sellers were bound to fix up in their shops a priced catalogue of their books, besides other regulations of less importance.—*Hallam.*

The Dark Side.—Naturally enough the rage for classical things sometimes exceeded bounds. Bembo, the favorite cardinal of Leo X., the same who used to swear "by the immortal gods," abhorred sermons and the Pauline letters, their matter and style were so bad. He believed that nothing new could be created in literature; that writers must simply imitate Cicero and Petrarch. . . . Some humanists in high places not only forgot but transgressed Christian law. Popes lived like Nero and cursed by Jupiter and Venus. In inner rooms of the Lateran, papal secretaries who had spent the day in deciphering inscriptions or glossing manuscripts, devoted nights to carousing and plays of filthy wit, touching Pope, church and the most sacred as well as all manner of worldly things. They named their club the "bugiale," or "smithy of lies." Such was the midnight pastime of that apostolic circle from whose pens solemn bulls and breves would next morning issue.—*Andrews.*

Froissart.—He has presented a living picture of Europe in its boisterous springtime, with all its tumultuous pleasures, its chivalric glories, and its magnificent superstitions. He has given us a type both of the splendor and the decline of the heroic world. He has transmitted to posterity brilliant examples of dauntless heroism, and perfect models of reproachless chivalry. With the sympathy and spirit of an eye-witness, and with the frankness of an old priest, anxious to entertain his noble patron with as good a story as was consistent with truth, he has detailed the most eventful exploits of our ancestors, in one of the most interesting periods of English history, and one of the most exciting epochs in the progress of civilization.—*Lord.*

Froissart's Own Reason for Writing the Chronicles.—The true reason of my undertaking this book was for my amusement, to which I have ever been inclined, and for which I have frequented the company of many noblemen and gentlemen, as well in France as in England and Scotland, and in other countries, from whose acquaintance I have always requested accounts of battles and adventures, especially since the mighty battle of Poictiers, where the noble King John of France was taken prisoner; for before that time I was young in years and understanding; however, on quitting school I boldly undertook to write and relate the wars above mentioned—which compilation, such as it was, I carried to England, and presented to my lady Phillippa Hainault, queen of England, who most graciously received it from me, to my profit. And perhaps as this book is neither so exactly nor so well written as such feats of arms require, for such deeds demand that each actor who therein performs his part nobly should have due praise, in order to acquaint himself to all, as in justice is due, I have undertaken this present work on the ground before mentioned, at the prayer and request of my dear lord and master, Sir Robert de Namur, knight, lord of Beaufort, to whom I owe all love and obedience, and God give me grace to do always according to his pleasure.—*Froissart.*

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23. THE RENAISSANCE OF ART.

In the Dark Ages art had disappeared along with learning and civilization. The first revival came in architecture. The demands of Christianity for places of worship large enough for great crowds of worshipers led to the development of ecclesiastical architecture. The Roman basilica of the early centuries gave way in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth century to the Gothic architecture, the characteristic feature of which is the pointed arch. The cathedrals of Rheims, Notre Dame in Paris, Cologne, Strassburg, Salisbury, Lincoln, York and many others still standing in England and on the continent date from this time. Save in cathedral-building and castle-building there was little architectural activity during the period.

In painting little of note was done until the thirteenth century when in Italy, through Cimabue and Giotto, a new life and spirit was breathed into the art. Cimabue was the founder of modern Italian painting. In the thirteenth century a new school of sculpture also arose in Italy, while the ecclesiastical sculpturing in the Gothic cathedrals of this era shows marked advance.

The Italian renaissance showed itself in painting, sculpture and literature.

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23. THE RENAISSANCE OF ART.

Art.—Renaissance art varies from that which it supplanted, by its infinitely greater beauty, exuberance, variety and naturalness. Traditional subjects and the old stiff modes of treatment no longer give law. Motion enters the domain of art-representation. The beauty of saints and angels is made to heighten the expression of their holiness. Artists no longer neglect or degrade the human body as a mere unworthy tenement of the spirit, but study and delineate it as noble in itself. Graceful postures and movements, and lovely landscapes are introduced. The world and man assume a strange air of joyousness. In fine, art casts quite aside its old ascetic and pessimistic spirit. Artists astonish now not only by their numbers, but also by their range and their profundity of genius. Giotto, Angelo and Raphael were each masters of the three great arts, Angelo poet and engineer besides. In point here, is the fact that painting, totally lacking that classical stimulus so helpful to architecture and sculpture, was now the field of the most copious production. But in all art, besides new cycles of sacred subjects, mythical, classical and profane—historical ones are introduced, the old themes handled in a free way, subject to limitless variations. Draperies are composed, actions and expressions suited to subjects and to moments. Apostles, prophets, saints are now portrayed as actual human beings, Madonna and child, with Joseph and the little John, image real domestic experience. The sacred blends with the natural; heaven comes down to earth.—*Andrews.*

Painting.—The new Italian painting soared highest, unquestionably outdoing the Greek. Cimabue, who astonished the world by painting a Madonna as a real and beautiful woman, led, in point of time, his pupil Giotto, Ruskin's idol coming next. Massaccio, another mighty pre-Raphaelite, advanced not a little upon his predecessors in mastery of light, shade, color and drapery. He made subjects live, breathe, speak. For delineating spiritual beauty Fra Angelico is unequaled. Michael Angelo's great paintings in the Sistine Chapel of the Vatican, awful in conception, miracles of execution, are among the chief glories of art creation. But Raphael is the foremost painter of all the ages, his Sistine Madonna standing in unapproachable excellence upon the topmost pinnacle of art.—*Andrews.*

Cimabue and Giotto.—It was about the end of the thirteenth century, that the art of painting was revived in Europe. It was practiced by few, in obscurity, earlier than this, in giving rude decorations to altars, chapels and other religious structures, but it was not till the time of Giovanni Cimabue, who flourished about the year 1300, that it was practiced as an art in public use. He had studied under certain Greeks, and although another Italian, named Andrea Talli, had revived mosaic a few years previous, yet to Cimabue is due the honorable title of father of modern painters. He successfully practiced perspective, and to him some authors have attributed its discovery. He at least restored it. Others soon after appeared, among whom Giotto, the pupil of Cimabue, stands most conspicuous. He was a sculptor, as well as a painter. It is related of him that when Pope Benedict IX., having the desire to try the capacity of the Florentine painters, sent a messenger to procure a design from each, and having addressed himself to Giotto, the latter drew a perfect circle on paper with the point of his pencil and one stroke of his hand. "There," says he, "carry to the Pope, and tell him you saw me do it." The man replied, "I asked for a design." "Go, sir," answered the artist; "I tell you his holiness asks nothing else of me." It had the desired effect upon the Pope, who gave his design the preference, and sent for him to visit Rome, where he painted a celebrated mosaic in the portico of the Basilica in that city, representing St. Peter's boat.—*Lossing.*

Raphael's School of Athens.—This great painting tells the entire story of Greek philosophy. The artists of the Renaissance understood old history and literature better than many moderns. Thus Michael Angelo's statue of David is the best commentary extant on the O. T. idea of David as a youth—not a weakling but a giant.—*Andrews.*

The Colossal Marble Statue of David, which once stood in front of the Palazzo Vecchio, and is now under cover in the Belle Arte, was completed in 1501. It was the first work in which Michael Angelo showed the real stamp of his genius, and broke loose from all pre-established traditions. It was carved out of a rejected block of marble.—*De Forest.*

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24. CIVILIZATION.

Prior to the Crusades the life of even the nobility was that of a people hardly removed from the barbarous stage. The houses, the clothing, the food, the occupations of all classes marked a low stage of development. After the Crusades Europe changed its methods of living. Improved transportation facilities and increased knowledge made the diffusion of the comforts of life more widespread. During the period from the twelfth to the fourteenth centuries the castles and houses were vastly improved, and their furnishings began to resemble those required by modern life. Poverty and disease were, however, everywhere prevalent, and the means of relieving the one and curing the other were lacking.



Francis I.

The new industries, in part brought from the East and in part the outgrowth of increased demand for home comforts gave a changed character and appearance to town life. In the later Middle Ages money-lending and banks and other means of carrying on exchanges were introduced. Travel became more common as orderly government replaced the irregularities of the feudal era. The intellectual revival was both the result and the further cause of a higher civilization. As a whole the civilization and the society of the sixteenth century more nearly resembled that of today than it did that of the eleventh century, so that with the opening of the sixteenth century the modern period of European development was fairly entered upon.

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24. CIVILIZATION.

The Renaissance European.—Not surprising that Italy saw the dawn of the new age and, in some respects, its fullest day. Italy was the chief heir of the classical world, the chief center of medieval civilization. It was also the earliest land to acquire wealth, that indispensable prerequisite to leisure for thought and study. Here too feudalism was feeble, liberty first had birth. Here almost alone in the Middle Ages was liberty enjoyed. Lastly the whole medieval history of Italy, so stormy and changeful, was calculated to nurse individuality, inventiveness, daring. It thus became possible for Italy to bear the brunt of the Renaissance struggle, doing in this a work without which no subsequent progress could have been made. Yet the Renaissance was not confined to Italy. It was European. All Western humanity now started up to put away childish things. Thought, renouncing prescription and mere formal work, was set free for effort in a hundred new directions. The telescope, already known to the Arabs, Roger Bacon described to Europe in 1250. The compass was brought to light in 1302, linen paper and gunpowder about 1320. Printing triumphs in 1438, and in less than a century Virgil, Homer, Aristotle and Plato appear in noble editions. America is discovered in 1492, the Cape rounded in 1497. Copernicus explains the solar system in 1507, proves the revolution of the earth in 1530. Savonarola closes the fifteenth century, Luther opens the sixteenth, which, going out, leaves behind Boehme, Bacon, Grotius, Hobbes and Descartes. In this same period feudalism gave way and absolute monarchy rose in France, Spain, England, Austria and Turkey. Equally mistaken is it to derive the Renaissance casually from any external event, as the fall of Constantinople and the consequent hegira of Greek scholars to Italy, although several of the above-named effects unquestionably became causes in time. Thus, printing incalculably spread and stimulated intelligence, and the influence of Columbus and Copernicus reached philosophy and theology. God and his universe were seen to be greater than men had dreamed.—*Andrews.*

The Commencement of the Reign of Henry the Eighth was auspicious for art. The monarch was young, learned, liberal and gallant—a lover of the ladies and of all sorts of magnificence. He desired to rival the splendor of foreign courts, and if money could have accomplished it, he would have surpassed Charles V. and Francis I. in glory. He opened his treasury, and scattered his father's hoards with no sparing hand. Foreign artists began to appear at his court, and an enthusiasm for works of talent was awakened. Skillful portrait painting—the noble art of expressing the sentiments of the soul in the lineaments of the face, rose more and more in estimation, and England seemed in a fair way of having a school of art created in her own spirit.—*Cunningham.*

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FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **THE FOUNDING OF SPAIN.**—Arabian Spain, Arabian Architecture, The Alhambra, Primitive Moors.
20. **THE TURKS AND THE EASTERN EMPIRE.**—The Rule of the Caliphs, The Literature of the Ottoman.
21. **THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING.**—College at Bagdad, Genius of the Renaissance, Universities Founded, University of Paris, Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio.
22. **THE LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES.**—Translations of Scripture, A Second Athens, The Reading of Dante, The Love of Greek and Latin, Book-Selling, The Dark Side.
23. **THE RENAISSANCE OF ART.**—Comparison, Painting, Raphael's School of Athens, Statue of David.
24. **CIVILIZATION.**—The Renaissance European, Latin, Germanic and French Imagination.

QUESTIONS.

19. *What was the condition of Spain prior to the eleventh century? How was the union of Aragon and Castile brought about? What can you say of the political skill of Ferdinand? Give the substance of the statement of Washington Irving in reference to the Alhambra? What does President Andrews state in reference to Arabian Spain? Who were the primitive Moors?*

20. *Who were the Seljukian Turks? Who were the Ottoman Turks? Why is the year 1453 considered of great historical importance? How did the downfall of Constantinople influence Greek learning? Why?*

21. *In what ways did the revival of learning show itself? Name the various stages in the progress of the revival of learning? What does Hallam state in reference to the Twelfth Century? In what did the "Genius of the Renaissance" consist? What universities were founded during this period? What literary characters influenced the life of this period? How?*

22. *How was a distinct language for each nation acquired? How were national characteristics developed? Why was the language of France, Italy and Spain built upon the Latin tongue? Why was the language of England and Germany Teutonic? To what extent did the ballads and songs of chivalry influence the people? To what extent is the period illustrated by the Canterbury Tales, Pier's Ploughman and the Divine Comedy of Dante?*

23. *In what form was art first revived? Why? What noted cathedrals date from this period? Where and when did painting of note first appear? Who was the founder of modern painting? In what ways did the Italian Renaissance show itself? What does Andrews say of the artists of the Renaissance as compared to many moderns?*

24. *In what way was the mode of living changed after the Crusades? What can you say of the improvement during this period? Give Andrews' statement of "The Renaissance European?" Give Taine's comparison of the Italian, Germanic and French imagination?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Trace out a brief but connected history of the Arabian schools in Spain. What part did this school play in the revival of learning? Give reasons for your conclusions?*

2. *To what extent did the education of the masses depend upon debates and general discussions?*

3. *Give the history of the establishment, conduct and methods of the leading universities of this period. What were their methods of instruction? By whom were they established? How were they supported? What ones are still in existence?*

4. *In what ways did the rise of the modern languages and literatures influence the growth of learning? Give reasons for your conclusions.*

5. *With the statement of Gladstone, page 241 as a text, carefully study the life of Dante. How did Dante influence the people? Point out particular features of his works which you consider of special value in this connection. Why?*

6. *In what ways did the fall of Constantinople disseminate Greek learning? Give illustrations and special examples favoring your conclusions.*

7. *Carefully study the invention of printing, noting its history and the character of the inventions; its influence in spreading knowledge, and the particular phases of learning stimulated.*

8. *Carefully look up the history of book-making and book-selling: How were books printed?*

9. *Prepare a brief list of some of the books of this period which you consider most influenced the people. What subjects are most frequently treated?*

10. *Trace out the history of the Turks. Who were the Seljukian Turks? Ottoman Turks?*

11. *The different nationalities of Europe, namely: France, Italy, Spain, England, Germany, etc., were now distinct: Carefully review from the beginning any one of the following. (1) Languages: From what tongue is the language built? What other languages have influenced its growth? In what respect is the language peculiar? Why do we have many living languages in the place of one universal language? (2) Government: In what ways are these governments peculiar? To what extent have geographical conditions operated in the formation of distinct forms of governments? (3) Civilization. What can you say of the degree of civilization at this period? How does each nation rank in art? Literature? Schools? Constitutional liberty? Religion? (4) Geography. With a few pieces of colored crayon and an old wall map, as near as can be done, outline the location of each of these peoples at the downfall of the Roman Empire. Then in historical order indicate the various changes which have taken place up to the sixteenth century. In each instance carefully note the causes which have directly, or indirectly, produced the change. (5) Art: Why did the first revival come in architecture? What form predominated at first? What may be said of painting? Sculpture? Who were the leaders in each of these arts?*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Ab'elard, a celebrated French philospher and logician born in 1079.

Albigen'ses, reformers of medieval France living at Alby, Albi or Albigeois. They were distinct from the Waldenses; rejected sacraments, considered marriage as sinful and opposed church authority.

Assassins, The.—About the time of the First Crusade, the Mohammedan prophet, Hassan, founded the fanatical sect of the Assassins, who dwelt in the mountains of Syria, and who became the terror alike of Christians, Jews and Turks. These assassins were blindly devoted to their chief, "The Old Man of the Mountain," and paid the most implicit obedience to his commands; and they believed that if they sacrificed their lives for his sake, they would certainly be rewarded with the highest joys of paradise. Whenever the Old Man of the Mountain considered himself injured by any one, he dispatched some of his Assassins secretly to murder the aggressor. Thus was derived the common name of assassin, which has ever since been applied to a secret murderer.

Averroes.—The nature and immortality of the soul, the functions and distinguishing characters of angels, the being and attributes of God, engaged the thoughtful mind of Ficinus. In the course of his speculations he assailed a doctrine which, though rejected by Scotus and most of the schoolmen, had gained much ground among the Aristotelians, as they deemed themselves, of Italy; a doctrine first held by Averroes; that there is one common intelligence, active, immortal, indivisible, unconnected with matter, the soul of human kind, which is not in any one man, because it has no material form, but which yet assists in the rational operations of each man's personal soul, and from those operations which are all conversant with particulars, derives its own knowledge of universals. Thus, if I understand what is meant, which is rather subtile, it might be said, that as in the common theory, particular sensations furnish means to the soul of forming general ideas, so, in that of Averroes, the ideas and judgments of separate human souls furnish collectively the means of that knowledge of universals which the one great soul of mankind alone can embrace. This was a theory built, as some have said, on the bad Arabic version of Aristotle which Averroes used. But, whatever might have first suggested it to the philospher of Cordova, it seems little else than an expansion of the Realistic hypothesis, urged as a degree of apparent paradox.—*Hallam.*

Boccaccio (bo-kat'-cho), the most celebrated of Italian novelists; born in Paris in 1313; was the illegitimate son of a Florentine merchant and a Frenchwoman. He engaged in mercantile pursuits and afterwards studied canon law. Later he was sent on several diplomatic missions.

Barcelo'na, a seaport town of Spain, east-northeast of Madrid; said to have been founded by the Carthaginians.

Boehme (böm), or Bohm, a celebrated German mystic. He wrote numerous works, but was generally accounted visionary.

Bologna (bo-lōn' ya), a city of Italy, capital of a province of the same name.

Burgh'er, an inhabitant, citizen, or freeman of a borough, burgh or corporate town.

Cap'-a-pie, meaning from head to foot; with thorough equipment, as a knight armed cap-a-pie.

Catalo'nia, a former province, now a captain generalcy, in the north-east of Spain.

Cimabue (che-ma-boo' a), a historical painter (see p. 243). He received his first lessons in design from two Greeks who worked at Florence.

Coper'nicus, a celebrated astronomer, the author of the Copernican System.

Cor'dova, a city of Spain. Its Moorish walls built on Roman foundations, enclose a large area, much of which is now occupied by gardens or ruins, except one large square bordered by lofty and handsome edifices.

Dan'dolo, a renowned Venetian statesman and general; born about 1105.

Dan'te, Petrarch, Boccaccio.—These three men may with much greater propriety be regarded as heralds of the brighter time. All received much inspiration from classical letters, which they knew and used well enough to propagate their enthusiasm therefor as a rich legacy to men of the full Renaissance. To Boccaccio especially was due new interest in Greek. His style became a model in prose as did Petrarch's in poetry and prose both. Dante had already given fixity to Italian, which was thus the earliest among modern languages to assume a national character. But Dante's greatness is far more than literary. He is a philosopher, divine, historian, publicist. His immortal poem, the Divine Comedy, in style as unique as in contents it is often difficult, sets forth the entire body of medieval ideas, on theology, philosphy, natural science, astronomy, history, politics, antiquity. Heaven, hell and purgatory as well as earth are here ransacked, and the simplest of the matters brought to view, made to reveal deep meanings. Here not less than in the poet's De Monarchia we have his political creed. As Beatrice, personification of purity and love, thus representing a spiritual church, guides through paradise, so Virgil, panegyrist of strong earthly empire andemphasizingthe deserts of such as oppose this, is made to conduct through hell. Yet Dante does not thrust forward political or any philosophy, or theology even, to the lessening of poetic power. In fact literature can boast not more than two poems comparable with the Divine Comedy.—*Andrews.*

Descartes (da-kart'), a French mathematician and scientist.

Doge of Venice.—Formerly an elective chief magistrate, holding princely rank in the republic of Venice and Genoa. The office was abolished in 1797.

Franco'nians.—The Franconian Dynasty (1024-1125) embraced, in general, the 11th century. It gave to the throne Conrad II., and Henry III., IV. and V.

HOUSE OF FRANCONIA.

CONRAD II. (1024-'39).
|
HENRY III. (1039-'56).
|
HENRY IV. (1056-1106).
|
HENRY V. (1106-'25). — AGNES married FREDERICK OF HOHENSTAUFEN.

—*Steele.*

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Ghib'elline.—During the siege of Weinsberg, the rebels raised the warcry of *Welf*—the name of their leader; and Conrad's army, that of *Waiblingen*—the birthplace of Frederick of Swabia, the king's brother. These cries, corrupted by the Italians into *Guelf* and *Ghibelline*, were afterward applied to the adherents of the pope and the emperor respectively, and for centuries resounded from the Mediterranean to the North Sea.

Giotto (jot' to).—An eminent Florentine painter, born 1276. He is regarded as one of the principal reformers of painting in Italy (see Cimabue, p. 243).

God'frey of Bouillion (boo-yon'), the illustrious leader of the first crusade.

Guelfs (gwelf or welf), (see Ghibelline).

Hohenstaufen (hō-en-stow'-fen), a celebrated family of German princes.

Korasmians.—In the year A.D. 1243, fourteen years after the Fifth Crusade, the Korasmians, a fierce tribe of barbarians from the plains of Tartary, overran Palestine, carrying slaughter and desolation wherever they appeared, took Jerusalem, massacred its inhabitants, destroyed the Holy Sepulcher, and wasted the flower of the Christian chivalry in a desperate battle at Gaza; but they were finally defeated by the Turkish and Christian armies, which, for the moment, united against the common enemy.

Kyffhauser (kif-hoi'zer), an ancient palace of emperors of the Hohenstaufen dynasty.

Madon'na, an old Italian form of address. The Virgin Mary; also, a painted or sculptured representation of the Virgin, usually with the infant Jesus.

Mayence (ma-yāns'), a town of Germany.

Medici (med'-e-chee), a family name quite common during the fifteenth century.

Mi'chael An'gelo, the celebrated Italian painter, sculptor and architect.

Military Orders.—Their history is in many ways the counterpart of that of the monastic bodies. Their exile in Syria corresponded to the seclusion of the monk in his cloister; their acquirements of lands in the European countries was paralleled to the growth in landed property of the monastic houses and their gradual neglect of the function for which they were called into being is precisely typified by the growing worldliness of one after another of the revived ascetic bodies. At the close of the crusading period the Teutonic Order concentrated itself in the country lying just eastward from the lower course of the Vistula, where the flourishing cities of Elbing, Thorn and Konigsberg testified to its excellent quality as a landed proprietor. The Order of the Temple, living in its rich houses all over the western world, became the object of a more or less just suspicion of moral and religious corruption, and offered a tempting prey to ambitious monarchs to confiscate its wealth while prosecuting its sins. The example was set by King Philip IV., of France, supported by a papacy which he had created, and the end was the total extinction of the Temple in France and so serious a blow to its reputation elsewhere that it allowed itself gradually to become incorporated with other similar organizations in the different countries. Its property, so much as escaped the confiscation of kings, was awarded by papal decree to the order of St. John. This latter, the earliest of the military orders, was also the last to disappear. It had taken the same course as the rest, and had even gone to the point of setting up a regular state of its own in vassalage to the principality of Antioch. After the evacuation of Syria in the early years of the fourteenth century, it was transferred to the island of Rhodes, and after the capture of that place by the Turks in the sixteenth century, again to Malta. It still lingers without property as an honorary title in many European countries.—*Emerton.*

Othmans and Seljuks.—To return to the point: The truth is, that though the Ottomans, as well as Seljuks, when they grew powerful, assumed those appellations, either being too proud any longer to bear a name which was fallen into contempt, or else to honor the founders of their respective empires, yet they were nevertheless Turks in reality: and, in saying they were Oguzians, they confirm that opinion the more, since Oguz was but a few descents from Turk. Nor can we see, why they should be ashamed of the name; since Turk, whom they feign to be a son of Japhet, is acknowledged as the common ancestor of all the tribes, or nations, inhabiting Tartary. Besides, as the Othmans came originally from thence, they must needs be Turks by descent, let them call themselves by what name they will, and methinks they ought to prefer that name above any other, and it denotes their being descended immediately from Turk, their great ancestor; and that all the other tribes of Tartars are sprung from theirs. As to the particular part of Tartary where this supposed Oguzian horde, or tribe, originally inhabited, all the Turkish historians, we are told, agree, that it dwelt in the neighborhood of the Caspian sea, and was especially of those Tartars whom they commonly call Konar Kocher Tartar Tayseli; that is, staying and going: as much as to say, without fixed habitations. Prince Cantemir is inclined to believe, that these Oguzians dwelt in the country between that sea and the lake called Karabogaz, at present inhabited by the Karakalpaks, who lead a wandering life, and speak the Turkish language; although the Turks greatly differ from them in their manners and way of living. That the Turks should differ from them at present, in those respects, is not to be wondered at: but it is probable, that, when they lived in those deserts, they had a great conformity in manners, either with the Karakalpaks, or the Turkmans, their neighbors; from whom the Othman, as well as the Seljuk, Turks have been reproached with being descended. —*Osborne.*

Pa-cho'mi-us, an Egyptian ascetic, the reputed founder of the regular monastic communities, or the first who prescribed regular rules of life to the monks and nuns.

Pe'trarch, a celebrated Italian poet, born in Tuscany, 1304. (See Dante, page 246.)

Plantag'enets, applied since the fifteenth century to the English kings, from Henry II. to the House of Tudors, said to have been derived from Geoffrey's wearing the common broom of Anjou.

Raphael (rā'fa-el or raf'a-el), the most illustrious of modern painters, was born in the Papal States, 1483. In 1508, having received an invitation to ornament the Vatican from Julius II., he went to Rome.

Renaissance.—During the fifteenth century a change as subtle and indefinable as it was significant came over the spirit of European society. Without sharp break with the past, involving no strictly new creation, no sudden or unheralded revolution of ideas, gradually rose an altered mode of viewing man, the world, life, far less theological than the old, less respectful to tradition, more confident in man's powers and future, in fine, laic and human. Renewed study of classical antiquity was sign and instrument rather than essence of the new movement. If men

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looked back, it was mostly to clear their vision to look and walk forward. The new thinking, if marked by temporary unbelief, and more given than the old to human and secular things, was not essentially irreligious, if less scholastic, not less profound. Vaster conceptions of the field of truth were born. It was felt that no problem had been absolutely settled, and that the human faculties, fettered or discouraged or else applied to inane inquiries, had as yet scarcely given a hint of the productive activity possible to them. Hence, fresh, courageous, successful effort to see what man might be, do, know. Modern history, in the narrower sense, now begins. "The history of the Renaissance," says Simonds, "is the history of the attainment of self-conscious freedom by the human spirit, manifested in the European races.—*Andrews.*

Roncaglia (ron-kal'ya), a village in Italy where Barbarossa encamped.

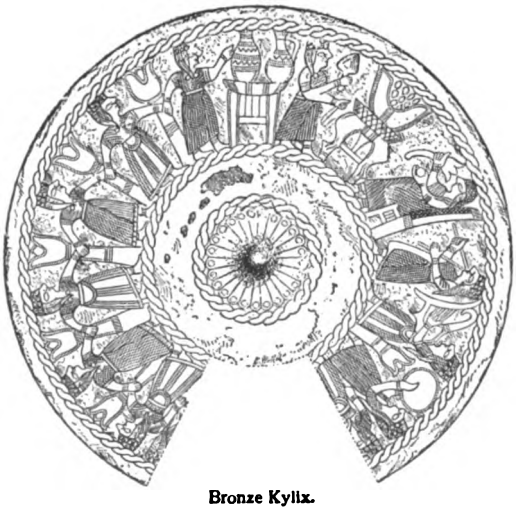
Sal'adin, the common English and French form of Salah-ed-Deen or Salah-eddin, a famous Sultan of Egypt and leader of the Saracens against the Crusaders. The situation of the Christian kingdom of Jerusalem became more and more perilous after the Second Crusade; and at length the valiant Saladin, Sultan of Egypt, reduced a part of Palestine under his sceptre. The magnanimous Saladin finally granted the Christians of Palestine a truce; but when a Christian knight interrupted the passage of Saladin's mother, seized her treasures and slew her attendants, the exasperated Sultan of Egypt recommenced hostilities, defeated the Christians in the battle of Tiberias, took Joppa, Sidon, Acre and other towns, and in 1187 Jerusalem also fell into the possession of the conquering Sultan. Saladin, who surpassed his Christian foes in virtue, generosity and nobleness of heart, treated the inhabitants of the Holy City with mildness, but caused the crosses to be torn down and the furniture of the Christian churches to be destroyed.

Salaman'ca, an ancient city in western Spain, known in Hannibal's time, famous in the Middle Ages for its commerce, manufactures and university.

Seljuks is the name of several Turkish dynasties, issued from one family, which reigned over large parts of Asia in the eleventh, twelfth and thirteenth centuries of our era. The history of the Seljuks forms the first part of the history of the Turkish empire. The first Seljuk rulers belonged to the Turkish tribe of the Ghuzz which traced its lineage to Oghuz, the famous eponymic hero not only of this but of all Turkish tribes. The Seljukian dynasty of Syria came to an end after three generations, and its later history is interwoven with that of the crusaders. The independence of the Seljuks was now forever lost, and the Seljukian dynasty came to an end in 1315 with Kaikobad, who was succeeded by an Ottoman.—*Houtzma.*

Sis'tine Chapel, the chapel constructed in the Vatican Palace by Sixtus IV. and afterwards magnificently decorated by Michael Angelo.

Vul'gate Latin.—Jerome translated the Gospels into Latin, then the vernacular or vulgar tongue, in A.D. 383, the remaining New Testament somewhat later, and the Old Testament from the Hebrew between 390 and 405. This version is now used, with some modifications, as the authorized version of the Roman Catholics.



Bronze Kylix.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

A.D.

1002 Danes massacred in England.
1005 Europe visited by pestilence that lasted three years.
1009 Saracens of Spain engaged in Civil war, which lasted over forty years.
1013 England under the sway of the Danes.
1015 Law passed in England forbidding parents to sell their children. The Albigenses persecuted in Languedoc. French language first written.
1016 Six battles fought with Canute, king of Denmark, by Edmund II. Ironsides, of England, with whom the kingdom of England is finally divided.
1018 Italy first invaded by the Normans. Bulgaria becomes again a Grecian Province.
1019 Canute conquers Norway.
1022 Guido Aretino invents the musical scale, consisting of six notes.
1025 Constantine is made sole Emperor of the East on the death of his brother.
1030 First conquests of the Seljukian Turks.
1031 Castile and Navarre united. Saracens expelled from Syria by Romanus.
1035 Ferdinand I. of Castile in Spain successful against the Mohammedans. Beginning of the kingdoms of Castile and Aragon.
1039 The Bohemians and Hungarians defeated by Henry III., emperor of Germany.
1039 Macbeth, of Scotland, murdered by Duncan, who usurps the throne.
1040 The Danes driven from Scotland.
1042 Saxon line restored in England under Edward the Confessor.
1042 Persia taken possession of by the Turks. The Danes driven out of England.
1043 The Greeks drive back the Russians, who invade Thrace with 100,000 men.
1050 Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar, called the Cid —the name given him by the Moors of Spain, with whom he engaged in constant conflict.
1053 Renewal of the Greek Schism by Michael Caerularius. Welsh and Irish invade England. Repulsed by Harold, son of Godwin.
1054 The Patriarch of Constantinople and the Greeks excommunicated by the church of Rome.
1055 The empire of Caliphs overturned by the Turks. Gregory VII (Hildebrand) becomes head of the Roman church.
1056 Milan becomes a republic.
1062 The Turks kill and make prisoners of 7,000 Europeans in Palestine.
1065 The Turks take Jerusalem.
1066 Battle of Hastings. England conquered by William I., Duke of Normandy, called The Conqueror. The Anglo-Saxon dynasty ended.

A.D.

1070 The Normans introduce the feudal system into England. Pope of Rome claims supreme dominion both temporal and spiritual over all the states of Christendom.
1072 The English nobility first use surnames.
1073 Westminster hall and London bridge built in England.
1076 Pope Gregory VII. deposes Henry IV., Emperor of Germany. Towards the end of Jan., 1077, the Emperor is restored after a most humiliating penance.
1080 Beginning of the compilation of the Doomsday book, in England, which was finished in six years.
1080 Tower of London built.
1084 Henry IV., of Germany, conquers Pope Gregory.
1085 Toledo taken from the Saracens, by the King of Castile, Alphonsus VI.
1087 Henry the Bourbon takes Portugal from the Saracens. France invaded by William the Conqueror, who is killed at Nantes.
1087 Great struggle between Mohammedanism and Christianity.
1091 Christians attack on all sides the Saracens in Spain. The Moors are called in from Africa by the Saracens to aid them. The Moors seize the territory and subdue the Saracens.
1095 Council of Clermont. The first Crusade.
1097 Siege of Nice and battle of Dorylaeum.
1098 Siege of Antioch and battle of Orontes.
1099 Siege of Jerusalem and battle of Ascalon. Seventy thousand infidels put to the sword. Kingdom of Jerusalem founded under King Godfrey, of Bouillon. Knights Hospitallers of St. John.
1101 England invaded by Robert, Duke of Normandy.
1106 Normandy joined to England by Henry II.
1110 Writing paper made of cotton rags.
1118 Knights-Templars. Alphonsus of Navarre defeats the Moors in several battles.
1120 House of Guelph begins in Italy.
1137 A pretended Messiah in France.
1138 A pretended Messiah in Persia.
1140 Canon law first used in England.
1144 City of Moscow founded in Russia.
1147 Second Crusade.
1148 Normans repulsed by Manuel before Constantinople.
1154 House of Plantagenet reigns in England through Henry II.
1160 Order of the Carmelites founded.
1170 Military order of St. James.
1171 British enter Ireland. Turks conquer Egypt. Saladin the Sultan, conquers Syria, Assyria, Mesopotamia and Arabia.
1172 Ireland first governed by an English viceroy, or Lord Lieutenant.

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A.D.

1176 Circuit judges first established in England.
1178 Waldenses severely persecuted.
1179 The eleventh general Council, or third Lateran.
1180 Glass windows used in private houses in England
1187 The Christians defeated by Saladin in the battle of Tiberias. Fall of the kingdom of Jerusalem.
1188 Third Crusade under Philip Augustus, of France, Frederick Barbarossa, of Germany, and Richard of England.
1189 Large number of Jews massacred at the coronation of Richard I. of England.
1190 Knights of the Teutonic order established.
1192 Richard, king of England defeats Saladin.
1193 Death of Saladin.
1196 The Jews the principal bankers of the world.
1203 Fourth Crusade.
1204 The order of the Dominicans and Franciscans established. Pope Innocent III. established the inquisition. Latin empire of Constantinople.
1208 King John grants its first charter of incorporation to city of London, England.
1210 King John, of England, wholly subdues Ireland.
1212 Prodigious victory of the Christians of Spain over the Moors at Muradal.
1215 Magna Charta granted by king John, of England to the barons at Runnymede.
1217 The Fifth Crusade. The Turks take Jerusalem and drive away the Saracens.
1220 Battle of the Jaxartes, between Genghis-Kan and Sultan Mohammed. The Moors, of Spain, revive astronomy and geography in Europe.
1223 Crusade in France against the Albigenses.
1224 Saint Thomas Aquinas born.
1226 Leon and Castile again united. The Tartars ravage Hungary, Bohemia and Russia.
1228 Sixth Crusade.
1230 Opposite parties of the Guelphs and Ghibellines in Italy. Mariner's compass, invented some time before, began to be used.
1233 Coal first discovered at Newcastle, England.
1236 Moscow taken by the Tartars.
1240 Origin of the Ottomans.
1248 Seventh Crusade by Louis of France. (Some historians term this the Fifth Crusade.)
1250 Captivity of St. Louis.
1254 General persecution of the Jews.
1258 Great naval war between Venice and Genoa. Bagdad taken by the Moguls. End of the Arabian Caliphate.
1261 Fall of the Latin empire of Constantinople. Iceland subjected by Norway.
1263 Scotland invaded by the Norwegians, and defeated by Alexander III.

A.D.

1264 The Commons of England about this time become part of the English Parliament.
1268 Eighth and last Crusade. Some historians make the date 1270. Historians differ regarding the number of the Crusades.
1279 University of Lisbon founded.
1287 Jews banished from England, nearly 16,000 in number.
1291 Final overthrow of the Christian power in Syria. Invention of gun-powder about this time; also, according to many, of the magnifying glass and spectacles. End of the Crusades.
1299 Turkish or Ottoman empire founded in Bithynia by Othoman I.
1302 The States general first convoked in France.
1308 Commencement of Swiss independence.
1310 Conquest of Rhodes by the Knights of St. John.
1311 General council called at Vienne.
1312 Suppression of the Knights-Templars by the Pope and king of France.
1313 Battle of Bannockburn, in which the Scots signally defeated the English.
1315 Battle of Morgarten, which secured the independence of Switzerland.
1328 Spain invaded by 200,000 Moors. The independence of Scotland acknowledged by England.
1337 Locusts overrun Europe.
1340 Swarts, a monk of Cologne, invents gunpowder. Awful and complete overthrow of the Moors at Tarifa.
1343 The title "Dauphin" given to the eldest sons of the king of France—the name taken from the province of Dauphine.
1348 Universal and dreadful pestilence. A million and a half of Jews are massacred in Europe on suspicion of having poisoned the springs and wells.
1352 Europe first entered by the Turks.
1365 University of Geneva established.
1372 English fleet destroyed by the Spaniards near La Rochelle.
1383 Cannon first used in the defence of Calais by the English.
1384 First navigation act passes in England.
1388 The battle of Chevy Chase or Otterburn.
1391 Invention of cards for the amusement of the king of France.
1396 Signal defeat of the Christians, at Nicopolis.
1397 Treaty of Calmar for the union of Denmark, Sweden and Norway,
1402 Tremendous battle of Ancyra between Sultan Bajazet I. and Tamerlane.
1405 Canary Islands discovered.
1410 Joan of Arc born. Burnt alive as a witch in 1431.
1411 University of St. Andrew, Scotland, established.
1415 John Huss and Jerome of Prague burnt at the stake.
1420 Portuguese discover the island of Madeira.
1429 Siege of Orleans, and Joan of Arc.

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A.D.
1432 The Azores discovered by the Portuguese.
1438 Terrible famine and plague in Paris. Over 50,000 persons said to have died from hunger.
1440 Invention of printing by Guttenberg. Improved by Faust and Schoeffer.
1442 Negro slave trade inaugurated.
1444 Guttenberg begins the earliest edition of the Bible. Finished in 1460.
1446 Dreadful inundation at Dort-Holland. Over 100,000 people drowned. The Vatican library begun.
1450-1453 The English defeated at Bourmigny and Chatillon. Lose their possessions in France.
1453 Fall of Constantinople. Civil Wars of the Roses begin about this time in England, by the ambitious views of the House of York.
1454 University of Glasgow established.
1456 Siege of Belgrade. Mahomet repulsed with great loss.
1458 Mohammedans conquer Greece.
1461 Destruction of the empire of Trebisond.
1474 Russia lays the foundation of its present monarchy.

A.D.
1477 University of Aberdeen established.
1478 The inquisition instituted in Spain.
1480 First siege of Rhodes.
1481 End of the rule of the Tartars in Russia.
1483 Martin Luther born.
1485 End of the War of the Roses by the defeat and death of Richard III., king of England, and last of the Plantagenets at the battle of Bosworth.
1487 The Court of the Star Chamber instituted by the Privy Council of England.
1492 Extinction of the power of the Moors in Spain. Columbus discovers San Salvador, Oct. 12th, Cuba, Oct. 27th, Hispaniola Dec. 6th.
1494 Columbus discovers Jamaica.
1496 Newfoundland and North America discovered by Sebastian Cabot for Henry VII. of England.
1497 Discovery of the Cape of Good Hope by Vasco de Gama. Amerigo Vespucci discovers South America.
1499 The Moors driven out from Castile
1500 The Turks conquer the Morea.

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SIDE LIGHTS.

ORIGIN of Trial by Jury.—Henry II. introduced the grand assize, or assize of novel disseisin, in which, according to the best authorities, we have the origin of our modern jury-trial. The assize was limited to civil causes, and particularly to those in which the complainant alleged that he had been disseised (or dispossessed) of his land by the person then holding it. Since the Conquest the tenant had been required to engage in judicial combat with the champion of the complainant, but he might now choose trial by assize, in which case the sheriff summoned four knights of the neighborhood where the disputed property lay, and they selected twelve others who where most cognizant of the facts, and these sixteen sworn recognitors, as they were called, decided the matter from their personal knowledge.

The same king abolished the mode of trial by compurgation; and the fourth Lateran Council having prohibited the use of the ordeal (1215), an order was given to the justices not to try persons charged with important offences by that method; hence it was necessary that some new proceeding should be adopted, and gradually the accused was allowed to endeavor to disprove the charge of the inquest-men on whose presentment (or declaration) he had been imprisoned, by the testimony of another inquest, consisting generally of twelve persons from the neighborhood. Sir F. Palgrave very clearly distinguishes between the province of the jury in the "trial by inquest," and that of the jury of the present day. "Trial by jury," he remarks, "according to the old English law, was a proceeding essentially different from the modern tribunal, still bearing the same name by which it has been replaced; and whatever merits belonged to the original mode of judicial investigation—and they were great and unquestionable, though accompanied by many imperfections—such benefits are not to be exactly identified with the advantages now resulting from the great bulwark of English liberty. Jurymen in the present day are triers of the issue; they are individuals who found their opinion upon the evidence, whether oral or written, adduced before them, and the virdict delivered by them is their declaration of the judgment they have formed. But the ancient jurymen were not impanelled to examine into the credibility of the evidence; the question was not discussed and argued before them; they, the jurymen were the witnesses themselves, and the verdict was subtantially the examination of these witnesses, who, of their own knowledge, and without the aid of other testimony, afforded their evidence respecting the facts in question to the best of their belief. In its primitive form, a trial by jury was, therefore, only a trial by witnesses; and jurymen were distinguished from any other witnesses only by customs which imposed on them the obligation of an oath, and regulated their number, and which prescribed their rank and defined the territorial qualifications from whence they obtained their degree and influence in society."

It cannot be exactly determined at what period witnesses were examined distinct from the jury; but in the 23d of Edward III., the former, instead of being members of the panel, were added to it to afford the jury the benefit of their testimony, though they had no voice in the verdict. This is considered as the connecting link between the ancient and modern jury. Some time before the 11th of Henry IV., the complete separation of the witnesses from the jury was effected; and the former were required to give their evidence in open court, so that the judge might state his opinion to the jury as to the value of their testimony. From a passage in Fortescue's celebrated work on the laws of England, written in the time of Henry VI., it is manifest that, with the exception that the jury were to be selected from the neighborhood, the system was in all its essential features identical with that which now exists.

Magna Charta.—The charter of liberties granted by King John, and known as Magna Charta, consisted of sixty-three articles, arranged in no systematical order; but for the sake of convenience, we shall quote the more important under three heads—one referring to the interests of the clergy, another regulating those of the nobility, and the third bearing on the welfare of the people at large.

I. A charter had already been granted to the clergy by the king, and therefore it was merely necessary to confirm it, which is done by the first provision:—The Church of England shall be free, and shall have her whole rights and her liberties inviolable.

II. Provisions bearing on the interests of the nobility:—2. If any of our earls, barons, or others who hold of us in chief by military service shall die, and at the time of his death his heir shall be of full age and owes a relief, he shall have his inheritance by his ancient relief, that is to say, the heir of an earl, for a whole earldom, by one hundred pounds; the heir of a baron, for a whole barony, by one hundred marks; the heir of a knight, for a whole knight's fee, by one hundred shillings 3. If the heir of any such be under age, and in wardship when he comes of age, he shall have his inheritance without relief and without fine. 6. Heirs shall be married without disparagement, so that before the marriage be contracted it shall be notified to those who are near in blood to the heir. 7. A widow, after the death of her husband, shall immediately and without difficulty, have her marriage and her inheritance, and she may remain in her husband's house forty days after his death, within which time her dower shall be assigned. 8. No widow shall be distrained (compelled) to marry so long as she has a mind to live single; but yet she shall give security that she will not marry without our assent, if she hold of us, or without the assent of the lord of whom she does hold if she holds of another. 12. No scutage or aid shall be imposed on our kingdom, unless by the general council of our kingdom; except for ransoming our person, making our oldest son a knight, and once for marrying our eldest daughter; and for these there shall be a reasonable aid. 14. And for holding the general council of the kingdom concerning the assessment of aids, except in the three cases aforesaid, and for the assessment of scutages, we shall cause to be summoned the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons of the realm, singly by our letter. And furthermore, we shall cause to be summoned generally by our sheriffs and bailiffs, all others who hold of us in chief, for a certain day, that is to say, forty days before their meeting at least, and to a certain place; and in all the letters of summons, we shall express the cause of such summons. And summons

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being thus made, the business shall proceed on the day appointed, according to the counsel of those who shall be present, although all that had been summoned have not come. 21. Earls and barons shall not be amerced but by their peers, and that according to the degree of their delinquency.

Origin of Parliament.—The system of popular representation in parliament, which commenced in the latter part of the reign of Henry III., was definitely established in that of his son. Subsequent to the Norman Conquest, and earlier than 1265, some few instances of apparent representation may be traced; but all the parliaments which met before that summoned by Simon de Montfort consisted of the spiritual and temporal nobility alone; and no persons appeared as the representatives of the lesser landholders, and of the citizens and burgesses. But the writs issued by him, bearing date December 12th, 1264, directed the counties, cities and towns to send members to the parliament; and nearly all constitutional authorities admit that this was the origin of popular representation. It is probable that county and borough members assembled in the later parliaments of Henry III.; and they were certainly constituent parts of those of Edward I. No writer assigns a more recent date for the regular and comple establishment of the British parliament than 1295. Some persons have supposed that, when the commons were admited to parliament, they sat with the peers, and that, in fact, there was but one house; but this is very unlikely, and there is little doubt that from the first the commons had a separate existence, though originally the knights sat, not with the citizens and burgesses, but with the peers.

The division of the houses may be argued from the circumstance that their votes of taxes differed; for example, in 23 Ed. I. the earls, barons, and knights granted the king a tenth, the clergy an eleventh; while the citizens and burgesses voted a seventh; in 33 Ed. I. the barons and knights gave a thirtieth; the cities and towns a twentieth; in 1 Ed. II. the counties paid a twentieth, the towns a fifteenth; in 6 Ed. III. they were respectively assessed at a fifteenth and a tenth. It may be further noticed that, in the 11th of Ed. I. the upper house sat at Shrewsbury, while the commons met at Acton Burnell. Fortunately for the liberties of England, when the constitution of the houses was fixed, the knights, from whatever cause, were joined to the citizens and burgesses, and thus the commons acquired a lustre and influence which otherwise they would never have possessed.

"The knights," says Mackintosh, "must have gradually felt an abatement of their contempt for the industrial classes, whose representatives shared, equally with themselves, the exercise of the highest functions of the state. That co-operation and equality slowly effaced the distinction between the two bodies, whose junction raised up a formidable House of Commons, receiving dignity from the ties which bound one part of them to its former exclusive possessors, and deriving a spirit and energy from popular elections, which that institution, even in its infancy, could alone bestow. Such a house of commons were strong, not only by their legal power, but by their moral influence." The rolls of parliament lead us to believe that the houses were divided, as at present, in the eighth, ninth, and nineteeth years of Ed. II., and such was unquestionably the case in the first Ed III.

That which in our time is esteemed a high privilege was at first regarded as an onerous burden; and towns endeavored to avoid returning members; while those persons, who were likely to be chosen, frequently tried to evade the appointment.

Power of Parliament.—The chief objects for which parliaments were assembled at this period was to grant supplies, and "to introduce innovations too dangerous to be hazarded" by one person. The commons, also, had the power of presenting petitions for the redress of grievances; and that there might be an opportunity for this, it was ordered (5 Ed. II.) that the king should hold a parliament once, or, if necessary, twice a year; and again, an act (4 Ed. III) provided that a parliament should be held yearly, or oftener if need be. Very early the commons coupled the grant of supplies with the redress of grievances; for we find that, in the second year of Ed. II., they voted a twenty-fifth penny of their goods upon the condition that the king should take advice, and grant redress upon certain articles wherein they were aggrieved. The influence of parliament was considerably augmented in the time of Ed. III., as his French wars necessitated large levies of taxes, and to obtain them he found it indispensable to make numerous concessions. Three essential principles of English government are said to have been established at the close of his reign: 1. That it is illegal to raise money, without the consent of parliament. 2. That it is necessary that the two houses should give their consent before any alterations of the laws can be made. 3. That the commons have the right to investigate public abuses, and to impeach ministers of the crown. The power of parliament was further increased in the reign of Richard II. The members took into their hands, during the king's minority, the appointment of the chief officers of government, and declined to make grants unless the public accounts were submitted to their investigation. The last parliament, however, of this sovereign, with great and culpable disregard of the public weal, supported his arbitrary proceedings, and "set the dangerous precedent of granting the king a subsidy on wool during life."

Manners and Customs.—*Chivalry.*— "Three powerful spirits," says Hallam, "have from time to time moved over the face of the waters, and given a predominant impulse to the moral sentiments and energies of mankind. These are the spirits of liberty, of religion, and of honor. It was the principle business of chivalry to animate and cherish the last of these three." Chivalry was at first closely connected with the military service of fiefs, since vassals, who held estates known as knight's fees, were required to serve as knights; and the tenure by which they held the land was called tenure by chivalry. The institution, however, did not attain its full development till the thirteenth century, when military service on the ground of tenure was beginning to decline. At that time the younger sons of the lower nobility entered the household of some powerful noble, and thus sought to obtain the honor of knighthood, which they could not otherwise acquire.

The Crusades had great influence in arousing and strengthening the spirit of chivalry, for, as the wealthier barons could not compel the services of their feudal tenants, they took into their pay as many knights as they were able to maintain, in the hope that the leaders of the expeditions would reward them with a part of the plunder, according to the number of their followers. Before the

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Crusades, chivalry was not particularly connected with religion, but from that epoch in history, it "acquired the character as much of a religious as a military institution."

Another ingredient that entered into its composition from the twelfth century, was the spirit of gallantry, or especial respect for the female sex. "The love of God and the ladies was enjoined as a single duty." Three virtues were considered as essential to the character of a knight—loyalty, or fidelity to all engagements—courtesy, that is, "the most highly refined good breeding"—and munificence.

The spirit of chivalry was fostered and promoted by four main causes—the regular education necessary ere a person, unless entitled to it by tenure, could obtain the distinction—the encouragement of tournaments and festivals, to which knights were, as a matter of course, admitted—the various privileges annexed to knighthood—and the anxiety which was evinced by princes (after the abandonment of the use of feudal militia), to obtain the aid of the bravest and best-equipped knights, on whose valor the issue of battles was considered, principally, if not entirely, to depend.

The evils of the system were not numerous; the most serious were, that it too often led to immorality, that it encouraged an extravagant desire for martial renown, and that it tended to widen the bonds between the several classes of society.

As individual prowess formed the characteristic feature of chivalry, no sooner were regular military tactics adopted than the system began to decline; and "it was eventually overthrown by the introduction of gunpowder." The period during which it particularly flourished in England was the fourteenth and the earlier half of the fifteenth century. "It left behind it a more valuable successor. The character of a knight gradually subsided in that of a gentleman; and the one distinguishes European society in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, as much as the others did in the preceding ages. A jealous sense of honor, less romantic, but equally elevated; a ceremonious gallantry and politeness, a strictness in devotional observances, a high pride of birth and feeling of independence upon any sovereign for the dignity it gave, a sympathy for martial honor, though more subdued by the civil habits, are the lineaments which prove an indisputable descent."

Statutory Restrictions on Dress and Food.—Edward I. was indifferent to expensive attire, and, as a consequence, there was no attempt at extravagant display among the leading nobility. The costume of the people did not materially differ from that of the previous age, except that the lower classes wore a blouse, or kind of smock frock, made of canvas or fustian. Considerable alterations in dress took place in the reign of Edward III. The long and loose robes of the males gave place to tight-fitting vestments, from the sleeves of which hung long slips of cloth, called tippets. Various styles of dress prevailed among the ladies. Richard II.'s reign was marked by foppery and ostentation. The vanity, even of the common people, was so great, that it is said that it was impossible to distinguish the high from the low, the rich from the poor, the clergy from the laity, by their appearance. Parti-colored garments, which were first adopted in the reign of Edward II., were much worn during this period. A modern authority says that they were certainly more singular than elegant; but there is little doubt that, when the colors were well chosen, these dresses were not unbecoming.

In Edward III.'s reign we have the earliest sumptuary laws which appear in English statute books. Their object was to restrain lavish expense in dress; and accordingly the apparel, which each class is authorized to wear, is described with much precision.

Residences.—From the time of Edward I. the castles of the nobility were erected on a different plan, the object being to combine something of magnificence and comfort with the strength necessary for safety. Warwick Castle is a specimen of the superior architecture of the latter part of this period. Though there was some improvement in domestic buildings, we learn that in Colchester several of the houses were constructed of mud as late as the reign of Edward III., although that was the tenth town in importance in the country.

Furniture.—The internal comforts of the residences of the higher classes were much augmented in the fourteenth century. Beds seem to have been regarded as of great value, since they were frequently bequeathed by will. Clocks, plates, knives, and other conveniences of life are mentioned in the records of the period. Carpets were introduced by Eleanor, the queen of Edward I.

Food.—Great extravagance in feasting was exchanged for the elegant simplicity of the Normans. An abbot of St. Augustine, at his installation feast, had 3,000 dishes prepared for his guests, and Richard, Earl of Cornwall, at his marriage festival, which took place in 1243, is said to have had ten times that number. A statute, 10 Ed. III., was passed to restrain the expense of entertainments; and it ordains that no one should be allowed either for his dinner or supper, more than two courses, and not above three dishes in each course; but there is reason to believe that the statute was not strictly enforced. In prosperous years the diet of the laboring classes was abundant, though coarse; but when the wheat varied from two shillings a quarter to sixteen shillings and eightpence in three years (1387–1390), it is evident that at times, they must have experienced great privations.

Sports.—Besides the tournaments, out-door amusements, generally found great favor. Hunting and hawking were popular with all classes who enjoyed the privilege of indulging in them. Among the indoor diversions were draughts, chess, dancing, and a kind of masquerade, called mumming. The favorite exercise among the populace was archery. It was greatly encouraged by the government; and in Edward III.'s reign proclamations were issued, ordering all persons to practice it on the holidays, out of the hours of divine service; and, at the same time, quoits, football, cock-fighting, and some other games were strictly forbidden. How serviceable was the archers' skill was proved on many a battle-ground. In France "it was not the nobility of England, not the feudal tenants, who won the battles of Crecy and Poitiers, for these were fully matched in the ranks of the enemy; it was the yeomen, who drew the bow with strong and steady arms, accustomed to use it in their native fields, and rendered fearless by personal competence and civil freedom. It is well known that each of the three great victories was due to English archers; and the merit of the English bowmen at the battle of Poitiers is strongly attested by Froissart"—*Prof. J. C. Curtis.*

Influence of the Church.—Enveloped as the church was with the many evils of the times, the truly Christian principle which was at its basis per-

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petually vindicated its power, giving rise to numberless blessings in spite of the degradation and wickedness of man. As I have elsewhere remarked: "The civil law exerted an exterior power in human relations; Christianity produced an interior and moral change. The idea of an ultimate accountability for personal deeds, of which the old Europeans had an indistinct perception, became intense and precise. The sentiment of universal charity was exemplified not only in individual acts, the remembrance of which soon passes away, but in the more permanent institution of establishments for the relief of affliction, the spread of knowledge, the propagation of truth. Of the great ecclesiastics, many had risen from the humblest ranks of society, and these men, true to their democratic instincts, were often found to be the inflexible supporters of right against might. Eventually coming to be the depositories of the knowledge that then existed, they opposed intellect to brute force, in many instances successfully, and by the example of the organization of the Church, which was essentially republican, they showed how representative systems may be introduced into the state.

Nor was it over communities and nations that the Church displayed her chief powers. Never in the world before was there such a system. From her central seat at Rome, her all-seeing eye, like that of Providence itself, could equally take in a hemisphere at a glance, or examine the private life of any individual. Her boundless influences enveloped kings in their palaces, and relieved the beggar at the monastery gate. In all Europe there was not a man too obscure, too insignificant, or too desolate for her. Surrounded by her solemnities, every one received his name at her altar; her bells chimed at his marriage, her knell tolled at his funeral. She extorted from him the secrets of his life at her confessionals, and punished his faults by her penances. In his hour of sickness and trouble her servants sought him out, teaching him, by her exquisite litanies and prayers, to place his reliance on God, or strengthening him for the trials of life by the example of the holy and just. Her prayers had an efficacy to give repose to the souls of her dead. When, even to his friends, his lifeless body had become an offence, in the name of God she received it into her consecrated ground, and under her shadow he rested till the great reckoning-day. From little better than a slave she raised his wife to be his equal, and, forbidding him to have more than one, met her recompense for those noble deeds in a firm friend at every fireside. Discountenancing all impure love, she put round that fireside the children of one mother, and made that mother little less than sacred in their eyes. In ages of lawlessness and rapine, among people but a step above savages, she vindicated the inviolability of her precincts against the hand of power, and made her temples a refuge and sanctuary for the despairing and oppressed. Truly she was the shadow of a great rock in many a weary land!" — *John William Draper, M.D., LL.D.*

Albertus Magnus was born A. D. 1193. It was said of him that "he was great in magic, greater in philosophy, greatest in theology." By religious profession he was a Dominican. Declining the temptations of ecclesiastical preferment, he voluntarily resigned his bishopric, that he might lead in privacy a purer life. As was not uncommon in those days, he was accused of illicit commerce with Satan, and many idle stories were told of the miracles he wrought. At a great banquet on a winter's day, he produced all the beauties of spring—trees in full foliage, flowers in perfume, meadows covered with grass, but, at a word, the phantom pageant was dissolved, and succeeded by appropriate wastes of snow. This was an exaggeration of an entertainment he gave January 6th, 1259, in the hot-house of the convent garden. He interested himself in the functions of plants, was well acquainted with what is called the sleep of flowers, studied their opening and closing. He understood that the sap is diminished in volume by evaporation from the leaves. He was the first to use the word "affinity" in its modern acceptation. His chemical studies present us with some interesting details. He knew that the whitening of copper by arsenic is not a transmutation, but only the production of an alloy, since the arsenic can be expelled by heat. He speaks of potash as an alkali; describes several acetates; and alludes to the blackening of the skin with nitrate of silver.

Roger Bacon was born A. D. 1214. His native country has never yet done him justice, though contemporaries truly spoke of him as "the Admirable Doctor." The great friar of the thirteenth century has been eclipsed by an unworthy namesake. His claims on posterity are enforced by his sufferings and ten years' imprisonment for the cause of truth.

His history, so far as is known, may be briefly told. He was born in Ilchester, in Somersetshire, and studied at the University of Oxford. Thence he went to the University of Paris, where he took the degree of doctor of theology. He was familiar with Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic. Of mathematics he truly said that "it is the first of all the sciences; indeed, it precedes all others, and disposes us to them." In advance of this age, he denied the authority of Aristotle, and tells us that we must substitute that of experiment for it. Of his astronomical acquirements we need no better proof than his recommendation to Pope Clement IV. to rectify the Calendar in the manner actually done subsequently. If to him be rightfully attributed the invention of spectacles, the human race is his debtor. He described the true theory of telescopes and microscopes, saying that lenses may be ground and arranged in such a way as to render it possible to read the smallest letters at incredible distances, and to count grains of sand and dusts, because of the magnitude of the angle under which we may perceive such objects. He foresaw the greatest of all inventions in practical astronomy—the application of optical means to instruments for the measurement of angles. He proposed the propulsion of ships through the water and of carriages upon roads by merely mechanical means. He speculated upon the possibility of making a flying-machine. Admitting the truth of alchemy, he advised the experimenter to find out the method by which Nature makes metals and then to imitate it. He knew that there are different kinds of air, and tells us that there is one which will extinguish flame. These are very clear views for an age which mistook the gases for leather-eared ghosts. He warned us to be cautious how we conclude that we have accomplished the transmutation of metals, quaintly observing that the distance between whitened copper and pure silver is very great. He showed that air is necessary for the support of fire, and was the author of the well-known experiment illustrating that fact by putting a lighted lamp under a bell-jar and observing its extinction. — *John William Draper, M.D., LL.D. The Intellectual Development of Europe.*

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Denmark, Sweden and Norway, constituting the ancient Scandinavia, merit our attention. After these kingdoms had long been agitated by internal dissensions, they were finally, by the treaty of Calmar (1397), united into a single monarchy, near the close of the fourteenth century, through the influence of Margaret of Denmark, whose extraordinary talents and addresses have rendered her name illustrious as the "Semiramis of the North." But the union of Calmar, although forming an important epoch in Scandinavian history, was never firmly consolidated; and after having been renewed several times, was at length irreparable broken by Sweden, which, in the early part of the sixteenth century (1521), under the conduct of the heroic Gustavus Vasa, recovered its ancient independence.

Sclavonic Tribes.—East and southeast of the Scandinavian kingdoms were the numerous Sclavonic tribes, which were gradually gathered into the empire of Russia. The original cradle of that mighty empire which dates back to the time of Rurick, a chieftain contemporary with Alfred the Great, was a narrow territory extending from Kiev, along the banks of the Dnieper, north to Novogorod. Darkness for a long time rested upon early Russian history, but it has been in great part dispelled by the genius and research of Karamsin, and it is now known that as early as the tenth century the Russian empire had attained an extent and importance, as great, comparatively, among the powers of Europe, as it boasts at the present day. About the middle of the eleventh century the system of dividing the kingdom among the children of successive monarchs began to prevail, and the result was ruinous in the extreme, occasioning innumerable internecine wars, and a gradual decline of the strength and consideration of the empire.

Russia.—Toward the middle of the thirteenth century the Tartar hordes of Northern Asia, falling upon the feeble and disunited Russian States, found them an easy prey, and during a period of two hundred and fifty years, Russia, under the Tartar yoke, suffered the direst atrocities of savage cruelty and despotism. At length, about the year 1486, John III., duke of Moscow, the true restorer of his country's glory, succeeded in abolishing the ruinous system by which the regal power had been frittered away, while at the same time he threw off the yoke of the Moguls, and repulsed their last invasion of his country. Under the reign of this wise and powerful prince, the many petty principalities which had long divided the sovereignty were consolidated, and, at the end of the century, Russia, although scarcely emerged from its primitive barbarian darkness, was one of the great powers of Europe.

Ottoman Empire.—South of the country inhabited by the Russians, we look in vain, at the close of the fifteenth century, for the once famed Greek Empire of Justinian, or, as sometimes called, the Eastern empire of the Romans. The account given of the Crusades represents the Turks, a race of Tartar origin, as spread over the greater part of Asia Minor. About the beginning of the fourteenth century, a Turkish Emir (meaning leader or commander), called Ottoman, succeeded in uniting several of the petty Turkish States of the peninsula, and thus laid the foundation of the Ottoman empire. About the year 1358 the Ottoman Turks first obtained a foothold in Europe; and at the close of the fourteenth century their empire extended from the Euphrates to the Danube, and embraced, or held as tributary, ancient Greece, Thessaly, Macedonia, and Thrace, while the Roman world was contracted to the city of Constantinople, and even that was besieged by the Turks, and closely pressed by the calamities of war and famine. The city would have yielded to the efforts of Bajazet, the Turkish sultan; but almost in the moment of victory the latter was overthrown by the famous Timour, or Tamerlane, the new Tartar conqueror of Asia.

Tamerlane.—About the year 1370, Tamerlane, a renote descendant of the Great Gengis Khan, had fixed the capital of his new dominions at Samarcand, from which central point of his power he made thirty-five victorious campaigns—conquering all Persia, Northern Asia and Hindustan—and before his death he had placed the crowns of twenty-seven kingdoms on his head. In the year 1402 he fought a bloody and decisive battle with the Turkish sultan Bajazet, on the plains of Angora, in Asia Minor, in which the Turks sustained a total defeat, and fell into the hands of the conqueror. Tamerlane would have carried his conquest into Europe; but the lord of myriads of Tartar horsemen was not master of a single galley; and the two passages of the Bosphorus and the Hellespont were guarded, the one by the Christians, the other by the Turks, who on this occasion forgot their animosities to act with union and firmness in the common cause. Two years later Tamerlane died, at the age of sixty-nine, while on his march for the invasion of China.

The Ottoman empire not only soon recovered from the blow which Tamerlane had inflicted upon it, but in the year 1453, during the reign of Mahomet II., effected the final conquest of Constantinople. On the 29th of May of that year the city was carried by assault, and given up to the unrestrained pillage of the Turkish soldiers; the last of the Greek emperors fell in the first onset; the inhabitants were carried into slavery; and Constantinople was left without a prince or a people, until the sultan established his own residence, and that of his successors, on the commanding spot which had been chosen by Constantine. The few remnants of the Greek or Roman power were soon merged in the Ottoman dominion; and at the close of the fifteenth century the Turkish empire was firmly established in Europe.—*Professor Willson.*

The Mad King, Charles VI., 1392-1415.—Charles VI.'s was a melancholy history. He was a child of high promise, as long as his parents lived to control him; but his mother died nearly at the same time as his father, and after he became king, his education was neglected, his violent temper unchecked, and each of the parties of his uncles, and the other princes of the blood, tried to gain favor with him by flattering all his tastes, whether for good or evil. He married, when about sixteen, Isabelle of Bavaria, a dull, selfish girl, indolent, and inclined to nothing but self-indulgence, especially in eating.

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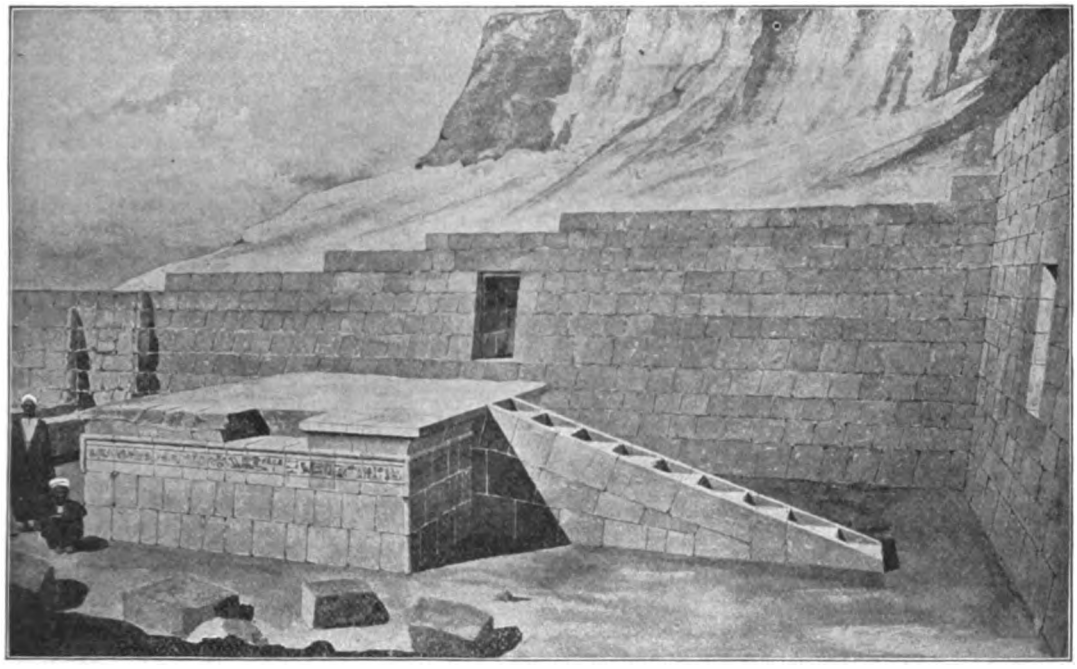
NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

THE GREAT ALTAR AT DAYR EL BAHARI.*

BY EDOUARD NAVILLE, PH.D., LITT.D.

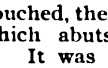
ALL the travelers who have been at Thebes know the majestic amphitheatre of mountains in the center of which stand the ruins of Dayr el Bahari, the northern convent. It has been known by that name since the Copts built over it a monastery, the construction of which materially contributed to the destruction of the magnificent temple of the eighteenth dynasty. This temple is the only one of that description in Egypt; it is built in successive terraces, the highest of which leans against the mountain on its western and northern sides. The sanctuary was a rock-cut chamber in the axis of the building and opened on the upper terrace.



Recent Photograph of the Great Altar Dayr el Bahari.

Mariette first excavated there; following the central avenue which leads to the sanctuary, he cleared a great part of the southern side where he made very interesting discoveries, the most important of which are the rock-cut sanctuary of Hathor where the goddess in form of a cow is seen suckling the young queen Hashepsu, represented as a boy; the great hall of offerings, and the supporting wall of the upper terrace where is described the naval expedition to the land of Punt.

The Egypt Exploration Fund having through the kindness of the present director of the museum, M. de Morgan, received permission to excavate and to clear the temple, I set to work in the part which Mariette had not touched, the northwestern corner of the temple which abuts against the mountain on both sides. It was covered by a mount of rubbish which in some parts was fifteen feet high. I discovered there a group of constructions separated from the rest of the terrace by a thick wall and which has a decidedly funerary character. I believe it was connected with the tomb of the king Thothmes I., who probably was buried somewhere in the neighborhood, and whose tomb may perhaps be discovered some day, for we do not know where it was, and the body of this king is not among those which were preserved in such a marvelous way in the well-known pit of Dayr el Bahari. I cannot describe here all the buildings of which this part of the temple consisted; I shall dwell only on two of them.

One is a rock-cut chapel consisting of two small chambers; the ceiling has the shape of the Egyptian arch, which is not at all the Roman arch, for it has no keystone; it is painted in blue with yellow stars. At the end of the largest, which is the entrance chamber, opens a second at right angle on the first. The walls of both chambers were covered with paintings representing the king worshiping various divinities. The figures have been scratched out everywhere. The figure of the king Thothmes I., however, has been preserved; he is seen with two different queens; one of them is well known. She is called  *Ahmes*; she was not only the wife but also the sister of Thothmes I., by her father and mother. The other has been found for the first time; her name is  *the lady of the land—Senseneb*. She may have been the mother of two

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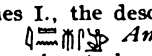
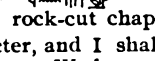
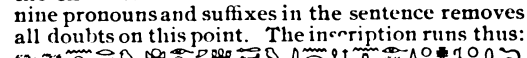
of the sons of Thothmes I., the descendence of whom was not known.  *Amonmes* aud  *Nodjmes*. This rock-cut chapel has a decidedly funerary character, and I shall call it the funeral chapel of the king. We know that he was deified after his death. The chapel had probably been made by the command of the daughter of Thothmes I., Hashepsu, who was associated by her father to the throne; her cartouche occurs there repeatedly, but it has been erased everywhere by her stepson and nephew, Thothmes III., who, judging from the way in which he treated her constructions, seems to have been actuated by a strong feeling of resentment and antipathy towards Hashepsu.

Hashepsu deified her father by having this chapel cut in the rock and by appointing priests to look after his worship; I believe it is with the same intention that she erected a building of a special character, which, as far as I know, is unique in its kind in Egypt. Just in front of the entrance to the chapel, in an open court, I came across a square construction, the purpose of which I did not at first understand. But when I had cleared it completely, its nature appeared at once. I saw it was an altar, and the fact was confirmed by the inscriptions. The building consists of a mass of white limestone, 16 feet by 13 feet, and 5 feet high; access to it is given by a flight of ten steps. On the top there was a low parapet to prevent what was heaped on it from falling into the court. The platform itself, which has an area of more than 200 square feet, probably had in the middle a table of offerings or a smaller altar in hard stone, on which the offerings were brought. The flight of steps is on the western side; it is much narrower than the altar. The key to the nature of the building was given me by the inscription which repeats itself on three sides. It begins with erased cartouches which one might at once suppose to be those of Hashepsu, and it is certain that they are hers, for the characteristic mixture of masculine and feminine pronouns and suffixes in the sentence removes all doubts on this point. The inscription runs thus:  *of her father Ra Harmakhis, he (she) made a great altar of good white stone of An; she is immortal like Ra, eternally.*

The people who plundered the temple in old times did not know that they had an altar before them, and thinking that there might be a pit underneath, they pulled down one of the corners; but as all the blocks are there, I hope that it will be possible to reconstruct the altar next winter.

An altar of this kind has never been found in an Egyptian temple. It may be compared to the altar of burnt offerings in the temple of Solomon, and still better to that of the ideal temple of Ezekiel. As far as we can judge from the way it was constructed, there is in the center a smaller altar of the same form which is like its nucleus; and it has assumed its great dimensions by a thick casing being put all round it, so that it grew by accretion like the Pyramids.

A curious fact is that it does not seem to have been dedicated to Amon, but to Ra Harmakhis, the rising sun. That is the reason why it was oriented as it is; the flight of steps is on the western side. The priest coming up faced the sungod to whom he brought his offerings, and on the left side he had the door of the funerary chapel of Thothmes I. It seems to me that the altar to Harmakhis must have been connected with the tomb of Thothmes; the king was considered as having himself assumed the shape of the god, and as being one with Harmakhis.

The offerings which were brought on that altar were of different nature. They were loaves and cakes of the most various forms, each of them having its special name; vessels, the shape and color of which differed also according to the substance which was in them; they contained milk, oil, vinegar, fresh water, honey and wine. As for this last liquid, we know that in old times Egypt produced a great quantity, and imported also some foreign qualities for religious purposes. The foreign kinds used in the religious ceremonies were the wine of Asia, called also wine of Syria or of Shinear, and two different kinds coming from Africa, probably near the Cyrenaica. In the country itself the regions which were famous for their manufacture of good wine were the nomes on the northwestern border of the county, near the present lake Mareotis, besides the nome of *Ameni* on the east, the place now called Nebesheh. Fruits and vegetables were also offered to the gods: pomegranates, figs, nuts of dôm palms, dates, grapes, white radish, onions. There were also offerings of meat, heads, legs and saddles of various animals, chiefly oxen, calves, sheep and several kinds of antelopes, besides geese and cranes. Let us add to that list, all kinds of perfumes, scented oils, and frankincense which was supposed to come from Punt, the divine land, as it was called in the hieroglyphical inscriptions, and also flowers, especially the lotus, besides species which did not belong to the flora of Egypt, and which were imported from abroad, as we know from the wreaths found on the royal mummies.

We have many representations of altars in the Egyptian sculptures, but they are generally small; they often have the form of a box or of a portable table. Even in the great temples like Denderah or Edfoo, which was a hall called the *hall of the altar*, we do not see any massive construction which could not be removed; the altars have all disappeared; there are no traces of them left, showing that they must have been of small dimensions. The only altars that I know of, of the same description as that of Dayr el Bahari stood in the temple of the solar god erected by Khuenaten at Tell el Amarna, and are represented in the tombs of that locality. This kind of altar has the form of a quadrilateral mass, to which access was given by a flight of stairs with a gentle slope. On the platform is piled up a pyramid of various offerings, or a priest is seen in the attitude of worship. It is there that according to probabilities, victims were sacrificed in the great ceremonies, or that other rites were accomplished, the remembrance of which is lost. In Egypt the victim which is sacrificed to the divinity is not the animal of which the god is fond, and which is well pleasing to him; it is on the contrary the being which is adverse to him, which he hates because it is a form of Set, who killed Osiris treacherously. The sacrifice is a sort of punishment, of revenge for the crimes of Set, who, when he committed them, had the form of the animal. *The murder removes the murder, hence the origin of the sacrifices*, says the inscription of the destruction of mankind. The sign that the enemy is overcome; that the punishment has fallen on him is that the body of the animal is cut to pieces which are offered to the god as his food. The slaughtering itself, the slaying of the victim, always took place outside of the temple. Only the dressed pieces of meat, perhaps also some of them already roasted, were brought into the sacred building.

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The typical sacrifice was accomplished by Horus when he had finally overcome Set, who had taken the form of an hippopotamus. In the representation of Edfoo, Horus is shown bringing the hippopotamus into the slaughter-house. There he killed the animal and divided his body between the chief divinities of Egypt. This event was commemorated in the temple by the priests offering a hippopotamus made of dough, which was cut in pieces by the sacrificator.

I do not think that the great altar of Deir el Bahari ever saw any sacrifice, but only huge piles of all sorts of offerings to the God Harmakhis.

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*This paper was contributed by Dr. Naville to the Department of Philology in the Woman's Branch of the Worlds' Congress Auxiliary, and is a brief sketch of the most important results of his own work in Egypt during 1893. Dr. Naville is well known as one of the most accomplished and successful of all our scientific workers in Egypt.

ELIZABETH A. REED.

EXCAVATIONS AT DAYR EL BAHARI.

BY MRS. ELIZABETH A. REED, A.M.

Author of "Hindu Literature," "Persian Literature," etc.

MUCH work has been accomplished at this important point in Upper Egypt but it will require some years to solve the problems which are connected with the great Theban temple alone. This structure was chiefly connected with the times of the XVIII. Dynasty, B.C. 1587, and it stands in a natural amphitheatre of golden limestone rock, being built upon four successive terraces rising toward the west and into the hill.

Mariette conducted the first excavations here, and he discovered the supporting wall of the upper terrace, with sculptures depicting a naval expedition into the land of Punt, also the rock cut sanctuary of the goddess Hathor, and the great hall of offerings.

M. Maspero afterward dug out a part of the portico at the foot of the terrace, and a small sanctuary was found full of mummies of recent date. In January of 1893 Dr. Naville began work here under the auspices of the Egpyt Exploration Fund, and his own account of the most important results will be found on p. 257.

A Shrine of Ebony.—On a terrace above the chambers, which were excavated by M. Maspero, Dr. Naville found a large shrine of ebony more than six feet high, which was made of small fragments and held together by ebony pegs. This shrine was erected by Thotmes II., who says in the inscription, that it was made of ebony from the top of the mountains in honor of his father Amon. "But everywhere," says Dr. Naville "the figure of Amon has been cut out with a knife evidently by the heretical kings. It is the same with another part of the shrine which I discovered close by, a leaf of the folding door which closed it, which has rings of bronze for the bolt." This valuable shrine is now in the Ghizeh Museum.

Queen Hatasu.—Dr. Naville also found an important inscription of Queen Hatasu and her accession to the throne. On the supporting wall of the upper terrace the God Anubis is depicted in the act of rolling an enormous egg, while goddesses are represented as nursing the young queen.

A long inscription accompanies the pictures, and states that Thotmes called together the grandees of his kingdom, and ordered them to obey his daughter. There is an obscure allusion to his death and a description of the rejoicings when the young queen ascended the throne.

Coptic Letters on Limestone.—He also found here a great number of Coptic letters, which were written upon potsherds or pieces of limestone. They contain the correspondence between different monks, and they have all been sent to Europe. They are the property of the fund and will doubtless be published in due time.

Valuable Beads.—Many other articles were found, such as fragments of Coptic papyri, wooden mallets, and fragments of the royal blue Theban ware, for which the times of the XIIth and XVIIIth Dynasties are now noted. But there are also many beads, and these, like the ubiquitous potsherds of Egypt, are of great chronological value. As we know nothing of Dayr el Bahari under the XIIth Dynasty, scholars are looking forward with interest to the story which the beads (evidently belonging to that time) may reveal (Biblia Aug., 1893).

Burlington House Collection.—Many treasures from Dayr el Bahari may be seen at Burlington House in a wonderful state of preservation. Here for instance is a well used mallet of hard wood, and hundreds of inscribed scarabs of XVIIIth Dynasty. Also a fine set of Canopic Jars, and fourteen jars of unglazed red ware. There are wooden models, probably of threshing sledges, and fifty wooden hoes without the usual cross binding, the leathers for which were found in bundles close by. Here, too, are adzes with bronze blades and red leather binding which are wonderfully preserved. We have also the beautiful collection of jewelry which belonged to Queen Hatshepsu, and a quantity of vases and tools marked with her name.

Mummies.—The chief interest of the exhibition for many people is found in the mummies with the cases complete, all of them being richly decorated. The designs are mostly taken from the well known illustrations of the Book of the Dead, or the Book of Hades. The mummies were found in a pit in the corner of the temple.

A Child's Shoes.—This wonderful collection also contains the sarcophagus of a child with a pair of little shoes. These are made of leather like little boots coming up over the instep and the ankles. The bravest hearts are always the tenderest, and the great scholars of modern times were not ashamed to drop a tear over this pathetic token of mother love.

A Doll in a Coffin.—In the same sarcophagus was a little coffin which contained a rudely cut doll, wrapped up, apparently in a wig. The loving thought of those who buried the child was, that the Ka of the little one, would have the Ka of the doll, which it loved on earth, and also the Ka of the shoes for its unseen journey. This is the most wonderful collection in some respects which has ever found its way to London. (J. Hunt Cooke, London, Bib. September, 1895)

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF EDOUARD NAVILLE, Ph.D., Litt.D.

THIS distinguished scholar is a graduate of the University of Geneva and of King's College, London. He occupies a place in the front rank of Egyptologists, and is an accomplished translator of the hieroglyphic text, reading these strange characters with almost as much ease as we read the columns of our daily papers.

He is one of the officers in charge of the Egypt Exploration Fund, and the world is indebted to him for the discovery of some of the grandest monuments which have ever been excavated at the expense of the Fund. It was he who discovered the foundations of Pithom (one of the store cities which the Israelites were compelled to build for Pharoah) and he not only identified the exact site, but he also laid bare some of the ruins



Edouard Naville, Ph.D., Litt.D.

of the city and its temples. His excavations have also thrown much light on several points of the Exodus, especially on the first few days of the journey. They have also contributed to elucidate the passage of the Red Sea, "the historical character of which," says Dr. Naville, "is not denied even by authors of well-known rationalistic tendencies."

In his work on the results of these excavations, he shows how the Scriptural narrative is explained in the light of late discoveries in Egypt.

It was Dr. Naville also, who explored the recesses of *Saft-el-Henneh*, and identified the remains as those of the ancient town of Goshen, the capital of the ancient district of that name.

He also discovered the city of Onias described by Josephus, and Tell Basta which is the Bi-Beseth of the Bible, and the Bubastis of the Greeks. One of the results of these excavations is that Bubastis is shown to have been a large city at a very early date, and it went through the vicissitudes which have marked the history of Egypt.

He also unearthed at this point the standard of Cheops, and the standard and name of Chefron, the constructors of the two great pyramids, both of these kings having written their names in the temple of Bubastis in large and beautiful hieroglyphs.

The mounds of *Ahnas-el-Medineh* were also excavated by Dr. Naville, and this proved to be the site of the Hanes of the Bible and the Heracleopolis of the Greeks

Since January of 1893 his work has been done at Dayr el Bahari, a site which he himself describes in this number. The clearing of this temple is now practically finished, the work having extended over a period of nearly three years, and the principal work of the present winter at this point will consist in repairing and propping up the walls, and also in putting in their places all the inscriptions which can be reconstructed.

One would think that the amount of work to which we can only allude, were enough for the life time of any man, but this great Egyptologist is also a voluminous author.

His "*Store City of Pithom and the Route of the Exodus*," is a splendid work, illustrated with twelve plates and plans, which has already reached the third edition.

"*Goshen and the Shrine of Saft-el-Henneh*" and "*The City of Onias, the Mound of the Jew*" are also large illustrated works.

"*Bubastis*" is issued in two large volumes splendidly illustrated, the first part alone containing sixty-three plates and plans.

The above are published by the Egypt Exploration Fund, and the results of his work at Dayr el Bahari will appear hereafter.

Dr. Naville has also published "*Textes relatifs au mythe d'Horus recueilie dans le temple d'Edfou*," and this is a large folio with twenty-six plates. He has published at Leipsic "*La Litanie du Soleil*," with atlas of forty-nine plates.

At the request of the Congress of Orientalists in London in 1874 he prepared his classical work, "*The Egyptian Book of the Dead of the XVIIIth, XIXth and XXth Dynasties.*" It was published in Berlin by the German government in 1886 in three large volumes, imperial folio, with six hundred and sixty plates.

This magnificent work, which represents about twelve years of labor by the author, costs eighty dollars.

And still Dr Naville is comparatively a young man, and his fine physique seems to give promise of many more years of earnest and faithful work. His home is at Malagny, near Geneva, in Switzerland, where the white peaks of the Alps are continually pointing upward as if to incite man to his grandest endeavor, but his winters are spent in Egypt, in the active work of solving the problems of that riddle among the nations.

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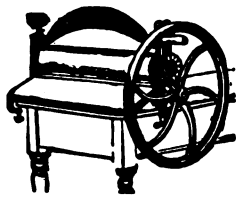

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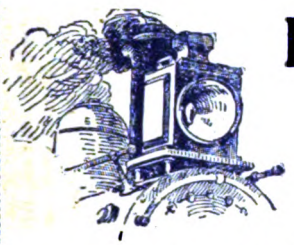

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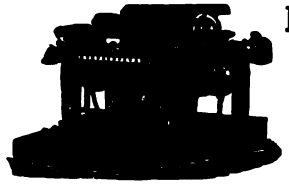

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THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION

COURSE IN UNIVERSAL HISTORY

THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

PREPARED BY

GEO. EMORY FELLOWS, Ph.D., Ex-Prof. of European History, Indiana State University.

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED

1. THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

The sixteenth century begins with the spirit of the Renaissance still alive.

It may serve a convenient purpose to divide the century into two nearly equal parts. The first half of the century is noteworthy for the rise of the Reformation in Germany, Switzerland and France, and for the separation of the English church from the church of Rome. The second half of the century is characterized chiefly as a period of contention between opposing parties, leading to the great war of the first half of the seventeenth century, called the Thirty Years' War. The Reformation has gained permanent footing in Germany, England, France, Holland, Denmark, Switzerland and Sweden, and the opposing political parties are also usually opposed to each other religiously.



Charles V.

1. THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

Reformers Before the Reformation.—While these disorders were for the most part not caused by the Renaissance, which they long antedated, it called fresh attention to them, rendering more serious an opposition to the church, or to its administration, which had been wanting in no age. This opposition was partly practical, insisting on a reform of morals without attacking the frame of the church, and criticising ecclesiastical powers only so far as they withstood this, and partly theoretical, aimed at the very constitution of the church. The theoretical critics were of various stripes, from pure independents to such as merely wished to subject the Pope to new guarantees of fidelity to duty. Doctrine, save as involved in policy, did not enter into these controversies, even the most licentious Popes being scrupulously orthodox.—*Andrews.*

Influence of the New Light.—With the fifteenth century, however, a new epoch opened upon the sciences, and the human mind became increasingly enlightened; the darkness in which it had hitherto been enveloped, now yielded before the divine light of knowledge. Before its overpowering rays, the scholastic sophism, with all its shallow pretensions to its important interpretation of words, could no longer maintain its ground; a few select and distinguished men of the day now came forth and attacked it with the irresistible weapons of reason and sarcasm, exposing it to the world in all its bareness. Its disciples, however, on the other hand, while thus overwhelmed by the force of their adversaries, would not in their retreat endeavor to redeem their character. by seeking to find the necessary light even in their own doctrine—which might have operated in their favor and have served as their only protection—but with blind zeal and defiance they sought to

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extinguish and destroy at once the dawning rays which announced the coming of the glorious day—a vain and futile effort, which has, at all times, only been attended with disgraceful defeat, and ever fallen powerless to the ground.—*Kohlrausch.*

The Papacy at the Beginning of the Sixteenth Century.—Thus, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, there are two facts which arrest attention: First, the development and consolidation of the nations, in their separate individuality, each with its own language, culture, laws, and institutions, animated by a national spirit that chafed under foreign ecclesiastical control. Secondly, the secularizing of the Papacy. The Popes had virtually renounced the lofty position which they still assumed to hold, and which, to a certain extent, they had once really held, of moral and religious guardians of society. As temporal rulers, they were immersed in political contests and schemes of ambition. To further these, they prostituted the opportunities afforded by their spiritual function, and by the traditional reverence of men, which, though weakened, was still powerful, for their episcopal authority. It was unavoidable that they, and their office with them, should sink in public esteem.—*Fisher.*

Twice During the Middle Ages the mind of Europe had risen up against the domination of Rome. The first insurrection broke out in the south of France. The energy of Innocent the Third, the zeal of the young orders of Francis and Dominic, and the ferocity of the Crusaders whom the priesthood let loose on an unwarlike population, crushed the Albigensian churches. The second reformation had its origin in England, and spread to Bohemia. The Council of Constance, by removing some ecclesiastical disorders which had given scandal to Christendom, and the princes of Europe, by unsparingly using fire and sword against the heretics, succeeded in arresting and turning back the movement. Nor is this much to be lamented. The sympathies of a Protestant, it is true, will naturally be on the side of the Albigensians and of the Lollards. Yet an enlightened and temperate Protestant will perhaps be disposed to doubt whether the success either of the Albigensians or of the Lollards, would, on the whole, have promoted the happiness and virtue of mankind.—*Macaulay.*

The Struggle Between the New and Old Order of Things.—Now the passage from the old decaying form of civilization to the new, better and stronger one, involved a change; and this change must needs take place slowly and by degrees. The old order of things had gradually for long been going out; the new order of things had gradually for long been coming in. But in this era was to be the crisis of the change—the final decisive struggle between the two forces; and in this lies its importance and its interest. Before we begin the story of this struggle, we must briefly consider what it was in the state of Christendom which brought it on; and this will be done best by our examining: (1) The powers which belonged to the old order of things, and were now dying out. (2) The state of the modern nations which were growing up in their place. In doing so, we shall try to lay most stress on the condition of the masses of the people; and this will bring out clearly some of the main points in which, if modern civilization was to go on, there was a necessity for reform, and the danger there was that, if the needful reforms were much longer withheld, there would be revolution.—*Seebohm.*

State of Europe at the Beginning of the Reformation.—The fifteenth century is one of the most remarkable eras in the history of mankind. During that period so many events took place destined to exert a powerful influence on human happiness and public weal, that it must be ever regarded with deep interest by the philanthropist and the Christian. The impulse already given to learning received a mighty addition by the invention of printing, A.D. 1440, whereby a great blessing, which had been hitherto confined to the few, was offered to the million. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks, A.D. 1453, compelled many learned Greeks to leave their country and seek an asylum in Europe. They settled chiefly in Italy, where they devoted their energies to the diffusion of Greek literature. New universities were established in almost every part of Europe. Better methods of teaching were invented. These improvements, not confined as learning had been formerly to the ecclesiastics and some few among the rich and noble, but shared by the newly-formed middle classes of society, shed a kindly influence on men and prepared for succeeding changes —*Hausser.*

Extent of the Reformation.—From the beginning of the religious wars in Germany, to the peace of Munster, scarcely anything great or remarkable occurred in the political world of Europe in which the Reformation had not an important share. All the events of this period, if they did not originate in, soon became mixed up with the question of religion, and no state was either too great or too little to feel directly or indirectly more or less of its influence. Against the reformed doctrine and its adherents, the House of Austria directed, almost exclusively, the whole of its immense political power. In France, the Reformation had enkindled a civil war which, under four stormy reigns, shook the kingdom to its foundations, brought foreign armies into the heart of the country, and for half a century rendered it the scene of the most mournful disorders. It was the Reformation, too, that rendered the Spanish yoke intolerable to the Flemings, and awakened in them both the desire and the courage to throw off its fetters, while it also principally furnished them with the means of their emancipation. And as to England, all the evils with which Philip the Second threatened Elizabeth, were mainly intended in revenge for her having taken his Protestant subjects under her protection, and placing herself at the head of a religious party which it was his aim and endeavor to extirpate. In Germany, the schisms in the church produced also a lasting political schism, which made that country for more than a century the theater of confusion, but at the same time threw up a firm barrier against political oppression.—*Schiller.*

The Existence Long Before the 16th Century of a strong desire to bring about a reformation of discipline within the church itself is attested by evidence which it will suffice to pass by with little more than an allusion. Among the most notable instances are those afforded by the rise of the Dominican and Franciscan orders in the 13th century and of the Brethren of St. Jerome in the 14th century. Similar in origin, though more strictly ecclesiastical in character, were the designs of the great councils which successively assembled at Pisa (1409), at Constance (1414), and at Basel (1431).—*Mullinger.*

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2. CAUSES OF THE REFORMATION.

It is far easier to understand much of the history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries if a certain marriage and its consequences be kept in mind. This is the marriage of Mary of Burgundy, heiress to the territories along the Rhine from the Alps to the North Sea, with Maximilian, Archduke of Austria. Their son, Philip, married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. The son of Philip and Joanna was Charles, who thus became heir of Burgundy, Austria and Spain, with its new American possessions. This was the Charles, best known as Charles V., through whose blunders, faults and virtues the Reformation gained headway in Germany.



Martin Luther.

The beginning of the Reformation in Germany was in 1517.

The causes of the Reformation were: *Immediate*—Corruption in the church. Tetzel's sale of indulgences. *More Remote*—Renaissance. Humanism. Hutten. Invention of Printing. Luther the great German Reformer.

2. CAUSES OF THE REFORMATION.

Wickliffe Before Luther.—No revolution has ever been more gradually prepared than that which separated almost one-half of Europe from the communion of the Roman See; nor were Luther and Zwingli any more than occasional instruments of that change, which, had they never existed, would, at no great distance of time, have been effected under the names of some other reformers. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the learned doubtfully and with caution, the ignorant with zeal and eagerness, were tending to depart from the faith and rites which authority prescribed. But probably not even Germany was so far advanced on this course as England. Almost a hundred and fifty years before Luther, nearly the same doctrines as he taught had been maintained by Wickliffe, whose disciples, usually called Lollards, lasted as a numerous, though obscure and proscribed sect, till, aided by the confluence of foreign streams, they swelled into the Protestant church of England. We hear, indeed, little of them during some part of the fifteenth century, for they generally shunned persecution; and it is chiefly through records of persecution that we learn the existence of heretics. But immediately before the name of Luther was known they seem to have become more numerous or to have attracted more attention, since several persons were burned for heresy, and others abjured their errors, in the first years of Henry VIII.'s reign.—*Hallam.*

Corruption of the Holy See.—We know that in this Holy See much corruption has continued to abound during many years, great abuse in all ecclesiastical affairs, as likewise in all that has emanated from our chair, and in one word, a deprivation in everything. Thence it is no wonder if the disease has transferred itself from the head to the other members—from the Pope to the priests; therefore, we promise, as far as lies in us, to devote all our attention and care towards reforming first of all our chair, whence perhaps all this evil has originated, in order that as the destruction has issued thence to descend to the inferior grades, the sure and renewed enjoyment of health may likewise find their source there.—*Adrian.*

Tetzel's Sale of Indulgences.—Wittenberg was an old-fashioned town in Saxony, on the Elbe. Its main street was parallel with the broad river, and within its walls, at one end of it, near the Elster gate, lay the University, founded by the good Elector—Frederick of Saxony—of which Luther was a professor; while at the other end of it was the palace of the Elector and the palace church of All Saints. The great parish church lifted its two towers from the center of the town, a little back from the main street. This was the town in which Luther had been preaching for years, and toward which Tetzel, the seller of indulgences, now came, just as he did to other towns, vending his "false pardons"—granting indulgences for sins to those who could pay for them, and offering to release from purgatory the souls of the dead, if any of their friends would pay for their release. As soon as the money chinked in his money-box, the souls of their friends would be let out of purgatory. This was the gospel of Tetzel. It made Luther's blood boil. He knew that what the Pope wanted was the people's money, and that the whole thing was a cheat. This his Augustinian theology had taught him; and he was not a man to hold back when he saw what ought to be done. He did see it. On the day before the festival of All Saints, on which the relics of the church were displayed to the crowds of country people who flocked into the town, Luther passed down the long street with a copy of ninety-five theses or statements against indulgences in his hand, and nailed them upon the door of the palace church, ready for the festival on the morrow. On All Saints day he read them to the people in the great parish church.—*Seebohm.*

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3. EVENTS OF THE REFORMATION.

In the election of an emperor, 1519, there were three candidates—Charles I. of Spain, Francis I. of France, and Henry VIII. of England.

Henry never had the slightest chance of obtaining the election. Francis and Charles each bribed the electors, but the fact that Charles was born on Austrian territory turned the scale in his favor. Contests between Francis and Charles form a large part of the military history of the first half of the sixteenth century. Henry was courted by the other two and was often arbiter between them. Charles, by virtue of the election and his hereditary dominions, was by far the most powerful monarch of the age.

The events of the Reformation were:

Nailing the ninety-five theses to the church door at Wittenberg, October 31, 1517;

Luther's conversation with Miltitz, January, 1519;

Luther's discussion with Eck at Leipzig, June 27, 1519;

Diet at Worms, spring of 1521.

A diet (reichstag in German) from medieval times to the middle of the nineteenth century was an assemblage composed of: (1) The electors of the empire; (2) the princes of the empire, spiritual and temporal; (3) representatives from the free imperial cities. Before such a meeting as this Luther was summoned in 1521.

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3. EVENTS OF THE REFORMATION.

The Principal European Potentates of that period were Charles V. of Spain, Francis I. of France, and Henry VIII. of England. Charles and Francis were rivals. Tens of thousands were slain in their quarrels. Charles, however, was the mightiest monarch. Naples and the Netherlands had been added to his dominions during the reign of his father Ferdinand; Granada had been conquered from the Moors; and the coasts of America opened to commercial enterprise, giving promise of inexhaustible mines of wealth. Spain at that time occupied a more commanding position than she has attained at any subsequent period of her history. The character of Henry VIII. is well known. Though his resources were not equal to the sovereigns already mentioned, his alliance was justly deemed important, and he dexterously seized the advantages held out to him, siding sometimes with one and sometimes with the other, and affecting to hold in his hands the balance of power, though he often became the dupe of the party he supported. Contemporary with these sovereigns were Maximilian I., emperor of Germany; Emmanuel the Great, king of Portugal; James V. of Scotland; Christian II. of Denmark and Sweden; and Sigismund I. of Poland. —*Hausser.*

The Barbarous Severity of Francis.—Francis disgraced the concluding years of his reign by measures of the most barbarous severity toward the unfortunate Protestants of Provence. The Vaudois, as they were called, a simple, inoffensive, and loyal population, inhabited a few obscure towns and villages in the vicinity of Avignon and Aix. Orders were suddenly sent down to the Parliament of Provence, in January, 1545, to exterminate these helpless peasants, who were denounced as dangerous heretics; and the sentence was at once executed with a ferocious cruelty unparalleled in history. Three towns and twenty-two hamlets were totally destroyed; three thousand of their inhabitants, among whom were numbers of women and children, unresistingly butchered in cold blood; seven hundred condemned for life to the galleys. Similar horrors were renewed in the following year at Meaux, where sixty of the Reformed Church, all mechanics or peasants, were sentenced to various degrees of rigorous punishment, and fourteen were burnt together at the stake.—*Jervis.*

Indulgences (See Glossary).

The Nailing of the Ninety-five Theses.—It would not have mattered much to Tetzel or the Pope that the friar of Wittenberg had nailed up his papers on the palace church, had it not been that he was backed by the Elector of Saxony. The Elector was an honest man, and had the good of the German people at heart. Luther's theses laid hold of his mind, and a few days after it is said that he dreamed that he saw the friar writing on the door of his church in letters so large that he could read them eighteen miles off at his palace where he was, and that the pen grew longer and longer, till at last it reached to Rome, touched the Pope's triple crown and made it totter. He was stretching out his arm to catch it when he awoke. The Elector of Saxony, whether he dreamed this dream awake or asleep, was at least wide awake enough to refuse permission for Tetzel to enter his dominions.—*Seebohm.*

Dr. Eck, of the Ingolstadt university, a recent and warm friend of the Wittenberg professor, but an enthusiastic admirer and advocate of the scholastic theology as Luther was of the evangelical, feeling that these haughty tenets which had domineered over Europe unquestioned for so many centuries, were fatally assaulted by his friend's theses, threw the recollections of their intimacy to the winds, and published, without warning, a bitter personal invective which he intended should crush the man who had poured out upon his beloved Schoolmen the floods of his contempt and which went out into the world with the imprimatur of the schools.—*Martyn.*

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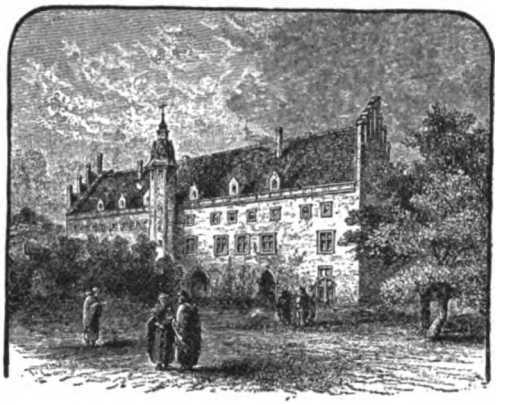
4.

That Luther did not believe in advancing the cause of the Reformation by means of war is clearly shown by the fact that he opposed two revolts against authority, which, if he had aided by his sanction, might have spread his principles. These were the revolts of the knights, headed by Franz von Sickingen, against the princes, and the peasants' revolt against their landlords.

Francis I. and Charles V., considering the time in which they lived, could be nothing but bitter rivals. Each revived old claims to territories now belonging to the other. For this and other causes they were engaged with each other in no less than four wars: 1521-26, 1527-29, 1536-38, 1543-44.



Augustinian Convent at Wittenberg in Luther's day.

4.

Luther Opposed to Coercion.—The efforts made, especially by the Landgrave of Hesse, to combine the supporters of the Reformation in a defensive league, were chilled by the opposition of Luther to measures that looked to a war with the Emperor, and still more prevented from being successful by his determined unwillingness to unite with the Swiss, on account of what he considered their heretical doctrine of the sacrament. Luther and his associates were imbued with a sense of the obligation of the subject to the powers that be and with the sacredness of the Empire. The course for the Christian to take, in their judgment, was that of passive obedience They likewise deemed it an unlawful thing to join with errorists—with men who rejected material parts of Christian truth. However open to criticism the position of the Saxon reformers was on both of these points, it should not be forgotten that their general motive was the sublime disregard of mere expediency, which had characterized, and, we may add, ennobled their movement at every step.—*Fisher.*

Melancthon.—Then came a year or two of controversy and angry disputes; and just at the right time came Philip Melancthon, from the University of Tubingen, to strengthen the staff of the Elector's new University at Wittenberg--a man deep in Hebrew and Greek, a half disciple of Erasmus—already pointed out as likely to turn out "Erasmus II.," of gentle, sensitive, and affectionate nature, the very opposite of Luther, but yet just what was wanted in another Wittenberg reformer—to help in argument and width of learning; to be, in fact, to Luther, partly what Erasmus had been to Colet. In the weary and hot disputes which now came upon Luther, Melancthon was always at his elbow, and helped him in his arguments; while the fame of Luther's manly conduct and Melancthon's learning all helped to draw students to the University from far and near, and so to spread the views of the Wittenberg Reformers more and more widely.—*Seebohm.*

Melancthon Settled at Wittenberg, as Greek professor in the University. Agreeing generally with Luther in theological sentiments, he warmly seconded his efforts. Their mutual attachment was strong, and their confidence in each other continued unshaken. In character, as well as in attainments, they differed much; yet the difference was not such as to prevent union or harmony. If the gentleness of Melancthon was apt to degenerate into indecision, the boldness of Luther sometimes hurried him into rash measures; while, on the other hand, the impetuosity of Luther was tempered by the prudence of Melancthon. Luther was fitted for action, Melancthon for counsel. The latter could plan the battle; the former would take the field and fight. Each was admirably adapted for the work assigned him, and each required the aid and co-operation of the other.—*Hausser.*

Franz von Sickingen, the greatest of the Rhenish knights, became the head of a league formed by his order in hostility to the princes. The knights professed a bitter hatred of the priests, and claimed the support of Luther, but the Reformer, who dreaded nothing so much as the propagation of his doctrine by the sword, only exhorted Sickingen and his companions to observe the peace of the Empire. They declared war, nevertheless, against the Archbishop of Treves, who was aided by the Landgrave, Philip of Hesse, and Frederic, the Elector-Palatine. Sickingen, after being deprived of many of his castles, was besieged at last in Landstuhl; and its massive walls being reduced to a heap of ruins by artillery, he was found in one of the inner apartments, mortally wounded. "What have I done," exclaimed the archbishop, as he entered the vaulted chamber, "that you should attack me and my poor people?" "Or I," said the Landgrave Philip, "that you should overrun my lands in my minority?" "I must answer," replied Sickingen, "to a greater Lord." Being asked to confess his sins, he said, "I have already in my heart confessed to God." The princes knelt in prayer, while the chaplain administered the last religious rites, and their enemy expired. Twenty-seven castles of Sickingen and his friends, and most of the similar strongholds in Franconia, were soon dismantled or destroyed.—*Thalheimer.*

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5. AUGSBURG.

A Diet at Spires on the Rhine in 1526 granted temporary toleration to the Reformers, but another Diet at the same place in 1529 declared Lutheranism heretical and the decree of the Diet of Worms still in force. The *protest* of four princes and fourteen cities against this decree gave rise to the name Protestant for all Christians not Roman Catholics.

In 1530, at the Diet of Augsburg, Charles called on the Reformers to make a statement of their doctrinal differences from the Roman Church, and their reply was what is known as the "Confession of Augsburg." The Religious Peace of Nuremberg, 1532, was really only an agreement not to discuss the religious question further for the present, in order that all parties might combine against the Turks.



Philip Melancthon.

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5. AUGSBURG.

Protestants.—At a diet of the empire, held at Spires in the spring of the year 1529, the Popish party was triumphant. The edict of the former diet was rescinded. Changes already made were to remain, but no new ones to be permitted; no alterations were to be allowed in those states which were still faithful to the old system, where the mass had been abolished, it was to be restored for the benefit of such as preferred that service; and the gospel was to be preached according to the interpretation of the church, without allusions to disputed points. Against this decree the adherents of the Reformation entered their solemn *protest*. They owned no authority over the conscience, but that of God himself; they could not agree to subject the Scriptures to the interpretation of the church, since the word of God in itself was sufficiently plain; to re-establish the mass would be to incur the guilt of impiety; all they demanded was, that every one should be protected in the exercise of his religion, whatever form of faith and worship he might choose to adopt; therefore they appealed from the diet to the emperor or to a free council, or any competent judge. This protest was signed by six princes, and by the deputies of fourteen imperial cities. It was immediately published and circulated throughout Germany. Hence arose the designation, "Protestant," as applied to those who have separated from the church of Rome.—*Hausser.*

Diet of Augsburg.—It was not considered wise or safe for Luther to go to Augsburg. He was left behind in the castle of Coburg, within the limits of the Elector's dominion, but he held frequent communication with the Saxon theologians who attended the Elector. The celebrated Confession, drawn up by Melancthon, in a conciliatory spirit, but clearly defining the essential tenets of Protestanism—a creed which has obtained more currency and respect than any other Protestant symbol—was read to the Assembly. The reply, composed by Eck and other Catholic theologians, was also presented. Then followed efforts at compromise, in which Melancthon bore a prominent part, and showed a willingness to concede everything but that which was deemed most vital. These efforts fell to the ground. They could invent no formulas on which they could agree, upon the merit of works, penance, and the invocation of saints. The elaborate and able apology by Melancthon, in defense of the Confession, was not heard, but was published by the author. The majority of the Diet enjoined the restoration of the old ecclesiastical institutions, allowing the Protestants time for reflection until November 10th of the following year; after which, it was implied, coercion would be adopted. Nothing in the history of the Reformation is more pathetic than the conduct of the Elector John at Augsburg, who, in the full prospect of the ruin of every earthly interest, and not without the deepest sensibility from his attachment of the Emperor and to the peace of the Empire, nevertheless resolved to stand by the imperishable word of God. The Reformers were willing to release him from all obligation to protect them, to take whatever lot Providence might send upon them; but this true-hearted prince refused to compromise in the least his sacred convictions.—*Fisher.*

The Reading of the Confession of Augsburg.—The emperor, seeing the Protestants stand up, motioned them to sit down; and then the two chancellors of the elector, Bruck and Bayer, advanced to the middle of the chapel, and stood before the throne, holding in their hands, the former the Latin, and the other the German copy of the Confession. The emperor required the Latin copy to be read. "We are Germans," said the Elector of Saxony, "and on German soil; I hope therefore your majesty will allow us to speak German." If the Confession had been read in Latin, a language unknown to most of the princes, the general effect would have been lost. This was another means of shutting the mouth of the Gospel. The emperor complied with the elector's demand. . . . . "The adversaries imagine they have done a wonderful thing by forbidding the preaching of the gospel," wrote Luther to the elector; and they do not see, poor creatures, that by the reading of the Confession in the presence of the diet, there has been more preaching than in the sermons of ten doctors. Exquisite sublety! admirable expedient! Master Agricola and the other ministers are reduced to silence; but in their place appear the Elector of Saxony and the other princes and lords, who preach before his imperial majesty and the members of the whole empire freely, to their beard, and before their noses. Yes, Christ is in the diet, and he does not keep silence; the word of God cannot be bound. They forbid it in the pulpit, and are forced to hear it in the palace; poor ministers cannot announce it, and great princes proclaim it; the servants are forbidden to listen to it, and their masters are compelled to hear it; they will have nothing to do with it during the whole course of the diet, and they are forced to submit to hear more in one day than is heard ordinarily in a whole year. . . . When all else is silent, the very stones cry out, as says our Lord Jesus Christ."—*D'Aubigne.*

The Augsburg Confession (See Glossary)

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6. THE PEACE OF NUREMBERG.

From the Peace of Nuremburg, 1532, to the abdication of Charles in 1555, the Reformation progressed in spite of all difficulties. This is a period of war and intrigue closed by the Peace of Augsburg, 1555, by which "every Prince was to be allowed to choose between the Catholic religion and the Augsburg Confession, and the religion of the prince was to be the religion of the land over which he reigned."

Any new religious movement is apt to produce extremists, *i. e.*, those who go much further than the founder of the system intended. These extremists in the German Reformation were called Anabaptists.

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6. THE PEACE OF NUREMBERG.

Peace of Nuremberg.—The progress of the Turks compelled the emperor to conclude the first religious peace at Nuremberg, in 1532. It was confirmed by the Diet of Ratisbon, and granted full liberty to preach and publish the doctrines of the Augsburg Confession. The same month, John the Steadfast died and was succeeded by his son, John Frederic, in the electorate of Saxony. In consequence of the peace, Charles was soon attended near Vienna by an army of 80,000 men. Solyman advanced into Hungary at



Strasbourg Cathedral.

the head of 350,000, and with a dazzling display of Oriental magnificence. Many fortresses sent him their keys, and his march was less like an invasion than a peaceful progress through his own dominions. At the little fortress of Güns, however, he met an opposition which severely wounded his pride. His whole army was detained more than three weeks by a garrison of only 700 men, who repulsed eleven assaults, and at last only permitted ten Janizaries to remain an hour in the place, to erect the Turkish standard. The operations of Andrew Doria in the Morea, and the defeat of his cavalry at the Sömmering Pass, further discouraged the Sultan, who hastily retreated, leaving only a force of 60,000 men at Essek, to support the interests of Zapolya. Peace was made the following year between the Empire and the Porte.—*Thalheimer.*

The Gist of Luther's Reply to the Pope's Bull.—To his Imperial Majesty and the Christian Nobility of the German nation, Martin Luther wishes grace, etc. The Romanists have raised round themselves walls to protect themselves from reform. One is their doctrine, that there are two separate estates; the one spiritual, viz., Pope, bishops, priests and monks; the other secular, viz., princes, nobles, artisans and peasants. And they lay it down that the secular power has no power over the spiritual, but that the spiritual is above the secular; whereas, in truth, all Christians are spiritual, and there is no difference between them. The secular power is of God, to punish the wicked and protect the good, and so has rule over the whole body of Christians, without exception, Pope, bishops, monks, nuns and all. For St. Paul says 'Let every soul' (and I reckon the Pope one) 'be subject to the higher powers.' [Luther was writing this to the secular princes, and they were likely to listen to this setting up of their authority above that of the clergy. He was writing also to the German nation, and he knew well how to catch their ear, too.] Why should 300,000 florins be sent every year from Germany to Rome? Why do the Germans let themselves be fleeced by cardinals who get hold of the best preferments and spend the revenues at Rome? Let us not give another farthing to the Pope as subsidies against the Turks; the whole thing is a snare to drain us of more money. Let the secular authorities send no more annates to Rome. Let the power of the Pope be reduced within clear limits. Let there be fewer cardinals, and let them not keep the best things to themselves. Let the national churches be more independent of Rome. Let there be fewer pilgrimages to Italy. Let there be fewer convents. Let priests marry. Let begging be stopped by making each parish take charge of its own poor. Let us inquire into the position of the Bohemians, and if Huss was in the right, let us join with him in resisting Rome.—*Seebohm.*

Luther Burns the Pope's Bull.—Excited, and as Melancthon said, seeming almost inspired, conscious of right and also of power, Luther wished all Europe to see that a German friar could dare to defy the Pope. Had there been a mountain at Wittenberg he would have lit his bonfire on the top, and let the world, far and near, see the Pope's Bull blaze in its flames. But there was not even a hill in that flat country. So in solemn procession, at the head of his fellow doctors and the students of the University, he marched through the Elster gate, and there, outside the city walls, in presence of the great German river Elbe, he

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burned the Bull, and a complete set of the Canon Law books. His burning the Bull against himself was a personal act of defiance. His burning the Canon Law books was a public declaration that the German nation ought not to be subject to the jurisdiction of Rome. Amid the cheers of the crowd, Luther returned to his rooms.—*Seebohm.*

Nailed by Their Tongues.—Fanaticism grew fiercer every day; evangelical ministers were expelled from their churches; magistrates were banished; and at times the most horrible punishments were inflicted. In Wurtemberg, an inquisitor named Reichler, caused the Lutherans, and above all, the preachers, to be hanged upon trees. Barbarous ruffians were found who unfeelingly nailed the pastors by their tongues to a post; so that these unhappy victims, tearing themselves violently from the wood to which they were fastened, were horribly mutilated in attempting to recover their liberty, and thus deprived of that gift which they had long used to proclaim the gospel —*D'Aubigne.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.**—Reformers before the Reformation, Influence of the New Light, The Papacy at the Beginning of the Sixteenth Century, Struggle Between the New and the Old, Extent of the Reformation, The Roman See.
2. **CAUSES OF THE REFORMATION.**—IMMEDIATE.—Corruption in the Church, Tetzel's sale of Indulgences. MORE REMOTE.—Renaissance, Humanisn, Hutten, Invention of Printing, Luther.
3. **EVENTS IN THE REFORMATION.**—Luther opposed to Coercion, Melancthon, Franz von Sickengen.
4. **EVENTS IN THE REFORMATION.**—Principal European Potentates, Nailing the Ninety-five Theses, Luther's Discussion with Eck, The Diet of Worms.
5. **AUGSBURG.**—Protestants, Diet of Augsburg, Reading of the Confession, The Confession, The Tone of the Confession.
6. **FROM THE PEACE OF NUREMBERG.**—Peace of Nuremberg, Luther's Reply to the Pope's Bull, Luther Burns the Pope's Bull.

QUESTIONS.

1. *Name the leading reformers previous to the sixteenth century? How did their efforts effect the sixteenth century? In what ways was the influence of the new light shown in the fifteenth century? What was the condition of the Papacy at the beginning of the sixteenth century? In what ways did the struggle between the new and the old order of things show itself? What was the extent of the Reformation at this time?*

2. *Name the immediate causes of the Reformation? Who was Wickliffe? How was he treated? Why? What does Adrian say of the corruption of the Holy See? What were some of the clerical exactions? What was the intellectual condition of the clergy? What were indulgences? Who was Tetzel? How was he received by Luther? What was the relation of Humanism to the Reformation? The Renaissance to the Reformation? The invention of printing? The Universities? What is said of Relics? Who was Luther? Give a sketch of his life?*

3. *Who were the three candidates for emperor? What may be said of each? Name the leading events of the Reformation? What was the nature of the ninety-five theses prepared by Luther? Relate the account of the discussion between Dr. Eck and Luther? What was the purpose and result of the Diet of Worms? What was a diet?*

4. *Why was Luther opposed to coercion? Who was Melancthon? What was his relation to Luther? State what you can of Franz von Sickingen?*

5. *Give the origin of the name Protestant? What resulted from the two diets at Spires? What was the aim of the Diet of Augsburg? What is meant by the Augsburg Confession? Relate the events connected with the reading of this Confession? Name some of its features? What was the general tone of the Confession?*

6. *What was the purpose of the treaty of Nuremberg? What were the conditions of the Peace of Augsburg? Who were the Anabaptists? Give the substance of Luther's reply to the Pope's Bull? Describe the events connected with the burning of the Pope's Bull?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Give the leading events in connection with the life of Wickliffe? Huss? How did their doctrine compare with that of Luther? Zwingli? Calvin? Name others who may be considered reformers before the Reformation.*

2. *What was the general condition of the people at the opening of the sixteenth century? What was the intellectual condition of the masses? The moral status?*

3. *Prepare a brief history of the schools and universities up to the opening of the century. To what extent did each influence the people?*

4. *To what extent, up to the beginning of the sixteenth century, did the invention of printing influence the people?*

5. *To what extent did "corruption in the church" exist? Review the previous history of the Middle Ages. What influences produced this corruption?*

6. *What was the origin, doctrine and result of the sale of indulgences?*

7. *How did the Renaissance influence the Reformation? Humanism? Give reasons for your answers.*

8. *Give a brief summary of the life of Luther. What events most influenced him? What was his doctrine? Personal life? What causes gave him success as a reformer?*

9. *What persons greatly aided Luther? What motives seemed to have actuated them?*

10. *Why in your opinion was Luther opposed to coercion? Give reasons for your conclusions.*

11. *What were the leading events in the differences between Luther and the Pope?*

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7. REFORMATION IN SWITZERLAND, DENMARK AND SWEDEN.

That the times were ripe for reformation is evident from the fact that in several different countries similar movements started at the same time.

In Switzerland, in 1518, Ulrich Zwingli began to preach against indulgences and pilgrimages. The Zwinglians differed from the Lutherans on the question of transubstantiation. A conference was arranged between Luther and Zwingli on this subject.

In Switzerland political reformation was connected with religious reform. Zwingli's greatness was shown in the clearness with which he apprehended the situation in Switzerland. "Having established the church on the basis of the congregation, he entertained similar projects with regard to the state."



Ulrich Zwingli.

7. REFORMATION IN SWITZERLAND, DENMARK AND SWEDEN.

Zwingli's Character.—Together with several just and profound views of Scriptural interpretation, his works contain many noble sentiments, flowing from an enlarged and elevated spirit. Gifted with much penetration, incited by an honest zeal, regulated by consummate prudence, firm, considerate and forbearing, he did not stain these great qualities by a single bad fault. . . . He pursued with constancy and fearlessness the dictates of his religion and his patriotism; he showed great sagacity in accomplishing his purposes; he was never guided, either in his acts or in his writings, by any factious spirit, he was never suspected of any unworthy motive; he preserved to the very end the dignified consistency of his character, and left to his immediate successors, and to all posterity, the model of an unblemished reputation.—*Waddington.*

Zwingli and Luther, who had each been developed separately, the one in Switzerland and the other in Saxony, were, however, one day to meet face to face. The same spirit, and in many respects the same character, animated both. Both alike were filled with love for the truth and hatred of injustice; both were naturally violent; and this violence were moderated in each by a sincere piety. But there was one feature in Zwingli's character designed to carry him farther than Luther. It was not only as a man that he loved liberty, but also as a republican and fellow-countryman of Tell. Accustomed to the decision of a free state, he did not permit himself to be stopped by those considerations before which Luther recoiled. He had, moreover, studied less profoundly the scholastic theology, and thus found his motions less fettered. Both were ardently attached to their own convictions; both resolved to defend them; and little habituated to yield to the convictions of another, they were now to meet, like two proud war-horses, which, rushing through the contending ranks, suddenly encountered each other in the hottest of the strife.—*D'Aubigne.*

Zwingli (see Glossary).

Transubstantiation.—Luther, partly, as it seems, out of his determination to multiply differences with the church, invented a theory somewhat different, usually called consubstantiation, which was adopted in the Confession of Augsburg, and to which, at least down to the middle of the eighteenth century, the divines of that communion were much attached. They imagined the two substances to be united in the sacramental elements, so that they might be termed bread and wine, or the body and blood, with equal propriety. But it must be obvious that there is little more than a metaphysical distinction between this doctrine and that of Rome; though, when it suited the Lutherans to magnify, rather than dissemble, their deviations from the mother church, it was raised to an important difference. A simpler and more rational explanation occurred to Zwingli and Ocolampadius, from which the Helvetian Protestants imbibed their faith. Rejecting every notion of real presence, and divesting the institution of all its mystery, they saw only figurative symbols in the elements which Christ had appointed as a commemoration of his death. But this novel opinion excited as much indignation in Luther as in the Romanists.—*Hallam.*

Conference of Marburg.—Though Luther rejected the doctrine of transubstantiation, he held an opinion scarcely removed from it, except in name. It is called "consubstantiation." The Romanists believe that the bread and wine are actually changed into the body and blood of the Lord Jesus Christ, including the flesh and bones, and even the soul; Luther maintained that the body and blood of the Savior are present in and with the wine and bread, as light and heat penetrate different substances, those substances remaining unchanged. But Zwingli and other reformers in Switzerland had gone much further, and rejected these subleties as un-Scriptural. They denied the real Presence altogether, holding that the Redeemer is with his people spiritually, and in no other way. This difference alienated Luther from many of his brethren. That he was convinced of the justness of his exposition, there is no doubt; but he did not hold the truth, as he understood it, in love; he was very intemperate in spirit, and uncharitable in conduct, towards those who professed opposite views. An open rupture seemed unavoidable, and as it would have proved highly favorable to the Romish cause, the Papists did everything in their power to promote it. The Landgrave of Hesse was extremely anxious to prevent an occurrence so much to be deprecated. He employed the mediation of Bucer, by whose means a conference was arranged between the contending parties. It was held at Marburg, during the first three days of the month of October, 1529. Luther and Melancthon appeared on one side, and Zwingli and Ecolampadius on the other. It was unproductive of the desired results, each party remaining of the same opinion, and refusing to yield or to approximate to the other in the least degree.—*Haussер.*

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8.

The Reformation in the three Scandinavian states was very different from that in Germany and Switzerland. In the two latter countries the reforms were largely accomplished by the people in opposition to and in spite of the monarchical authorities. In the former the Reformation became the tool of royalty, with which to conquer the nobles.

Norway, Sweden and Denmark from 1397 to about 1523 were governed under one monarchy, that of Denmark. In 1520 Christian II. of Denmark thought to make himself absolute in Sweden and gain the thanks of the masses by the execution of a great number of oppressive ecclesiastics and nobles. Failing to gain, by any method, the upper hand of the nobles, he began to encourage Protestantism, which had been brought in from Germany. By this means he expected to triumph over the nobles, as they were mostly Catholic.

8.

The Reformation was carried farther in Switzerland than in Germany. Luther retained private confession, the use of the wafer in the Lord's Supper, and other rites essentially Popish, on which he was inclined to look with indulgence, as indifferent things. All these were swept away by Zwingli and his associates. It was their wish to reduce Christian worship to the simple rites indicated in the New Testament. The ecclesiastical government adopted in Switzerland was Presbyterian. All ministers were considered equal in power and authority. Assembled in Presbyteries and synods, and assisted by lay elders, they regulated the affairs of the churches and enacted laws of discipline. Episcopacy was absolutely abolished.—*Hausser.*

Zwingli's Efforts (See Glossary).

In Denmark, as well as in many other countries, the preaching of indulgences was one of the first means of opening the eyes of men to the errors and abominations of Romanism. Arcimbold, the Papal legate, excited general disgust by his proceedings, and left the people fully disposed to receive the doctrines of Luther, which were preached among them by several persons who had studied the reformer's writings, or had heard him at Wittenberg. Among them was Martin, a learned man, who was sent to Copenhagen by the Elector of Saxony, at the request of Christian II, King of Denmark, and appointed preacher in the cathedral of that city. The effects of his labors may be estimated by the measures employed to put a stop to them. Unable to convince him of error, or to withstand the force of the truths which he preached, the canons of the cathedral hired a boy who was known as a clever mimic, and instructed him to learn to imitate Martin's manner of speaking and gestures, which unfortunately were not very graceful. The lad was then employed to go about the city and amuse the people with mock sermons on ludicrous subjects, delivered in Martin's style, caricatured. He was well fed, and liberally plied with intoxicating drink, that he might play his part effectively. The scheme, unworthy as it was, succeeded. Martin returned shortly afterwards to Wittenberg.—*Edited from Gerdes.*

Christian's Execution of the Nobles.—The obnoxious individuals were arrested and confined in the dungeons of the castle. A commission was named to try them, consisting of the primate—at once judge, accuser, and party; the Danish bishop of Odensee, with several Swedish prelates, canons and doctors. The inquisitorial tribunal thus constituted assembled next day, and forthwith condemned ninety-four ecclesiastics, senators, knights, and burgomasters, as guilty of heresy and schism, to be delivered over to the secular power for execution. On November 8 (1520), at dawn, all the gates of the city were closed; loaded cannon were planted in the great market-place, and guards stationed at every point of the intersecting streets. The death-like silence was broken by the sound of the castle bell, when the long procession of victims marched forth to the place of martyrdom. The bishop of Skara, one of the prisoners, loudly invoked the vengeance of heaven upon the false and perfidious tyrant, who thus sacrificed the lives of innocent men at the caprice of suborned and perjured judges. The burgomasters of Stockholm exhorted their fellow-citizens to shake off his detested yoke, and never more to trust his oaths and promises. The prelate of Strengnaes, who had earliest espoused the cause of Christian, was first lead forth to execution. As he fell on his knees, and was about to receive the fatal blow, his chancellor, Olaus Petri, accompanied by his brother Laurentius, rushed from the crowd to embrace his dying master, when the bloody head rolled at his feet. Olaus exclaimed against the cruel deed, but he was instantly seized, dragged within the circle, and would infallibly have paid with his life for his temerity, had not a spectator, who knew the two brothers in Wittenberg, interposed, declaring that they were not natives, but Germans. By this accidental discovery were preserved the first apostles of the Reformation in Sweden. The slaughter of the other bishops and senators followed, and among the latter was Erik, the father of Gustavus Vasa. The burgomasters next suffered, the execrations of their comrades being drowned by the noise of the Danish soldiery. The bodies of the dead lay for two days and nights unburied in the market-place, after which they were removed and buried without the city walls. The remains of Sture were disinterred, and committed to the flames. At the intercession of some ladies of the court, his widow's life was spared on the payment of a heavy ransom; and she was conducted to Denmark, with the mother of Gustavus Vasa and several other illustrious women, who were exposed to every hardship and indignity which malice or tyranny could inflict. The king took his departure from Stockholm after having constituted a regency, and placed a strong garrison of Danish, German and Scottish troops in the capital.—*Crichton-Wheaton.*

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9. SWEDEN.

Sweden rose to be an independent power in the first half of the 16th century. From 1523 to 1560 Gustavus Vasa built up an hereditary monarchy, separated Sweden from Denmark and established the Reformation. After his death the government was not so vigorous until the beginning of the 17th century, when Gustavus Adolphus (born 1594) made Sweden one of the most important European states.



John III.

Gustavus Vasa was a member of a noble family, part of which had been killed in the Stockholm massacre (see references for Denmark and Christian II.) and other members of which were carried away as prisoners by Christian II.; hence his feeling of hatred for Denmark. Gustavus Vasa had not a keen sense of the differences between religious creeds, but he soon saw that the vast power of the Catholic clergy was being used against the growing regal power, and that the revenues of the state must be increased by taxes upon, or confiscation of church property. Hence he adopted this political view of Protestantism.

After the death of Gustavus Vasa the remainder of the century was filled with disorder during the reigns of his three sons. Erik XIV. became insane and was poisoned by his brothers. John III. endeavored to deliver the kingdom into the hands of the Catholics. Sigismund, son of John, also a Catholic, was deposed and succeeded by Charles IX., another son of Gustavus Vasa, in 1599.

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9. SWEDEN.

The Northern Parts of Europe received the knowledge of the truth from Germany. As early as the year 1521, Swedish merchants, who had visited that country for purposes of trade, embraced the principles of the Reformation, and on their return home zealously propagated the Gospel. About the same time the fame of the University of Wittenberg reached Sweden, and many students were induced to repair to that city. —*Hausser.*

Gustavus Vasa.—The revolt in Sweden was led by Gustavus Vasa, a young nobleman whose father had been beheaded at Stockholm. He himself had been given, with four others, as hostages for the safe return of Christian to his ships, after a battle which he lost at Bränkirka, in one of his early and vain attempts upon the kingdom. Contrary to his agreement, Christian no sooner found himself in safety than he sailed away with his hostages and kept them as prisoners in Denmark. Gustavus escaped in 1519, disguised as an ox-driver, and hid himself among the peasants of Dalecarlia, wearing their coarse apparel and working with them for daily wages. At length by a secret intelligence among the patriots of Sweden, an army of 5,000 men was raised, and Gustavus was placed at its head. The Hanse-towns, which had been injured by the commercial policy of Christian II., declared for the Swedes and ravished the Danish islands. Denmark now discarded Christian II., and accepted as its king his uncle, Frederic I. The Union of Calmar was dissolved. Stockholm surrendered to Gustavus Vasa, after a two-years' siege, and he was elected king by the Swedish Diet.—*Thalheimer.*

Gustavus Adolphus.—Gustavus entered Germany, and drove the imperial army out of Pomerania. He attacked the celebrated General Tilly, and entirely defeated him at Leipsic. The whole country submitted to him, from the banks of the Elbe to the Rhine. He marched triumphant through the whole of Germany, while the Emperor Ferdinand, fallen at once from all his proud pretensions, was reduced so low as to solicit the Pope to publish a crusade against the Protestants. On their part all was in a train of success, and the elector palatine was on the verge of being restored to his crown and electorate, when the heroic Gustavus, in the midst of his victories, was killed in the battle of Lützen.—*Tytler.*

Character of Gustavus Adolphus.—In military talents he was unquestionably without a rival. Familiar with the tactics of Greece and Rome, he had discovered a more effective system of warfare, which was afterward adopted by the most distinguished generals of the time. He diminished the large and unwieldy masses of cavalry, in order to render their movements more active and rapid, and with the same view, he placed his battalions at a greater distance from each other. His army was drawn up in two lines instead of one, as was the usual practice, that the second might advance in the event of the first giving way, the strictest discipline was maintained among the troops; all outrages were punished with rigid severity, especially impiety, theft, gambling and dueling. . . . . The frugality which he enjoined on others he practiced himself; his tent displayed neither silver nor gold; and with the meanest in his ranks he shared their hardships and their humble fare. Brave even to rashness, he forgot the perils by which he was surrounded, until the career of the hero and the reign of the king ended in the death of a common soldier.—*Crichton-Wheaton.*

Gustavus Adolphus Provides for his Soldiers. (See Glossary, under ADOLPHUS.)

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10. FRANCE.—1500 TO THE DEATH OF FRANCIS I., 1547.

What is understood in modern diplomacy by the term "Balance of Power" took its rise in the latter part of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th centuries. In 1494 and 1495 Charles VIII. of France invaded and took possession of Italy. While he was parading in Naples as King of Naples, Emperor of the East, and King of Jerusalem, a league of the sovereigns of Europe was formed to prevent his realizing all his hopes, and to reduce France to its former limits. This was probably the first action upon the doctrine, at that time unformulated, that no nation has a right to become so powerful as to be dangerous to others. This idea has been prominent in European diplomacy from the time just mentioned, and has been invoked in the wars of Francis I. and Charles V., in the wars of all Europe against Napoleon I., and in other well-known instances in the 19th century.



Costumes of the Sixteenth Century.

The most important French history in the 16th century begins with the accession of Francis I., 1515.

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10. FRANCE.—1500 TO THE DEATH OF FRANCIS I., 1547.

The Great Idea of the Balance of Power.—That is, such a just distribution of force, either by alliance or internal resources, between the different states, that no one shall preponderate over the others—began to be adopted as the policy of Europe. Louis was therefore uneasy when he reflected, that if he executed the covenants of the treaty of Blois, and gave his daughter Claude to the heir of Ferdinand and Isabella, the power of the Spanish house would be paramount. The young Charles, the grandson of the Spanish monarchs, was already destined to unite under his crown Germany, and Naples, and the Netherlands, and Spain, and the illimitable domains newly discovered in America. If, in addition to these, he obtained all the female fiefs of France, the counties of Burgundy and Artois, and the duchy of Brittany, besides the Italian rights of his proposed bride to Milan and Genoa, nothing would be left to his successor on the throne of France which could withstand so mighty a confederation. —*White.*

Francis I., his government and his times, commence the era of modern France, and bring clearly to view the causes of her greatnesses and her weaknesses. When, on the first of January, 1515, he ascended the throne before he had attained his one and twentieth year, it was a brilliant and brave but spoilt child that became king. He had been under the governance of Artus Gouffier, sire de Boisy, a nobleman of Poitou, who had exerted himself to make his royal pupil a loyal knight well trained in the moral code and all the graces of knighthood, but without drawing his attention to more serious studies or preparing him for the task of government. The young Francis d'Angouleme lived and was moulded under the influence of two women, his mother, Louise of Savoy, and his eldest sister Marguerite, who both of them loved and adored him with passionate idolatry. The former princess was proud, ambitious, audacious or pliant at need, able and steadfast in mind, violent and dissolute in her habits, greedy of pleasure and of money as well as of power, so that she gave her son neither moral principles nor a moral example: for him the supreme kingship, for herself the rank, influence and wealth of a queen-mother, and, for both, greatness that might subserve the gratification of their passions—this was all her dream and all her aim as a mother.—*Guizot.* (Masson).

The Youthful Francis I., of Angouleme, had succeeded his father-in-law and cousin Louis XII. His beauty and address, his courage and love of pleasure, made him the first knight of his time. He aspired, however, at being something more; he desired to be a great and even a good king, provided everything would bend to his sovereign pleasure. Valor, a taste for letters, and a love of gallantry, are three terms that will express the character of Francis and the spirit of his age.—*D'Aubigne.*

Charles VIII. of France no sooner found himself in possession of sovereign power, than he prepared to prosecute the claim to Naples derived by his father from Charles of Maine. Though full of grand schemes of conquest, the young king was diminutive and deformed in person and weak in mind. His army, which had cost ruinous sacrifices to equip, waited for him at the foot of the Alps until he had spent in tournaments and festivities the entire sum provided for the war; and he could only proceed by borrowing 50,000 crowns from a Milanese merchant. Having entered Italy he borrowed and pawned the jewels of the Duchess of Savoy and the Marchioness of Montferrat, in order to prosecute his enterprise.—*Thalheimer.*

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11.

A characteristic of France, noticeably different from Germany, was that, by the beginning of the 16th century the great lords of the provinces had been reduced to submission to the king, *i. e.*, the king was recognized as a central authority, whereas in Germany individual princes felt at liberty at any time to resist the emperor. This was undoubtedly one reason why, in the contest for emperor, Francis was defeated, although he offered the largest bribes.

The electors feared being reduced to the condition of vassals in a centralized kingdom. The rivalry of Francis and Charles extended until the death of the former in 1547. There were no fewer than four regular wars between them.

The Reformation did not cause such important political results in France in the first half of the 16th century as it did in Germany, but the new doctrines obtained an entrance into France, and were supported by scholars some six years before Luther's movement. Francis favored the Reformers until the peasant revolts in Germany led him to think the Reformation might be dangerous to royalty, but it always served his purpose to favor Protestantism in Germany for this very reason.

No strong and concentrated Protestant movement occurred in France in the first part of the 16th century, but in its nature and for its influence, the Geneva movement should be called French. The Reformation at Geneva was conducted by Frenchmen and gave the impetus to the later Protestant organizations in France. In order to thoroughly understand the religious wars in France for two centuries, the student should learn as much as possible about Calvin and his political state.

11.

A Distinction Seems Always to Have Been Drawn between the doctrines of the Lutherans and Calvinists. The Lutherans were considered merely dissidents from the Papal church, but the Calvinists were thought rebels against royal authority. Excesses on both sides justified to superficial observers the opinion, which inflamed the Catholics and Reformers with unappeasable rage, that their joint existence was impossible. Catholicism, when it was triumphant, trampled on the faintest spirit of dissent; and dissent, when it had the opportunity, retorted with almost insane retribution. The release from the darkness in which all men's minds had been avowedly kept was too sudden to be wisely borne. The light blinded their eyes, and the persecutors could point to their victims' acts in justification of their own. This will account for the tragedies and nameless horrors of the next half century in France, in which the national character entirely changed.—*White.*

Yet There is Inconsistency Even in Calvin's Regime; for he had the zeal of the old Catholic Church in giving over to the civil power those he wished to punish, as in the case of Servetus. He even intruded into the circle of social life, and established a temporal rather than a spiritual theocracy; and while he overthrew the episcopal element, he made a distinction, not recognized in the primitive church, between clergy and laity. As for religious toleration, it did not exist in any country or in any church; there was no such thing as true evangelical freedom. All the Reformers attempted, as well as the Catholics, a compulsory unity of faith; and this is an impossibility.—*Lord.*

In 1547, when the death of Francis I. was at hand, that ecclesiastical organization of Protestantism which Calvin had instituted at Geneva was not even begun in France. The French Protestants were as yet but isolated and scattered individuals, without any bond of generally accepted and practiced faith or discipline, and without any eminent and recognized heads. The Reformation pursued its course; but a reformed church did not exist.—*Guizot.*

Calvin (See Glossary).

Calvin's Institutes.—In 1535 we find him at Basel, whither he had retired to escape further persecution on account of his extreme views. Here he published his "Christianæ Religionis Institutio," which is his most celebrated work, and which has shed undying lustre on his name. Fascinating by its profound learning, its unflinching logic, and its wonderful fervor, the book became at once a general favorite, and was translated into all the civilized tongues. It is not necessary to do more than place before the reader one or two essential features of this great work. It is of mathematical exactness, and is the very base and foundation of his remarkable religious system, while it likewise maps out his scheme of reformation. This scheme was based on the doctrine of predestination, a doctrine Calvin had embraced with eagerness. Predestination was indeed with him a religious axiom, a self-evident truth which neither needed proof nor admitted of dispute, and he made it the corner-stone of his new religious system. His theory was that, of men all equally guilty a priori, some had from the beginning of the world been destined by God for eternal happiness, others for eternal perdition. Who were the elect and who the rejected was left an open question. However incompatible with humane feeling, however irreconcilable with the doctrine of the redemption, this belief might be thought by many, it yet sufficed for the eager minds of the sixteenth century, earnestly seeking as they were some practicable and, as it were, palpable faith. Whatever the objections to the doctrine, it was on this that the Calvinistic Church was built, and by its spirit that that Church was swayed.—*Hug-Stead.*

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12. ENGLAND IN THE 16TH CENTURY TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF MARY, 1558.

The Reformation is not the chief movement of interest in England during the early part of the 16th century, yet occurrences, which brought about a difference between Henry VIII. and the Pope, caused a separation of the English church from the Roman church. The separation afterward grew into a Reformation. "The real Reformation in England began under Edward VI. (1547), passed through a fiery trial under Mary, and proved victorious under Elizabeth." Henry "wanted to establish a royal papacy as absolute . . as the one which he was rejecting; but he was in reality making loopholes for liberty."

The real reason for the declaration of the independence of the English church was Henry's inability to get the Pope's permission to divorce his wife Catharine. Catharine had been married to Henry's elder brother Arthur, when he was but fifteen years old. Arthur died a year after the marriage. After nearly twenty years of married life with Catharine, Henry fell in love with Anne Boleyn, a court lady of French education. At once his conscience smote him for having married his brother's widow. For six years, from 1527 to 1533, his chief aim seemed to be to rid himself of Catharine and to marry Anne.

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12. ENGLAND IN THE 16TH CENTURY TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF MARY, 1558.

The English Reformation—the way to which had been long preparing—began in the reign of Henry VIII.; and this unscrupulous and tyrannical monarch, without being a religious man, gave



Henry VIII. of England.

the first great impulse to an outbreak the remote consequences of which he did not anticipate, and with which he had no sympathy. He rebelled against the authority of the Pope, without abjuring the Roman Catholic religion, either as to dogmas or forms. In fact, the first great step towards reform was made, not by Cranmer, but by Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex, as the prime minister of Henry VIII., a man of whom we really know the least of all the very great statesmen of English history. It was he who demolished the monasteries, and made war on the whole monastic system, and undermined the papal power in England, and swept away many of the most glaring of those abuses which disgraced the Papal Empire. Armed with the powers which Wolsey had wielded, he directed them into a totally different channel, so far as the religious welfare of the nation is considered, although in his principles of government he was as absolute as Richelieu. Like the great French statesman, he exalted the throne; but, unlike him, he promoted the personal reign of the sovereign he served with remarkable ability and devotion.—*Lord.*

Henry VIII.—Luther had been three months and a half at Wittenberg when a rumor, increased by the thousand tongues of fame, brought intelligence that one of the greatest kings of Christendom had risen against him. Henry VIII., head of the house of Tudor, a prince descended from the families of York and Lancaster, and in whose person, after so much bloodshed, the red and white roses were at length united, the mighty king of England, who claimed to reëstablish on the continent, and especially in France, the former influence of his crown, had just written a book against the poor monk of Wittenberg. "There is much boasting about a little book by the king of England," wrote Luther to Lange on the 20th of June, 1522 *D'Aubigne.*

For England the Central Fact of the Period was the great political and religious revolution which brought about her separation from the Church of Rome. Whatever the motives of Henry VIII. may have been, and some of them were certainly base, he could never have accomplished such a work, had it not been for the deep-seated and wide-spread feeling of dissatisfaction toward Rome which had existed for ages among the English people. The opposition to Rome had begun away back in the days of the Red King, and had manifested itself in a long series of statutes against papal exaction and aggressions. Wyclif, in his

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day, had struck the key-note of English feeling in his attack upon the organization and discipline of the Church, and, though the nation was not ready to follow him in his attack upon her doctrines, yet the example he had set was not forgotten. The opposition was intensified rather by the alliance of the papacy with France during a portion of the Hundred Years' War, by the growing corruption of the clergy, by their enormous and, in part, ill-gotten wealth, and by the fact that, although they maintained all their high pretensions, they had ceased to perform conscientiously and fully the duties of their office. The English clergy stood as a body by itself, divorced from the nation, and owing allegiance primarily to a foreign power. The antagonism between Church and State in England had reached its limit.—*Wheeler.*

The Amount of Reformation accomplished by the authority of Henry may be stated in few words. The authority of the Pope was utterly abolished. Monasteries and kindred institutions were suppressed. The Scriptures were translated and printed, set up in churches, and for some years allowed to be freely circulated among the people. Gross superstitions were put down, and creature worship was partially discouraged. Some few prayers were translated into English. The Gospel was preached in some few parishes; but popish doctrine was still taught by the majority of the clergy; nor were the people at large as yet inclined to look with favor upon a system which inculcated humbling and self-denying truths, and stripped religion of the pomp and finery which present such powerful attractions to weak minds. The Pope was banished from England, but Popery remained.—*Hausser.*

Thomas Cromwell, Henry VIII., Catharine (See Glossary).

SECOND WEEKLY LESSON.

7. ZWINGLI.—Zwingli's character, Zwingli and Luther, Transubstantiation, Conference of Marburg. Luther refuses union with Zwingli.

8. THE REFORMATION IN NORWAY, SWEDEN AND DENMARK.—The Reformation, Zwingli's efforts, In Denmark, Christian's execution of the nobles.

9. SWEDEN.—Gustavus Vasa, Gustavus Adolphus, His Character, Provides for his Soldiers.

10. FRANCE FROM 1500 TO 1547.—Balance of Power, Charles VIII., The Youthful Francis I., Distinction between Calvinism and Lutheranism.

11. FRANCE FROM 1500 TO 1547.—The Position of the King, Results of the Reformation, Francis and Charles, The Genevan Movement, John Calvin, Huguenots.

12. ENGLAND FROM 1500 TO 1558.—Henry VIII. and the Pope, England and the Church of Rome, The Reformation under Henry.

QUESTIONS.

7. *Who was Zwingli? What can be said in reference to his personal life? In this respect how did he compare with Luther? What was the doctrine of transubstantiation? Give the purpose of the conference of Marburg? State what you can of the proceedings? Why did these efforts at union not succeed? Whose conduct in this case was most commendable, Luther's or Zwingli's?*

8 *Give the progress of the Reformation in Norway? Sweden? Denmark? To what extent did Zwingli influence these people? Luther? Why did Christian II. encourage Protestantism?*

9. *Who was Gustavus Vasa? Gustavus Adolphus? What can you say of the private character of the latter? How did he provide for his soldiers? How does he rank in military annals?*

10. *What is meant by the terms "Balance of Power"? What was its origin? Name instances in which this doctrine has been involved? State what you can of the life of Charles VIII.? Francis I.?*

11 *What was now the position of the king? What was now the relation of Francis and Charles? What was now the progress of the Reformation? Give a sketch of the life of John Calvin? What is meant by the Genevan movement? Name the leading distinctions between Calvinism and Lutheranism?*

12. *What causes produced a separation of the English Church from the Romish Church? Who was Henry VIII.? What was his religious belief? What was the progress of the Reformation under Henry VIII.?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Make a comparative study of Luther, Calvin and Zwingli, noting nativity of each. Where and how were their doctrines promulgated? What was the personal life of each? The peculiar doctrine of each? Special weaknesses of each? Special strength of each? The causes leading to the success of each? Early training or other influences which shaped the destiny of each? Which do you most admire? Why?*

2. *In Switzerland to what extent was political reformation connected with the Reformation?*

3 *Gustavus Adolphus stands in the front rank as a commander and statesman; what do you consider the commendable features of his life?*

4. *Look up the origin and history of the term "Balance of Power"? To what extent is it similar or dissimilar to the Monroe Doctrine?*

5. *What causes, in your opinion, produced the separation of the English church from the Romish church? Give reasons for your answers.*

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13.

Henry resorted to many expedients to accomplish his purpose, but all were of no avail until he took the matter into his own hands. His favorite minister had to fall and the Pope to be openly defied. Of course the Pope retaliated with a bull of excommunication.

This crisis forced Henry to assume to be the head of the English church. He dissolved the monasteries and confiscated their property, etc., etc.

Henry VIII. is about as memorable for the number and fate of his wives as for his quarrel with Rome. He had three wives named Catharine, two named Anne and one Jane. Two of these he divorced, two he caused to be beheaded, one died and one outlived him. (1) Catharine (mother of Mary, afterward Queen), divorced March 30, 1533. (2) Anne Boleyn (mother of Elizabeth, afterwards Queen), beheaded May 19, 1536. (3) Jane Seymour, died after the birth of her son, Edward VI., October 24, 1537. (4) Anne of Cleves, divorced June 24, 1540. (5) Catharine Howard, beheaded February 12, 1542. (6) Catharine Parr, outlived the king.

Henry VIII. experimented in absolutism. He was no friend of the Reformation or of true Catholics. A Catholic was sent to the scaffold if he refused to take the oath of supremacy, and a Lutheran was burned if he refused to attend mass.

13.

Burning of Luther's Writings.—On May 12, 1521, Thomas Wolsey, who, together with the office of Chancellor of England, combined those of cardinal and legate of Rome, went in solemn procession to St. Paul's. This man, whose pride



Sir Philip Sydney.

had attained the highest pitch, thought himself the equal of kings. He used to sit in a chair of gold, sleep in a golden bed, and a cover of cloth of gold was spread on a table at his meals. On this occasion he displayed great magnificence. His household, consisting of eight hundred persons, among whom were barons, knights, and sons of the most distinguished families, who hoped by serving him to obtain public office, surrounded this haughty prelate. Silk and gold glittered not only on his garments—he was the first ecclesiastic who ventured to dress so sumptuously—but even on the housings and harness of the horses. Before him walked a tall priest bearing a silver column terminated by a cross; behind him, another ecclesiastic of similar height carried the archiepiscopal crozier of York; a nobleman at his side held the cardinal's hat. Lords, prelates, ambassadors from the Pope and emperor, accompanied him, followed by a long line of mules bearing chests covered with the richest and most brilliant hangings. It was this magnificent procession that was carrying to the burning pile the writings of the poor monk of Wittenberg. When they reached the cathedral, the insolent priest placed his cardinal's hat on the altar. The virtuous bishop of Rochester stationed himself at the foot of the cross, and with agitated voice preached earnestly against the heresy. After this the impious books of the heresiarch were brought together and devoutly burned in the presence of an immense crowd. Such was the first intelligence that England received of the Reformation.—*D'Aubigne.*

Henry Would not Stop Here.—This prince, whose hand was ever upraised against his adversaries, his wives, or his favorites, wrote to the elector-palatine: "It is the devil, who, by Luther's means, has kindled this immense conflagration. If Luther will not be converted, let him and his writings be burned together." This was not enough. Having been convinced that the progress of heresy was owing to the extreme ignorance of the German princes, Henry thought the moment had arrived for showing his learning. The victories of his battle-axe did not permit him to doubt of those that were reserved for his pen. But another passion, vanity, ever greatest in the smallest minds, spurred the king onward. He was humiliated at having no title to oppose to that of "Catholic," and "Most Christian," borne by the kings of Spain and France, and he had long been begging a similar distinction from the court of Rome. What would be more likely to procure it than an attack upon heresy? Henry therefore threw aside the kingly purple, and descended from his throne into the arena of theological discussion. He enlisted Thomas Aquinas, Peter Lombard, Alexander Hales, and Bonaventure into his service; and the world beheld the publication of the Defence of the Seven Sacraments against Martin Luther, by the most invincible King of England and France, Lord of Ireland, Henry the Eighth of that name.—*D'Aubigne.*

Wolsey (See Glossary).

More, Ridley (See Glossary).

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14. EDWARD VI.—1547-1553.

Edward VI., under the influence of the Seymours, established the doctrines of Protestantism, and somewhat altered the forms of church service. Edward became king at the age of nine years, and he died when sixteen.



Edward VI. of England.

"*The Reformation*, which began in Henry's time by the severance from Rome, now proceeded apace. Archbishop Cranmer, seconded by Bishops Ridley and Latimer, was foremost in shaping the changes in ceremony and doctrine that gave the English church a Protestant form. The Latin mass was abolished. The pictures and statues in churches were destroyed. The inimitable Book of Common Prayer was compiled, and the faith of the English Protestants summed up in the Forty-two (now Thirty-nine) Articles of Religion.

"The Duke of Northumberland, having brought Somerset to the scaffold, for a time ruled England. He persuaded Edward to set aside his half-sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, and leave the crown to his cousin, Lady Jane Grey, wife of Lord Dudley—Northumberland's son. Soon after, the gentle and studious Edward died."—*Steele.*

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14. EDWARD VI.—1547-1553.

Scene Following the Death of Henry VIII.—On Friday, January 28th, 1547, Edward, the son of king Henry VIII., is sojourning at Hertford Castle. His father lies dead in the palace at Whitehall. Between one and two o'clock of the morning of Saturday, the 29th, the earl of Hertford, his uncle, is also at Hertford Castle. Not twenty-four hours have elapsed since he was at the side of the dying king. He has left a confidential friend behind him, Sir William Paget, one of the secretaries of state; and in answer to a dispatch which has been forwarded to him, the earl writes, before day-break of that January morning, with regard to the late king's will, "that it might be well considered how much thereof was necessary to be published;" adding, "for divers respects I think it not convenient to satisfy the world." The will was in safe custody. Hertford had locked it up; but he confides in Paget, and says in this letter, "I have sent you the key of the will." As the day advances, Prince Edward and his uncle, with sir Anthony Brown, ride to Enfield. There, in the Manor House, dwells the lady Elizabeth. The son of Henry by Jane Seymour is a few months above nine years of age. Henry's daughter by Anne Boleyn has seen thirteen years and four months. This boy and girl are attached to each other. Their elder sister, Mary, who is now in her thirty-second year, has few sentiments in common with these young people. She clings to the principles and institutions which, since their births, have been rapidly perishing. They have been taught to believe that the few opinions to which she has been compelled to assent will go forward into a more complete and permanent revolution. Edward and Elizabeth are brought together at Enfield, before their father's death is declared to them. "Never," says Hayward, the historian of Edward VI., "was sorrow more sweetly set forth." —*Knight.*

The Late King, by the regulations which he imposed on the government of his infant son, as well as by the limitations of the succession, had projected to reign even after his decease; and he imagined that his ministers, who had always been so obsequious to him during his lifetime, would never afterwards depart from the plan which he had traced out to them. He fixed the majority of the prince at the completion of his eighteenth year; and as Edward was then only a few months past nine, he appointed sixteen executors; to whom, during the minority, he intrusted the government of the king and kingdom. . . . . But the first act of the executors and counsellors was to depart from the destination of the late king in a material article. No sooner were they met, than it was suggested that the government would lose its dignity for want of some head who might represent the royal majesty, who might receive addresses from foreign ambassadors, to whom despatches from English ministers abroad might be carried, and whose name might be employed in all orders and proclamations; and as the king's will seemed to labor under a defect in this particular, it was deemed necessary to supply it by choosing a protector; who, though he should possess all the exterior symbols of royal dignity, should yet be bound, in every act of power, to follow the opinion of the executors.—*Hume.*

Cranmer, Thomas (1489-1556), Archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of Thomas Cranmer and Anne Hatfield. At the age of fourteen he was

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sent to Cambridge where he entered Jesus College. The death of his wife caused him to change his intentions and qualify himself for holy orders. The king (Henry VIII.) happened at the time to be residing in the immediate neighborhood, and two of his chief counsellors, Gardyner, secretary of state, afterwards bishop of Winchester, and Foxe, the lord high almoner, afterward bishop of Hereford, were lodged at Cressy's house. Meeting with Cranmer, they were naturally led to discuss what was the absorbing question of the day, the king's meditated divorce from Catharine of Aragon. The opinion of the future archbishop was given with the modesty that befitted an unknown



Anne Boleyn.

man. He professed not to have studied the cause as the others had done; but it seemed to him that if the canonists and the universities should decide that marriage with a deceased brother's widow was illegal, and if it were proved that Catharine had been married to Prince Arthur, her marriage to Henry could be declared null and void by the ordinary ecclesiastical courts. The necessity of an appeal to Rome was thus dispensed with, and this point was at once seen by the king, who, when Cranmer's opinion was reported to him, ordered him to be summoned in these terms: "I will speak to him. Let him be sent for out of hand. This man, I trow, has got the right sow by the ear." At their first interview Cranmer was commanded by the king to lay aside all other pursuits and to devote himself to the question of the divorce. He was to draw up a written treatise, stating the course he proposed, and defending it by arguments from Scripture, the fathers, and the decrees of general councils. There is reason to believe that he entered upon the task somewhat reluctantly, but in the reign of Henry VIII. it was emphatically true that the king's will was law, and no refusal was possible. His material interests certainly did not suffer by compliance. He was commended to the hospitality of Anne Boleyn's father, the earl of Wiltshire, in whose house at Durham Place he resided for some time; the king appointed him archdeacon of Taunton and one of his chaplains; and he also held a parochial benifice, the name of which is unknown. When the treatise was finished Cranmer was called upon to defend its argument before the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which he visited, accompanied by Fox and Gardyner. Immediately afterwards he was sent to plead the cause before a more powerful if not a higher tribunal. An embassy, with the earl of Wiltshire at its head, was despatched to Rome in 1530, that "the matter of the divorce should be disputed and ventilated," and Cranmer was an important member of it. He was received by the pope with marked courtesy, and was appointed "Grand Penitentiary of England"; but his argument, if he ever had the opportunity of stating it, did not lead to any practical decision of the question. Returning home through France and Germany, he had interviews in the latter country with the elector of Saxony and other Protestant princes.—*Smith.*

Cranmer.—The protector, in his schemes for advancing the Reformation, had always recourse to the counsels of Cranmer, who, being a man of moderation and prudence, was averse to all violent changes, and determined to bring over the the people, by insensible innovations, to that system of doctrine and discipline which he deemed the most pure and perfect. He probably also foresaw, that a system which carefully avoided the extremes of reformation, was likely to be most lasting; and that a devotion, merely spiritual, was fitted only for the first fervors of a new sect, and upon the relaxation of these naturally gave place to the inroads of superstition. He seems therefore to have intended the establishment of a hierarchy, which, being suited to a great and settled government, might stand as a perpetual barrier against Rome, and might retain the reverence of the people, even after their enthusiastic zeal was diminished, or entirely evaporated.—*Hume.*

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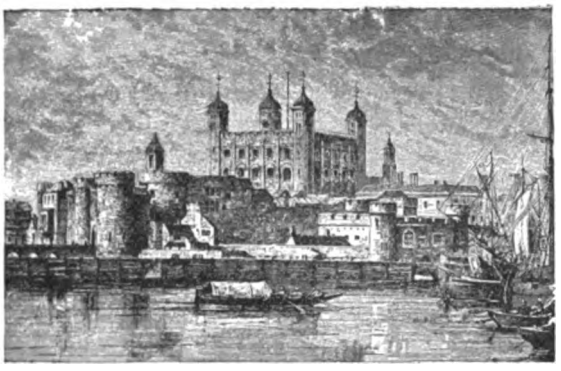
15. MARY—1553-1558.



Tower of London.

Queen Mary was the daughter of Catharine, first wife of Henry VIII. Her mother being Spanish, she felt more inclined to accept her second cousin, Philip of Spain, as a husband than any one of the other aspirants for the honor. They were married in 1554. Mary was thirty-eight years old and Philip twenty-seven. Later Philip assumed for himself the championship of the Catholic church and undertook to rouse all Europe to overthrow the Protestants. Mary re-established public worship according to the Catholic forms and abolished the prayer-book introduced by Edward VI.

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15. MARY—1553-1558.

Lady Jane Grey Proclaimed Queen.—Edward died on the evening of Thursday, the 6th. It had been intended to keep the event strictly secret, till the persons of the princesses Mary and Elizabeth had been secured. Nevertheless, the Council could not shut themselves up within the palace of Greenwich, without some indirect demonstration of the real circumstances. . . . The Council on the 8th had sent for the lord mayor and six aldermen, and other citizens of London, and had read to them the letters-patent, and sworn them to abide by the same. Having answered the letter of Mary, declaring that Jane was invested with the true title to the crown, and recommending to the princess to be "quiet and obedient," the Council caused Queen Jane to be crowned on the 10th. —*Knight.*

To Fetch Her up to London.—On July 12th the Council, who surrounded Lady Jane in the tower, received intelligence that Mary had been joined at Kenninghall by the Earl of Bath, and other leading men; and that the Earl of Sussex and his son were marching to her aid. It was determined upon the first receipt of this intelligence, that the duke of Suffolk should set forward, "to fetch her up to London." The forebodings of the Lady Jane led to another determination. She, "taking the matter heavily, with weeping tears made request to the whole Council that her father might tarry at home in her company; whereupon the Council persuaded with the Duke of Northumberland to take that voyage upon him."—*Knight.*

Northumberland's Change of Front.—The termination of the march of Northumberland to the eastern counties is a pitiable exhibition of the unhonored fall of inordinate ambition. He had retreated to Cambridge with his small army. Letters of discomfit had reached him. On the 19th, at night, he heard that Queen Mary had been proclaimed at London. "The next morning he called for a herald and proclaimed her himself."—*Knight.*

Queen Mary Arrived Triumphantly in London, at the head of a great band of friends, on August 3d. Her sister Elizabeth had joined her on her progress, having most wisely determined, from the first, to make common cause against those who sought to set aside their inheritance under the Act of Succession. The queen went to the tower, where the aged Duke of Norfolk, the Bishop of Winchester, and the Dowager-Duchess of Somerset welcomed her to the place of their captivity. Mary raised them from their knees, with the words, "These are all my own prisoners;" and they were immediately set free. The prison had soon many new tenants.—*Knight.*

Mary was a Stern Romanist.—The changes made in her brother's reign were entirely repugnant to her wishes, and the treatment she had received in consequence of her inflexible attachment to Popery had soured her temper, and converted dislike into exasperation. Persecution under any form is as impolitic as it is unchristian.—*Hausser.*

Mary Returns the Following in Writing:—Touching the punishment of heretics, we thinketh it ought to be done without rashness, not leaving in the meantime to do justice to such as, by learning, would seem to deceive the simple; and the rest so to be used, that the people might well perceive them not to be condemned without just occasion; by which they shall both understand the truth, and beware not to do the like. And especially within London I would wish none to be burned without some of the Council's presence, and both there and everywhere good sermons at the same time.—*Lingard.*

Execution of Lady Jane Grey.—On Sunday, the 11th, Gardiner preached before the queen; and "he asked a boon of the queen's highness," that, like as she had beforetime extended her mercy, particularly and privately, through which lenity and gentleness conspiracy and open rebellion had grown," she would now be merciful to the body of the commonwealth, and conservation thereof, which could not be unless the rotten and hurtful members thereof were cut off and consumed." From this exhortation, adds the chronicler, "all the audience did gather there should follow sharp and cruel execution." The audience were not deceived in their belief. On Monday, the 12th, Lord Guilford Dudley, the young husband of Lady Jane Grey was led out of his prison walls to die on Tower-hill at 10 o'clock. Out of the window of "Partridge's house" did Jane, whose own hour of final release was fast approaching, see him walk to the scaffold; and, long before the bell had again

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sounded the hour, she saw his body taken out of a cart, with his head in a cloth. On the green against the White Tower had a scaffold been erected, on which Lady Jane was to die. This tragedy was to have been completed on the Friday previous, but was then postponed for some unknown cause. When Gardiner begged his boon of the queen, some desire to spare two persons so young and so innocent—one, so fair, so accomplished—might have lingered in her breast. . . . . She was not likely to be pardoned who could boldly say to the priest sent to examine her, four days before her death, "I ground my faith upon God's Word, and not upon the Church. For if the Church be a good Church the faith of the



Philip II. of Spain.

Church must be tried by God's Word, and not God's Word by the Church." And so she went forth to die, at 11 o'clock on that "black Monday," as Strype calls the day, "countenance nothing abashed, neither her eyes anything moistened with tears" And in her hand she held a book, whereon she prayed all the way till she came to the scaffold. That book she gave to Master Brydges, the lieutenant's brother. In the British Museum is a Manual of Prayers, in English, which contains three remarkable notes; one, addressed by Guilford Dudley to his father, the Duke of Suffolk; the second, a note, signed, "Jane Dudley," also addressed to the duke; the third, a note from Jane to Sir John Brydges, the lieutenant of the tower, to whom it is supposed the book belonged. The note to the duke from Jane Dudley was probably written on the last morning of her life, perhaps in the very hour when she saw her Guilford's head taken out of the cart. It is worth extracting:—"The Lord comfort your grace, and that in His Word, wherein all creatures only are to be comforted. And though it has pleased God to take away two of your children, yet think not, I most humbly beseech your grace, that you have lost them, but trust that we, by leaving this mortal life, have won an immortal life. And I, for my part, as I have honored your grace in this life, will pray for you in another life." For three hundred years the simplest recital of the fate of this victim of ambition has stirred the sympathy of all true hearts; and we need not add a word to the sentences with which the ancient narrative of her execution terminates: "She tied the kercher about her eyes; then, feeling for the block, said, 'What shall I do? Where is it?' One of the standers-by guiding her thereto, she laid her head down upon the block, and stretched forth her body, and said, 'Lord, into thy hands I commend my spirit.' And so she ended."—*Knight.*

Two Hundred and Eighty-eight Persons glorified God in the fires of martyrdom in less than three years. The list of the sufferers includes bishops, doctors, and clergymen; gentlemen, mechanics, and laborers; men and women.—*Hausser.*

Elizabeth Enters London as a Prisoner.—A hundred gentlemen in velvet coats formed a sort of guard of honor for Elizabeth on this occasion next her person, and they were followed by a hundred more "in coats of fine red cloth, guarded with black velvet;" this was probably the royal livery. The road on both sides the way, from Highgate to London, was thronged with gazing crowds, some of whom wept and bewailed her. It must indeed have been a pageant of almost tragic interest, considering the excited state of the public mind; for Suffolk had been executed that morning, and it was only eleven days since the young, lovely, and interesting Lady Jane Grey had been brought to the block. Many persons in that crowd remembered the execution of Elizabeth's mother, Queen Anne Boleyn, not quite seventeen years ago, and scarcely anticipated a better fate for her, whom they now saw conducted through their streets a guarded captive, having arrayed herself in white robes, emblematic of innocence. Her youth, her pallid cheek and searching glance, appealed to them for sympathy and it might be for succor; but neither arm nor voice was raised in her defence in all that multitude; and this accounts for the haughty and scornful expression which Renaud observed in her countenance as she gazed upon them. Perhaps she thought, with sarcastic bitterness, of the familiar proverb, "A little help is worth a deal of pity."—*Strickland.*

Mary (1516-1558), commonly called Bloody Queen Mary, on account of her cruel persecutions of the Protestants, and daughter of Henry VIII. She caused the execution of Cranmer, Latimer, Wyatt, Lady Jane Grey, and others. She married Philip II. of Spain. It is estimated that between 1555 and 1558 two hundred and eighty victims died at the stake. Queen Mary reigned, fortunately, but five years, and the persecutions she encouraged and indorsed proved the seed of a higher morality and a loftier religious life. . . . The triumphs of Gardiner and Bonner were too short. Mary died with a bruised heart and a crushed ambition. On her death, and the accession of her sister Elizabeth, exiles returned from Geneva and Frankfort to advocate more radical changes in government and doctrine. Popular enthusiasm was kindled, never afterwards to be repressed. The great ideas of the Reformation began now to agitate the mind of England—not so much the logical doctrines of Calvin as the emancipating ideas of Luther.—*Lord.*

Darnley, Henry Staunton (Lord) (1545-1567), a a Scottish noble, and the nephew of James V. He married Queen Mary.

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16. COUNTER-REFORMATION.

Before taking up the latter half of the century something should be said about a reformation within the Catholic church. It has been common to speak only of the Protestant Reformation; but the Roman Catholic church did not remain the same as it had been during the Middle Ages. A council, called first at Trent in 1545, came to certain decisions which greatly reformed the existing practices, and which form the basis of the present Catholic church. This reformation within the church was so thorough as to almost compensate for the losses in Germany, England, etc.



Mary Queen of Scots.

"In the second half of the century of the Reformation, which conquered with youthful freshness the greater part of civilized Europe, there appeared gradually a counter-reformation. Every stroke caused a counter-stroke. It was natural that Catholicism, in its diminished territories, should exert all its power to regain lost territory. If, as in Spain and France, at times, also in England, the crown lent assistance to its efforts, the victory was almost certain to the old church." The efforts referred to are the establishment of the Jesuit order and the decrees of the Council of Trent.

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16. COUNTER-REFORMATION.

Mary's Aim.—Up to this point the temper of England went fairly with that of the queen. But there were from the first signs of a radical difference between the aim of Mary and that of her people. With the restoration of her father's system the nation as a whole was satisfied. Mary on the other hand looked on such a restoration simply as a step towards a complete revival of the system which Henry had done away. Through long years of suffering and peril her fanaticism had been patiently brooding over the hope of restoring to England its older religion. She believed, as she said at a later time to the Parliament, that "she had been predestined and preserved by God to the succession of the Crown for no other end save that He might make use of her above all else in the bringing back of the realm to the Catholic faith."—*Green.*

Counter-Reformation.—Religious beliefs and principles, especially in northern and central Europe, had undergone a remarkable transformation; but, beneath the outward and visible changes already described, a counter revolution had begun, which not only arrested the progress of the Reformation, but apparently neutralized its results in Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Italy and Spain; in a word, in all the countries subject to either branch of the House of Hapsburg. In part this was due to the strong moral reaction felt almost equally within and without the Roman Church against the old-time venality and corruption of the clergy. A number of virtuous prelates, among whom the greatest and best was Charles Borromeo, Archbishop of Milan, restored the respectability of the church; and for more than three hundred years no Pope has desecrated his office by the flagrant iniquities of an Alexander VI., or the refined voluptuousness of a Leo X. The amendments desired by Wicliffe, Huss, and the later reformers being thus apparently accomplished, the need for separation from the ancient communion became less strongly felt. —*Thalheimer.*

Council of Trent.—While the Protestants were thus breaking up into numerous rival sects, the Catholics were removing the causes of dissension within the old Church by a thorough reform in its head and members, and by a clear and authoritative restatement of the doctrines of the Catholic faith. This was accomplished very largely by the labors of the celebrated Council of Trent (1545–1563). The correction of the abuses that had so much to do in causing the great schism, smoothed the way for the return to the ancient Church of thousands who had become alarmed at the dangers into which society seemed to drift when once it cast loose from anchorage in the safe harbor of tradition and authority.—*Myers.*

The Council of Trent, which was composed almost entirely of Spanish and Italian prelates, followed the instructions of the Pope and declared that the traditions of the Roman Church were of equal authority with the Bible. This made a reconciliation with the Protestants impossible, which was just what the Pope desired; his plan was to put them down by main force. In fact, if the spirit of the Protestant faith had not already entered into the lives of the mass of the people, the Reformation might have been lost through the hesitation of some princes and the treachery of another.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Loyola (See Glossary).

Xavier, (zāv'eer) Saint Francis (1506-1552). A celebrated Jesuit missionary called the "Apostle of the Indies." He was educated at Paris, where he formed a friendship for Loyola. He carried the gospel to the East Indies, Japan, and other places, and died on his way to China.

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17. LATTER HALF OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.—GERMANY.



Parting of Sir Thomas More from his Daughter.

Charles V., undoubtedly the most prominent political personage of the first half of the century, although but fifty-five years old, was worn out with high living, excessive activity and discouraged by defeat, in 1555. He determined to abdicate. He left Spain, America and the Netherlands to his son Phillip, and the Austrian possessions and the empire to his brother Ferdinand. The scene of his abdication was very dramatic and impressive. It took place in Brussels, and is worth a careful reading.

For the remainder of the century there was no settled policy or continuous reign in Germany. Ferdinand was emperor from 1556 to 1564. "His reign had no important effect on German history." His son, Maximilian II., was emperor from 1564 to 1576. He was so favorable to the Reformation that even Austria became largely Lutheran. The empire from 1576 to 1612 was under Rudolph II., son of Maximilian II. Rudolph's policy was that of the Jesuits—to destroy Protestantism. Thus, with authority first leaning one way and then another, there was neither peace nor progress for Germany.

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17. LATTER HALF OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.—GERMANY.

Charles V. Celebrates his Own Funeral.—Two years after his retirement, the ex-emperor felt his end approaching, and was seized with a fancy for celebrating his own funeral. Clothed as a monk, he joined in the mournful chants of the brotherhood around an empty coffin which was placed in the convent chapel. Within a month the solemn farce was turned into reality. On September 21, 1558, the great sovereign expired, worn out more by toils of state than by years. The reign of Charles V. comprised one of the most momentous periods in the world's history.—*Thalheimer.*

Charles V. Left Two Things—strongly fortified towns and money. After all that he had had to give to the English and the free companies, he had found means to amass seventeen millions. This treasure he had concealed at Vincennes (Melun?) within the thickness of a wall. But his son did not profit by it.—*Michelet.*

The Treaty of Augsburg.—This treaty was the last political event of Charles V.'s reign. One month later, to a day, he formally conferred on his son, Phillip II., at Brussels, the government of the Netherlands, and on January 15, 1556, resigned to him the crowns of Spain and Naples. He then sailed for Spain, where he retired to the monastery of St. Just and lived for two years longer as an Imperial monk. He was the first monarch of his time and he made Spain the leading nation of the world; his immense energy, his boundless ambition, and his cold calculating brain re-established his power again and again, when it seemed on the point of giving way; but he died at last without having accomplished the two chief aims of his life—the reunion of all Christendom under the Pope, and the union of Germany with the Spanish Empire. The German people, following the leaders who had arisen out of their own breast—Luther, Melancthon, Reuchlin and Zwingli—defeated the former of these aims: the princes, who had found in Charles V. much more of a despot than they had bargained for, defeated the latter.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Maximilian II., who had succeeded him in the empire and in Austria (1564-1576), was a noble and gentle prince, who was known to be so favorable to the Reformation that his open accession to it was expected at his father's death. This expectation was not fulfilled, but neither in the empire nor in Austria did he resist its progress. When the massacre of St. Bartholomew took place (August 24, 1572), by which the French court under Charles IX., Maximilian's son-in-law, attempted to annihilate the Huguenots at one blow, the emperor loudly expressed his horror: "Would to God," he cried, "that my daughter's husband had asked my advice. I should have advised him faithfully as a father, so that he would never have done this deed." He secured to his Austrian subjects their religious freedom, and they nearly all adopted the Augsburg Confession. Even Vienna was then almost entirely Lutheran. But he failed to do the same service to Germany at large. The ascendency of Philip II., the imminent danger from the Turks, the dissensions in Germany and among the Protestants themselves, and perhaps his own hope of succeeding to the splendid inheritance of the Spanish throne, since Philip's son, Don Carlos, was dead, and to the now vacant throne of Poland, were all obstacles in the way of such a policy.—*Lewis.*

Charles V. (See Side Lights.)

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18. THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.

The most striking and perhaps the most important events occurring on the continent in the latter half of the century were those which gave rise to the Dutch Republic. Protestantism had taken strong hold upon the northern part of the Netherlands, where now is the kingdom of Holland. Charles V. had issued strong decrees, called edicts, against those leaving the church. Philip denied that he wished to establish the Spanish Inquisition in the Netherlands, but under pretense of merely executing his father's edicts, he increased the number of bishops from four to twenty, and inaugurated a system of tyranny unparalled in modern times.



Cardinal Wolsey.

The Netherlands, comprising seventeen provinces, were inhabited by people who were possessed, by charter, of great liberties. Those people were exactly those who would not submit to tyranny, especially religious tyranny.

The most prominent characters among the Dutch were William of Orange and Counts Egmont and Horn. On the side of Philip and oppression were Cardinal Granville and three successive regents appointed by Philip—Margaret of Parma, Philip's half-sister; Alva, a Spanish general; Alexander, son of Margaret.

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18. THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.

William. — Hitherto, although nominally attached to the communion of the ancient church, his course of life and habits of mind had not led him to deal very earnestly with things beyond the world. The severe duties, the grave character of the cause to which his days were henceforth to be devoted, had already led him to a closer inspection of the essential attributes of Christianity. He was now enrolled for life as a soldier of the Reformation. The Reformation was henceforth his fatherland, the sphere of his duty, and his affection. The religious Reformers became his brethren, whether in France, Germany, the Netherlands, or England. Yet his mind had taken a higher flight than that of the most eminent Reformers. His goal was not a new doctrine, but religious liberty. In an age when to think was a crime, and when bigotry and a persecuting spirit characterized Romanists and Lutherans, Calvinists and Zwinglians, he had dared to announce freedom of conscience as the great object for which noble natures should strive. In an age when toleration was a vice, he had the manhood to cultivate it as a virtue. His parting advice to the Reformers of the Netherlands, when he left them for a season in the spring of 1567, was to sink all lesser differences in religious union. Those of the Augsburg Confession and those of the Calvinistic church, in their own opinion as incapable of commingling as oil and water, were in his judgment, capable of friendly amalgamation. He appealed eloquently to the good and influential of all parties to unite in one common cause against oppression.—*Motley.*

Spanish Inquisition. — The new opinions of Calvin and Luther, which had made great progress in the Netherlands, gave Philip much disquiet. He determined to create new bishops, to establish the Inquisition with its amplest powers, and, in order to inforce the most implicit submission to his authority, he resolved to abrogate all the ancient laws of the provinces, and give them a political system of his own devising. The report of these innovations created a dreadful alarm, and a meeting was held of the chief lords of the Netherlands, who deputed two of their number to lay their humble remonstrances before the king at Madrid. The effect which this produced was, that the duke of Alva was immediately sent into Flanders to suppress what was termed an unnatural rebellion; but there had been no rebellion if this measure had not occasioned one.—*Tytler.*

William Founds the Dutch Republic.—William found it quite impossible to retain any longer his hold on these, so he fell back on the seven northern provinces of Holland, Friesland, Gelderland, Groningen, Overyssel, Zeeland and Utrecht, which in 1579 concluded the union of Utrecht, declaring their absolute independence of Spain, and the establishment of the Dutch Republic, under William of Orange as Stadtholder. At first the authority of Philip was nominally maintained, but in 1581, his sovereignty was absolutely re-

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nounced, and the crown offered to Francis of Anjou. The influence of the Prince of Orange meanwhile was predominant, and Francis determined to crush his party. Seizing on several towns, he alienated the inhabitants from him, and especially in Antwerp, where a massacre took place called "The French Fury." In 1584 Anjou retired to France, and William became the nominal as he had long been the real head of the constitution. The same year, however, he was murdered by Balthazar Gerard, the seventh hired assassin who had attacked him, all by the instigation of his desperate enemy, Philip.—*Patton.*

Netherlands. — The country was as thickly studded with large towns as other countries were with villages. In the middle of the sixteenth century it was computed to contain above three hundred and fifty cities, and more than six thousand three hundred towns of smaller size. These towns were not the resort of monks and mendicants, as in other parts of the Continent, but they swarmed with a busy, laborious population. No man ate the bread of idleness in the Netherlands. At the period with which we are occupied Ghent counted 70,000 inhabitants, Brussels 75,000, and Antwerp 100,000. This was at a period when London itself contained but 150,000.—*Prescott.*

The Inhabitants of the Netherlands, trained from early youth to battle with the waves, found their true element on the ocean. "As much as Nature," says an enthusiastic writer, "restricted their domain on the land, so much the more did they extend their empire on the deep." Their fleets were to be found on every sea. In the Euxine and in the Mediterranean they were rivals of the Venetian and the Genoese, and they contended with the English, and even with the Spaniards, for superiority on the "narrow seas" and the great ocean. The wealth which flowed into the country from this extended trade was soon shown in the crowded population of its provinces and the splendor of their capitals. At the head of these stood the city of Antwerp, which occupied the place in the sixteenth century that Bruges had occupied in the fifteenth, as the commercial metropolis of the Netherlands.—*Prescott.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **ENGLAND FROM 1500 TO 1558.**—Wolsey; His remarks on Luther, Burns Luther's writings, Wolsey's greatness, Condemned by Henry VIII., Wolsey's last Words.
14. **ENGLAND FROM 1500 TO 1558.**—Edward VI., Scene following the Death of Henry VIII, Thomas Cranmer.
15. **ENGLAND FROM 1500 TO 1558.**—Queen Mary, Lady Jane Grey, Northumberland, Mary's Religious Views, The Execution of Lady Jane Grey, Elizabeth a prisoner.
16. **COUNTER REFORMATION.**—Mary's Aim, Origin of the Counter Reformation, Council of Trent, Loyola.
17. **LATTER HALF OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.**—Germany, Charles V, Treaty of Augsburg, Resignation of Charles V., Maximilian II.
18. **THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.**—Spanish Inquisition, William Founds the Dutch Republic, The Country of the Netherlands, The Inhabitants.



John Foxe

QUESTIONS.

13. *Who was the favorite minister of Henry VIII.? What gave rise to the differences between Henry VIII. and the Pope? How did Wolsey receive the writings of Luther? What can you say of the greatness of Wolsey? What caused his downfall? How was he treated by Henry VIII.? Give the last words of Wolsey?*

14. *Who was Edward VI.? What reforms were now adopted? Describe the scene following the death of Henry VIII.? What provision had Henry made for his people after his death? Who was Thomas Cranmer? What were some of the reforms proposed by him? Who were his associates?*

15. *Who was first proclaimed queen on the death of Edward VI.? Who was Lady Jane Grey? Describe the action of Northumberland? What were the religious views of Queen Mary? What were her views concerning the punishment of heretics? About how many people were executed during her reign? Describe the execution of Lady Jane Grey? How was Elizabeth treated?*

16. *What was the general tendency of the reign of Mary? What gave rise to the Counter Reformation? What was the purpose of the Council of Trent? Give the origin, purpose and plan of the Jesuit society? Give a sketch of the life of Loyola?*

17. *Give a brief sketch of Charles V.? Give an account of his celebration of his own funeral? What was the origin, purpose and result of the Treaty of Augsburg? Give the account of the resignation of Charles V.? What was the general condition of the kingdom at the close of his reign? Who was Maximilian II.? What can you say of him as a monarch?*

18. *What is meant by the Spanish Inquisition? Give its origin, scope and aim? Give a sketch of the life of William of Orange? What is meant by the Dutch Republic? How is it constituted? What can you say of the country of the Netherlands? The inhabitants?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Carefully prepare a summary of the leading events connected with the differences between Henry VIII. and the Pope.*
2. *Name the leading events in the life of Wolsey? What motives seem to have most influenced him? Do you consider him a "great man"? Give your reasons for your conclusions.*
3. *Who were the leading reformers under Edward VI.? Name what you consider the important actions of their lives.*
4. *What, in your opinion, was the cause of the origin of the Society of the Jesuits? What causes aided the Jesuits in producing the Counter Reformation?*
5. *What was the origin of the Dutch Republic?*

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HENRY VIII.

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MAP OF
EUROPE
DURING THE REFORMATION
ABOUT 1550 A.D.
By I.S.Clare
SCALE OF MILES
0 25 50 100 200 300 400
ICELAND
(To Denmark)
REIKIAVIK
Mt. Hecla
FAROE ISLES
(To Denmark)
SHETLAND ISLES
ORKNEY ISLES
HEBRIDES ISLES
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BALTIC SEA
SKAGER RACK
CATTEGAT
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
KINGDOM OF NORWAY
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
KINGDOM OF IRELAND
(To England)
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
WALES
EDINBURGH
DUBLIN
LONDON
St.George's Chan.
Scilly Isles
English Channel
Channel Isles
(To England)
BAY OF BISCAY
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
PARIS
GERMANY
KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA
KINGDOM OF POLAND
BERLIN
VIENNA
PRAGUE
BRUSSELS
NETHERLANDS
WESTPHALIA
REPUBLIC OF SWITZERLAND
REPUBLIC OF VENICE
REPUBLIC OF GENOA
REPUBLIC OF LUCCA
DUCHY OF MODENA
GR. DY. OF FLORENCE
TUSCANY
PAPAL STATES
ROME
REP. OF SAN MARINO
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
(TO SPAIN)
SICILY
(To Spain)
CORSICA
SARDINIA
(To Spain)
Balearic Isles
(to Spain)
Minorca
Majorca
Iviza
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
MADRID
Barcelona
Valencia
Seville
Cordova
Granada
Carthagena
Malaga
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Strait of Gibraltar
Tangier
Ceuta
Fez
EMPIRE OF MOROCCO
ATLAS MOUNTAINS
ALGIERS
KINGDOM OF ALGIERS
(To Turkey, 1530-1830)
TUNIS
KINGDOM OF TUNIS
(To Turkey, 1574-1881)
Kairwan
Malta
(To Knights of St.John, 1522-1798)
TRIPOLI
(To Knights of St.John, 1522-1551)
(To Turkey since 1551)
Benghazi
Derna
BARBARY
Sahara
Desert
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
Corfu
Ragusa
Cattaro
Durazzo
Brindisi
Otranto
Naples
Taranto
Reggio
Messina
Catania
Syracuse
Palermo
Trapani
Marsala
Leghorn
Genoa
Milan
Turin
Venice
Trieste
Vienna
Prague
Berlin
Hamburg
Lubec
Rostock
Stockholm
Upsala
Aland Isles
Gothland
Oland
Calmar
Copenhagen
Elsinore
Helsingborg
Malmo
Gothenburg
Christiania
Drontheim
Bergen
Stavanger
Aberdeen
Dundee
Edinburgh
Dunbar
Berwick
Carlisle
Lancaster
Liverpool
Chester
Shrewsbury
Worcester
Gloucester
Bristol
Exeter
Plymouth
Portsmouth
Dover
Calais
Boulogne
Dieppe
Rouen
Caen
Cherbourg
Brest
Nantes
La Rochelle
Bordeaux
Bayonne
Toulouse
Montpellier
Marseilles
Nice
Avignon
Lyons
Dijon
Orleans
Tours
Rheims
Metz
Strasburg
Nancy
Verdun
Amiens
Calais
Ostend
Antwerp
Ghent
Bruges
Brussels
Liege
Namur
Cologne
Coblentz
Mayence
Frankfort
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Augsburg
Munich
Innspruck
Trent
Verona
Mantua
Parma
Modena
Bologna
Florence
Pisa
Leghorn
Siena
Perugia
Ancona
Rimini
Ravenna
Ferrara
Padua
Verona
Milan
Turin
Coni
Nice
Avignon
Montpellier
Narbonne
Toulouse
Carcassone
Perpignan
Barcelona
Valencia
Alicante
Carthagena
Malaga
Seville
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Lisbon
Oporto
Braganza
Coimbra
Aveiro
Santiago
Leon
Valladolid
Burgos
Oviedo
Saragossa
Salamanca
Pamplona
Bilboa
Toledo
Guadalquivir River
Guadiana River
Ebro River
Douro River
Tagus River
Pyrenees Mts.
Alps Mts.
Apennines Mts.
Rhone River
Loire River
Seine River
Rhine River
Elbe River
Oder River
Vistula River
Danube River
Po River
Tiber River
Arno River
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Lyons
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Taranto
Gulf of Lepanto
Archipelago
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Sea of Azof
Crimea
Kaffa
Trebizond
Constantinople
Adrianople
Gallipoli
Dardanelles
Sea of Marmora
Smyrna
Rhodes
Cyprus
Candia
Alexandria
Cairo
Nile River
Red Sea
Mecca
Arabia
Persia
Tabriz
Ispahan
Shiraz
Ormuz
Bagdad
Mesopotamia
Euphrates River
Tigris River
Babylon
Palestine
Jerusalem
Damascus
Aleppo
Tripoli
Beirut
Sidon
Tyre
Acre
Jaffa
Gaza
Suez
Isthmus of Suez
Abyssinia
Nubia
Upper Egypt
Lower Egypt
Fayum
Memphis
Thebes
Sahara
Desert
Benghazi
Derna
Barbary
Kairwan
Tunis
Algiers
Bona
Constantine
Oran
Tlemsen
Fez
Empire of Morocco
Atlas Mountains
Tangier
Ceuta
Strait of Gibraltar
Gibraltar
Cadiz
Seville
Cordova
Granada
Carthagena
Malaga
Valencia
Barcelona
Majorca
Minorca
Iviza
Balearic Isles
Corsica
Sardinia
Elba
Rome
Naples
Sicily
Malta
Tripoli
Algiers
Tunis
Kairwan
Fez
Tangier
Ceuta
Gibraltar
Strait of



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LANDING OF HENRY VIII. AT CALAIS.

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19.

The most cruel orders were issued by Philip against the Netherlanders. Some of his actions, indeed, seem to be explainable only on the supposition of his insanity. It certainly partakes of insanity to express such a wish as he is said to have made—that all the Netherlanders had but a single neck, so that he could wring it with one twist.

The proceedings of the Blood-Council were nothing short of barbarous.

Two of the most famous sieges of all the world's history occurred during these wars in the Netherlands—the siege of Haarlem and the siege of Leyden.

Haarlem surrendered finally to the Spaniards, and the inhabitants were butchered and drowned. Leyden held out over four months and was relieved by cutting the dikes. The University of Leyden was founded to commemorate the deliverance.

19.

The Blood-Council.—This wonderful tribunal was accordingly created with the least possible delay. It was called the Council of Troubles, but it soon acquired the terrible name, by which it will be forever known in history, of the Blood-Council. It superseded all other institutions. Every court, from those of the municipal magistracies up to the supreme councils of the provinces, were forbidden to take cognizance in the future of any cause growing out of the late troubles. The council of state, although it was not formally disbanded, fell into complete disuetude, its members being occasionally summoned into Alva's private chambers in an irregular manner, while its principal functions were usurped by the Blood-Council. Not only citizens of every province, but the municipal bodies and even the sovereign provincial estates themselves, were compelled to plead, like humble individuals, before this new and extraordinary tribunal.—*Motley.*



Ignatius Loyola.

Its Provisions.—It is unnecessary to allude to the absolute violation which was thus committed of all charters, laws and privileges, because the very creation of the council was a bold and brutal proclamation that those laws and privileges were at an end. The constitution or material principle of this suddenly erected court was of a twofold nature. It defined and it punished the crime of treason. The definitions, couched in eighteen articles, declared it to be treason to have delivered or signed any petition against the new bishops, the Inquisition, or the Edicts; to have tolerated preaching under any circumstances; to have omitted resistance to the image-breaking, to the field-preaching, or to the presentation of the Request by the nobles, and "either through sympathy or surprise" to have asserted that the king did not possess the right to deprive all the provinces of their liberties, or to have maintained that this present tribunal was bound to respect in any manner any laws or any charters. In these brief and simple, but comprehensive terms, was the crime of high treason defined. The punishment was still more briefly, simply and comprehensively stated, for it was instant death in all cases. So well, too, did this new and terrible engine perform its work, that in less than three months from the time of its erection, eighteen hundred human beings had suffered death by its summary proceedings; some of the highest, the noblest, and the most virtuous in the land among the number; nor had it then manifested the slightest indication of faltering in its dread career.—*Motley.*

In the Time of Philip II., of Spain, the successor of Charles V., the balance of power in Europe was maintained by four great monarchies. Spain sustained its part by the talents of its monarch and his vast resources in point of wealth, derived from the treasures of the new world; France, by its internal strength and situation; Germany, by the power and abilities of many of its princes, who, though jealous of each other, were united for the defense of their country; and England, by the great political genius and wisdom of Queen Elizabeth and her ministers. Of these, perhaps, Philip of Spain acted the principal character, though not the most amiable or respectable. He was, in his temper, selfish, gloomy, overbearing, and tyrannical. Yet he possessed great political activity, indefatigable assiduity in the management of public affairs, and a consummate ability in securing his own kingdom from danger by fomenting divisions among all his neighbors. He was at this time sovereign of Spain, of the Milanese, of the two Sicilies, and of all the Netherlands; and his father, Charles V., had left him an army of the best disciplined troops in Europe. He had, likewise, in the beginning of his reign, the whole force of England under his command, from his marriage with Queen Mary.—*Tytler.*

The Dutch Republic at the Close of the Sixteenth Century.—The Dutch Republic was already the chief maritime nation in Europe. Its prosperity had indeed been augmented by immigration from the still oppressed provinces to the southward; so that new towns had to be built or new streets added to the old ones, to accommodate the manufacturers and merchants from Brabant and Flanders. As their commercial marine increased, the Dutch planted trading stations in the remotest parts of the world—along the Asiatic coasts from Bassora in the Persian Gulf to Japan, and especially upon the island of Java, where Batavia became the metropolis of their eastern possessions.—*Thalheimer.*

The Edict of Charles V. (See Side Lights.)

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20. FRANCE.—[FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY II. (1547) TO EDICT OF NANTES (1598)].

Francis I. was succeeded by his son, Henry II., in 1547, eight years before the abdication of Charles V. Thus in Charles' later wars he was defeated by the son of his earlier rival. Philip II. and Henry II. continued the conflicts begun by their fathers until the treaty of Cateau-Cambresis in 1559.

The period of the reigns of Francis I. and Henry II. is of marked importance for several reasons. Only one great and four or five smaller feudal families remained in France. "With Francis I. begins the *ancien regime;* that is to say, a government in which the subjects had no guarantee against even the most iniquitous oppression, and the prince no obstacle to his will."—(Duruy.)

In this period began the system which soon led to the omnipotence of ministers. Francis I. combined his private treasury with the public one, thus enabling himself and later kings to draw on the nation for personal expenses. He borrowed for the first time for the nation, thus originating the French public debt. He established the first lottery in France. Under Henry II. the first *specific and ad valorum* duties were levied, thus beginning the protective system.

The Renaissance period of art and architecture is abundantly illustrated in the sculpture, painting and buildings of the times.

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20. FRANCE.—[FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY II. (1547) TO EDICT OF NANTES (1598)].

Francis reigned long enough to have been able to do much for France, and, following Louis XII., might have been another "father of his country," setting it in the way of true grandeur and prosperity. And something of this he seemed to see. He liked in the great movements of the age to take that middle course which commends itself to France; like France herself he wished to be Catholic and yet to be champion of the Reformed cause; he loved letters and art; he was a brilliant and chivalrous personage, who had the French qualities strongly marked in character and action. His people felt that he, in the main, represented them; they honored and loved him as a part of themselves. They accepted their position as a united nation—united, that is, under a master who offered them no constitutional rights or liberties; it was enough for them that their master was good-natured and kindly; his vices and weaknesses were little blamed, and much followed. History will record that he was mean and selfish, false and licentious, and that, if he knew what was the nobler path for himself and his country, he could not rise to the heroism of following it, when to do so demanded self-denial. History ought also to remember that he was pitted against the ablest statesmen of his age, and that he was called on, with insufficient knowledge and strength, to defend the liberties of Europe against an overwhelming power.—*Kitchin.*

Henry II.'s Burning Chamber.—The Reformed Church of France had organized itself at Paris during the month following the treaty of Cateau Cambresis. Its doctrines were derived from Calvin, whose rescripts, dated at Geneva, were received throughout Protestant France with as much reverence as those of the Pope himself commanded form the adherents of the ancient Church. His disciples were numerous among the more intelligent classes, and included even bishops, clergy and members of the monastic orders. The parliament of Paris had refused to register an edict for the establishment of the Inquisition in France; but proceedings in matters of faith were intrusted to two divisions or committees of the parliament itself, one of which was called the Burning Chamber, from the multitude of victims whom it had consigned to the flames. Its rigors were condemned by the parliament of 1559, but Henry II. personally interfered in the discussion, and ordered the arrest and imprisonment of seven members who advocated a more merciful policy.—*Thalheimer.*

Francis II.—Monarchy, in this instance, was represented by a sickly boy of sixteen, and a thoughtless beauty of about the same age, and yet never was a time when a strong hand and powerful will were more required to protect the royal authority. While Francis was carefully nursed and pampered in all his desires, and Mary was singing ballads and dancing at masquerades, strange thoughts had taken possession of the general mind. The profligacy and extravagance of the last reign had borne their natural fruits. There was anger and discontent all over the land; the towns complained of their privileges being destroyed, the country people of the exactions of the Crown commissioners; prices were raised everywhere by the monopolies bestowed on court favorites, or purchased by greedy speculators; and when the more inquiring spirits looked round, and saw that all these calamities were inflicted on them with the support and at the instigation of the champions of the Romish church and the persecutors of the new opinions, they came to the conclusion that their chances of future liberty were connected indissolubly with the cause of the Reformation. All the liberalism of France became Huguenot or anti-Papist. In the same way, when the leaders of Catholicism, who were also the holders of office, perceived that opposition to their measures, complaints against their rapacity, and demands for freer government, proceeded from the followers of Calvin and other teachers, they confounded seriousness in religion with discontent in the State, and looked on every Protestant as a rebel in disguise.—*White.*

Philip II., Renaissance (See Glossary).

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21.

From 1559 to the end of the century was a period of religious civil wars. Four kings reigned during this period. Three of these, Francis II., Charles IX. and Henry III., were sons of Henry II. and Catharine de Medici. The mother rather than the sons may almost be said to have been the ruler. During the influence of Catharine, Protestantism suffered more often than Catholicism. In 1589 came Henry IV., of a new family, who favored Protestants.



Hugh Latimer.

Francis II.'s wife was Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots. Her influence for a time was greater than that of Catharine, but Francis died after a reign of seventeen months and Mary returned to Scotland.

Charles IX. was largely influenced by his mother. These two, mother and son, hold a most unenviable reputation for their connection with the Massacre of St. Bartholomew.

The religious wars began with the Massacre of Vassy (1562), and reached a climax at the Massacre of St. Bartholomew (1572).

Henry III., the last of the Valois family of kings, was king from 1574-1589, but in no part of this time was he really master in France. Political factions quarreled and fought. The religious wars continued and a general state of anarchy and civil war existed continually.

The leaders of factions caused each other to be assassinated. In 1589 the king himself was assassinated by a young monk who fanatically believed Henry III. was about to become a Protestant.

21.

Growth of the Huguenots.—At the date of accession of the last Valois to the throne of France, more than fifty years had elapsed since the first appearance of that religious and patriotic party whose adherents, after bearing the names of Lutherans, Christaudins and Calvinists, had finally come to be commonly known as Huguenots. A movement begun in weakness had gained strength in face of formidable opposition. The short-lived favor of Francis the First was succeeded by persecution of the most cruel type. For nearly forty years the gallows, and the "estrapade" with its protracted torture, did their worst, but all in vain. During the short reign of Francis the Second the forces hitherto latent burst forth, and men discovered for the first time that the "new doctrines," as they were called, had enlisted under their banner not only the greater part of the intelligent classes of the population, but a considerable proportion of the nobility and gentry of the realm. It was not, however, until the beginning of the reign of Charles the Ninth that an opportunity was afforded to the Huguenots, at the Colloquy of Poissy, to set forth before the king and his assembled court the true nature of their doctrines and purposes. All France, at this time, was inflamed with the desire to know for itself the merits of the new Reformation. Whole provinces in the south seemed to have embraced Protestantism. The children of many districts "learned religion only in Calvin's catechism;" and vast congregations flocked to the Huguenot preaching. The ferment extended to central France. The very ecclesiastics of the established church were affected. Bishops left their mitres, priests gave up their cures, monks threw off the cowl.—*Baird.*

The New Learning.—During the greater part of the Middle Ages the chief object of education was to make men monks, and originally the schools established at Oxford and Cambridge were exclusively for that purpose. In their day they did excellent work; but a time came when men ceased to found monasteries, and began to erect colleges and hospitals instead. In the course of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries William of Wykeham and King Henry VI. built and endowed colleges which were specially designed to fit their pupils to live in the world and serve the state, instead of withdrawing from it to seek their own salvation. These new institutions encouraged a broader range of studies, and in Henry VI.'s time particular attention was given to the Latin classics, hitherto but little known. The geographical discoveries of Henry VII.'s reign, made by Columbus, Cabot, and others, began to stimulate scientific thought, and it was evident that the day was not far distant when questions about the earth and the stars would no longer be settled by a text from Scripture which forbade futher inquiry. With the accession of Henry VIII. education received a still further impulse. The king also took a lively interest in Erasmus, who was appointed professor of Greek at Cambridge, where he began his great work of preparing an edition of the Greek Testament with a Latin translation in parallel columns. Up to this time the Greek Testament had existed in scattered manuscripts only. The publication of the work in printed form gave an additional impetus to the study of the Scriptures, helped forward the Reformation, and in a measure laid the foundation for a revised English translation of the Bible far superior to Wycliff's. —*Montgomery.*

Columbus, Erasmus, Coligny, Henry III. (See Glossary).

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22. HENRY IV.—THE FIRST OF THE BOURBONS.



Gaspard de Coligny

In the wars between Catholics and Protestants the last leader of strength for the Protestants was Henry of Navarre, a very distant relative of the king and who was also the nearest heir to the throne. When Henry III. was killed, Henry of Navarre was accepted by part of the nation as king, and later he professed to accept the Catholic faith. This gained him the support of the Catholics and by 1595 he was actually as well as nominally king.

In 1598, Henry IV. issued the Edict of Nantes. The edict was the first formal recognition of the principle of toleration by any great national ruler. It guaranteed the rights of Protestants in a Catholic country. This was the last important act in France in the 16th century.

Henry lived and gave a good administration to France till he was assassinated in 1610.

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22. HENRY IV.—THE FIRST OF THE BOURBONS.

Henry IV.—His mother was Jane d'Albret, daughter of Henry d'Albret, king of Navarre. Attached to the party of the Calvinists, she had educated her son in the same principles, and from those talents which he very soon began to display, the party of the Huguenots in France looked up to him as the great support of their interest. In 1569, being at that time only sixteen years of age, he was declared, at Rochelle, chief of the Huguenot party; and the prince of Conde, his uncle, with the Admiral Coligni, were named to act under him as his lieutenants. They were unsuccessful at the battle of Jarnac, where Conde lost his life, and likewise in the succeeding engagement at Moncontour. In the following year, Charles IX. made peace with the Protestant party, in the diabolical view of accomplishing by treachery what he found himself unequal to achieve by his arms. To prove the sincerity of his reconciliation with the Huguenot chiefs, he invited young Henry of Navarre to Paris, and bestowed upon him his sister Margaret of Valois in marriage. The party thus lulled asleep, the barbarous monarch attempted, as we have seen, to extinguish them by a single blow, and in the horrible eve of St. Bartholomew about one hundred thousand fell by the sword. Henry of Navarre, saved from this massacre of his party by declaring himself a Catholic, remained after this event about three years a prisoner. After the death of Charles IX., having found means to escape to Alencon, in the year 1576, he put himself once more at the head of the Protestants.—*Tytler.*

Protestant Education (See Glossary).

The Edict of Nantes.—Since the king's conversion the Huguenots had had considerable reason to complain of being treated with injustice, ingratitude, and neglect. Appointments and rewards had been lavished on their opponents, while they themselves had not only declined greatly in political influence, but had repeatedly suffered by the partial and rigorous administration of the laws. The decree now promulgated established, with few restrictions, universal liberty and equality as to religious profession and worship. All towns were permanently secured to the Protestants, which they had obtained by the edict of 1577; they were admitted on equal terms to all public employments and dignities, military and civil; a separate Chamber to protect their interests, called the "Chambre de l'Edit," was instituted in the Parliament of Paris, together with similar courts in the provinces; a complete amnesty was accorded for the events of the whole course of the war. Lastly, the Reformers received license to hold a general representative assembly once in three years, to deliberate on their affairs, and present to the crown reports on their condition and petitions for the redress of grievances. The Edict of Nantes was bitterly denounced and resisted by the clergy and all zealous Catholics, but was ultimately registered by the Parliament of Paris on February 25th, 1599.—*Jervis.*

Death of Henry IV.—In the afternoon of May 14, 1610, he was driven in his coach in company with six noblemen to visit the Duke of Sully, who was then ill at his residence, the Arsenal. While the coach became entangled in the crowd, a Jesuit named Francois Ravaillac, jumped upon one of the hind wheels of the vehicle, reached over and stabbed the good king twice in the breast while he was reading a letter. The wounded monarch was driven back to the Louvre, where, surrounded by his weeping officers, he soon breathed his last.—*Clare.*

Margaret, Queen of Navarre (1492-1549), was a sister of Francis I. The mildness and toleration she displayed towards the Protestants and particularly her protection of Calvin, brought upon her the imputation of heresy from the Catholic party.

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23. ENGLAND—REIGN OF ELIZABETH, 1558-1603.

Almost the whole of the latter half of the 16th century was included in the reign of Elizabeth in England. She was queen from the age of twenty-five to seventy (1558–1603.) She could scarcely be said to have had a religious nature, yet she is regarded as the great champion of Protestantism. Her great idea seemed rather "national" than religious, yet with her intent to make England great and flourishing, she saw that national church unity must be her object.



Queen Elizabeth.

For many years of Elizabeth's reign disturbing and dangerous difficulties grew out of the claim of Mary, Queen of Scots, to the throne of England. Mary was Elizabeth's second cousin. Mary's grandmother was a sister of Elizabeth's father. Henry VIII. had named Elizabeth in his will next after Mary, daughter of his first wife Catharine, but if Elizabeth had been set aside for any cause Mary Stuart's claim would have been good.

Mary was beheaded in 1587.

The Age of Elizabeth was remarkable for great changes in national life. The great interest in navigation was aroused by the profitable voyages of English navigators to America and by successful piratical expeditions, mostly against Spain.

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23. ENGLAND—REIGN OF ELIZABETH, 1558-1603.

Elizabeth (See Glossary).

Religious Inclinations of Elizabeth.—Elizabeth, though resolute against submitting to the Papal supremacy, was not so averse to all the tenets abjured by Protestants, and loved also a more splendid worship than had prevailed in her brother's reign, while many of those returned from the continent were intent on copying a still simpler model. She reproved a divine who preached against the real Presence, and is even said to have used prayers to the Virgin. But her great struggles with the Reformers was about images, and particularly the crucifix, which she retained, with lighted tapers before it, in her chapel, though in the injunctions to the ecclesiastical visitors of 1559, they are directed to have them taken away from the churches.—*Hallam.*

Reign of Elizabeth.—Elizabeth had been compelled by her sister to yield outward conformity to Popish ceremonies. But her real sentiments were pretty well known. Her accession to the throne was the welcome signal for the return of the exiles, who hastened home to resume the work of evangelical instruction and assist in re-establishing that reform which Mary had endeavored to crush. The friends of truth in England came forth from their concealment, prepared to co-operate in the restoration of the good cause. Popish prelates and priests saw their hopes dashed to the ground; unless the terms of conformity should prove easier than they had reason to expect, they could only anticipate the necessity of vacating their posts, and the grief of beholding the triumph of what they called heresy and schism. Their worst fears were soon to be realized.—*Hausser.*

The Question of Monopolies.—It was in the parliament of 1601 that the opposition which had, during forty years, been silently gathering and husbanding strength, fought its first great battle and won its first victory. The ground was well chosen. The English sovereigns had always been intrusted with the supreme direction of commercial police. They therefore, as usual, encroached on the province which rightfully belonged to the legislature; the encroachment was, as usual, patiently borne, till it became serious. But at length the Queen took upon herself to grant patents of monopoly by scores. There was scarcely a family in the realm which did not feel itself aggrieved by the oppression and extortion which this abuse naturally caused. Iron, oil, vinegar, coal, saltpetre, lead, starch, yarn, skins, leather, glass, could be bought only at exorbitant prices. The House of Commons met in an angry and determined mood. It was in vain that a courtly minority blamed the Speaker for suffering the acts of the Queen's Highness to be called in question. The language of the discontented party was high and menacing, and was echoed by the voice of the whole nation. The coach of the chief minister of the crown was surrounded by an indignant populace, who cursed the monopolies, and exclaimed that the prerogative should not be suffered to touch the old liberties of England. There seemed for a moment to be some danger that the long and glorious reign of Elizabeth would have a shameful and disastrous end. She however, with admirable judgment and temper, declined the contest, put herself at the head of the reforming party, redressed the grievance, thanked the Commons, in touching and dignified language, for their tender care of the general weal, brought back to herself the hearts of the people, and left to her successors a memorable example of the way in which it behooves a ruler to deal with public movements which he has not the means of resisting —*Macaulay.*

Mary Queen of Scots, Cecil, Parker (See Glossary).

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24.

The seizure of Spanish ships and the execution of Mary Stuart led Philip II. to plan an invasion of England. Hence the *Invincible Armada*.

Elizabeth was besought by the Dutch to give them aid in their rebellion against Spain, but she dallied with them, giving them encouragement, but doing little. She acted in the same manner with all proposals of marriage.



Wreck of the Spanish Armada.

The reign of Elizabeth (remarkable for its relations with religion, colonization, literature, architecture, and for the growing strength of the House of Commons) had fully entered on the spirit of modern times. For the defeat of the Armada and some help given to Protestantism on the continent, England came to be regarded as the champion of the cause of the Reformation.

Elizabeth's reign ended just at the beginning of the 17th century (1603).

24.

Invincible Armada.—In May, 1588, the fleet of Philip, proudly called the Invincible Armada, sailed from Lisbon, and after a temporary dispersion in a storm, entered the English Channel. Her eyes once opened to the danger, the queen had made the most heroic exertions, and her spirit animated all her people. As soon as the appearance of the Armada was made known by a fishing-boat, which had been stationed to watch, Lord Howard, of Effingham, stood forth to meet it. No general engagement ensued, but seven days were spent in frequent skirmishes, in which the lighter English vessels had usually the advantage over the heavy and unmanageable Spaniards, while fire-ships drifted down with the tide into the midst of the Armada. The Duke of Parma, who had prepared a powerful fleet and army to co-operate, was blockaded in the Flemish harbors by the Dutch. Unable to retire to the southward, the Armada sailed through the German ocean, designing to compass Scotland and Ireland and return by the Atlantic; but a tempest wrecked it among the Orkneys, and when the shattered remnants of his fleet had all arrived in Spain, Philip could count less than half the gallant armament which he had sent forth.—*Thalheimer*.

The Renaissance had begun, and the two movements were incorporated—the religious one of Germany and the pagan one of Italy, both favoring liberality of mind, a freer style of literature, restless inquiries, enterprise, the revival of learning and art, an intense spirit of progress, and disgust for the Dark Ages and all the dogmas of scholasticism. With this spirit of progress and moderate Protestantism Elizabeth herself, the best educated woman in England, warmly sympathized, as did also the illustrious men she drew to her court, to whom she gave the great offices of state. I cannot call her age a religious one; it was a merry one, cheerful, inquiring, untrammeled in thought, bold in speculation, eloquent, honest, fervid, courageous, hostile to the Papacy and all the bigots of Europe. It was still rough, coarse, sensual; when money was scarce and industries in their infancy, and material civilization not very attractive. But it was a great age, glorious, intellectual, brilliant; with such statesmen as Burleigh and Walsingham to head off treason and conspiracy; when great poets arose, like Jonson and Spenser and Shakspeare; and philosophers, like Bacon and Sir Thomas Browne; and lawyers, like Nicholas Bacon and Coke; and elegant courtiers, like Sidney and Raleigh and Essex; men of wit, men of enterprises, who would explore distant seas and colonize new countries; yea, great preachers, like Jeremy Taylor and Hall; and great theologians, like Hooker and Chillingworth—giving polish and dignity to an uncouth language, and planting religious truth in the minds of men.—*Lord*.

The Impulse which the Reformation Gave to Popular Literature in Germany was immense. While in the year 1513 only thirty-five publications had appeared, and thirty-seven in 1517, the number of books increased with astonishing rapidity after the appearance of Luther's theses. In 1518 we find seventy-one different works; in 1519, one hundred and eleven; in 1520, two hundred and eight; in 1521, two hundred and eleven; in 1522, three hundred and forty-seven; and in 1523, four hundred and ninety-eight. . . . And where were all these published? For the most part at Wittenberg. And who were their authors? Generally Luther and his friends. In 1522, one hundred and thirty of the reformer's writings were published; and in the year following, one hundred and eighty-three. In this same year only twenty Roman Catholic publications appeared. The literature of Germany thus saw the light in the midst of struggles, and contemporaneously with her religion. Already it appeared learned, profound, full of daring and life, as later times have seen it. The national spirit showed itself for the first time

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without mixture, and at the very moment of its birth received the baptism of fire from Christian enthusiasm.—*D'Aubigne.*

Printing (See Glossary).

The Close of the Sixteenth Century.—At the end of the sixteenth century, France was the greatest, richest and most populous kingdom in Europe, and Paris was, with the exception of Moscow, the largest capital. Venice had, even then, more inhabitants than London; but both Venice and Milan had for four centuries been stationary, if not declining. Under Elizabeth, England rose as rapidly in the scale of European powers as Spain, during the same period, declined. The persecutions in the Netherlands added almost as much to the wealth of Elizabeth's dominions as they detracted from those of Philip II. Weavers and other artisans were encouraged to settle in her cities on condition of taking one English apprentice each; and thus fine manufactures became permanently implanted in the country. Commerce was opened by special treaties with Turkey, Russia, and through the latter country with India, Persia and Cathay or China. The Russia Company was incorporated by the act of Parliament in 1566, the Turkey or Levant Company in 1581, and the far more important East India Company on the last day of 1600.—*Thalheimer.*

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **THE RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC: PHILLIP II.**—Edict of Charles V., Philip Renews his Father's Edict, The Dutch Republic at the close of the Sixteenth Century.
20. **FRANCE FROM 1547 TO 1598: HENRY II.**—Conflict between Henry II. and Philip II., Henry II.'s Burning Chamber, The Reformation.
21. **FRANCE FROM 1547 TO 1598: FRANCIS II., CHARLES IV., HENRY III.**—Religious Wars, Massacre of St. Bartholomew.
22. **FRANCE FROM 1547 TO 1598: HENRY IV.**—Edict of Nantes, Condition of France at the close of the Sixteenth Century.
23. **ENGLAND: REIGN OF ELIZABETH, 1558-1603.**—Elizabeth, Religious Inclination of Elizabeth, Reign of Elizabeth, Question of Monopolies, Mary beheaded.
24. **ENGLAND: REIGN OF ELIZABETH, 1558-1603.**—Invincible Armada, The Impulse which the Reformation gave to Popular Literature, Protestant Versions of the Scriptures, The Close of the Sixteenth Century.

QUESTIONS.

19. *What four great monarchies sustained the balance of power in the time of Philip II.? What was the nature of the Edict of Charles V.? How was this edict regarded by Philip II.? What was the origin of the University of Leyden? What was the condition of the Dutch Republic at the close of the Sixteenth Century?*

20. *Why is the period of the reigns of Francis I. and Henry II. of marked importance? What national evils originated under the reign of Francis I.? Give an account of the "Burning Chamber" of Henry II.? What is said of the Renaissance period of art and architecture?*

21. *What is true of the wars of this period? Who was the real ruler? Give a short sketch of the reign of Francis II.? Charles IV.? Henry III.? What were the combined results of these reigns?*



William Farel.

22. *Who was Henry of Navarre? What were his religious views? What can you say of his early training? What was the origin, purpose and condition of the Edict of Nantes? Why is this edict regarded as one of the important events of the Sixteenth Century?*

23. *How long was Elizabeth queen of England? Give a sketch of her life? How was she related to Mary Queen of Scots? What can you say of her personal character? Religious inclinations? Her reign? Give an account of the "question of monopolies"?*

24. *Give an account of the Invincible Armada? In a general way how did the Reformation influence popular literature? Name some of the earlier Protestant versions of the Scriptures? What was the condition of the world at the close of the Sixteenth Century?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Name the leaders of the Reformation in Germany? France? Switzerland? England? What conditions, considering the Sixteenth Century, favored the Reformation in each? Counteracted the Reformation in each?*
2. *To what extent did the religious reformation influence the political reformation in Switzerland? Norway, Sweden and Denmark? The Dutch Republic? Germany? France? England? Spain?*
3. *To what extent did political conditions aid the religious reformation in each of the above nations?*
4. *To what extent did the Puritans influence the growth of the spirit of the Reformation in England?*
5. *The history, origin, conditions and influence of the Edict of Nantes.*
6. *The leading features of the reign of Elizabeth. The Age of Elizabeth as indicated by the remarkable changes in national life.*
7. *The history of navigation during the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries.*
8. *The history of the Spanish Armada.*
9. *Name the leading events which caused England to become the champion of the Reformation?*
10. *How did the reign of Elizabeth influence (1) religion; (2) colonization; (3) literature; (4) architecture; (5) the growing strength of the House of Commons?*
11. *To what extent is modern civilization indebted to the Reformation?*
12. *What ruler of the Sixteenth Century do you most admire? What statesman? What reformer? What commander? In each case state reasons for your answer.*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Adolphus, Gustavus, had not completed his seventeenth year, when the Swedish throne became vacant by the death of his father. But the early maturity of his genius enabled the Estates to abridge in his favor the legal period of minority. With a glorious conquest over himself he commenced a reign which was to have victory for its constant attendant, a career which was to begin and end in success. The young Countess of Brahe, the daughter of a subject, had gained his early affections, and he had resolved to share with her the Swedish throne. But, constrained by time and circumstances, he made his attachment yield to the higher duties of a king, and heroism again took exclusive possession of a heart which was not destined by nature to confine itself within the limits of quiet domestic happiness.—*Schiller.*

Gustavus Adolphus Provides for his Soldiers.—It is worthy of notice that Gustavus' preference for lightly armed troops may have been the result of personal experience, for after his wound in 1627, he found his breast-plate galling, and he went into the battle of Lützen in a hat and a riding coat. Englishmen will recall Sir Edmund Verney's letter the morning before Edgehill, in which he says that he shall only wear his pot and his "back," not his "breast." We have already seen Gustavus' care for the warm clothing of his troops when in Poland; the same was now applied to an even greater extent. It has been usual to say that he was the creator of uniforms, and to a certain extent this is true, but the names given to the brigades, the "yellow," and "blue" brigades, for instance, were not those of their uniforms, but of their standards, which were self-colored with various devices and mottoes embroidered on them, and uniforms did not at any rate become universal in the Swedish army until the days of Charles X. Gustavus was, however, undoubtedly the creator of field hospitals, and traveling medicine chests, and to his general care for his soldiers' comfort is to be attributed the fact that they suffered comparatively little from sickness.—*Fletcher.*

Augsburg, The Diet of, divided Germany into two religious and two political parties, by recognizing the independent rights and existence of both. Hitherto the Protestants had been looked on as rebels; they were henceforth to be regarded as brethren—not indeed through affection, but necessity. By the Interim, the Confession of Augsburg was allowed temporarily to take a sisterly place alongside of the older religion, though only as a tolerated neighbor. To every secular state was conceded the right of establishing the religion it acknowledged as supreme and exclusive within its own territories, and of forbidding the open profession of its rival. Subjects were to be free to quit a country where their own religion was not tolerated. The doctrines of Luther for the first time received a positive sanction; and if they were trampled under foot in Bavaria and Australia, they predominated in Saxony and Thuringia.—*Schiller.*

Augsburg Confession.--The second portion was devoted to an exposition of the abuses which had occasioned the movement for reform. These were divided under separate heads: 1. The refusal of the cup to the laity in the celebration of the Lord's Supper. 2. The celibacy of the clergy, which was pronounced to be contrary to the freedom of the Gospel, and productive of great evils. 3. The abuses of the mass, "which," says the Confession, "we have not completely abolished except as a



Archbishop Parker.

sacrifice, in which respect it has no virtue for the expiation of sins, unless the sinner performs the conditions enjoined by Christ." 4. Auricular confession, the efficacy of which the Protestants declared to depend entirely upon the faith of the penitents. 5. The abstinence from meats on prescribed days. 6. Monastic vows, which are declared to be dangerous snares to the conscience. 7. The temporal power of the Pontiff, and the union of church and state.—*Martyn.*

Beaton, or Beatoun, David (1494-1546), archbishop of St. Andrews, a formidable opponent of the reformed religion in Scotland. On the death of King James (1542) Beaton claimed the regency by right of a fenued will which he produced; but the Earl of Arran was appointed and the cardinal prevailed upon him to abjure Protestantism. From this time he applied himself to persecution.

Calvin, John.—Among the inhabitants of the city and colleges of Paris, was a young scholar of sixteen, a native of Noyon in Picardy, of middle stature, sallow features, and whose piercing eye and animated looks announced a mind of no common sagacity. His dress, extremely neat, but of perfect simplicity, betokened order and moderation. This young man, by name John Calvin, was then studying at the college of La Marche, under Mathurin Cordier, a rector celebrated for his probity, erudition, and peculiar fitness for the instruction of youth. . . . Strictness of morals

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in him led the way to strictness of doctrine, and the scholar of sixteen already gave promise of a man who would deal seriously with every principle he embraced, and who would firmly require in others what he himself found it so easy to perform. Quiet and serious during his lessons, never sharing in the amusements or follies of his school-fellows during the hours of recreation, holding himself aloof, and filled with horror at sin, he would often reprimand their disorders with severity and even bitterness. And hence, as a canon of Noyon informs us, his fellow-students nicknamed him the Accusative Case. Among them he was the representative of conscience and of duty, so far was he from being as some of his calumniators have depicted him. The pale features and the piercing eyes of the scholar of sixteen had already inspired his comrades with more respect than the black gowns of their masters, and this Picard youth, of a timid air, who daily took his seat on the benches in the college of La Marche, who was even then, by the seriousness of his conversation and life, an unconscious minister and reformer.—*D'Aubigne.*

Catharine de Medici (med'de-chee) (1519-1589), the wife of Henry II. of France. She had five sons, three of whom became kings, namely, Francis II., Charles IX., and Henry III. She instituted the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Cecil, William (1520-1598), an eminent English statesman, prime minister of England for forty years. After graduating at Cambridge he studied law. He refused to co-operate in the exclusion of Mary and Elizabeth from the throne. On the accession of Mary (1553) he retired from office. When Elizabeth became queen (1558) she appointed Cecil Secretary of State.

Coligny, Gaspard de (1517-1572), was son of Marshal Gaspard Coligny and Louise Montmorency. At twenty-two he came to court and there contracted a friendship with Francis of Guise. He took part in numerous military operations, in all of which he exhibited great capacity and intelligence as a military reformer. Becoming a Huguenot through the influence of his brother, he placed himself in the front of his sect, and demanded religious toleration and certain other reforms. In 1560 the hostility between Coligny and Francis of Guise broke violently forth. Civil war began. On August 24 (1572), the night of the massacre, he was attacked in his house by the minims of Guise who slew him and cast him from a window into the courtyard at their master's feet. His papers were seized and burned; among them was a history of the civil war.

Columbus, Christopher (1436-1506), was born at Genoa. His father was a wool comber, of some small means, and who was yet living two years after the discovery of the West Indies. Columbus attended the University of Pavia but on reaching his fifteenth year he made his choice of life and became a sailor. His early life seems to have been stormy, laborious and eventful. He is known to have visited England, Ultima Thule (Iceland), the Guinea Coast, and the Greek Isles. In addition to visiting other places he mastered all the sciences essential to his calling, learned to draw charts and construct spheres and thus fitted himself to become a practical seaman. About 1470 he seems to have arrived at the conclusion that "much of the world remained undiscovered," and first conceived the design of reaching Asia by sailing west. He believed the earth to be a sphere; underestimated its size but overestimated the size of the Asiatic continent. Columbus sought aid but was refused by the senate of Genoa; John II. of Portugal; the dukes of Medina Sidonia and Medina Cele. After many disappointments, he was aided by Isabella. At last, men, ships, and stores were ready. The expedition consisted of the Santa Maria, 50 men; the Pinta, 30 men; and the Nina, 24 men.

Cradle-Books, The.—It is estimated that, before the year 1500, there were in existence forty-two printing-presses, in as many cities, at which at least 16,000 volumes were printed. Placing the average edition of those days at 500 copies, the total number of copies would be over 8,000,000. The copies still extant are comparatively few. They are called incunabula, or cradle-books. The Vatican library has probably the richest collection of the first printed works. . . . The Union Theological Seminary in New York has probably the largest collection of incunabula in America, namely, four hundred and thirty titles, printed between A.D. 1460 and 1510. They are a part of the Leander van Ess Library, which originally belonged to the Benedictine monastery of Marienwerder, in the diocese of Paderborn (one of the bishoprics founded by Charlemagne after his Saxon conquests), and began to be collected at the time of the Reformation.—*Schaff.*

Cromwell, Thomas (1490-1540), earl of Sussex; lived near London and was the son of a blacksmith. While in his teens he found his way into Italy where he acquired those views of conduct and statesmanship which determined his career.

Drake, Francis (1540-1595), a celebrated English navigator. With five small vessels (1577) he embarked on the Pacific through the Straits of Magellan. He plundered the coast of Chili and Peru and sailed northward as far as 48 degrees north. Returning to San Francisco he steered across the ocean to the Moluccas and came home by the Cape of Good Hope (1579), having circumnavigated the globe.

Elizabeth.—While France was torn by intestine convulsions, and bleeding under the infernal ravages of a merciless zeal, signalized by the memorable massacre of St. Bartholomew; while the inhabitants of the Netherlands had shaken off the yoke of Spain, and were bravely vindicating their rights and their religion, the English nation had attained to a high degree of splendor under the government of a great and politic princess. Elizabeth had been educated in the school of adversity; she was a prisoner during the reign of her sister Mary and had turned that misfortune to the best advantage, by improving her mind in every great and useful accomplishment. It were to be wished she had cultivated likewise the virtues of the heart, and that her policy (which must be allowed to be extremely refined) had breathed somewhat more of the spirit of generosity and humanity. Elizabeth had, from the beginning of her reign, resolved to establish the Protestant religion in her dominions, a measure which the severities of the reign of Mary had rendered not at all difficult. The Protestant party had been increasing under persecution, and no sooner were the queen's inclinations signified to the people than almost the whole nation became Protestants from choice. The very first parliament after her accession passed an act in favor of the reformed religion Elizabeth's great object was to secure the affections of her people, and this she most thoroughly accomplished. She may be reckoned among the most respected of the English monarchs; though there is no question that she stretched the powers of the crown to a greater height, and her government was more arbitrary and despotic than that of any of her successors,

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whose encroachments on the rights of the subject gave occasion to such dreadful disquiets, and raised a combustion so fatal to the English nation. —*Tytler*.

Erasmus (1466-1536), was the prince of humanists and the most influential and useful scholar of his age. He ruled with undisputed sway as monarch of the realm of letters in the sixteenth, as Petrarch did in the fourteenth, and Voltaire in the eighteenth century. He combined brilliant genius with classical and biblical learning, keen wit and elegant taste. He rarely wrote a dull line. He traveled extensively in the Netherlands, France, England, Italy, Germany, and settled at last in Switzerland, where he felt most at home with his publishers and congenial scholars. He



Sir Francis Drake.

was a genuine cosmopolitan, and stood in correspondence with scholars of all countries, who consulted him as an oracle. His books had the popularity and circulation of modern novels, especially his Praise of Folly (1510), and his Familiar Colloquies (1519). Erasmus stands between the Middle Ages and modern times, and belongs as much to the history of Protestantism as to the history of Catholicism, yet wholly to neither. In some respects he anticipated modern rationalism. He resembles Laurentius Valla, his forerunner in biblical and historical criticism. He was a leading factor in the emancipation of the mind of Europe from the bondage of ignorance and superstition, and a lifeless formalism in religion. He came in direct contact with the Reformation, first in a friendly, then in a hostile spirit. "He laid the egg which Luther hatched"; but he disowned the chicken. He desired a reformation by gradual education and gentle persuasion within the old church; but he disapproved of the violent measures of Luther and Zwingli, and feared that they would do much harm to the cause of learning and refined culture, which he had more at heart than religion. He never intended to separate from Rome any more than his English friends, John Colet and Thomas More. He thought it better to endure corruption than to run the risk of schism and rebellion. He believed in gentle medicine, but shrank from the operations of surgery.—*Schaff*.

European Colonies.—Beside the precious metals, of which an annual average value of $20,000,000 was for three hundred years regularly entered at the Spanish ports, the most important products of the colonies were the cochineal of Central America, the indigo of Guatemala, the chocolate of that province and Caracas, the sugar of Hayti, the tobacco of Cuba, the quinine of Peru, and hides from the herds of cattle roaming on the vast plains south of the La Plata. Commerce with the three American vice-royalties, was carried on by a fleet sent once in each year to the ports of Cartagena, Porto Bello and Vera Cruz. The annual fair of forty days at Porto Bello witnessed the most lucrative trade in the world. At the season when the galleons were expected, this squalid negro village—whose atmosphere was almost fatal to Europeans, from its excess of heat, moisture, and vegetable decay—was suddenly transformed into a busy mercantile exchange, crowded with merchants and wares from the whole western portion of South Africa. A few commercial houses in Seville had not only control but entire possession of the American market; the colonists, deprived of all share in the enterprise, were compelled to buy at the most enormous prices; or forego the opportunity to dispose of their products.—*Thalheimer*.

Henry III., the new monarch, neither knew how to keep the Protestants within due bounds, nor to content the Catholics. He had neither abilities to manage his finances, nor to discipline his army. His debaucheries formed an extraordinary contrast to the superstition of his character, and both brought him into universal contempt. The Duke of Guise obtained from him the command of his armies, and it was the interest of this prince to increase the confusions of the kingdom, that the court might always stand in need of his assistance. . . . . His brother-in-law Henry, the young King of Navarre, commiserating the misfortunes of France, which he probably foresaw would one day be his own kingdom, wrote to Henry III., painted to him in the strongest colors the mischiefs that attended that armed association, and generously offered his fortune and his life for his protection and defense; but Henry III. was weak enough to listen rather to the Pope's bull, which stigmatized the King of Navarre and the prince of Conde as heretics. He rejected the offers of his brother-in-law: continued the persecutions of the Protestants, and thus aided the Duke of Guise in scheme to dispossess him of his kingdom. He saw his error when it was too late, and was obliged to solicit that assistance which he had rejected when offered. He had disgraced himself by acts of the most impolitic cruelty, and, unable to crush the schemes of the Duke of Guise by a manly resistance and vigorous exertions of authority, he meanly employed assassins to murder that prince, and his brother, the cardinal of Lorraine, in the castle of Blois. This cruel and dissolute tyrant continued to reign for fifteen years. His kingdom was at length delivered from him by the hand of a fanatic enthusiast. Jacques Clement, a Jacobin monk, actuated by the belief that he was doing an act of consummate piety, insinuated himself into the palace, and stabbed the king with a knife in the belly. The assassin was put to death on the spot by the king's guards, and Henry died in a few days of the wound.—*Tytler*.

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Huguenots.—An ancient gate in Tours had been named for a certain Count Hugo, whose ghost, it was said, rode through that quarter of the city every night and roughly handled those who were passing at the time. In some vaults near that gate the Reformed held their meetings secretly, for fear of the Papists. Hence they were called Huguenots. It was at first a word of mockery, and was afterward adopted by them as a testimony of their adherence to the reigning family descended from Hugh Capet, and of their opposition to the Guises, who caballed to get the succession into their line.—*Hausser.*

Humanism.—The fascination of pure study was so powerful, the Italians at that epoch were so eager to recover the past, that during the fifteenth century we have before our eyes the spectacle of this great nation deviating from the course of development begun in poetry by Dante and Petrarch, in prose by Boccaccio and Villain, into the channels of scholarship and antiquarian research. The language of the Canzoniere and Decameron was abandoned for revived Latin and discovered Greek. Acquisition supplanted invention; imitation of classical authors suppressed originality of style. The energies of the Italian people were devoted to transcribing codices, settling text, translating Greek books into Latin, compiling grammars, commentaries, encyclopædias, dictionaries, epitomies, and ephemerides. During this century the best histories were composed in Latin, after the manner of Livy. The best dissertations were labored imitations of Cicero's Tusculans. The best verses were in like manner Latin; public orations upon ceremonial occasions were delivered in the Latin tongue; correspondence, official and familiar, was carried on in the same language.—*Symonds.*

Hussites.—About the beginning of the fifteenth century, the doctrines of the English reformer, Wycliffe, began to spread in Bohemia. The chief of the new sect was John Huss, a professor of the University of Prague. The doctrines of the reformer were condemned by the great Council of Constance, and Huss himself, having been delivered over into the hands of the civil authorities for punishment, was burned at the stake (1415). The following year Jerome of Prague, another reformer, was likewise burned. Shortly after the burning of Huss a crusade was proclaimed against his followers, who had risen in arms. Then began a cruel, desolating war of fifteen years, the outcome of which was the almost total extermination of the radical party among the Hussites. With the more moderate of the reformers, however, a treaty was made which secured them freedom of worship. —*Myers.*

Ignorance of the Clergy.—But how could it be otherwise, when the investiture of the spiritual offices was regulated by the amount of purchase-money, without any regard to the qualifications and real character of the individual chosen, and when, as has already been shown, only the smallest portion of the clergy in reality possessed any knowledge of the word of God? To such a degraded state indeed had the church become reduced that according to well-authenticated evidence, we are assured that out of all the principal leading members of the clerical body throughout the Swiss confederation, at the commencement of the sixteenth century, there were not three who had ever read the Bible; and when the people of Valais received, about this time, a letter from Zürich, in which was quoted a sentence from the sacred volume, only one man was to be found who knew the book, and even what he knew was by hearsay!—*Kohlrausch.*

Indulgences.—But foremost among the proximate causes, and the actual occasion of the revolution, was the controversy which arose about the doctrine of indulgences. These were remissions of punishment granted to persons who preferred to pay a sum of money rather than perform the penances imposed upon them by the church. It is, and always has been, the theory of the Catholic church, that the indulgence remits merely temporal penalties—that is, penalties imposed by ecclesiastical authority, and the pains of purgatory —and that it can take effect only upon certain conditions, among which is that of sincere repentance. Indulgences were frequently granted by various pontiffs, as a means for raising funds for pious enterprises. A considerable portion of the money for building the Cathedral of St. Peter at Rome was raised in this manner.—*Myers.*

James I. of England (1566-1625), the only child of Mary Queen of Scots. On the death of Elizabeth (1603) he became king. The most important of his works was the supervision of the King James translation of the Bible.

Janizaries.—From the multitudes of his Christian captives Amurath I. selected the strongest and most beautiful youths, and caused them to be trained for his service. They became the famous body guard of the Turkish Sultans, and were called Janizaries. They were reared in the Mohammedan faith in early childhood, and were treated with great favor by the Sultan, so that they became his most devoted subjects. They constituted the flower of the Turkish army, and were considered the most formidable body of troops in the world. In the military college in which they were instructed in the Moslem religion they were likewise trained in the Turkish military discipline. In order to increase their number, a law was promulgated that the Christian subjects of the Sultan should give up all their male children born in every fifth year, to be educated in the military schools, where they were taught to speak the Turkish language, to shoot with the bow and to wrestle. As they grew to manhood some were appointed to attend the Sultan and guard the palace. The rest were formed into companies, and constituted a disciplined army. They were called Janizaries, from a dervish, whom the Sultan ordered to bless and consecrate the new army. As they were drawn up in order, this dervish threw the sleeve of his gown over the foremost soldier's head, and said: "Let them be called Janizaries—a word signifying new soldiers. May their countenances be ever bright, their hands victorious and their swords keen. May their spears hang always over the heads of their enemies, and wherever they go may they return with a shining face."



Patrick Hamilton.

Knox, John (1505-1572), the greatest of the Scotch Reformers. He openly renounced (1542) the Catholic religion, and upheld the Protestant doctrine. He was the master spirit of the Reformation in Scotland.

Loyo'la (1491-1566) a celebrated Spanish reformer and the founder of the order of Jesuits.

Loyola, the Founder of the Society of the Jesuits.—But the principal agency in the restoration of Papal power was the society of Jesuits,

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whose active and peculiar part in European affairs throughout this and the following period entitles it to a more detailed account. Its founder was Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish gentleman, who was wounded during the siege of Pampeluna in 1521. The serious reflections excited in him by a tedious convalescence formed themselves into a scheme which would appear as visionary as the wildest dreams of romance, had not its main features been realized through the consummate ability of the followers of Loyola and its fitness for the emergency at which it was presented to the world. So ignorant was the founder of this great and learned society, that he had to begin his elementary education at the age of thirty-three; but, while pursuing his studies at Paris, he made disciples of six of his fellow-students, who bound themselves by a solemn oath to attempt the conversion of the Turks.

The society was formally recognized and established by Paul III., with a constitution differing in several important respects from those of the other religious orders. Instead of wasting themselves in austerities, the Jesuits were encouraged to cultivate all their talents by the liberal pursuits of art, science and general literature. Thus becoming the most accomplished instructors of youth, they acquired a controlling influence over the princes and leading minds in Europe at the most impressible period of life, and this influence is clearly to be discerned in the later policy of the House of Austria. The General of the Order had unlimited authority in assigning to every member a sphere of duty adapted to his character and ability. While the superior talents of some found exercise in the subtle diplomacy of European courts, the pious zeal of others was employed in the most toilsome and self-denying missions among the forests of America, or the crowded cities of China and Japan. Jesuits were pioneers in the exploration of the great lakes of our northern frontier. In Paraguay they even obtained the civil government of the country, where they introduced agriculture, building and the arts of social life, and taught the natives to exclude all other foreign influences.—*Thalheimer.*

Luther, Martin.—Foremost among those who opposed and denounced Tetzel was Martin Luther, an Augustine monk, and a teacher of theology in the university of Wittenberg. He was of humble parentage, his father being a poor miner. The boy possessed a good voice, and frequently, while a student, earned his bread by singing from door to door. The natural bent of his mind, and, if we may believe a somewhat doubtful legend, the death of a friend struck down at his side by lightning, led him to resolve to enter a monastery and devote himself to the service of the church. Before Tetzel appeared in Germany, Luther had already earned a wide reputation for learning and piety.—*Myers.*

Luther and Ursula Cotta.—Eventually he obtained a more regular subsistence and an asylum in the house of Ursula Cotta, a hospitable and kind-hearted woman, who has been made famous by her connection with Luther. The charitable lady had noticed Luther at church, and been especially pleased by his singing, Martin then being engaged every Sunday as chorister. One evening, on opening her door, she noticed the boy standing dejectedly before her house and gazing wistfully at the board amply spread within. Recognizing him, the lady asked what he desired. Poor Luther, who was very hungry, and who while begging had already on that day been repulsed from three houses, won by the kind tones and benevolent aspect of dame Ursula, poured into her ear his whole story. She supplied his wants; and upon her husband Conrad's return, he also became so much interested in the bright and fascinating boy, that he was fain to invite him to take up his permanent residence with them, which a few days afterwards he did.—*Martyn.*

Luther's Discussion with Eck.—The disputation at Leipsic went on for a week between Carlstadt and Eck, on the intricate themes of free-will and grace, in which the former defended the Augustinian and the latter the semi-Pelagian side, and in which the fluency and adroitness of Eck shone to advantage in comparison with his less facile adversary. Then Luther ascended the platform. He was in the prime of life, in his thirty-sixth year, of middling height, at that time thin in person, and with a clear, melodious voice. It is a fact not without interest that he carried in his hand a nosegay of flowers. He took delight in nature—in the sky, the blossoms, and birds. In the midst of his great conflict he would turn for recreation to his garden, and correspond with his friends about the seeds and utensils that he wanted to procure for it. At home and with his friends he was full of humor, was enthusiastically fond of music, and played with skill on the lute and the flute; in his natural constitution the very opposite of an ascetic. His powerful mind—for he was, probably, the ablest man of his time—was connected with a child-like freshness of feeling, and a large, generous sympathy with human nature in all its innocent manifestations.—*Fisher.*

Called upon to Retract.—On the 17th of April, 1521, Luther was conducted by the Marshal of the Empire to the City Hall, where the Diet was in session. As he was passing through the outer hall, the famous knight and general, George von Frundsberg, clapped him upon the shoulder, with the words: "Monk, monk! thou art in a strait, the like of which myself and many leaders, in the most desperate battles, have never known. But if thy thoughts are just, and thou art sure of thy cause, go on in God's name, and be of good cheer. He will not forsake thee!" Charles V. is reported to have said, when Luther entered the great hall: "That monk will never make a heretic of me." After having acknowledged all his writings, Luther was called upon to retract them. He appeared to be somewhat embarrassed and undecided, either confused by the splendor of the Imperial Court, or shaken by the overwhelming responsibility resting upon him. He therefore asked a little time for futher consideration, and was allowed twenty-four hours. When he reappeared before the Diet, the next day, he was calm and firm. In a plain, yet most earnest address, delivered both in Latin and German so that all might understand, he explained the grounds of his belief, and closed with the solemn words: "Unless, therefore, I should be confused by the testimony of the Holy Scriptures and by clear and convincing reasons, I cannot and will not retract, because there is neither wisdom nor safety in acting against conscience. Here I stand; I cannot do otherwise; God help me! Amen."—*Bayard Taylor.*

Luther's Publications, all issued within the space of thirty years, were nearly five hundred in number. His letters are not included in this statement. They are now collected in five octavo volumes.—*Hausser.*

Mary of Burgundy (1457-1482), daughter of Charles the Bold. She became heiress of Burgundy and married the Archduke Maximilian, son of the Emperor of Germany.

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Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots (1542-1587), was the only surviving child of James V. and Mary of Guise, who was a daughter of the French Duke of Guise. Mary was educated at Paris, and at an early age she became mistress of the Latin, French and Italian languages. "All contemporary authors agree in ascribing to Mary the utmost beauty of countenance and elegance of shape of which the human form is capable."—*Robertson.*

Execution of Mary.—Events soon forced Elizabeth to assume the leadership of the Protestant party in England, and, to some extent, in Europe. This brought her into antagonism with Spain, the great Catholic power of the age, and it also brought her face to face with her Catholic rival, Mary Stuart, who had a strong claim to the English throne. In the summer of 1568 Mary, fleeing from her rebellious subjects in Scotland, took refuge in England, and was detained there against her will. Many conspiracies were formed to liberate her, to assassinate Elizabeth, and to place Mary on the throne. At length, after nearly twenty years of anxiety and trouble, Elizabeth and her advisers thought it necessary to put her out of the way. She was executed on a charge of treason in 1587.—*Wheeler.*

Her Last Night was a Busy One.—As she said herself, there was much to be done, and the time was short. A few lines to the king of France were dated two hours after midnight. They were to insist, for the last time, that she was innocent of the conspiracy, that she was dying for religion, and for having asserted her right to the crown; and to beg that, out of the sum of which he owed her, her servants' wages might be paid, and masses provided for her soul. After this she slept for three or four hours, then rose, and with the most elaborate care prepared to encounter the end.—*Froude.*

Her Last Words.—The sheriff stood at her left hand, and Beale then mounted a platform and read the warrant aloud. In all the assembly Mary Stuart appeared the person least interested in the words which were consigning her to death. "Madam," said Lord Shrewsbury to her, when the reading was ended, "you hear what we are commanded to do." "You will do your duty," she answered, and rose as if to kneel and pray. The dean of Peterborough, Dr. Fletcher, approached the rail. "Mr. Dean," she said, "I am Catholic, and must die a Catholic. It is useless to attempt to move me, and your prayers will avail me but little." "Change your opinion, madam," he cried, his tongue being loosed at last; "repent of your sins, settle your faith in Christ, by him to be saved." "Trouble not yourself further, Mr. Dean," she answered; "I am settled in my own faith, for which I mean to shed my blood." "I am sorry, madam," said Shrewsbury, "to see you so addicted to Popery." "That image of Christ you hold there," said Kent, "will not profit you if he be not engraved in your heart." She did not reply, and, turning her back on Fletcher, knelt for her own devotions. He had been evidently instructed to impair the Catholic complexion of the scene, and the Queen of Scots was determined that he should not succeed. When she knelt he commenced an extempore prayer, in which the assembly joined. As his voice sounded out in the hall she raised her own, reciting with powerful, deep-chested tones the penitential psalms in Latin, introducing English sentences at intervals, that the audience might know what she was saying, and praying with especial distinctiveness for her holy father, the Pope. From time to time, with conspicuous vehemence she struck the crucifix against her bosom, and then, as the dean gave up the struggle, leaving her Latin, she prayed in English wholly, still clear and loud. She prayed for the church which she had been ready to betray, for her son whom she had disinherited, for the queen whom she had endeavored to murder. She prayed God to avert his wrath from England—that England which she had sent a last message to Philip to beseech him to invade. She forgave her enemies, whom she had invited Philip not to forget, and then, praying for the saints to intercede for her with Christ, and kissing the crucifix and crossing her own breast, "Even as Thy arms, O Jesus," she cried, "were spread upon the cross, so receive me into Thy mercy and forgive my sins." With these words she rose. The black mutes stepped forward, and in the usual form begged her forgiveness. "I forgive you," she said, "for now I hope you shall end all my troubles." They offered their help in arranging her dress. "Truly, my lords," she said, with a smile, to the earls, "I never had such grooms waiting on me before." Her ladies were allowed to come upon the scaffold to assist her; for the work to be done was considerable, and had been prepared with no common thought. The women, whose firmness had hitherto borne the trial, began now to give way, spasmodic sobs bursting from them which they could not check. "*Ne criez pas,*" she said; "*j'ai promis pour vous.*" ("Do not cry; I have promised for you.") Struggling bravely, they crossed their breasts again and again, she crossing them in turn and bidding them pray for her. Then she knelt on the cushion. Barbara Mowbray bound her eyes with a handkerchief. "Adieu," she said, smiling for the last time, and waving her hand to them, "Adieu, au revoir." They stepped back from off the scaffold, and left her alone. On her knees she repeated the psalm, "*In te Domine, confido,*" ("In thee, O Lord, have I put my trust.") When the psalm was finished she felt for the block, and, laying down her head, muttered, "*In manus, Domine tuas, commendo animam meam.*" The hard wood seemed to hurt her, for she placed her hands under her neck. The executioner gently removed them, lest they should deaden the blow, and then, one of them holding her slightly, the other raised the ax and struck. The scene had been too trying even for the practiced headsman of the Tower. His arm wandered. The blow fell on the knot of the handkerchief and scarcely broke the skin. She neither spoke nor moved. He struck again, this time effectively. The head hung by a shred of skin, which he divided without withdrawing the ax, and at once a metamorphosis was witnessed strange as was ever wrought by wand of fabled enchanter. The coif fell off, and the false plaits. The labored illusion vanished. The lady who had knelt before the block was in the maturity of grace and loveliness. The executioner, when he raised the head, as usual, to show it to the crowd, exposed the withered features of a grizzled, wrinkled old woman. "So perish all enemies of the queen!" said the Dean of Peterborough. A loud "Amen!" rose over the hall. "Such end," said the Earl of Kent, rising and standing over the body, "to the queen's and the Gospel's enemies!"—*Froude.*



Bernard Palissy.

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More, Thomas (1478-1535), was lord chancellor and one of the most illustrious Englishmen of his century. In the Utopia, which though written earlier, More had allowed to be printed as late as 1516, he had spoken against the vices of power and declared for indifference of religious creed with a breadth of philosophical view of which there is no other example in any Englishman of that age. At the same time, he could not be suspected of any sympathy with Lutheran or Wicliffite heretics.—*Pattison.*

The heads of the noblest in England now rolled upon the scaffold. Sir Thomas More, Lord Chancellor for a time after Wolsey's fall, was sentenced to death. As he ascended the stairs to his execution, he remarked to his attendant, with a touch of his old humor, "See me safe up; as for my coming down, I can shift for myself." When he laid his head upon the block, he begged a moment's delay in order to move aside his beard, saying, "Pity that should be cut that has not committed treason."—*Steele.*

Mortuary.—Some of the words require explanation.—The following hints may serve that purpose:

Mortuary.—A sum of money demanded after a person's death for tithes and offerings said to have been left unpaid. Sometimes the best horse or cow, or the most costly article of furniture was required. *Chrisom.*—A cloth blessed and anointed by the priest, worn by the child till its baptism. *Brotherhood.*—Any religious fraternity. *Pardoner.*—A vender of indulgences; *i. e.*, a seller of pardons. *Soul-masses.*—Masses said for the repose of the deceased person's soul. *Dirges.*—Funeral services, either chanted or sung. *Mouth minds.*—Services for the dead, at the end of a month after the decease. *Year-minds.*—Similar services at the anniversary of the death. *All Soul's Day.*—Masses for the dead are universally celebrated by the Romanists upon that day. *Trentals.*—A series of thirty days' services for the dead. It was instituted by Gregory the Great, and was intended to supplant the heathenish superstitions observed for the same period, after the death of a person among the heathen nations.—*Hausser.*

Parker, Mathew (1504-1575), an English prelate born at Norwich and educated at Cambridge. In 1537 he became chaplain to Henry VIII. On the accession of Queen Mary (1553) he was deprived of his benifices, because he was a Protestant, or because he was married. He was appointed archbishop of Canterbury by Elizabeth in 1559. A revised version of the Bible (called the Bishop's Bible) was published under his direction in 1568.

Philip of Burgundy.—The Duke of Burgundy was Philip the Bold, fourth son of King John of France and uncle to Charles VI. By his foreign policy he secured the friendship of Henry IV. and Henry V. of England.

Philip II. (1527-1598), king of Spain, was the son of Charles V. and Isabella of Portugal. One of the first measures of his reign was to re-enact the atrocious edict of 1550, condemning to death every one who should print, write, copy, keep, buy, sell, or give any book made by Luther or Calvin, and all lay persons who should read or teach the Scriptures.

Pole, Reginald (1500-1558), a famous English cardinal who succeeded Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury

Pope, the Chief of a Confederacy.—During the Middle Ages, the Papacy was another name for a confederation of learned men in the west of Europe against the barbarism and ignorance of the times. The Pope was the chief of this confederacy; and, so long as he retained that character, his power was just and irresistible. It was the principal means of preserving for us and for all posterity all that we now have of the illumination of past ages. But as soon as the Pope made a separation between the character as premier clerk in Christendom and as a secular prince—as soon as he began to squabble for towns and castles—then he at once broke the charm, and gave birth to a revolution. Everywhere, but especially throughout the North of Europe, the breach of feeling and sympathy went on widening; so that all Germany, England, Scotland, and other countries, started, like giants out of their sleep, at the first blast of Luther's trumpet.—*Coleridge.*

Printing.—Typography is a German invention, and was first fully made available for the general public by the German and Swiss Reformation which gave wings to thoughts and words. The real inventor of this art was John Gensfleisch, called Gutenberg, of Mainz on the Rhine (1397-1468), who in connection with John Fust or Faust (d 1466) and his son-in-law, Peter Schöffer (d. 1502), printed the first books. He concluded a contract with Fust, a rich citizen of Mainz, who lent him 800 gold guilders at 6 per cent., August 22, 1450, for the establishment of an office. Schöffer aided him in the mechanical art of casting type. In 1452 they began to print the Latin Bible (Biblia Latina Vulgata), which after great difficulties, was completed at the end of 1455 in two folios of 324 and 317 leaves, but without date or name or place. It is called the Mazarine Bible. Only a few copies remain. The first printed book which bears date, place, and name of printers, is a Psalterium, issued by Fust and Schöffer, August 14, 1457. It is printed in large missal types on fine parchment in folio, and is admired as a masterpiece of typography. Then followed from the same firm the splendid Biblia Sacra Latina, 1462, printed from entirely new types of Schöffer, in two folios of 242 and 239 leaves in double columns. It is the Latin Vulgate of Jerome and presents the current text of the 15th century. There were in all 97 editions of the Latin Bible printed between 1455 and 1500 (16 in Germany, 10 in Basel, 9 in France, and 28 in Italy) There were also no less than seventeen editions of the German Bible printed between 1462 and 1522 (twelve years before Luther completed his version in 1534, which far outshone the old version). The destruction of the printing establishment of Fust and Schöffer, October 27, 1462, and the consequent dispersion of the pupils of Gutenberg occasioned the spread of the art throughout a great part of Europe. Before the close of the fifteenth century, we find printing-presses in Bamberg, 1455 (or 1456); Strasburg, 1460 (1471); Cologne, 1465; Augsburg, 1468; Nuremberg, 1473; Rostock, 1476; Basel, 1479; Leipzig, 1481, also in Ulm, Reutlingen, Heidelberg, Lübeck, Paris, Lyons, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Prague, Haarlem, Antwerp, and the leading cities of Italy, Spain, and Portugal. William Caxton (1412-1492), who learned his trade in the low countries, introduced the art into England in 1474. The number of known printers, mostly of German extraction, before 1500, exceeds one thousand.—*Schaff.*

Protestant Education.—"Popular instruction was the child of Protestantism." Not a city, not a town or village, was conquered by the "new doctrines," but a Protestant school followed closely upon the newly instituted church, and the teacher was esteemed a scarcely less essential officer in the ecclesiastical polity than the preacher of the gospel

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himself. It was not long before every child of a Huguenot family was acquiring not only the arts of reading and writing, but the rudiments of religious doctrine as contained in the catechism of John Calvin. The enemies of the Protestants observed, with feelings akin to despair, that, throughout great tracts of country, "the children were learning religion only in the catechism brought from Geneva, and all knew it by heart." In some places where the Protestants were in power, education was not only gratuitous but compulsory; and the parents or guardians of all children under fourteen years of age who neglected to send them daily to school were subjected to a fine. But this was not enough. The wants of those who aspired to a higher education must be met, and for them a training esteemed by the Protestants to be truly Christian must be provided. France, in the middle of the sixteenth century, had its colleges and universities, some of them already dating from a hoary antiquity. Including the University of Paris, whose authority and attendance threw all the rest in the shade, there were fifteen universities in the bounds of the kingdom. Paris claimed to date from the close of the twelfth century, if not earlier. Toulouse and Montpellier traced their origin back to the thirteenth century; Orleans and Cahors, Angiers and Orange to the fourteenth; Aix, Dole, Poitiers, Caen, Nartes, Bourges, and Bordeaux to the fifteenth; Rheims alone belonged to the sixteenth. The colleges, below but affiliated with these, numbered about forty. Meantime the Huguenots gradually provided themselves with not less than thirty colleges and eight "academies," or universities.—*Baird.*

Protestantism Hindered.—But several causes now conspired to check the hitherto triumphant advance of Protestantism, and to confine the movement of the northern nations. Chief among these were the divisions among the Protestants, the Catholic counter-reform, the increased activity of the inquisition, and the rise of the order of the Jesuits. Early in their contest with Rome, the Protestants became divided into numerous hostile sects. In Switzerland arose the Zwinglians (followers of Zwingli, 1484-1531), who differed from the Lutherans in their views regarding the Eucharist, and on some other points of doctrine. The Calvinists were followers of John Calvin (1509-1564), a Frenchman by birth, who, forced to flee from France on account of persecution, found a refuge at Geneva, of which city he became a sort of Protestant Pope. The great Protestant communions quickly broke up into a large number of denominations, or churches, each holding to some minor point of doctrine, or adhering to some form of worship disregarded by the others, yet all agreeing in the central doctrine of the Reformation—"justification by faith"—*Myers.*

Relics.—Confidence in Relics was another feature of the religion of the times. It was carried to the most extravagant lengths. Happy was he who could procure the finger bone of a saint, or a rag that had once formed part of his clothing. It was his protection against all dangers, and his refuge under the sorest calamities. Such articles were purchased at a high price. As presents from one illustrious personage to another, they were esteemed above all things. In 1492, Bajazet, the Turkish sultan, sent an ambassador to the pope, with the head of the "true lance" which had pierced the Savior's side, and the sponge and reed wherewith the vinegar had been conveyed to his mouth. The Romish clergy went forth in procession to receive the precious gifts, and "the pontiff assisted in person at the miserable mummery." In the same year, "some laborers repairing the foundations of the church of Santa Croce at Rome, discovered what was immediately proclaimed to be the original inscription on the cross of Christ. The belief was propagated, that it had been sent to Rome by St. Helena, mother of Constantine;



St. Francis Xavier.

and though there was no authority for this tradition, and though the pious Catholics of Toulouse pretended to have possessed the true inscription undisturbed for many ages, Alexander VI. pronounced, four years afterwards, the authenticity of the Roman title, and recommended it by particular indulgences to the devotion of the faithful.—*Edited from Waddington.*

The Church of All Saints, at Wittenberg, was richly supplied. The relic worshipers might see there a piece of Noah's ark, some soot from the furnace into which Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego had been cast, a fragment of the cradle of Jesus, and nineteen other precious deposits, many of which had been dearly bought. At Schaffhausen they showed St. Joseph's breath, said to have been received by Nicodemus in his glove. A dealer in indulgences appeared one day at Wurtemberg, with a large feather in his hat, taken, he said, from one of the wings of Michael the archangel. But the recital would be endless. —*Hausser.*

Renaissance.—The depth of this great movement should be appreciated as well as its breadth. Leading tendencies which marked it, slow and irregular in asserting themselves, may be indicated as follows: 1. A better thought came to prevail of God, as not fickle or vindictive but rational, law-loving and benign. Men's consciences became freer, worship more spiritual, religious devotion less a slavish service, less a thing of form and ceremony. 2. Life was viewed more as something besides probation, as having legitimate interests of its own. This world, too, men felt, was meant to be enjoyed. Man was looked on less as a merely religious being, as simply an instrument for God's glory in the old sense, and religion more as of a personal instead of a collective concern. In general, individualism replaced the medieval spirit, so dominant before, of ecclesiasticism, of class, guild, fraternity. 3. Larger belief in the prevalence of law and order in the universe, along with the discovered falsity of many old beliefs, brought the entire scholastic method of truth-

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seeking into disrepute, and substituted for it the more rational and fruitful one of observation, experiment, induction. An age of criticism came, wherein thought refused to limit itself to formal exercise or to allow its field to be prescribed. The content of truth, revealed or other, had to be examined. Theology began perforce to be scientific. —*Andrews.*

Ridley, Nicholas (1500?-1555), an eminent English Reformer. He became bishop of Rochester (1547) and of London in 1550. He assisted Cranmer in composing forty-one or forty-two articles of faith and on the death of Edward VI. he advocated the claim of Lady Jane Grey.

Seymour, Lady Jane (—— 1537), was the third wife of Henry VIII. and mother of Edward VI.

The Protestant Versions of the Scriptures published during the progress of the Reformation were issued in the following order: Luther's German New Testament, A.D. 1522; Danish New Testament, 1524; English New Testament (Tyndall), 1524; Helvetic New Testament, 1524; Helvetic Entire Bible, 1525; Swedish New Testament, 1526; Belgic Bible, 1526; Luther's German Bible, 1534; English Bible (Coverdale), 1535; French Bible (Olevitan), 1535; Danish Bible, 1541; Swedish Bible, 1550; Polish New Testament, 1552; Polish Entire Bible, 1563.—*Hausser.*

Universities were at the following places:—Wurtzberg, A.D. 1403; Valentia, 1410; St. Andrews, 1411; Rostock, 1419; Louvain, 1426; Caen, 1430; Poitiers, 1431; Florence, 1433; Bordeaux, 1441; Eton College, ——; Catania, 1445; Glasgow, 1450; Treves, 1454; Griesswald, 1456; Freiburg, ——; Basle, 1460; Bourges, 1463; Ingolstadt, 1472; Saragossa, 1474; Mentz, 1577; Tübingen, ——; Upsal, ——; Copenhagen, 1479; Alcala, 1499.—*Hausser.*

The Humanist and the Universities. — The Humanists were slow in gaining a foothold in the universities. These establishments in Germany had been founded on the model of Paris. Theology had the uppermost seat, and the scholastic philosophy was enthroned in the chairs of instruction. In particular, Paris and Cologne were the strongholds of the traditional theology. The Humanists at length gained admission for their students at Heidelberg, Tübingen, and some other places. In 1502, the Elector Frederic of Saxony organized a university at Wittenberg. This new institution, which declared Augustine to be its patron saint, was the first favorable to Biblical studies, and gave a hospitable reception to the teachers of classical learning. Here was to be the hearthstone of the Reformation.—*Fisher.*

Wolsey's Greatness.—At the close of 1518 therefore the policy of Wolsey seemed justified by success. He had found England a power of the second order, overawed by France and dictated to by Ferdinand of Spain. She now stood in the forefront of European affairs, a state whose alliance was desired alike by French king and Spanish king, and which dealt on equal terms with pope or emperor. In European cabinets Wolsey was regarded as hardly less a power to be conciliated than his royal master. Both Charles and Francis sought his friendship; and in the years which followed his official emoluments were swelled by pensions from both princes. At home the king loaded him with new proofs of favor. The revenues of two sees whose tenants were foreigners fell into his hands; he held the bishopric of Winchester and the abbacy of St. Albans. He spent this vast wealth with princely ostentation. His pomp was almost royal. A train of prelates and nobles followed him as he moved; his household was composed of five hundred persons of noble birth; and its chief posts were occupied by knights and barons of the realm.—*Green.*

Wycliffe and the Reformation.—Foremost among the reformers and religious writers of the period under review was Wycliffe, "The Morning Star of the Reformation." He gave the English people the first translation of the entire Bible in their native tongue. There was no press at that time to multiply editions of the book, but by means of manuscript copies it was widely circulated and read. Its influence was very great, and from its appearance may be dated the beginning of the Reformation in England.



Dr. Bugenhagen.

The followers of Wycliffe became known as "Lollards" (babblers), a term applied to them in derision. They grew to be very numerous, and threatened by their excesses and imprudent zeal the peace of the state. They were finally suppressed by force.—*Myers.*

Zwingli, Ulric, born January 1, 1484, was a pious, cheerful, clear-headed man, well educated in classical tongues. Before Luther's public career began, he preached in several pulpits in Basle and Glarus against abuses in the Church, and especially against the Swiss practice of going to foreign lands to seek employment as mercenaries, making a trade of war. When invited to a celebrated resort for pilgrims, he denounced the whole system of pilgrimages, indulgences, and masses for the dead. Made preacher in Zürich in 1519, he brought out the leading principles of the German Reformation, but went beyond Luther in rejecting the actual and miraculous presence of the slain body of Christ in the sacramental bread and wine. It was this difference which kept the Swiss reformer from fellowship with the German Protestants, in spite of the effort of Philip of Hesse to bring about a union; Luther insisted so strongly on his behalf that he rejected Zwingli's offer of the hand of brotherhood at Marburg in 1529. For the same reason the Swiss were not admitted to the Smalcaldic league, so that the division between Germany and Switzerland continued, in spite of their common Protestantism. Zürich was followed in the Reformation by Basle, Glarus, Appenzell, Schaffhausen, and other cities and countries. The new doctrine soon became the prevailing one. At first there was constant irritation between the two parties; then came a breach of the constitution of the league. The Protestant cities forbade all imports into the mountains. Driven by want, the people of the forest cantons came forth in arms, and a battle was fought at Kappel on October 12, 1531. The Protestants, who had been taken by surprise, were defeated, and Zwingli, who as chaplain carried the banner of Zürich, was slain. A progressive separation took place between the Protestant and the Catholic cantons in Switzerland, and the same little "forest states" which had won everlasting honor by their heroic and successful war for civil liberty were now the resolute champions of religious superstition and slavery.—*Lewis.*

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SIDE LIGHTS.

Distinction between Calvinism and Lutheranism.—The original distinction between Calvinism and Lutheranism was important. The church constitution devised by each had its own marked character. The church of Calvin elected its own presbyters or elders, and they elected the clergy. Thus a sort of republican spirit of independence was fostered in these churches, and had its influences in Germany wherever they spread. Their habits of thought sought examples in the Old Testament history, and they thus cultivated a spirit of heroic firmness and iron defiance, like that of Israel in the ancient days. They were always ready for battle and quick to draw the sword, while the Lutherans were, in comparison, a



James Stuart, Earl of Murray, Regent of Scotland.

patient and enduring people The latter gained more influence among the Germans, the former in the Romance nations. But between the sister churches there arose an unchristian hatred, and it embittered the last days of Melancthon (died April 19, 1560), who in vain strove to restore harmony. The tendency to look for the essence of Protestantism in dogma grew steadily; and the more it became clear that no formula could be devised which would satisfy all minds—though Luther had claimed the right of independent inquiry and private judgment in interpreting Scripture—the more disputes about doctrine were multiplied. Denunciations of heresy, excommunications, persecutions, and banishments became common. To such miserable disputes the splendid inspiration of the Reformation gave place, and the unworthy weapons of its foes were seized by its own champions, and turned against one another.—*Lewis.*

The Roman See, originally a simple bishopric, which had risen from the despised church planted by St. Paul beneath the shadow of the throne of the Cæsars, under the sway of a series of unscrupulous, able and ambitious prelates, had gradually, in the lapse of ages, arrogated to itself the supreme ecclesiastical control. Receiving from the neighboring princes a voluntary recognition of their claims to spiritual authority, it was not long ere the new-born hierarchy of the church began to cast longing eyes upon temporal superiority. In those rude and stormy times, princes were often shaken from their thrones, either by the onset of the Saracens, or by internecine broils. They were in consequence obliged to have recourse to some central power for protection and support. Rome offered to princes so situated her active countenance, on condition that they would concede to her both spiritual and temporal supremacy. Too often their straits compelled them to comply with this requisition. It was no uncommon thing for the early European sovereigns to sign away one-half their domains, and pay their allegiance to Rome for the whole, on condition of their partial reinstatement in their rights in the remaining half of their territory. The Roman See thus became the usurer of the nations. It gradually hardened into a gigantic Shylock. Forgetful of its design, it became greedy only to swallow the usurped dominions of its neighbors; and the atrocious spectacle was presented of a church planted to garner up souls for the heavenly kingdom, anxious mainly to acquire the temporal possession and enjoy the emoluments of this world.—*Martyn.*

Resignation of Charles V. to his Son.—As this, then, appeared to be the proper juncture for executing the scheme which he had long meditated, Charles resolved to resign his kingdoms to his son, with a solemnity suitable to the importance of the transaction, and to perform this last act of sovereignty with such formal pomp, as might leave a lasting impression on the minds not only of his subjects but of his successor. With this view he called Philip out of England, where the peevish temper of his queen, which increased with her despair of having issue, rendered him extremely unhappy; and the jealousy of the English left him no hopes of obtaining the direction of their affairs.

Having assembled the States of the Low-Countries at Brussels, on the twenty-fifth of October, Charles seated himself, for the last time, in the chair of state; on one side of which was placed his son, and on the other his sister, the queen of Hungary, regent of the Netherlands, with a splendid retinue of the princes of the empire and grandees of Spain standing behind him. The president of the council of Flanders, by his command, explained in a few words his intention in calling this extraordinary meeting of the States. He then read the instrument of resignation, by which Charles surrendered to his son Phillip all his territories, jurisdiction and authority in the Low-Countries, absolving his subjects there from their oath of allegiance to him, which he required them to transfer to Philip, his lawful heir, and to serve him with the same loyalty and zeal which they had manifested, during so long a course of years, in support of his government.

Charles then rose from his seat, and leaning on the shoulder of the Prince of Orange, because he

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was unable to stand without support, he addressed himself to the audience, and from a paper which he held in his hand, in order to assist his memory, he recounted, with dignity, but without ostentation, all the great things which he had undertaken and performed since the commencement of his administration.

He observed, that from the seventeenth year of his age, he had dedicated all his thoughts and attention to public objects, reserving no portion of his time for the indulgence of his ease, and very little for the enjoyment of private pleasure; that either in a pacific or hostile manner, he had visited Germany nine times, Spain six times, France four times, Italy seven times, the Low-Countries ten times, England twice, Africa as often, and had made eleven voyages by sea; that while his health permitted him to discharge his duty, and the vigor of his constitution was equal, in any degree, to the arduous office of governing such extensive dominions, he had never shunned labor, nor repined under fatigue; that now, when his health was broken, and his vigor exhausted by the rage of an incurable distemper, his growing infirmities admonished him to retire, nor was he so fond of reigning, as to retain the sceptre in an impotent hand, which was no longer able to protect his subjects, or to secure to them the happiness which he wished they should enjoy; that instead of a sovereign worn out with disease, and scarcely half alive, he gave them one in the prime of life, accustomed already to govern, and who added to the vigor of youth all the attention and sagacity of maturer years; that if, during the course of a long administration, he had committed any material error in government, or if, under the pressure of so many and great affairs, and amidst the attention which he had been obliged to give to them, he had either neglected or injured any of his subjects, he now implored their forgiveness; that, for his part, he should ever retain a grateful sense of their fidelity and attachment, and would carry the remembrance of it along with him to the place of his retreat, as his sweetest consolation, as well as the best reward for all his services, and in his last prayers to Almighty God would pour forth his most earnest petitions for their welfare.



Bishop Hooper.

Then turning towards Philip, who fell on his knees and kissed his father's hand: "If," says he, "I had left you by death this rich inheritance, to which I have made such large additions, some regard would have been justly due to my memory on that account: but now, when I voluntarily resign to you, what I might have still retained, I may well expect the warmest expressions of thanks on your part. With these, however, I dispense, and shall consider your concern for the welfare of your subjects, and your love of them, as the best and most acceptable testimony of your gratitude to me. It is in your power, by a wise and virtuous administration, to justify the extraordinary proof which I, this day, give of my paternal affection, and to demonstrate that you are worthy of the confidence which I repose in you. Preserve an inviolable regard for religion; maintain the Catholic faith in its purity; let the laws of your country be sacred in your eyes; encroach not on the rights and privileges of your people; and if the time should ever come when you shall wish to enjoy the tranquillity of private life, may you have a son endowed with such qualities that you can resign your sceptre to him with as much satisfaction as I give up mine to you."—*Robertson.*

The Edict of Charles V.—By this edict, or "placard," as it was called, it was ordained that all who were convicted of heresy should suffer death "by fire, by the pit, or by the sword"; in other words, should be burned alive, be buried alive, or be beheaded. These terrible penalties were incurred by all who dealt in heretical books, or copied or bought them, by all who held or attended conventicles, by all who disputed on the Scriptures in public or private, by all who preached or defended the doctrines of reform. Informers were encouraged by the promise of one-half of the confiscated estate of the heretic. No suspected person was allowed to make any donation, or sell any of his effects, or dispose of them by will. Finally, the courts were instructed to grant no remission or mitigation of punishment under the fallacious idea of mercy to the convicted party, and it was made penal for the friends of the accused to solicit such indulgence on his behalf. The more thoroughly to enforce these edicts, Charles took a hint from the terrible tribunal with which he was familiar in Spain—the Inquisition. He obtained a bull from his old preceptor, Adrian the Sixth, appointing an inquisitor-general, who had authority to examine persons suspected of heresy, to imprison and torture them, to confiscate their property, and finally sentence them to banishment or death. These formidable powers were intrusted to a layman—a lawyer of eminence, and one of the council of Brabant. But this zealous functionary employed his authority with so good effect, that it speedily roused the general indignation of his countrymen, who compelled him to fly for his life.—*Prescott.*

Luther and Indulgences.—At the termination of the wars of Italy in 1516, there was a prospect of a general and lasting peace among Christian nations, when unforeseen events unexpectedly excited anew the human passions, and carried to a still higher pitch, the disturbances of Europe. The chief and first cause of these fresh commotions was the religious revolution effected by Luther of Germany.

Martin Luther was born in 1483, at Bisleben, a small town of Saxony. After having studied with great success in the Latin schools of Magdeburg and Eisenach, he completed his education in the university of Erfurt. In the year 1505, he took the degree of Master of Arts, which authorized him to deliver lectures on Physics and the Ethics of Aristotle. But in consequence of an extraordinary event which happened to him about this time, and produced a deep impression upon his mind, he formed the design of becoming a religious, and accordingly joined the order of the Augustinians at Erfurt.

The life of the young monk (he was then twenty-five years of age) appeared regular, and in many respects edifying. He manifested, however, in several instances, particularly when he was opposed or corrected, a warm and irritable disposition. His talents and learning caused his superiors to recommend him to the Elector of Saxony as a professor of divinity in the newly erected university of Wittenberg, and when he afterwards began to preach, the vehemence of his discourses, the boldness of his eloquence, and a nervous kind of expression added to a copious flow of words in his mother-tongue, soon acquired for him the reputation of a good preacher.

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In the year 1517, Pope Leo X. having solemnly published indulgences to be gained by those who, being repentant for their sins, should contribute by their pious offerings to the rebuilding of St. Peter's church in Rome, and to expenses of an intended crusade against the Turks, the Augustinians could not see without some jealousy the publication of these indulgences intrusted by the archbishop of Mentz, not to them, as had been usual, but the Dominican order; and as it was reported, on the other hand, that great abuses existed in the publication and distribution of these indulgences by the Dominicans, Luther was commissioned by his superiors to preach and write against these abuses. This commission he fulfilled with a great deal of warmth; but he did not stop there. In the heat of the dispute, he passed insensibly from abuses which the whole church condemned with him, to the things abused, and soon began to attack the indulgences themselves; and to maintain his first position, he was gradually led to deny also the efficacy of the sacraments, the invocation of the saints, the sacrifices of the mass, and many other tenets universally admitted in the church.



John A'Lasco.

This bold step produced the greatest excitement all over the Christian world; Luther himself was at first terrified at it. When he began the dispute, it was not his intention to carry it so far, still less to come to an open rupture. He had even expressed his perfect submission to the Roman Pontiff in a letter which he wrote to Leo X., and which he concluded with these remarkable words: "Therefore, most holy father, prostrate at the feet of your Holiness, I place myself at your disposal, with all that I am and all that I have. Vivify, kill, call, recall, approve, disapprove, as you please; in your voice I will acknowledge the voice of Christ, who presides and speaks in you." But having in the interval gained over a strong party, he no sooner saw his condemnation pronounced in the Papal bull of the fifteenth of June (A.D. 1520), than, yielding to his resentment, he suddenly broke asunder all the ties by which he still adhered to the Roman See, openly separated from it, and the better to seal his separation, he publicly burnt the bull in which his opinions had been condemned, together with the decretals of the Popes and the writings of Eckius, his principal adversary, in the presence of the professors and the students of the university, and an immense concourse of the inhabitants of Wittenberg.

The die was cast; Luther continued to vent his anger by calling the Pope anti-Christ, the man of sin, the minister of Satan, and enemy of all good; he used similar expressions, not only against the king of England, Henry VIII., who had written a book in refutation of his tenets, but also against the various universities and Catholic doctors, by whom his doctrine had been unanimously rejected. The vehemence of his discourses, his exhortations to shake off the yoke of sacramental confession, of penitential works, of religious celibacy, and his suggestions to seize upon ecclesiastical property, vastly increased the number of his followers. —*Prof. Peter Fredet, Roman Catholic Historian.*

Luther Refuses Union with Zwingli.—It is sad to relate that Luther, in the controversy which ensued concerning the Real Presence, did not display his accustomed charity and fairness. He showed no disposition to heal the breach, and indeed went to the conference with the resolute intention of making it still wider and more pronounced. Luther and Zwingli agreed upon every essential point, save this alone; yet when the great Swiss conjured him to acknowledge the brotherhood of the two sides, Luther dogmatically refused to grant even this slight concession; and stranger still, the gentle Melancthon sided with him. "Let us confess our union in all things in which we agree," said Zwingli at the conclusion of a prolonged debate, during which neither party had yielded an inch, and when it became certain that neither disputant could convince the other; "and as for the rest, let us remember that we are brothers, with the same cause at heart. There will never be peace between the churches if, while we all maintain the grand doctrine of salvation by faith, we can not consent to differ on secondary points." "Yes, yes," cried the impatient landgrave of Hesse, who was present, and anxious at least for outward unity, "acknowledge them as brothers." Zwingli, bursting into tears in the presence of the prince, the courtiers, and the divines—it is Luther himself who relates this—approached Luther, and held out his hand; and this proffered hand the great apostle of the Reformation, the St. Paul of the sixteenth century, rejected.—*Martyn.*

Zwingli's Efforts.—In 1524 Zwingli began to effect the most sweeping changes with the view of overthrowing the whole fabric of medieval superstition. In the direction of reform he went far beyond Luther, who had retained oral confession, altar pictures, etc. The introduction of his reforms in Zürich called forth but little opposition. True, there were the risings of the Anabaptists, but these were the same everywhere, and the revolt of the peasants was a general feature of the time. Pictures and images were removed from the churches, under government direction, and nothing was left to distract men's attention, for Zwingli aimed at the re-establishment of the primitive Christianity in its pure, simple and biblical form. The Holy Scriptures, expounded by the elect ministers of God, were to be men's highest guide and support. At the Landgemeinden, called for the purpose, the people gave an enthusiastic assent to his doctrines, and declared themselves ready "to die for the Gospel truth." Thus a national church was established, severed from the diocese of Constance, and placed under the control of the Council of Zürich and a clerical synod. The convents were turned into schools, hospitals, and poor-houses. The famous Chorherrenstift, founded by the Carlovingians, was turned into a University College; continuing to be called the Carolinum. This lasted till 1832, when it was formed into the University and Gymnasium of our own days. Zwingli was elected rector, and lectured on theology. He was also devoted to the study of Greek, and on New Year's Day, 1531, had a splendid performance of one of the plays of Aristophanes, for which he himself wrote the accompanying music, grave statesmen joining the professors and students in the representation. Zwingli was now, indeed, the idol of the people, and wielded the sceptre in his little state. Under him Zürich became a center of learning and religious enlightenment, and its influence spread over other Swiss lands, South Germany and elsewhere.—*Hug-Stead.*

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NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

By Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.
Author of "Hindoo Literature," "Persian Literature," etc.

THE DYNASTIC TABLETS OF THE BABYLONIANS.

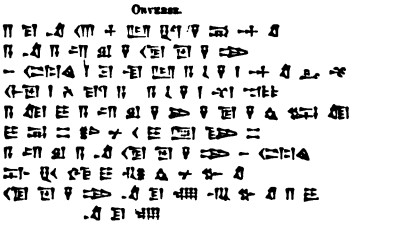
THE Assyrians dated their years in accordance with the carefully kept lists of their eponyms, and consequently the chronology of the Assyrian kings has been for a long time upon a footing which is comparatively satisfactory. But in relation to the older kingdom of Babylonia, scholars have too long depended upon the vague and contradictory statements of Greek writers for their information. Within the last few years, however, a number of discoveries which are due to Mr. Pinches have entirely changed our position in regard to the chronology of the Babylonian kings.

The First Dynastic Tablet. — Among the inscriptions which were brought from the site of

Obverse.



Obverse.



Inscribed Babylonian Tablet.

Babylon by the overseer of Mr. Hormuzd Rassam, Mr. Pinches found a small tablet of unbaked clay, quite complete and inscribed on both sides.

It contains the names of the kings belonging to two early dynasties, the number of years which each king reigned being added to the names in the case of the first dynasty. The tablet seems to be a sort of a school boy's exercise, having been copied from some larger work in order to be committed to memory.

The Second Dynastic Tablet.—Another and more important document is also of unbaked clay from Babylonia and contains a list of Babylonian sovereigns, arranged in dynasties, from the dynasty which made the city of Babylon the capital, down to the period of the Persian conquest. The number of regnal years is added to the name of king, and length of time which each dynasty lasted is duly recorded. This list is confined to the kings who reigned in Babylon itself, no notice being taken of the rulers who controlled the destinies of "Accad and Sumer" before Babylon became the capital of the empire.

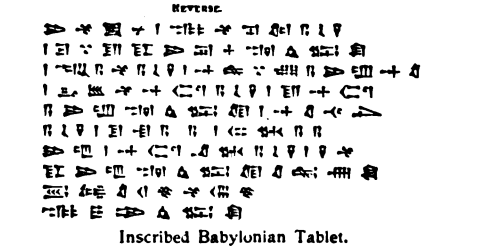
The Third Dynastic Tablet.—This was among the tablets which were brought from the royal library of Nineveh by Mr. Smith, and it can hardly be called more than a fragment.

It can be seen however that it contains the names and the regnal years of the kings of Babylonia, arranged in dynasties.

Reverse.



Reverse.



Inscribed Babylonian Tablet.

The work to which it belongs must have been similar to that from which Berossos derived his dynastic list of the Chaldean monarchs.

The broken columns of the "Third Dynastic Tablet" show that the early kings were numerous, and the fact is borne out by the bricks and other monuments of the early Chaldean kings, whose names do not occur among the successors of Sumuabi.

A Philological Tablet.—Another tablet which was brought from Assyria by Mr. Rassam, contains the names of many kings, but the writer expressly states that the names were "not written according to their chronological order."

The object of the record appears to be the fur-

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nishing of Semitic or Assyro-Babylonian translations of the Accado-Sumerian and Kassite names borne by many of the early princes, and in some cases it also gives the way in which the names of Semitic kings were pronounced or written by their Accadian subjects.

The Babylonian Chronicle.—This is the last chronological document which has been brought to light during the last few years, and in some respects it is the most important. The tablet was brought from Babylonia, and is inscribed on both sides with four columns of texts. It was apparently a copy or a compilation made by a Babylonian, in the reign of Darius, from older documents, and it begins with the era of Nabonassar B.C. 747.

Having been written from a Babylonian standpoint it must be compared with contemporaneous Assyrian inscriptions, for the fact that a record was made upon stone or clay, does not prove that the author was entirely truthful. The very battles which the Assyrian inscriptions describe as Assyrian victories, are sometimes passed over altogether by the Babylonian chronicle, and sometimes they are represented as Babylonian victories. It helps, however, in the correction of some inaccuracies in the Assyrian accounts, and it confirms the judgment already expressed by Assyriologists, that Sennacherib is the least trustworthy of all the royal historians of Assyria. (Sayce, Rec. of P. Vol. I, pp. 1-8.

A Contract Tablet of Nabonidas.—This text is an ordinary business tablet of unbaked clay. The tablet measures two inches and three eighths in length, by one inch and seven eighths in width. It is grayish in color, which deepens in some places into black. It is a document of considerable importance, not only as representing a large class of business documents, but also because it refers to the execution of work upon a building which the king was either erecting or repairing.

(Obverse of the Nabonidas Tablet. Reverse.)

(Text on the obverse side. Text on reverse side.)

Freely rendered it reads as follows: "Two mana and thirteen and a half shekels of silver (the property of the temple of Shamas) for the brick of the service of the king, untu Balatu and Kudda. They shall build and color it like the brick work of the Governor of Babylon.

"They shall give the brick work of the king's service in a trustworthy state. They take the responsibility of the service of the king—they take the first and the second liability" (Pinches, Inscribed Babylonian Tablets. Part II.)

Contract Tablets Relating to Belshazzar.—These are interesting on account of their reference to Belshazzar, the eldest son of Nabonidas, and we learn from one of them that the heir of the throne was obliged to conform to the same legal obligations as the meanest of his subjects. Security was exacted from him for the payment of a debt, a portion of the security being a house which was occupied by a Persian. As Persian slaves are mentioned in other deeds of the period, it is possible that the Persian in question was a slave. At all events it shows that there were Persians living in Babylon before the conquest by Cyrus. One of these documents is dated six years before the victorious troops of the Cyrus entered the Queen City of Chaldea. (Rec. of P. Vol. III., p. 124.)

Roman Archæology.—Lake Nemi in Italy is the creator of an extinct volcano, and therefore it combines great depth with a comparatively small surface. Being only sixteen miles from Rome and not far to the left of the Via Appia it was a favorite resort of the Roman Emperors even before the time of Tiberius.

It is classic in all its features, and one of the sources of the lake is the fountain sacred to Egeria. Here one may see the crevice in the rock, where Numa is said to have consulted that charming nymph, and all the woods surrounding the lake were consecrated to Diana. It is not, however, the great beauty of the spot, or the fascination of classical associations that makes the lake at present a great centre of scholarly interest.

It is now well known that the waters cover historical treasures of priceless value, and two expert marine divers are working here in the interests of science.

The Floating Palace of Tiberius.—The immense barge which was built by the Emperor Tiberius to be used as a floating palace, is at the bottom of Lake Nemi, beneath a hundred feet of water, and also buried beneath the silt deposits of nineteen centuries. The sunken vessel is five hundred feet long, and the work of raising and restoring it will consume many months, but it will excite greater interest than any similar discovery since the ruins of Pompeii and Herculaneum were brought to light. The Italian government is bearing the enormous expense of the work, but it will be amply rewarded when the palace has been recovered and restored as far as possible, for this event will mark an important epoch in archæology.

Historic Treasures.—The divers have already succeeded in bringing to light some leaden pipes, large nails, marbles, paving tiles and timbers, and one very long beam covered with bronze which is now in the Roman Museum. The most valuable of these relics are the leaden pipes, as they bear the name of "Tiberius, Imperator," and thus establish the fact that these imperial art treasures of nineteen hundred years ago belonged to his reign.

A Bronze Lion.—After several days' work, the divers succeeded in loosening from the almost impenetrable mud, an immense object which proved to be a Numidian lion of the purest bronze. When taken from the water it appeared to be of heroic size, but eager scholarly men surrounded it, and after long and exhaustive efforts they succeeded in cleaning it, when the statue proved to be only the natural size. Microscopes were brought into service to find any possible inscription, that would give the name of the sculptor whom Tiberius had employed in the work during Rome's golden period of art.

A Sculptured Wolf.—While the enthusiastic archæologists were still eagerly examining the lion, the cry went up that another treasure had been found, and when the new find was hoisted to the staging it was seen to be a wolf, and evidently a companion piece to the other. This new statue was subjected to the same vigorous cleaning process, and the same careful scrutiny, which resulted, if possible in a more excited controversy.

It was decided that the wolf and the lion were splendid specimens of antique art, and they are perhaps worth their weight in gold. It is thought that they are the work of Apollodox, the renowned architect of Damascus, who designed and executed the floating palace for his imperial patron.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

A.D.

1502 Cortereal, a Portuguese, explores the coast of North America. Columbus makes his fourth voyage. University of Wittenberg founded.

1503 James of Scotland and Margaret of England married.

1504 Spanish monarchy embraces the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily.

1505 John Knox of Scotland born.

1506 Death of Columbus at Valladolid.

1507 The New World named America, by Waldseemuller, of Fribourg, in honor of Amerigo Vespucci.

1508 Cuba, Jamaica and Porto Rico colonized by Spain. Maximilian crowned by the Pope in Italy, and joins the League of Cambray.

1509 Henry the VIII. of England joins the League of Cambray.

1510 Portugal begins conquests from the East Indies by Albuquerque, its military commander. Darien settled.

1511 300 Spaniards conquer Cuba. Council of Pica meets in Italy.

1512 Ponce de Leon discovers Florida. The greater part of the kingdom of Navarre conquered by Ferdinand.

1513 James the IV. of Scotland slain at the battle of Flodden. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean. The building of St. Peter's at Rome begun.

1514 Kurdistan and Mesopotamia become become part of the Ottoman Empire.

1515 Italy invaded by Francis I., King of France. Battle of Marignan.

1516 France acknowledges the Swiss Confederacy. Charles I., Emperor of Spain and Germany, resigns and retires to a monastery.

1517 Protestant Reformation begins. Luther, Erasmus, Melancthon and other Reformers on the scene. Egypt subdued by the Turks. The true system of the Universe discovered by Copernicus. Death of Cardinal Francis Ximenes aged 60. Francisco Fernandez discovers Mexico.



Albert Durer.

1518 The straits of Magellan discovered by Magellan. China commences trade with Portugal. Leo X. condemns the Doctrines of Luther, who is summoned before the Diet of Augsburg.

1519 The Spanish conquer Mexico under Cortez. Florence ruled by Cardinal de Medici. First circumnavigation of the globe by Magellan.

1520 Emperor of France visits England. Henry and Francis meet at the famous "Field of the Cloth of Gold." The Pope's bull burned by Luther. Henry the VIII. called the Defender of the Faith, by the Pope, for his writings against Luther.

1521 City of Mexico taken by Cortez Aug. 13. Luther summoned to the Diet of Worms.

1522 Second siege of Rhodes, by the Knights of St. John, who take it from the Turks.

1524 Death of the Chevalier Bayard in battle. The coast of America from N. C. to Nova Scotia explored by Verazzani in the interests of France.

1525 Battle of Pavia. Francis I. taken prisoner. The peasantry of Germany rise in general insurrection, under Thos. Munzer. India conquered by the Sultan Baber, founder of the Mogul empire.

1526 Hungary invaded by the Turks. Lutheranism obtains sway in Germany. The Danubian principalities subjugated by the Ottoman Porte.

1527 Florence expells the Medici.

1528 Peru conquered by the Spaniards. Death of Albert Durer, aged 57 years. Patrick Hamilton, Scottish Reformer, burned.

1529 Vienna besieged by 250,000 Turks, under Solyman II., who are repulsed. To those who protested at the diet of Spires in Germany the name of Protestant is given.

1530 Malta ceded to the Knights of St. John. Death of Ulric Zwingli, the Swiss reformer, in battle against the reformers, aged 42 years. Pizarro and Almagro invade Peru.

1532 Norway and Denmark united. Marriage of Henry VIII. to Anne Boleyn.

1533 Death of Ariosto, the Italian poet, aged 59. Death of Cardinal Wolsey of England.

1533 Henry VIII. assumes the headship of the English Church, and separates from the See of Rome.

1534 The river St. Lawrence discovered by Cartier.

1535 Foundation of the order of the Jesuits by Ignatius Loyola. Tunis seized by Barbarosso. Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher beheaded in England. The Pope ex-communicates Henry the VIII. The Moorish king restored by the Emperor Charles the V.

1536 California discovered by Cortez. Henry the VIII. married to Jane Seymour. Protestants persecuted in Scotland. Erasmus of Rotterdam, the reformer, died.

1538 The invention of the diving bell. The emperor of Germany, the king of France and the Pope meet at the congress of Nice. The larger monastries in England suppressed.

1539 First authorized English edition of the Bible.

1540 Reformation carried on at Geneva. The Society of the Jesuits established.

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A.D.

1541 Death of Francis Pizarro, conqueror.

1542 The fourth French war. Birth of Mary Stuart, who is made Queen of Scotland. Death of De Soto. Buried in the Mississippi River. Discovered by him the year previous.

1543 Death of Copernicus, the astronomer. Germany and England unite against France.

1544 The reformed religion introduced into Sweden by Gustavus Vasa, who makes the crown hereditary. The English defeated in a naval victory by the French fleet off the Isle of Wight. Lutheranism established in Sweden.

1545 Opening of the Council of Trent, the last general council. The famous silver mines of Potosi discovered in South America.

1546 Death of Luther.

1547 Persia invaded by the Turks, who capture Ispahan. 10 per cent interest of money first established by law in England. The Scots defeated at Pin-kie by Somerset, in Scotland. Catherine de Medici Queen of France with Henry II. king. Death of Fernando Cortez, conqueror.

1548 Protestantism formally established in England. In Europe orange-trees are first introduced.

1549 Invention of the telescope. Birth of Cervantes, author of Don Quixote.

1550 English Puritans in the ascendant. Unitarians formed as a distinct sect.

1552 Religious liberty secured to the Protestants by the Treaty of Passau. Death of Sir Francis Xavier, the apostle of East Indies and Japan.

1553 Coronation of Queen Mary, daughter of Henry VIII. of England. Married to Philip II. of Spain, the year following. Burning of Servetus at Geneva through the influence upon the magistrates by Calvin.

1554 Death of Hans Holbein, the distinguished English painter. The common people of England forbidden to wear silk.

1555 Burning at the stake at Oxford, October 16, of Ridley, Bishop of London and Latimer, Bishop of Worcester. Bishop Hooper burned, Feburary 6.

1556 Abdication of Charles V., reigning over Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bohemia and Spain. Burning at the stake of Archbishop Cranmer at Oxford, March 21.

1557 French defeated by the Spaniards, at St Quintan.

1558 The French recover Calais from the English. Dr. Bugenhagen, reformer of Wittenberg, died. Coronation of Elizbeth in England, daughter of Henry the VIII. and Anne Boleyn. Death of Cardinal Pole.

1559 Francis II. of France married to Mary Stuart, afterwards Queen of Scotland.

1560 Catherine de Medici, regent of France. Called "The Preceptor of Germany."

1560 Philip Melancthon, the celebrated German reformer, died at Leipzig, aged 63 years. John A'Lasco; the Polish Reformer, died. The reformation in Scotland fully established by John Knox.

1561 Persecution of the Protestants by Philip II. Mary, Queen of Scotland, arrives there from France.

1563 Sir John Hawkins of England made a traffic of the human species, after the discovery of America. Knives first made in England. The Council of Trent finishes its sessions.

1564 Death of Michael Angelo. Birth of William Shakespeare. Death of John Calvin, the great Swiss Reformer, aged 55 years. Birth of Galileo at Pisa.

1565-66 Mary Stuart and Lord Darnley married. Protestants revolted in Scotland. Malta besieged by the Turks, who were repulsed with terrible loss. Death of William Farel, the Evangelist of French Switzerland.

1567 Duke of Alva sent to the Netherlands to subdue the Protestants.

1568 Battle between the Huguenots and Catholics at St. Denis. Beheading of Count of Egmont by the Duke of Alva.

1569 Death of Bernardo Tasso, the great poet of Italy, aged 70 years. Hamilton assassinated the Earl of Murray, regent of Scotland.

1570 The building of the famous bridge of Rialto at Venice.

1571 The battle of Lepanto. Great naval engagements between the Protestant fleet and the Turks. Moscow surprised by the Tartars who burned the city and destroyed 30,000 of the inhabitants. Turks take the Island of Cyprus.

1572 Massacre of St. Bartholomew, August 24. 70,000 Huguenots put to death throughout the kingdom of France. The present calendar arranged by Pope Gregory XIII. William of Orange recognized as Stadtholder by the northern states of the Netherlands. Death of John Knox, aged 67 years.

1573 Birth of William Laud, the Great English Poet.

1574 The great siege of Leyden by armies of Spain. 6,000 of the inhabitants die of pestilence and famine. Christians terribly persecuted during the reign of Amurath III. of Turkey.

1576 The great treaty of Ghent, November 8, Catholic league formed in France against Protestants. Death of Tiziano Vecelli, the greatest Venetian painter, aged 99 years.

1577 The first English circumnavigator, Sir Francis Drake, began to sail around the globe Nov. 13. Returned Nov. 3, 1850. Pocket watches first brought from Germany into England.

1579 The "Union of Utrecht" formed by the seven provinces of the Netherlands under William, prince of Orange. The Republic of Holland begun. William, prince of Orange is elected Stadtholder. Proclamation issued forbidding the enlargement of the city of London, to effect which it was ordered that no new houses should be built within three miles of the gates of the city. Death of Louis Camoens, aged 62 years.

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A.D.

distinguished for his Scriptural chronology.
1581 The Republic of Holland proclaimed.
1582 Death of Ferdinand Alvarez, duke of Alva. Death of St. Theresa, foundress of the Carmelites. Tobacco first introduced into England from Virginia.
1584 The English discover Cape Breton. William, prince of Orange, the Stadtholder, is assasinated. Sir Walter Raleigh discovers Virginia. Birth of Miles Standish.
1585 Death of Pope Gregory XIII. Birth of Cardinal de Richelieu, the great statesman of France. Birth of John Cotton, the great divine of Boston. First English colony in America established at Roanoke. Birth of Cornelius Jansen of Ypres, founder of the Jansenist sect.
1586 Death of Sir Philip Sidney at Zutphen, aged 32 years.
1587 Unjust execution of Mary Stuart, queen of Scotland, beheaded by order of Queen Elizabeth. John Foxe, Martyrologist, died.
1588 Defeat of the Spanish armament in the English Channel. Manufacture of paper begun in England. Birth of William Bradford, second governor of Plymouth colony. Bernard Palissy, the great Huguenot potter, died.
1589 Henry IV. of France and Navarre becomes King of France. First introduction of coaches in England.
1590 Invention of the telescope by Jansen. Paris besieged by Henry IV.
1591 Establishment of the University of Dublin.
1592 65,000 Christians slain by the Turks. Presbyterian Church goverment established in Scotland.
1593 Birth of Sir Thomas Wentworth, earl of Stafford. Henry IV. of France becomes a Catholic.
1594 The Bank of England incorporated. Birth of Edward Winslow. Mohamet III. of Turkey begins his bloody reign.
1596 Birth of Rene Descartes, the distinguished French philosopher.
1599 Birth of Edmund Spenser, one of the greatest of English poets. Henry IV. of France by the Edict of Nantes allows liberty of conscience to the Calvinists.
1600 The English East India Company established.

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Kitchin.... ....History of France.
Knight, Charles.....Popular History of England.
Kohlrausch..... .....History of Germany.
Lewis, Charlton T..... .....History of Germany.
Lingard..... .....History of England.
Lord, John.....Beacon Lights of History.
Macaulay, T. B.....History of England.

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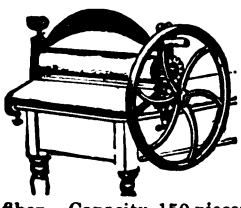

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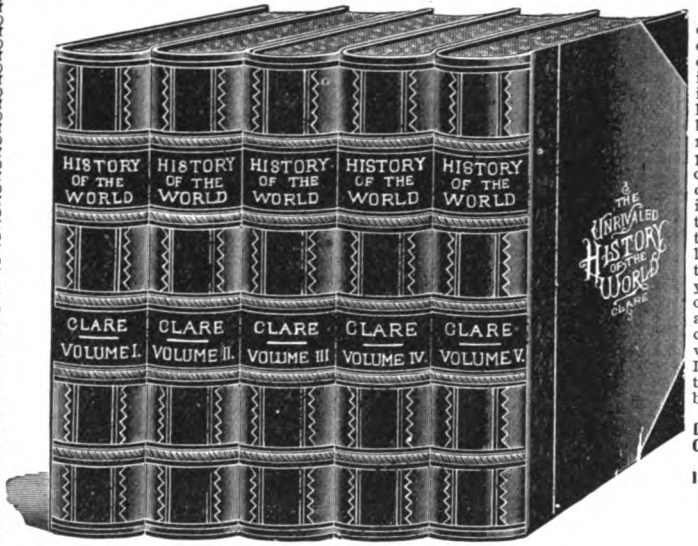

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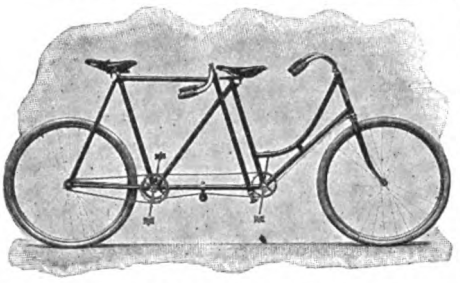

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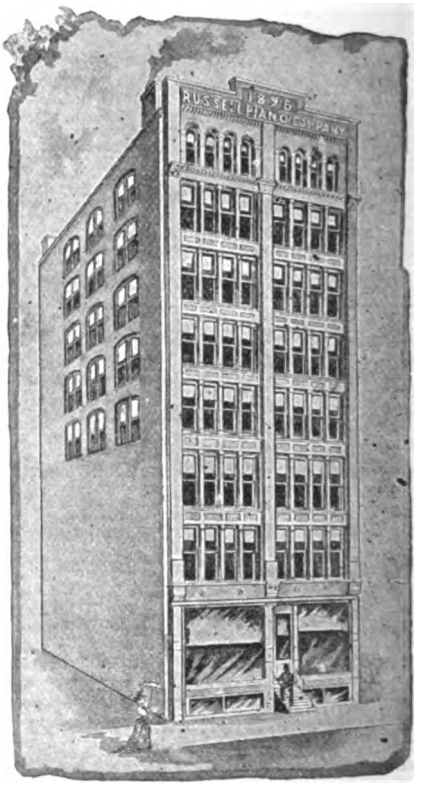

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..A FEW EARLY COMMENDATIONS..

The University Association has my best wishes and hearty endorsement. Its great and comprehensive plans deserve the cordial approval of those interested in the education of our people.

REV. JOHN HENRY BARROWS, CHAIRMAN,
Parliament of Religions, World's Congresses.

I have examined your plan and it seems to me that it ought to meet the approval of anyone who is interested in seeing our people generally engaged in some sort of systematic study. I hope you will succeed in enlisting a large number of people in the work of your Association.

JOHN W. COOK, PRESIDENT,
State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

I have read this statement to President Cook and find he has expressed my own opinions about the work proposed, and the feasibility of the plan of doing it.

EDWIN C. HEWETT, EX-PRESIDENT,
State Normal University.

I have given the University Association a careful investigation, and feel justified in giving the plan my unqualified approval. I know of no movement of our day that seems so well fitted to bring the best thought of the age into the American homes as this. The men who are the originators and managers of this work are a sufficient guarantee as to its real worth. J. F. KNIGHT,
Superintendent of Schools, La Porte, Ind.

A cursory study of the aim and work of the University Association impresses me with the importance of an organization that carries with it so much that is educational. It is systematic, brief, yet comprehensive.

W. T. BUSHMAN,
Superintendent of Schools, Van Wert, Ohio.

We, the Ministerial Association of Harrisburg, Pa., in convention assembled, Resolved: that after carefully examining the courses of systematic study, as laid down by the University Association, of Chicago, Illinois, do most heartily endorse the course of said Association, and thoroughly commend it to others. That for systematic arrangement of subject matter; for thoroughness of treatment, omitting unimportant details, placing this historical course of instruction at our very doors—so to speak—the University Association has no superior, and very few, if any, equals.

Signed: REV. J. T. MORELAND, PRESIDENT.
H. C. C. ATWOOD, VICE-PRESIDENT.
REV. R. D. EPPS, SECRETARY.

To those desiring to pursue a course of reading in the history of the world, the University Association seems to present an excellent opportunity. The men engaged in the preparation of the work are well fitted for their task, and the plan appears to be delightfully and satisfactorily arranged.

FRANK B. COOPER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
Editor Iowa School Journal, Des Moines, Iowa.

I have examined the University Association course in history and find it an excellent one for more complete preparation in this especial line of work. I take pleasure in commending it to teachers and others desirous of advancement. W. A. McCORD,
Superintendent of Schools, Polk County, Des Moines, Iowa.

I have examined the plan of study suggested by the University Association and feel confident that it offers an excellent opportunity for systematic work, under guidance, to many who are denied the privilege of attending a higher institution of learning. The names of the directors and instructors also invite confidence in this plan.

JOHN H. FINLEY, D. D., PRESIDENT,
Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.

We therefore, as an association, heartily endorse the method pursued by the University Association, and we furthermore take pleasure in recommending the course to all who may be desirous of acquiring a more thorough knowledge of history.

The Mechanicsburg, Pa., Ministerial Association,
J. M. RUNKLE, SECRETARY.

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Cincinnati Times-Star:

The whole scheme is the natural outgrowth of the University Extension and Chautauqua idea, and can scarcely fail to enlist the most cordial co-operation among students everywhere.

Michigan School Moderator:

The Association deserves the co-operation of all interested in the cause of higher education. The names of the officers and instructors are sufficient guarantee that the movement is worthy of encouragement.

The Visitor.—Alexis, Ill.

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The Evening News.—Attica, Ind.

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Object. The object of The University Association is: To interest the people in the pursuit of useful knowledge. To bring to their homes and firesides the result of the profound study and investigation of the trained specialists in the different branches taught by them in the prominent colleges and universities of the country.

To carry on the work of self-culture by individual effort, or in local centers or organizations, along the lines of High School, Normal School, University and World's Congress Extension.

To thus bring our Public Schools and the higher institutions of learning into close relationship with all classes of society, and in turn stimulate the attendance of students upon them.

To aid the teachers of our Public, Private and Parochial Schools in thorough and systematic preparation for their important duties.

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Under the above heading we will in the future publish such brief communications as will be of interest and encouragement to local centers. Members are cordially invited to send any suggestions which will be helpful to others or enable us to increase the value of the course offered.

"The members here are perfectly delighted with the work, and all of them are taking a deep interest in it. It has awakened an unprecedented effort to know more of history, and the historical works in our college library are being read and examined with far more zeal than ever before. The members here are divided into two clubs, and each one forced me to take its leadership. I enjoy the work, and only wish I had more time to devote to it."

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(This club has 55 members, and is making good progress.)

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MISS ANNETTE KEELY, Sec'y,
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(This center was organized with 34 members, and now has 51; and shows what may be accomplished if each member will make an effort to interest others. Every center can be increased in size if proper steps are taken. A large membership will do more than all else to keep up interest.)

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(The suggestion of Mr. Clancy is an excellent one. Every center should have its own club room. Many have already taken steps in this direction. In small towns particularly a room can usually be rented over a store in the business center at a nominal expense. A few more dollars will carpet and furnish it comfortably. By giving a lecture or an entertainment enough money can be realized to start a library and procure a few monthly magazines. Such a room will cost but little, and will pay for itself many times over by the comfort and convenience it will afford to members. Agitate this question at your next meeting. Remember our motto—"Progress").

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Splendid progress is being made in California in promoting the work of the Association. The State has put its official seal of approval on the course, and the Governor and many of the leading citizens have become members of the Advisory Council. The following letter explains itself:

Department of Public Instruction.
Sacramento, Cal., Feb. 8, 1896.

Gentlemen—In accordance with the authority given by the State Board of Education at its meeting, January 7, 1896, I hereby place "Progress" on the list of periodicals recommended for use in public school libraries.

SAMUEL T. BLACK, Sup't.

As there are over 3.000 school districts in the state, this will insure an immediate and large circulation for the Course in History on the coast. Among the members of the Advisory Council for California are:

Hon. James H. Budd, Governor; Hon. Geo. C. Perkins, U. S. Senator; Hon. S. T. Black, Sup't of Public Instruction; Prof. P. M. Fisher, Editor Pacific Coast Educational Journal; Prof. E. E. Brown, University of California; Prof. H. H. Powers, Leland Stanford University; Mrs. Anna S. Averill, Author Outlines of English History and Literature. The representative of the Association for California is Mr. E. C. Newell, 522 Central Bank Building, Oakland. All inquiries pertaining to the work for California should be addressed to him.

One of our members located in a small town suggests a good plan of obtaining reference books to supplement the daily lessons. She writes: "We have no library here, and wishing to do extensive reading, we appointed a committee who visited all of the homes in town and requested the loan of any historical works that might be had. By this plan we have secured over 20 historical works, many of them of great value." There are many reference works in every town which can be obtained for the asking. If located in a small place not convenient to a library, why not try it?

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GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERIOD.

THE first part of the Seventeenth Century is marked by the continuance or reopening of the conflicts which inevitably followed the Protestant revolt from the medieval church. These so-called religious wars were, however, complicated throughout by political and economic considerations. In the second half of this century the religious issues had been partially settled, and occupied a subordinate position. This period may, therefore, fairly be regarded as an era of essentially modern politics.

PART I.

1. THE ERA OF RELIGIOUS WARS.

1. **The Thirty Years' War in Germany.**—The origin of the war is to be found in the issues left unsettled by the Religious Peace of Augsburg, 1555. That peace was only partial. It gave toleration only to Lutherans and Catholics, excluding the Calvinists. The rule that each prince should determine the religion of his territory worked badly. There was no security for Protestant subjects of a Catholic prince. On the other hand, Protestant princes interpreted this rule as permitting confiscations of church property, which they often held for their own uses, in spite of Catholic protests. Both these matters were sources of serious irritation.

There was another rule about which there were serious differences. By the so-

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called ecclesiastical reservation, every church officer who became a Protestant was to forfeit his church office and the territory belonging to it. These territories were often very large. Spiritual princes, like the archbishops of Cologne, were also temporal rulers of large domains. These lands, among the richest in the empire, were to be held permanently with their population for Catholicism. The Protestants did not deny the validity of the rule, and they maintained that when the clergy of a diocese themselves became Protestants they had a perfect right to elect a Protestant bishop. The Catholics, of course, refused to accept this interpretation.



Old Print of The Landing of Prince William in England, Nov. 5, 1688.

Thus the issues involved were not simply matters of religious faith; there were great interests in both sides. . . . The Protestants were contending not merely for their religion, but for the rich estates which they had confiscated, or for the interests of some member of their family who had been elected to a bishopric, whose duties he did not perform.

1. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PERIOD.

General Cause and Character.—Of that unity in European society so dear to the middle age the Reformation had about destroyed all real remnant, ruptured even the form. But men would not give up the idea, or the hope that it might again be realized. The Peace of Augsburg had established as legal a religious confession other than Catholic, but its so unsatisfactory basis of agreement, toleration to rulers alone, rendered it a truce rather than a peace. In less than seventy-five years the faith of Luther had to enter upon a fresh struggle for life, Protestant Europe against Catholic, fiercer and longer than the first, which for a quarter of a century threatened to subjugate all Germany once more to Pope and emperor. Now again appears even more painfully than at the Reformation, German inaptitude for political organization, the deterioration of the imperial constitution, the feebleness and nominal character of imperial power. The Diet, lacking a popular element, could not feel or voice the real spirit of the nation. The people and their instituted authorities were at feud, a majority of them at least, allied with a minority of the princes against a majority of the princes supported by the emperor. The constitution offered no means of reconciliation.—*Andrews.*

Rudolph, Hoping to Conciliate the Bohemians, gave them, in 1609, the so-called "Letter of Majesty," a royal charter which permitted a free exercise of religion to the three estates of lords, knights and royal cities, but notwithstanding he was compelled to abdicate his government there also to Matthias, and in 1612 he died and his brother succeeded to the crown. Matthias was very little more successful than his brother in the government of the empire. He had to yield to the Protestants in many respects, yet he tried to favor the Jesuits. Being childless, and having obtained the renunciation of his brothers, he secured for his cousin Ferdinand, duke of Styria, a strict Catholic, the succession to Bohemia and Hungary. The Bohemians, led by the Count of Thurn, rose in defense of their religion, and thus we are brought to the commencement of the great Thirty Years' War, which devastated Germany, from 1618 to 1648. From 1617 all real power in Bohemia and Hungary passed to Ferdinand, who proved himself, as in Styria and his hereditary dominions, a bitter and narrow religionist. Protestants naturally felt alarmed at the prospect of his succession to the empire, and events proved the truth of their fears. The first spark was kindled when a Utraquist Church—that is, one where the communion was administered in both kinds—in the territory of the Abbot of Braunau, was forcibly closed, and another in the territory of the Archbishop of Prague was demolished. The Protestants complained to the emperor, and met with no satisfaction. Their irritation was further increased by the fact that the administration of the country was transferred to ten governors, seven of whom were Catholics. In 1618 the revolt took place. It began in Prague, where two unpopular ministers were thrown from the window of the town-hall into a ditch seventy feet below, but were not killed.—*Patton.*

The Ecclesiastical Reservation applied to a different class of property, namely, to the bishoprics and abbeys held immediately of the empire. Here, too, the Protestants found an excuse for evading the treaty of Augsburg. The object of the reservation, they argued, was not to keep the bishoprics in Catholic hands, but to prevent quarrels arising between the bishops and their chapters. If, therefore, a bishop elected as a Catholic chose to turn Protestant, he must resign his seat in order to avoid giving offense to the Catholic chapter. But where a chapter, itself already Protestant, elected a Protestant bishop, he might take the see without hesitation, and hold it as long as he lived. In this way eight of the great northern bishoprics soon came under Protestant rule. Not that the Protestant occupant was in any real sense of the word a bishop. He was simply an elected prince, calling himself a bishop, or often more modestly an administrator, and looking after the temporal affairs of his dominions.—*Gardiner.*

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2.

The imperial government could not decide these controversies. The emperor's authority was very slight. Besides, he was too strong a Catholic to be accepted as a judge by the Protestants. The diet, composed of princes and representatives of the cities, was also very weak, and did not represent the nation. These disputes could thus only be settled by force. Both sides began to prepare for the conflict.



Lord William Russell.

The direct occasion of the war was a dispute between the King of Bohemia (who soon after became the Emperor Ferdinand III.) and his Protestant nobles, because certain privileges of worship promised to them were not respected. The rebellion began when the Bohemian nobles threw some of the king's officers from the windows of the palace in Prague. They then elected Frederick, Elector Palatine, to be king (the Winter King). The Bohemians hoped for support from the German Protestants. But only a few responded. The Winter King was soon expelled and Ferdinand came back, more determined than ever to put an end to Protestantism in his territories.

But Frederick was a German prince, and so Ferdinand, now Emperor, attacked him in his hereditary possessions, as a rebel against the empire. This spark, falling into the combustible mass of controversies between Protestants and Catholics, was soon to kindle a very great fire. The Catholics now meant to seize the opportunity to regain the property which they thought wrongfully taken by the Protestants. The Protestants resisted, but they were disunited. There was little sympathy between Lutherans and Calvinists, and many of the strongest princes were too selfish or too timid to take up the causes of their natural allies. So the Catholics were generally victorious. The Protestant cause was so desperate that a foreign king was called in to help them. Christian of Denmark came in as the defender of Protestantism. But the emperor had now a great general in his service—Wallenstein—who, caring nothing for religion or country, found his interest in supporting the emperor. The King of Denmark was driven back to his islands. The Catholics were now all-powerful, and induced the emperor to issue the Edict of Restitution. The Catholics got nearly everything they had demanded at the beginning of the war. The very existence of Protestantism seemed now to be threatened.

2.

Reaction Against Protestantism.—In course of time Protestanism, in its turn, exposed itself to attack. Each petty court soon had its own school of theologians, whose minds were dwarfed to the limits of the circle which they influenced with their logic and their eloquence. The healthful feeling which springs from action on a large stage was wanting to them. Bitterly wrangling with one another, they were eager to call in the secular arm against their opponents. Seizing the opportunity, the newly-constituted order of Jesuits stepped forward to bid silence in the name of the renovated Papal church, alone, as they urged, able to give peace instead of strife, certainty instead of disputation. The Protestants were taken at a disadvantage. The enthusiasm of a national life, which repelled the Jesuits in the England of the sixteenth century, and the enthusiasm of scientific knowledge which repels them in the Germany of the nineteenth century, were alike wanting to a Germany in which national life was a dream of the past, and science a dream of the future. Luther had long ago passed away from the world. Melancthon's last days were spent in hopeless protest against the evil around him. "For two reasons," he said, as he lay upon his death bed, "I desire to leave this life: First, that I may enjoy the sight, which I long for, of the Son of God and of the Church in Heaven. Next, that I may be set free from the monstrous and implacable hatreds of the theologians." In the face of a divided people, of self-seeking princes, and of conflicting theories, the Jesuits made their way. Step by step the Catholic reaction gained ground, not

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without compulsion, but also not without that moral force which makes compulsion possible.—*Gardiner.*

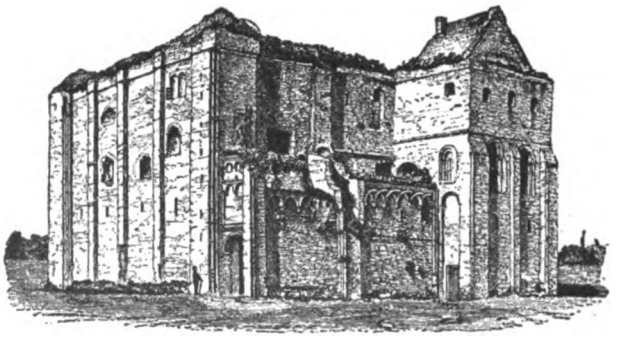
The Peace of Augsburg was Followed by an Unprecedentedly Disgraceful Period of German History.—The anti-Catholic party, far from showing aught of constructive genius or wish, seemed at first hopelessly anarchic. 1. Politically. Protestants were not united, petty governments being mad with rivalry, each bent on self-aggrandizement no less than of old. Only external pressure or stimulus, and this but rarely, could force the champions of the new faith to present a solid front to foes. The Hanseatic cities feared neighboring lords and looked to the emperor for protection, as they did for intervention in favor of foreign trade. Spirit and energy were wanting. Gustavus Adolphus was the only Protestant chief who betrayed any sense of having a cause. 2. Doctrinally. Sects sprung up in such multitude and fought so bitterly that it was hard not to condemn the primary schism whence all came, and natural to sigh for a central doctrinal authority. Subscribers and non-subscribers to the Formula of Concord gnashed teeth at each other; both at Calvinists, Calvinists at both. Melancthon longed to die to escape the implacable quarrels of theologians. 3. Ecclesiastically. The two reforming communions did not carry out or even understand the precious and far-reaching principles which they had professedly espoused, denying one another the very liberty of conscience which they had deserted Rome for refusing them. Like intolerance swayed the subdivisions of each. Also that authority in matters of faith which the Pope had been cursed for arrogating, they yielded to secular rulers, ignorant and often godless. From these three sources of confusion resulted a state of affairs so hopeless and threatening that many Protestants were aghast, while emperor and Pope may actually have felt it at once obligatory and possible to reassert the church's ancient sway.—*Andrews.*

Wallenstein.—Ferdinand, himself, who was jealous of the power and influence of Maximilian of Bavaria, resolved to raise an army of his own. Albert von Wallenstein, a wealthy Bohemian nobleman, offered to support an army of fifty thousand men, at his own expense, for the emperor, on condition of being allowed the unlimited command of them, and of indemnifying himself by the plunder of the conquered lands. After some hesitation, Ferdinand accepted the offer of the daring adventurer, made him governor of Friedland, elevated him to the dignity of an elector of the German empire, and afterward created him duke of Friedland and a prince of the empire.

Wallenstein was a Bohemian by birth, but a German by descent, and had been carefully educated at the university of Padua, in northern Italy, then one of the most renowned seats of learning in Europe. There he imbibed a belief in astrology, which had great influence on his subsequent life. In consequence of his infamous bargain with the Emperor Ferdinand II., he was at the head of an army of as desperate troops as ever took the field. He soon proved himself a great general, and became one of the famous heroes of the Thirty Years' War, while also acquiring the reputation of being one of the most unscrupulous plunderers of history.

Northern Germany now became the chief theater of the war; and the army of the Catholic League under Tilly, and that of the emperor under Wallenstein, soon broke the power of the Protestants in that quarter. The campaign of 1625 began with the advance of King Christian IV., of Denmark from the Elbe to the Weser; but that monarch was defeated by Tilly near Hanover, thus ending the campaign decidedly in favor of the imperialists.—*Clare.*

Wallenstein.—While the rich and powerful cities of Hamburg and Lübeck surrendered at his approach, the little Hanseatic town of Stralsund closed its gates against him. The citizens took a solemn oath to defend their religious faith and their political independence to the last drop of their blood. Wallenstein exclaimed: "And if Stralsund were bound to Heaven with chains, I would tear it down," and marched against the place. At the first assault he lost 1,000 men; at the second, 2,000; and then the citizens, in turn, made sallies, and inflicted still heavier losses upon him. They were soon reinforced by 2,000 Swedes, and then Wallenstein was forced to raise the siege, after having lost, altogether, 12,000 of his best troops. At this time the Danes appeared with a fleet of 200 vessels, and took possession of the port of Wolgast, in Mecklenburg.—*Bayard Taylor.*



Castle Rising, Built before the Norman Conquest.

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3.

The Protestant cause was saved from this danger partly by the jealousy of the Catholic princes, who thought the Emperor was getting too much power. They compelled him to dismiss Wallenstein. The Protestants, on the other hand, had at last a really great champion in Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. He was a strong Lutheran Protestant, a man of deep religious feeling. He was also a great king, who wished to strengthen the Swedish power. Religious feeling and political policy were combined to bring him into the war.

For a time the Protestants were everywhere victorious, and pushed on into the heart of the enemy's territory in South Germany. Then the Emperor called back Wallenstein, and the two great generals met in the battle of Lutzen, 1632. The Protestants won, but Gustavus Adolphus fell. His victories had saved Protestantism in Germany. His death and the renewed differences among the Protestants prevented their gaining a complete victory.

The French Period—1635-1648.—The original issues were now often forgotten. The war was prolonged mainly in order to enable the foreigners to get their share of the spoils. France under Richelieu now brought her forces into the field against the Emperor solely to keep alive the dissensions in Germany and to acquire territory, particularly on the French-German frontier. So Germans on both sides were fighting the battles of foreigners, often simply for pay, without thought of religious or political principles. The warfare on both sides was inconceivably brutal.

3.

Wallenstein, he learned, had been intriguing with the Bohemian exiles, who had offered, with Richelieu's consent, to place upon his head the crown of Bohemia, which had fourteen years before been snatched from the unhappy Frederick. In all this there was much exaggeration. Though Wallenstein had listened to these overtures, it is almost certain that he had not accepted them. But neither had he revealed them to the government. It was his way to keep in his hands the threads of many intrigues, to be used or not to be used as occasion might serve.—*Gardiner.*

Decision against Wallenstein.—All this hesitation was now at an end. Ferdinand resolved to continue the war in alliance with Spain, and, as a necessary preliminary, to remove Wallenstein from his generalship. But it was more easily said than done. A declaration was drawn up releasing the army from its obedience to Wallenstein, and provisionally appointing Gallas, who had by this time given assurances of loyalty, to the chief command. It was intended, if circumstances proved favorable, to entrust the command ultimately to the young King of Hungary.—*Gardiner.*

Gustavus Adolphus.—What was his character? If it had not been made clear by the description which I have endeavored to give of his life, nothing that I could say in conclusion could make it any clearer. Simple, brave, passionate, truthful, devout; with the highest sense of his kingly dignity, and a yet higher sense of his great mission on earth, it is not unfair to say of him that he had a single eye to the work God had given him to do. More cannot be said of any man. What were his aims? That has always been a great problem. But, if any one may be supposed to have known his mind, it surely was Axel Oxenstiern, with whom, during his whole reign, he lived upon terms of intimacy so affectionate to be very uncommon between great men of equal rank, but rare indeed between a subject and his sovereign. And all Oxenstiern's utterances on the subject have the same ring: "A great Scandinavian Empire, if you will. The Baltic and the Baltic coasts for Sweden. But not the crown of the Holy Roman Empire." Swede and Vasa to the backbone, it was his own country after all that had most to bewail his loss. But the passionate grief in the streets of Stockholm found more than echo in every Protestant town in Europe and in many Catholic; but most in that down-trodden Germany, to which he had appeared like a deliverer from on high, and which a Swedish historian finely calls his "dear Fosterland." For that land his death had almost as great an effect as his living deeds. He had been the first to set a bound to the tyranny which Germany was powerless to resist, and which would, if not resisted, have spread far beyond Germany, even far beyond distant Sweden. And for that reason Germany, Sweden, and mankind count him among their heroes.—*Fletcher.*

The Death of Gustavus Adolphus was a grief to Christendom. Never was king or general more beloved; he hated flattery and demanded absolute sincerity from all with whom he dealt, but he was careful to give every man his due proportion of praise, and never forgot a brave deed done in his service. His death completed the beneficent results of his life, for in the general consternation, the hitherto inert powers of Germany were roused to self-defense, and the united energy of the many was better than the all-absorbing authority of one, however disinterested was his devotion to the common cause. It is possible, too, that a longer career would have revealed lower motives than had yet appeared in the conduct of Gustavus. His failure to restore the Palatinate to Frederic V., his acceptance of sovereign honors at Augsburg, his apparent intention to establish a Swedish kingdom in the heart of the Empire, or even to grasp for himself the imperial crown, awakened anxiety in the lovers of German independence, lest they might have exchanged an Austrian for a foreign despot.—*Thalheimer.*

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4.

The Treaty of Westphalia, 1648.—Finally the long war came to an end, partly, at least, because Germany was almost exhausted. By the treaty of Westphalia religious toleration was granted (except in the domains of the Emperor) to Catholics, Lutherans and Calvinists. Secondly, the Protestants got final possession of a large number of bishoprics, with their land. Even the Catholics shared in the spoiling of the church. Lastly, the constitution of the empire was changed in such a way as to leave the government of the empire weaker than it had been before. The separate states became almost independent, besides being strengthened by the acquisition of territory, especially the church lands.



Old Print, William III., of England.

The foreign powers demanded their share of the spoils. The Swedes took a large amount of territory on the Baltic. *Sweden* became for a time the mistress of the Baltic.

France got a large amount of territory, particularly in Elsase-Lothringen (Alsace-Lorraine), and the treaty was so loosely worded that she later had pretext for seizing nearly the whole of Alsace-Lorraine.

The long war had been ruinous in almost every way. Private morality was sapped by the brutalizing tendencies of the long period of war. In public virtue also there was a serious loss. Patriotism seemed to be dying out with Germans, who were willing to serve foreign power on German soil in direct conflict with German interests.

The economic effects of the war were even more palpable. Population in some districts did not recover its lost ground for more than a century. Whole villages disappeared and many of the cities suffered seriously. (There were some exceptions, notably Hamburg.)

4.

The Treaty of Westphalia marks an important era in European history, for it was the first attempt to reconstruct the system of states by diplomacy, when their relations had been seriously disturbed. It definitely closed the century and more of religious and consequent civil revolutions; it put an end to the international authority of the emperor, while it loosened the bond which had united the German states. Three hundred petty sovereignties existed between the Alps and the Baltic, each with its distinct coinage, its standing army, its custom-houses, and a court which made up in ceremony what it lacked in grandeur. Of the "Roman Empire" there remained only the name, and a system of clumsy formalities which served chiefly to impede and embarrass European diplomacy. All really imperial functions—such as making war or peace, building fortresses, raising armies, levying contributions—were transferred to the Diet, which from an occasional assembly of the princes in person, was soon changed into a permanent organization composed of their envoys with those of the fifty free cities.—*Thalheimer.*

The war which France and Sweden waged against Spain and the German Empire continued ten months, but the triumphant course of the French and Swedish arms in Germany alarmed the Emperor Ferdinand III., so that he consented to an armistice while the conferences at Münster were pressed to a conclusion. Finally the Peace of Westphalia was signed at Münster, October 24, 1648, ending the famous Thirty Years' War by restoring peace between all the belligerent powers except between France and Spain.

By the peace of Westphalia the Emperor Ferdinand III. granted religious freedom in Germany, proclaimed a general amnesty, and acknowledged the sovereign rights of the German princes in peace and war. The Protestants were to retain all the church property which they had held in 1624, and were to be allowed equality of representation with the Catholics in the Imperial Chamber. But these concessions were confined to Germany. In Bohemia and the hereditary Austrian dominions the emperor refused to tolerate Protestantism.

The treaty assigned the Upper Palatinate of the Elector Maximilian I, of Bavaria, but the Palatinate of the Rhine was secured to Charles Louis, the son of the unfortunate Elector Frederick V., and he was invested with the title and office of an elector, so that there were now eight electors in the German Empire. The Dutch and Swiss Republics were recognized as independent states, the former by Spain and the latter by the German Empire.

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By this famous treaty Sweden contained Western Pomerania, the island of Rugen, the cities of Stettin and Wismar, and the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which were now secularized into a duchy and a principality. This acquisition of territory in Germany made the Swedish sovereign a prince of the empire, with three votes in the Germen Imperial Diet. The elector of Brandenburg received Eastern Pomarania, the archbishopric of Magdeburg and the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden and Kamin.

The treaty confirmed France in the possession of all the lands belonging to the three Lorraine bishoprics of Metz, Toul and Verdun, and also ceded to that kingdom all that portion of Alsace which had belonged to Austria, the Sundgau, Breisach, and the prefecture of ten German imperial cities, along with the fortress of Pignerol in Piedmont.

The treaty of Westphalia began an important era in history, as it was the first effort to re-construct the European states-system by diplomacy, when their relations had been seriously disturbed. It ended the period of religious and consequent civil revolution which had convulsed Europe for more than a century. It was fatal to the Germano-Roman Empire, which thenceforth existed only in name, the bonds hitherto uniting the empire being loosened.—*Edited from Clare.*

The Effect of the Thirty Years' War upon Germany is not yet effaced. "The whole land," says Carlyle, "had been tortured, torn to pieces, wrecked, and brayed as in a mortar." Two-thirds of the population had disappeared. Famine, pestilence, and the sword had converted vast tracts into a wilderness. Whole villages stood empty save for the famished dogs that prowled around the deserted houses. All idea of nationality was lost; the Holy Roman Empire was practically at an end, and the name German emperor was henceforth merely an empty title of the Austrian rulers; while, between the Alps and the Baltic, were three hundred petty states, each with its own court, coinage, and customs. Trade, literature, and manufactures were paralyzed. French manners and habits were servilely imitated, and each little court sought to reproduce in miniature the pomp of Versailles. Henceforth, until almost our own times, the empire has no history, and that of the different states is a dreary chapter indeed. "From the Peace of Westphalia to the French Revolution," says Bryce, "it would be hard to find a single grand character, a single noble enterprise, a single sacrifice to public interests, or a single instance where the welfare of the nation was preferred to the selfish passion of the prince. When we ask for an account of the political life of Germany in the 18th century, we hear nothing but the scandals of buzzing courts and the wrangling of diplomatists at never-ending congresses." Even Lessing, the great German author, wrote: "Of the love of country, I have no conception; it appears to me, at best, a heroic weakness which I am right glad to be without."—*Steele.*

At the Peace of Westphalia, therefore, it was agreed, that, if a Catholic turned Protestant, he should lose his benefice as before, and the same if a Protestant turned Catholic. But it will be observed, that to make the last provision was, in fact, to do nothing; for the Protestant was the invading sect. . . . Again, what is very remarkable, the civil rights of the Protestants, their equality with their Catholic brethren on all public occasions, in the Diet and other tribunals, were allowed. . . . The Calvinists and Lutherans contrived at last to consider themselves as one body, whose business it was, during the negotiations of the peace and ever after, to provide for their common security, while equally resisting the authority of the Church of Rome. This, too, was an important victory—a victory which the two



Old Print, Mary II., of England

sects obtained, not over their enemies, but over themselves; partly in consequence of their past sufferings; still more from the influence of their own worldly politics; above all, from the master interference of France, whose ministers, equally disregarding the distinctions between Lutheran and Calvinist, and the cause of Protestant and Papist, wished only to subdue the House of Austria, and to combine and manage every part so as to produce this grand effect, the object of all their politics—the humiliation of the House of Austria.—*Smyth.*

The Ecclesiastical Provisions of the Peace. (1) confirmed the agreement of Augsburg, including the *cuius regio* clause, except that save under the Austrian crown alone personal confession and house worship were to be free; (2) placed Calvinists on the same footing with the two other confessions, and (3) fixed as Protestant all principalities and ecclesiastical property that had been so on January 1, 1624, except in the Palatinate, where 1618 was to be the normal year. Its political provisions involved (1) the immense enlargement of France; (2) indemnity in imperial money and territory to Sweden; (3) the *de jure* severance of the United Netherlands and Switzerland from the empire, and of the Netherlands also from Spain; (4) the extension of several German principalities, mainly at the church's expense; (5) the confirmation to Bavaria of the Upper Palatinate with the old electorship, a new, eighth, electorship being created for the Lower; (6) sovereignty for all Fürsten, involving the right to conclude treaties with each other and with foreign powers, though not against the empire; and (7) the duty of France and Sweden as guarantors.—*Andrews.*

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5. II. ENGLAND—THE PURITAN REVOLUTION.

The Issues.—The Tudor family, which had reigned in England in the 16th century, had steadily increased the royal power almost to the point of absolutism. James I., the first of the Stuarts, succeeded Elizabeth in 1603. His theory of the royal power was not very different from that of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth. James I., however, not only believed in the divine right of kings, but was constantly writing and talking about it. Illegal acts became thus more prominent. Under Elizabeth an opposition party arose, which sought to secure the privileges of Parliament and the rights of subjects against the arbitrary power of the crown, and under James I. it became formidable, largely because of the king's lack of tact.

There were also important religious and ecclesiastical issues going back to the time of the Reformation. The radical Protestants or Puritans thought the church kept too much of the old doctrine, old service and church government of Rome. They got their theology largely from John Calvin. They believed in a simple church government and a plainer service. The government decided that the Reformation had gone far enough. James I. took sides with the High Church party, which wished, if possible, to draw even nearer to the Roman system. The High Church party in turn preached the doctrine of divine right. So the Puritans and the constitutional party were naturally drawn together against these common enemies.

Under Charles I. the controversy became more serious. Charles inherited his father's theories and he had a constant struggle with Parliament. Parliament declined to grant money, and the king undertook to raise it by illegal methods. There were other grounds of complaint. By the king's authority, subjects had been tried by summary and irregular processes. The liberty of the subject seemed to be threatened. Finally, Parliament, under the able leadership of Sir John Elliot, won from the king his assent to the famous Petition of Right. The old principles of the Magna Charta were reaffirmed. The king was not to levy taxes without consent of Parliament. No subject was to be deprived of his liberty or property except by the regular processes of law. Charles, however, either violated his pledge, or understood it differently from the Commons. A new conflict broke out. The king now determined to get rid of Parliament. The leaders of the opposition were sent to the Tower, and for more than ten years no Parliament sat.

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5. II. ENGLAND—THE PURITAN REVOLUTION.

James' Conduct Toward the Puritans.—He committed an important error in throwing away the best opportunity that had offered itself for healing the wounds of the Church of England. On his way to London, the malcontent clergy presented to him what was commonly called the Millenary Petition, as if signed by 1,000 ministers, though the real number was not so great. This petition contained no demand inconsistent with the established hierarchy. James, however, who had not unnaturally taken an extreme disgust at the Presbyterian clergy of his native kingdom, by whom his life had been perpetually harassed, showed no disposition to treat these petitioners with favor. The bishops had promised him an obsequiousness to which he had been little accustomed, and a zeal to enhance his prerogative which they afterward too well displayed. His measures toward the non-Conformist party had evidently been resolved upon before he summoned a few of their divines to the famous conference at Hampton Court. In the accounts that we read of this meeting, we are alternately struck with wonder at the indecent and partial behavior of the king, and at the abject baseness of the bishops.—*Hallam.*

The Personal Expenses of James I.—In a single year (1610) it was estimated that the queen's personal expenditure amounted to $70,000, and that of the princes and princesses was nearly the same. Extra wines, $8,400; plate and jewels, above $120,000; to the royal cofferer, over $500,000; to the keeper of the privy purse, $20,000. From 1603-1610, James gave away presents worth about $250,000 a year. No less than $460,000 were spent on jewels alone in the first four years of his reign. The receipts meanwhile were about $1,200,000, raised by new taxes to $2,300,000. Since this proved insufficient, Parliament was called together.

The Commons being unwilling to proceed to grant any money without knowing what the king would give in return, the king sent back word by the treasurer to Parliament "that for his kingdom he was beholden to no elective power, neither did he depend on any popular applause." . . . The king afterward promised not to use the money for the benefit of any private person, nor to impose any taxes but in Parliament, where he will propose measures for debate.—*Sheldon.*

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6.

The king's policy was inspired largely by two men, Archbishop Laud, the leader of the High Church party, and Wentworth, Earl of Strafford. Their policy is commonly known as "Thorough." The king was by every possible means to be made independent of Parliament. In the church, the Episcopal power was to be increased and Puritanism suppressed. . . . These objects could not be attained without violating the law. New revenues were necessary, and these were gained by various illegal methods. The most famous is the ship-money, an obsolete tax, now revived and extended. Hampden's refusal to pay this made a test case, which was won by the king in the courts, but helped to bring to a head the spirit of resistance. The old arbitrary arrests and summary trials were revived. The Court of Star Chamber, instituted by the Tudors, was used freely to secure convictions, and even as a means of exacting money. All these things caused widespread dissatisfaction. Charles' policy was finally defeated by the Scotch rebellion, caused by Laud's attempt to force upon the Scotch Presbyterian church his High Church system, in particular the liturgy, which the Scotch regarded as corrupt and dangerous. The King's position in England was now untenable. In a war with the Scotch he needed the support of the English nation. The Short Parliament was called, but there was trouble at once. The king wanted money. Parliament insisted on some guarantee that the old illegal processes would be given up. Neither would yield and Parliament was dissolved. But the same reasons which had led to the call of this Parliament were now even more pressing. The Long Parliament was summoned, and met in November, 1640. Among its leading members were John Pym, the first great leader of the House of Commons, John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell, just coming into prominence as the leader of the radical Puritan party.



Oliver Cromwell.

The opposition began by the impeachment of the king's advisors, Laud and Strafford. The evidence of technical treason was not sufficient, and so an attainder was hurried through both houses, by which Strafford was condemned to death. The king's personal honor was involved, but he yielded, and Strafford was executed, after a noble defense. This conclusion showed the king's weakness. Parliament now swept away the irregular courts, to prevent infringement of constitutional rights. It was felt that the King could not be trusted, and so powers were taken from him which fairly belonged to him.

These extreme measures strengthened the king's supporters. Finally Pym and his associates carried through their Grand Remonstrance against the King's conduct by the barest majority. The king then resorted to lawless measures in his attempt to arrest five members of the House of Commons. The people of London took up the cause of Parliament against this breach of its privileges. Finally the king left the city, and in August, 1642, the Civil War began.

6.

Ship-money.—The need of a fleet to protect commerce put a new idea into the heads of the king's ministers. An ancient practice of commanding the maritime counties to furnish ships for the navy was revived. The next year (1636) it was extended. The inland counties as well were ordered to pay a new tax, "ship-money," to be

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used in furnishing forth the fleet. Servile judges pronounced the levy legitimate. The money for the war was raised by a "forced loan" which was manifestly illegal. Men who refused to contribute were imprisoned without trial. Among them was John Hampden, a country 'squire, who said he did not begrudge the money, but he dared not incur the curse of Magna Charta by disobedience of the rules. Five of the prisoners asked for trial on a writ of habeas corpus, but the servile judges buttressed the royal power by declaring that it was the king's to say whether or not men should be tried. This decision broke another provision of the Great Charter. One after another the hard-won liberties of the Englishmen were being extinguished by the monarch.—*Joy.*

"**Thorough**" was Strafford's name for his system of administration. A definite purpose—to achieve good government by strengthening the power of the king—ruled all his movements, and in Laud he found a willing and efficient coadjutor. Together they set about the administration of Church and State in such high-handed fashion that, between tax-gatherers and clergy, the Puritans had no peace. In 1629 the Massachusetts Bay Colony was chartered by a company of Englishmen in quest of religious liberty. Salem and Boston were founded in the following year. The tide of emigration ebbed and flowed in sympathy with the rigor or relaxation of Wentworth and Laud, but it never entirely ceased, and within a dozen years from the issue of the charter, 20,000 English Puritans left the mother country for the New England wilderness.—*Joy.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.**—General Character of the Period, Origin of the War, Ecclesiastical Reservations, Rudolph and the Bohemians.
2. **THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR** (Continued).—The Protestants and the King of Bohemia, Ferdinand and Frederick, Reaction against Protestantism, A Disgraceful Period of German History, Wallenstein.
3. **THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR** (Continued).—Method of Saving the Protestant Cause, Gustavus Adolphus, The French Period.
4. **THE TREATY OF WESTPHALIA.**—The Conditions of the Treaty, Its Ecclesiastical Provisions, Effects of the Treaty, The Effects of the Thirty Years' War.
5. **ENGLAND—THE PURITAN REVOLUTION.**—The Issues, Conduct of James I. Towards the Puritans, Personal Expenses of James I.
6. **ENGLAND—THE PURITAN REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Ship-money, Laud and Strafford, Grand Remonstrance, Civil War.

QUESTIONS.

1. *What may be said of the general character of this period? Name the causes of the Thirty Years' War? How was this treaty interpreted? What was meant by "Ecclesiastical reservation?" Give Andrews' statement as to the cause and character of the Thirty Years' War? What was the "Letter of Majesty"?*

2. *Why did these disputes have to be settled by force? What was the direct occasion of the war? Who was Ferdinand III.? Frederick? Why were the Catholics generally victorious? What was the Edict of Restitution? What caused the reaction against Protestantism? Give the substance of Andrews' statement? Who was Wallenstein?*

3. *How and why was Wallenstein dismissed? State what you can of Gustavus Adolphus? What can you say of his rank as a statesman? General? Personally? How did he influence Protestantism? Why did the French now take part in the war?*

4. *What were the conditions of the Treaty of Westphalia? What was now the condition of Germany? What territory was secured by Sweden? By France? Give Thalheimer's statement in reference to the Treaty of Westphalia? Name some of the effects of the treaty? What were the ecclesiastical provisions of the treaty?*

5. *Name the issues of the "Puritan Revolution"? How were the Puritans and the constitutional party united? Who were the Puritans? What were the personal characteristics of James I.? Of Charles I.? What was the Petition of Rights? How did Charles I. treat the Parliament? What can you say of the personal expenses of James I.?*

6. *Who was Laud? Wentworth? By what name was their policy known? Name some illegal methods now resorted to? What was meant by Ship-money? Who was Hampden? What was the Court of Star Chamber? How was Charles' policy defeated? What was the Long Parliament? What were some of the results?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *How did the Thirty Years' War affect the political history of modern Germany?*
2. *What were some of the beneficial results of the Thirty Years' War? Give reasons for your conclusions. Discuss the leading events in the life of Wallenstein.*
3. *Prepare a brief history of the life of Gustavus Adolphus. What do you think of his ability? Personal life?*
4. *What in your opinion were the most important provisions of the Treaty of Westphalia? Why?*
5. *Prepare a sketch of the Puritans; what was their origin, belief and influence?*
6. *Prepare a brief sketch of the so-called Constitutional Party of this period.*
7. *Who were the Scotch Presbyterians? To what extent did they influence English history during this period? Prepare a sketch of the Long Parliament. What were its leading events?*
8. *Name the leading political reforms enacted during this period? What agencies brought about these reforms?*
9. *In what ways did the reforms of this period resemble the reformations of the present day?*

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7.

The strength of the Royalist party, the Cavaliers, lay in the north and west. They had a dashing cavalry commander, Prince Rupert, a cousin of the King.

The Parliamentary party, the Roundheads, drew their support from the south and west, including the richer middle classes of the towns. They were at the start poorly organized and poorly commanded. The Royalists were inspired by the sentiment of enthusiastic loyalty to the king, and there was no such strong sentiment to furnish the impulse to the Parliamentary side.

The early years of the war, from 1642 to 1644, were discouraging to the Parliamentary party. The Presbyterians, then in control, were anxious to enforce that system of doctrine and church government on the whole nation. Their energy in the conduct of the war slackened. The only decided successes were in the east, where Cromwell and his Eastern Association troopers not only secured these countries, but gradually organized a force of intelligent, enthusiastic fighters, chosen on the sole test of fighting ability and of loyalty to the cause. The forces included a large number of Independents, who insisted on the freedom of the local churches and resented the effort of the Presbyterians to impose their system by compulsion.



Cromwell Writing to His Daughter.

Cromwell's troopers made their way into the north, and in the battle of Marston Moor (1644) proved the value of thorough discipline and enthusiasm against even the gentlemen of Rupert's cavalry. The army was not reorganized on Cromwell's principles. The older generals, who were lacking in energy, were displaced and new men, usually of the Independent party, chosen in their places. This "new model army" triumphed completely at Naseby.

By the beginning of 1646 the war was practically at an end, and the King fled to the Scotch. They would have supported him had he been willing to accept Presbyterianism. He refused and was turned over to the English Parliament.

7.

With the Opening of the Campaign of 1644, the forces of Parliament began to gain upon their adversaries. In the beginning of summer, Sir Thomas Fairfax cooped up and besieged the Marquis of Newcastle in York. The investment was pressed with great energy, and the defense conducted with equal courage. At length Prince Rupert, disengaging himself from other operations, marched to York with the purpose of raising the siege. He was advised by the Marquis of Newcastle not to hazard a battle with the forces of Fairfax, but confident of his own abilities and of the valor of his soldiers, the prince rejected the advice, and on the 2d of July offered fight to the republicans at a place called Marston Moor, about nine miles from the city. The forces engaged were about equal on either side. Each commander led about twenty-five thousand men into battle. Prince Rupert, in command of the right wing, was opposed by Oliver Cromwell on the republican left. The most dashing and determined cavalryman in all England soon found that he had rushed upon an antagonist who could not be moved. The charge on the regiments of Cromwell was like a charge upon the stone bulwarks of a fortification. Rupert's horsemen were hurled back in confusion, and the royal infantry which stood in support was likewise borne down and put to flight. The regiment of the Marquis of Newcastle fought with great valor, and for awhile the victory hung in equipoise. At one time the Royalist general, Lucas, by a sudden and audacious charge, threw the Parliamentary cavalry into disorder, and the rout of the whole right wing was imminent until what time Cromwell, returning from pursuit, fell with redoubled fury upon the enemy and presently swept the field.—*Ridpath.*

Oliver Cromwell.—The soul of that party was Oliver Cromwell. Bred to peaceful occupations, he had, at more than forty years of age, accepted a commission in the parliamentary army. No sooner had he become a soldier than he discerned, with the keen glance of genius, what Essex, and men like Essex, with all their experience, were unable to perceive. He saw precisely where the strength of the Royalists lay, and by what means alone that strength could be overpowered. He saw that it was necessary to reconstruct the army of the parliament. He saw also that there were abundant and excellent materials for the purpose, materials less showy, indeed, but more solid, than those of which the gallant squadrons of the King were composed. It was necessary to look for recruits who were not mere mercenaries, for recruits of decent station and grave character, fearing God and zealous for public liberty. With such men he filled his own regiment, and while he subjected them to a discipline more rigid than had ever before been known in England, he administered to their intellectual and moral nature stimulants of fearful potency.—*Macaulay.*

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8.

The King now hoped to play off the Parliament, which was largely Presbyterian, against the army where the Independents were strongest. If he had been serious in his negotiations with either something might have been saved: but he was not and the army soon found it out. Finally Charles succeeded in inducing the Scotch to take up his cause; and there were risings in England. These risings were promptly suppressed, but they created a strong feeling in the army against the king. Cromwell, convinced that he could not be trusted, no longer resisted the demands of the army. . . . Parliament was now brought into harmony by expelling a large portion of its members—"Pride's Purge." This purified Parliament constituted an extraordinary high court of justice. The king was tried and condemned to death. The proceedings were irregular and revolutionary, but no more so than the whole struggle on both sides from 1642 to 1649.



Cromwell Dismissing the Long Parliament.

Then came new dangers for the government of the commonwealth. There was a rebellion in Ireland to be suppressed. Cromwell was chosen for the work, and dispatched it with thoroughness, and at times with cruelty, though it has been said for him that this severity in the long run saved bloodshed.

The next danger came from Scotland, which now recognized the young Prince Charles as its king, in return for his acceptance of Presbyterianism. The Scotch undertook an invasion of England, but Cromwell was again equal to the emergency. The Scotch armies were broken (battle of Dunbar and Worcester), and Cromwell then carried through a union of Scotland with England, anticipating the final union of the two kingdoms by more than fifty years.

Cromwell had, however, a much harder task. The nation was tired of irregularity and disorder. It wanted some sort of orderly system. Instead of meeting these demands the Rump Parliament sought merely to perpetuate its own power. The army was uneasy. Cromwell was indignant, and finally dissolved the Rump Parliament. It was an act of violence, though Parliament deserves little sympathy.

8.

King Charles I., exasperated at the increasing demands of the Commons, perpetrated one rash act which hastened civil war. He had for some time looked on bitterly but helplessly, while the absolutism in which he had sought to intrench himself was rudely swept away. Conscious that his throne was tottering to its fall, he endeavored by one bold stroke to crush all opposition to his will and to re-establish his lost authority. The king's blow was aimed directly at the House of Commons. The Commons had refused to surrender five of their boldest leaders—Haslerig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym and Strode—at the king's demand; and the next day Charles I., with three hundred soldiers, went in person to the hall of the House of Commons to arrest these five leaders, January 5, 1642. Leaving the soldiers outside the chamber, the king entered the hall alone, all the members of the House rising to receive him. The speaker vacated the chair, and the king occupied it. After seating himself he told the Commons that he was sorry for the occasion that had forced him thither; that he had come in person to seize the five members whom he had accused of high treason, seeing that they would not deliver them to his sergeant-at-arms. He then looked over the hall to see if the accused were present, but they had escaped a few minutes before he had entered, and the king remarked: "I see my birds have flown." With the expectation that the Commons would send the accused members to him, and a threat to secure them for himself if they would not, the baffled king abruptly left the chamber. Thus disappointed, perplexed, and not knowing on whom to rely the king next proceeded to the Common Council of the city of London, and made his complaints to that body. On his way thither he was greeted with cries of "Privilege! Privilege!" from the angry populace. The Common Council only answered his complaints with a contemptuous silence; and, on his return, one of the populace, more insolent than the others, cried out: "To your tents, O Israel!" This was a watchword among the ancient Jews when they intended to abandon their kings. By his rash act Charles I. offered a flagrant insult to the House of Commons and violated a fundamental law of the realm. The crisis had now arrived. The occasion

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being too solemn for business, the House of Commons adjourned. The next day the king issued a proclamation branding the five accused members as traitors and ordering their arrest. London was in a tumult, and the city arose as one man for the defense of the accused. The citizens sheltered the accused members, and their train-bands held the city and guarded the House of Commons. These train-bands escorted the historical five back to their seats amid the cheers of the excited populace, the river and the streets by which they passed being guarded by cannon and men-at-arms.

After returning to Windsor, King Charles I. began to reflect on the rashness of his recent proceedings, and when too late he resolved to make some atonement. He accordingly apologized to Parliament in a humiliating message, in which he informed the Commons that he desisted from his recent violent proceedings against the accused members, and assured them that upon all occasions he would be as careful of their privileges as of his crown or his life. Thus, while the king's former violence had rendered him hateful to the Commons, his present submission rendered him contemptible.

From this time Parliament encroached more and more on the royal prerogative, until scarcely a vestige of monarchial power remained. The Commons now demanded that the appointment of Ministers of State, and of military and naval commanders, should depend upon their approval. The Commons also required that the Tower of London, several of the seaports and the management of the navy, should also be given into their possession. When Parliament demanded that the king should relinquish the command of the army for a certain period, His Majesty angrily replied: "No, not for one hour!" This refusal dispelled all hopes for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, and both parties resolved upon an appeal to arms.—*Clare.*

The Execution of Charles I.—The scaffold had been covered with black cloth, and a coffin, lined with black velvet, was in readiness to receive his remains. In the platform itself had been fixed iron rings and staples, to which ropes had also been attached, by which it was intended to force the king to the block should he make the least attempt at resistance. The persons who attended him to the scaffold, besides Bishop Juxon, were two of the gentlemen of his bed chamber, Harrington and Herbert. The former afterwards suffered so much from the shock that an illness ensued which nearly cost him his life. The king himself appeared cheerful, resigned and happy. He merely requested of Colonel Hacker to be careful that he was not put to unnecessary pain. Having put on his satin cap, he inquired of one of the two executioners, both of whom were masked, if his hair was in the way. The man requested him to put it under his cap. As he was doing so, with the assistance of the bishop and the executioner, he turned to the former; "I have a good cause," he said, "and a gracious God on my side." . . . In the meantime, having divested himself of his cloak and doublet, and being in his waistcoat, he again put on his cloak. Then, lifting up his hands and eyes to heaven, and repeating a few words to himself which were inaudible to the bystanders, he knelt down and laid his neck on the block. The executioner stooping to put his hair under his cap, the king thinking he was about to strike, bid him wait for the sign. After a short pause he stretched out his hands, and the executioner at one blow severed his head from his body. The head was immediately lifted up by the other headsman and exhibited to the people. "Behold," he exclaimed, "the head of a traitor!"—*Jesse.*

Pride's Purge. — Before the negotiations at Newport were completed, an act had been performed on another part of the English stage whereby the whole course and character of the drama had been changed. The breach between Parliament and the army had become irreconcilable and one party or the other of the opposition had to be put down by force. Nor was it doubtful whether it would be the civil or the military order which would succumb, when the latter was under the direction of Cromwell. That resolute and powerful leader now showed himself in a new role. Finding himself unable to control the opposing party in the House of Commons, he sent Colonel Pride with a troop of soldiers to surround the Parliament House, and expel all who would not accede to his terms. The officer accordingly stationed his forces before the hour of the sitting of



King Charles I.

the House, and when the members arrived only the Independents were permitted to enter. Of these there were but fifty or sixty; and yet with unequaled arrogance they declared themselves the governors of the kingdom, and set about their work with as much assurance as though all England were a summer day. As for Cromwell, he justified his course on the ground that a purging of Parliament was necessary, and having made this declaration he immediately procured the passage of an act by which the negotiations with the king were broken off, and the treaty declared a nullity. From this it was evident that Cromwell and his adherents had determined to abolish the monarchy and destroy the king. This became still more manifest when it was known that two days before the "purging of Parliament," the lieutenant-general had issued orders that Charles should again be seized and imprisoned.—*Ridpath.*

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9.

The actual power was now in Cromwell's hands. In the succeeding period (1653-1660), Cromwell tried to maintain some sort of order of government and to form parliaments which should devote themselves seriously and intelligently to this task. A constitution was finally established in which Cromwell was Lord Protector with a parliament; but parliaments met and were dissolved after fruitless wranglings with the Protector. Cromwell's government ended in a despotism.

Cromwell accepted this result as reluctantly as anybody. His purposes were statesmanlike—far ahead of his time. He suppressed lawless and fanatical elements in the interests of order. Though a man of strong religious feeling, he was tolerant of all sects whose members were not thought to be politically dangerous. Cromwell's toleration extended even to the Jews. His government, harsh in many ways, was yet a period of order and prosperity.

The foreign relations of England were probably never more creditable. The commercial rivalry between Holland and England brought on a great naval war in which brilliant victories were won by the British navy under Blake. Cromwell's general policy was an alliance with France, which, though a Catholic power, found her interest in checking Austria and Spain. He won lasting fame as the protector of Protestantism whenever it suffered persecution. Never has England held a position of greater dignity among the nations of Europe.



Sir Isaac Newton.

But Cromwell alone could maintain this system. When he died the nation shook off these restraints, which had often been harsh and unnatural. The old loyalty to the banished dynasty acting through the instrumentality of men like General Monk, brought Charles II. to the throne.

The attempt to set up a republican government had failed. The soil was not suited to it. Puritanism after its brief triumph was again overcome by the High Church party and entered upon a new period of persecution. The old Puritan morality was succeeded by the wildest license. . . . Yet some substantial results were attained. The old relics of feudalism in land tenure were swept away. The irregular courts, like the Star Chamber, met the same fate. Finally, though the Stuart theory of the royal power still survived, a precedent had been set for armed resistance. . . .

9.

Cromwell—Unofficial Dictator.—Parliament received the news of the victory with a spasm of relief and unbounded enthusiasm, and made the return of the Lord-General one long triumphal progress. A deputation from the house met him at Aylesbury; from Acton, the speaker, the lord mayor, sheriffs, and a great assemblage of members and civic officials, conducted him in state to London with coaches, body-guard, salvoes of artillery, and shouts of the crowd. He received the thanks of the house, an additional grant of £4,000 a year, and the use of Hampton Court as a residence. Thereby he was recognized by what remained of legal authority as practically dictator. He was now at the height of his power and prestige; and even Hugh Peters thought that he would make himself king.—*Harrison.*

The Parliament of 1654, however, will always form a memorable date in our parliamentary annals as the first parliament which was representative of the United Kingdom, and as the first step in the direction of a reform of the representative system. Its numbers were four hundred and sixty in all, of whom four hundred sat for England, thirty for Scotland, thirty for Ireland. A number of rotten boroughs were disfranchised, and their members given to the counties. A number of large towns, among which was Birmingham, were enfranchised. A partial redistribution of the county seats was made so as to establish some sort of equality between population and representation, a uniform qualification of two hundred pounds being fixed for both electors and members. With the dissolution of this parliament ended all hope of a restoration of constitutional government, for Cromwell did not dare to trust to freedom of election again.—*Skottowe.*

The "Navigation Act," passed by the British parliament in 1652, prohibited any foreign vessel from bringing a cargo into English ports unless it were of the products of the country whence the vessel came. As the products of Holland were few but her ships many, and England her best market, this act was evidently a destructive blow to her carrying trade.—*Thalheimer.*

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10. III. FOUNDATION OF THE BOURBON MONARCHY. HENRY IV.—RICHELIEU.

The starting point for the political development of France in the 17th century is the year 1598, when the religious wars ended, and the distinctly national party, represented by Henry IV., triumphed over the Catholic party, supported by the Spanish power.

The reign of Henry IV. (1598-1610) was occupied with three main objects. (1) The restoration of internal peace and order; . . . (2) The strengthening of the central administration, the royal authority as against the efforts of the nobles and the cities to secure local independence; . . . (3) The maintenance of a foreign policy governed solely by political considerations and intended to check the Catholic powers of Spain and Austria.



Charles II.

These were serious difficulties in this work. (1) The disorder and anarchy of the religious wars had seriously weakened the royal authority. The nobles and governors of provinces had acquired almost feudal independence. (2) The royal finances were in a bad condition, which was only partially and superficially remedied by Sully. . . . (3) The foreign policy of Henry IV. was also made difficult by a strong feeling in the nation and at the court in favor of a Catholic alliance between France and Spain. Some things, however, were accomplished. The rebellious nobles were severely curbed and a tradition was set for French foreign policy. Unfortunately, in 1610, Henry IV. was assassinated by a half-crazy fanatic.

In the period of the regency (1610-1624) the king was a child. The queen-mother, who was the regent, could not restrain the nobles who dreamed of recovering feudal independence. The Huguenots wished for a certain degree of political independence. Finally the Catholic and Spanish sympathies of Mary de Medici led to a partial abandonment of the foreign policy of Henry IV. It was a period of disorder, of confused and uncertain policy.

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10. III. FOUNDATION OF THE BOURBON MONARCHY. HENRY IV.—RICHELIEU.

Henry IV.—But Henry IV. was a Huguenot, so that resistance to him could be represented as a war in the defense of the Catholic religion, and therefore as the duty of all sincere Catholics; and so clearly was the degree seen in which this consideration would strengthen the league, that, even on the day of his accession, the principal nobles of the court urged him to return to the Catholic church, as the sole means of giving peace to the kingdom. Even one of the most fearless of the Huguenot generals, the celebrated La Noue of the Iron Arm, expressed the same opinion; and he, in reply, professed a willingness to be instructed on the principal points of difference between the two religions, that he might adopt the best, having evidently already made up his mind to change his creed as soon as he could do so with any appearance of decency. But, for the present, he continued his adherence to the principles of the Reformation; and the consequence was, that the army of which the death of the late king had left him the sole commander, melted away; 20,000 soldiers at once quitting his standards, of whom the greater part going over to Mayenne, ranged themselves against him.—*Yonge.*

Henry Becomes a Catholic.—When this was their disposition, Henry thought that the time was come for him to give them an excuse for joining him, by conforming to the religion which the majority professed. In the summer of 1593 he invited some divines of both churches to discuss the doctrines on which they differed in his presence; and having terminated a brief conference by declaring himself satisfied of the Papal theology, he was formally admitted into the Catholic church. It must be allowed that no one ever changed his religion with such plausible reasons to justify the step. The political necessity of it was so palpable that Sully, though himself a Protestant, fully ap-

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proved of his conduct, and even affirms that the Protestant doctors who appeared before the king as champions of their religion purposely abstained from bringing forward their strongest arguments, and allowed the victory to rest with their opponents, so convinced were they that it was for the interests of the Huguenot body, as well as of the nation at large, that he should be fixed on the throne, and that, without its adoption of the Papal faith, that result could not be attained.—*Yonge.*

Henry IV. also intrigued with the oppressed Moriscoes; but the edict of Philip III., exiling them from Spain, defeated his plan of co-operation in a grand revolt. It is difficult to conceive the distress attending the forced emigration of an entire people. The export of gold from Spain was strictly prohibited, so that the greater part of their property was sacrificed in the removal. Of 130,000 who embarked for Africa, three-fourths perished of hunger and exhaustion; 100,000 sought



John Hampden.

refuge in France, but were permitted to remain only on condition of their professing the Catholic faith, which they had just rejected in their own country. While waiting for transportation, so many died and were thrown into the sea that the fishes were supposed to be poisoned. Philip III. had given the fatal blow to the prosperity of his dominions. Leagues of fertile fields, once rich in olive and the vine, lay waste for want of tillage, and Spain never recovered the loss of the persecuted Moriscoes.—*Thalheimer*

A Favorite Scheme of Henry IV., or, rather, perhaps, of Sully, was the union of all the nations of Europe into a great Christian commonwealth, where minor differences of faith should be tolerated, all disputes settled by arbitration, and commerce freed from those vexatious restrictions which then paralyzed enterprise in the southern countries. This great confederation was to consist of fifteen states, divided into three groups, viz.: (1) Six elective monarchies, comprising the Empire, the States of the Church, Venice, Hungary, Bohemia, and Poland; (2) Six Hereditary Kingdoms—France, Spain, Great Britain, Denmark, Sweden, and Lombardy—the latter to be formed of the two duchies of Savoy and Milan; (3) Three Federal Republics—Switzerland, The Netherlands, and a confederation of Italian states. The Czar of Muscovy was considered as belonging, by his mode of government, rather to Asia than to Europe, but he was to be admitted to the commonwealth on his own application. If this scheme appears too visionary to be even detailed at such length, it was at least more noble than the plan of universal monopoly pursued by Charles V. and Philip II.—a monarchy based upon the suppression of all freedom of thought and enterprise.—*Thalheimer.*

Mary de Medici, the widow of Henry IV., and mother of Louis XIII., was a very difficult personage to deal with. When we said that she had strength of character, we should, perhaps, have expressed ourselves better if we had said she was self-willed. Her strength was not that of a firm mind, conscious of rectitude; but she bore no resemblance to her relation, Catherine de Medici; she was neither deeply hypocritical nor vicious; she was the slave of impulse.—*Robson.*

The queen-regent, Mary de Medici, was a weak woman, of narrow understanding, and in no way adapted to the difficult and perilous situation which had been conferred upon her. She commenced her regency by retaining all the ministers of her murdered husband, and confirming the Duke of Sully in the power and influence which he had exercised during the reign of Henry IV. The troops promised by Henry IV. were sent to the assistance of the German Protestants, and the Edict of Nantes was solemnly confirmed and renewed.

Mary de Medici was induced by her new favorites and councillors to establish the most friendly relations with the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs, thus reversing the entire policy of her murdered husband. To strengthen this new alliance with Spain and Austria, a marriage was contracted between the youthful King Louis XIII. and the Infanta Anne of Austria; while the young French king's sister, the Princess Elizabeth, was betrothed to Phillip, Prince of Austria, the eldest son and heir of King Philip III. of Spain.

The Duke of Sully viewed the queen-regent's foreign policy with deep regret, as he could not sanction such an overwhelming overthrow of the designs of Henry IV. for the humiliation of the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs. He vainly remonstrated with the queen-regent for making this alliance with the old enemies of France, and thus making the interests of France subservient to her new allies. As Mary de Medici persisted in her new foreign policy, the Duke of Sully resigned his office of Prime Minister in disgust and retired to his estates, in 1611, taking no further part in public affairs, though he was frequently consulted by the queen-regent during the rest of his life. He died in 1641, at the age of eighty-two.—*Clare.*

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11. RICHELIEU.—THE BOURBON MONARCHY FROM 1624-1648.

Out of this period of confusion came the greatest statesman perhaps of the century—certainly the greatest statesman of the Bourbon Monarchy—the Cardinal Richelieu. His policy continued that of Henry IV. It included (1) the strict repression of all elements which might interfere with an absolute centralized monarchy; (2) in foreign affairs an aggressive policy, which, taking advantage of the dissensions of other countries, should enable France to extend her boundaries and gain a dominant position in Europe.

Richelieu had a constant struggle to maintain his position against rebellious nobles and personal enemies. He was loyally supported by the king, who, though not a great man, knew the value of Richelieu's services; and he took a terrible vengeance upon all those, whether high or low, who resisted him.

Richelieu carried on also a long conflict with class and local privileges of all sorts. The *Edict of Nantes* gave the Huguenots political privileges as security that their religious rights would be respected. These political privileges they wished to enlarge. This effort to establish a semi-independent community was strongly opposed by Richelieu. The chief center of the movement was in La Rochelle, on the southwest coast of France, not far from the Loire, occupying a strong strategic position. After a desperate struggle, La Rochelle was taken in 1628. Richelieu's purpose was not to suppress the Huguenot worship, but to restrain their political privileges. The fall of Rochelle marks the end of the Huguenots as a great political party. It was also the failure of the last great struggle of municipal independence against centralizing tendencies.

In general, the domestic policy of Richelieu sought first to make the whole government center at the capital and to suppress local privileges; and secondly, to place these powers in the hands of the king to be administered in accordance with his personal will or under the guidance of some great minister. The government was made powerful, but constitutional liberties were destroyed.

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11. RICHELIEU.—THE BOURBON MONARCHY FROM 1624-1648.

Richelieu became a cardinal in 1622, but his reign in France began two years later with his appointment in the Royal Council. In spite of some personal weaknesses of character, he was the ablest statesman whom France has produced. His clear and well defined policy coincided in some points with that of Henry IV. and Sully, especially in his unrelenting hostility to the House of Austria. With this motive, he favored the Protestants of England, Holland and Germany, though he made war upon those of France. For his injurious treatment of the latter, reason may be found in the second great principle of his policy, namely, the consolidation of royal power and suppression of feudal aristocracy. The chief of the Huguenots, it has been seen, affected to act as sovereign princes in their own dominions; they coined money, held courts, and inflicted penalties without reference to the royal tribunals; and it was not until Richelieu's administration that the long struggle between the king and the nobles, begun in the earliest days of the Capets, ended in absolute supremacy of the king, or rather, in the present case, of his prime minister.—*Thalheimer.*

Richelieu and the People.—Soon after Richelieu's admission to the council, the system of the court was entirely changed. The discussions of the council were required to be kept secret, whereas the Spaniards had been accustomed, by one means or other, to be as well acquainted with them as the members themselves. The mode of conducting political affairs was likewise changed; instead of the ruses, manœuvres, finesses, and affected delays which the French ambassadors had been accustomed to employ at other courts, they had positive orders to speak and act with firmness.—*Robson.*

Edict of Nantes.—Henry IV., who had succeeded to the throne of France in 1589, was by birth a Huguenot. He found that as long as he remained a member of that faith his kingdom would never be without civil war. He therefore abjured Protestantism in 1593, and became a Catholic, but, at the same time, he endeavored to propitiate the good will of the Huguenots, and to prevent a renewal of the religious wars which had devastated whole provinces of France, by issuing the celebrated Edict of Nantes, 1598. This edict was one of the first of those laws which breathed a spirit of tolerance, and aimed a blow at the exclusive claims put forth by the Romish Church in Catholic countries. It secured to the Huguenots the free exercise of their religion; admission to colleges, hospitals and schools; permission to hold offices of trust without having to take oaths repugnant to their principles; and, above all, reserved for them certain fortified towns to which they might retire for security if persecutions arose. Under the protection of this edict the Huguenots became the most active and wealthy portion of the French nation.—*Hale.*

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12. THE FOREIGN POLICY OF RICHELIEU.

The period of Richelieu's government is that of the Thirty Years' War. That war was primarily a religious conflict between Protestant and Catholic princes. Richelieu was a cardinal of the Roman Catholic church; yet he gave encouragement and financial support to Gustavus Adolphus. When the Protestant party was weakened by the death of Gustavus, he threw the military power of France into the breach against the Catholic Hapsburg combination in Germany and in Italy. When the war ended France had acquired large tracts of territory from Germany and placed itself in a position to gain still more. . . . The Hapsburg power had lost forever its commanding position in Europe. Its place was taken by France.



Henri Turenne.

This work was not all done by Richelieu. He had the help of great generals, Turenne and Conde. He did not, himself, live to see the war ended. Though the great results for France were mainly due to him, we may doubt whether this great career worked for good or for evil. It crushed liberties good and bad to make the monarchy all-powerful. It raised France to a commanding position in Europe, to become a menace to the security and independence of its neighbors. Richelieu's work was first for the monarchy. The people had for him a secondary interest, yet the man who accomplished those great results for good or for ill, in physical weakness and suffering almost alone, and compelled to fight constantly for his position and his very life, was certainly a man of surpassing force and power.

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12. THE FOREIGN POLICY OF RICHELIEU.

Richelieu would have made peace with the Huguenots. He had therefore a hard part to play. He knew perfectly well that the government had violated its engagements with the Huguenots, especially in keeping up the fortifications of Fort Louis, a work commanding the entrance to the harbor of Rochelle, which it had long ago promised to pull down. If Richelieu had had his way he would have pulled down the fort, and by generous concessions to the Huguenots would have carried them with him to the support of his foreign policy. But such a policy, in appearance so rash, in reality so wise, was not likely to be palatable to Louis, and Richelieu had to steer his way between the danger of offending the king and the danger of lighting up still more vividly the flames of civil war. In the course of the winter all that could be done he did. Deputies of the Huguenot towns appeared to negotiate a peace, with the support of two English ambassadors. But they were instructed to demand the demolition of the fort, and to this the king steadily refused his consent.—*Gardiner.*

The Apex of the Cardinal's Career. — His power was the most complete that ever had been enjoyed by a man in his position; he had all the authority of the ancient mayors of the palace, and in addition, was head of the Church in France. The only superiority he deigned to acknowledge was that of the king, and that his monarch and all Europe, as well as France, knew to be only nominal; if he had succeeded in his ambitious wish of becoming Patriarch of France, which would have made him a kind of French Pope, it might have added another to his already numerous titles, but it would have added no power. There was not a state in Europe that did not feel he was actual monarch of France. How he attained this giddy height our narrative has shown; how he retained it will be the object of our remaining pages. But this is not only the apex—it is the point of declension. We cannot suppose Richelieu ever to have been a happy man; if we could, it would greatly lower our opinion of human nature; but, after this period he was a miserable man, not to be envied by the most ambitious. He was fifty-four years of age; his constitution was never a strong one, and it was permanently weakened by daily exertion and thought, and by sleepless vigils. His system was full of humors, which, in addition to other diseases, caused him constant annoyance; for he had nothing to hope for, but he had everything to fear; his jealousy, perhaps, exceeded that of any human being on record, for to the vast quantity natural to his character, was added that of his ever perilous position. It is the nature of cunning people to be mistrustful, and Richelieu's life may, from this time, said to be one suspicion.—*Robson.*

The Death of Mary.—This unfortunate princess had resided at Cologne for more than two years, in a state of degradation and distress to which few royal personages have been exposed; she was not only deprived of the honors to which she had been all her life accustomed, but even of common necessaries. We cannot join with those who say Mary merited all her ill fortunes by her impetuosity and obstinacy. If we compare these quali-

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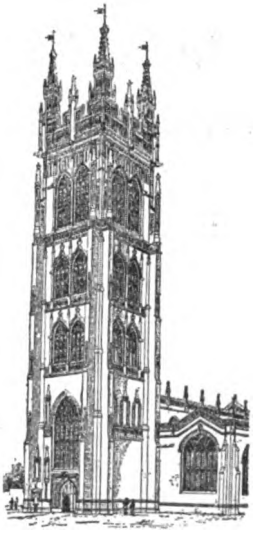
ties with the crimes of her oppressor, they become venial. She was born a princess, had been the wife of a great king and the regent of a powerful kingdom; what historians call the principal faults of her character were exhibited in opposing an ungrateful servant, whose ambitious views and unprincipled conduct must have been open to her, as they were plain to all the world but to his dupe, the king. Her object was not to obtain a rank or a position that was not her due. Mary, with all her faults, did not want for strong intellect; she plainly perceived her son's incompetency for business; she had ruled him from childhood, and her domination naturally appeared to her more legitimate than that of a creature she had warmed in her bosom to sting her. It was a struggle for power between them, and proved the victory of art over passion.—*Robson.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **ENGLAND—THE PURITAN REVOLUTION** (Continued).—The Cavaliers, Roundheads, Oliver Cromwell, Marston Moor.
8. **ENGLAND—THE PURITAN REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Pride's Purge, Union of Scotland and England, Rump Parliament.
9. **ENGLAND—THE PURITAN REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Cromwell as Lord Protector, The Parliament of 1654, The Navigation Act, Rivalry between England and Holland, Charles II
10. **FOUNDATION OF THE BOURBON MONARCHY.**—Henry IV., Henry becomes a Catholic, Favorite Scheme of Henry IV., Mary de Medici, Richelieu, Sully.
11. **RICHELIEU—THE BOURBON MONARCHY FROM 1624-1648.**—The Privileges of the Huguenots, Richelieu and the People, Protestants Persecuted, Edict of Nantes.
12. **THE FOREIGN POLICY OF RICHELIEU.**—Richelieu and the Huguenots, Apex of the Cardinal's Career, Death of Mary, The Bloody Assize.

QUESTIONS.

7. *Who were the Cavaliers? The Roundheads? Who was Prince Rupert? Who was Oliver Cromwell? What part did he play in the events of this period?*
8. *What was the origin of the expression "Pride's Purge?" What was the relation of Scotland to England? What was the real issue between Scotland and England? Give the leading events of the Rump Parliament?*
9. *In whose hands did the actual power now rest? What change was now made in the form of government? How did Cromwell treat other sects? What was now the condition of the foreign relations of England?*
10. *What is the starting point for the political development of France? What three points occupied the reign of Henry IV.? What was the general policy of Henry IV.? What was the disposition of Marie de Medici?*
11. *Give the leading points in the biography of Richelieu? What was his personal character? His foreign policy? His treatment of his enemies? Why is the Edict of Nantes important? What was Richelieu's relation to the Huguenots?*
12. *Why did Richelieu give financial support to Gustavus Adolphus? Why was Richelieu lenient towards the Huguenots? What can you say of Richelieu's power at the apex of his career?*



Tower St. Mary's Church, Taunton, Built about 1500.

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Prepare a brief giving the leading facts of the Puritan Revolution?*
2. *Name what you consider the most important results, direct and indirect, of the Puritan Revolution? Give your reasons.*
3. *What direct relation does the Puritan Revolution bear to the colonization of America?*
4. *Why, in your opinion, had the attempt to set up a republican form of government failed? Give reasons for your conclusions.*
5. *To what extent are modern republican forms of government indebted to the Reformation?*
6. *What are the reciprocal relations between a republican form of government and Protestantism?*
7. *Why is 1598 considered the starting point for the political development of France?*
8. *Prepare a brief of the reign of Henry IV. emphasizing the features which have had an important bearing on later history?*
9. *What do you consider the important results of the Edict of Nantes?*
10. *What was the policy of Richelieu? Give arguments to show the correctness of your views.*

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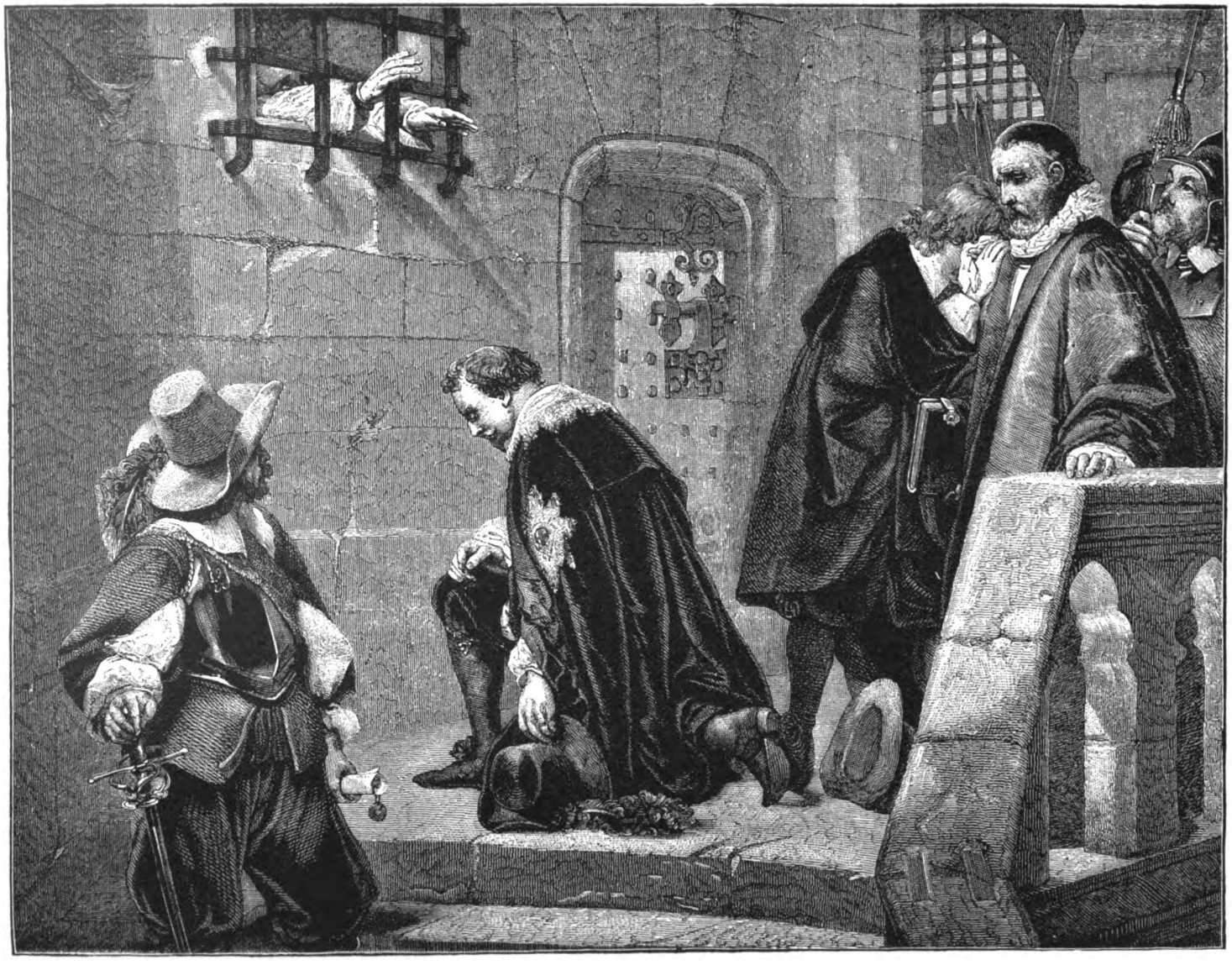

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PART II.

13. THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

1. **France Under Louis XIV. to 1688.**—Richelieu was succeeded as first minister by another cardinal. Mazarin's government occupied the first eighteen years of the reign of Louis XIV. when the king was a child. Cardinal Mazarin had to meet rebellions from the nobles; but they were finally overcome, and he may be said, in general, to have held what Richelieu had gained.



Louis XIV.

In 1661, Mazarin died and Louis XIV. took the government into his own hands. Louis XIV. was not a man of brilliant qualities or particularly interesting in his personality; but he had a certain dignity in presence and bearing which made a great impression on those about him. He expressed at once his intention to be his own chief minister. He would have no ministers—only clerks. He was a hard worker and meant to fulfill the duties of his position as he understood them. Yet after all, the greatness of his reign was largely due to other men. Louis XIV. succeeded to the work of Richelieu and he had the co-operation of able ministers in continuing this inherited policy.

The reign of Louis XIV. completed the triumph of the absolute monarchy. His motto was: "*L'etas, C'est moi.*" The nobility no longer indulged in dangerous designs of local independence. They were drawn to the capital, and helped to maintain the splendor of the royal court. This system made possible greater effectiveness for a time by concentrating the national forces; but it weakened the spirit of local self-reliance.

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13. THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

Richelieu and Mazarin.—What I considered the most important thing to be done, was to overthrow entirely the system of government in which Cardinal Mazarin had imprisoned the king and the realm. A foreigner, risen from the dregs of the people, who thinks of nothing but his own power and his own greatness, cares nothing for the state, except in its relation to himself. He despises its laws, its genius, its advantages; he is ignorant of its rules and its forms; he thinks only of subjugating all, of confounding all, of bringing all down to one level. Richelieu and his successor, Mazarin, succeeded so well in this policy that the nobility, by degrees, became annihilated, as we now see them. The pen and the robe people, on the other hand, were exalted; so that now things have reached such a pretty pass that the greatest lord is without power, and in a thousand different manners is dependent upon the meanest plebeian. It is in this manner that things hasten from one extreme to the other.—*Saint Simon.*

Louis XIV.—His Character.—The obligations of honor and good faith he systematically repudiated. To his most faithful servants and ministers he was capricious and ungrateful. As a persecutor of those of his subjects who differed from him in religion he was as inhuman as his predecessor Francis or as Philip of Spain; while, for any parallel to the deliberate ferocity with which he ordered the devastation of the countries with which he was at war, we must go back to the exploits of the half-civilized Attila or Genseric. Though continually forcing his neighbors into war by the most unprovoked aggressions, he was himself so far from being animated with the spirit of chivalrous enterprise that he was devoid even of that animal courage which is an especial attribute of his countrymen in general. In his private life he was profligate and licentious, beyond even the foulest traditions of his ancestors. Nor can it be said that his vices were degrading only to himself. They had the most fatal influence on the nation at large, accelerating the demoralization of all classes, which had indeed been long at work, but which had never proceeded with such giant strides as during this reign; when, as one keen observer remarks, it began to affect the language itself, and the very term which hitherto had implied virtuous integrity came to mean nothing better than an unpolished, unsuspicious fool.—*Yonge.*

In a Long Paper of Instructions which, in his advanced years, he drew up for the instruction of his grandson, as his heir, he speaks of treaties as only meant to be broken, and to be observed the less in exact proportion to the strictness in which they are drawn.—*Memoires Historiques.*

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14.

Administrative Reforms.—The great finance minister of Louis XIV. was Colbert. Under his predecessors, there had been great waste resulting in a serious deficit. By Colbert's reforms in the administrative system, the receipts were greatly increased, though the burden of taxation was lessened. Colbert sought also to develop the natural resources by stimulating commerce. Commercial companies were subsidized, and roads were improved. Finally, manufacturers were stimulated by government assistance in various forms. What Colbert did for the finances and for commerce, Louvois did for the army, which had hitherto been an aggregate of various bodies of troops without regular and uniform discipline. Louvois gave it for the first time system and discipline. In all these ways, a great governmental machine was perfected. The King's power was to be felt everywhere as a controlling force to which the nation was to look as a source of political power and material prosperity.



King's College Chapel, Cambridge.

The first period was, on the whole, one of prosperity. The splendors of the court are famous, and its extravagance had not yet drained the national resources. A large share of the credit for this belongs to the great minister, Colbert.

Foreign Policy of Louis XIV.—France now wished to try its strength abroad. Louis XIV. began a series of wars intended to enlarge his territory and to secure the domination of France in European politics. The first of these wars of Louis XIV. was only a renewal of the old conflict between the French monarchy and the Spanish Hapsburg power. Louis XIV. had a doubtful claim to Spanish territory, including the Spanish Netherlands, and the French army was to supply any defects of title. The Spaniards were too weak to resist. After two one-sided campaigns Louis XIV. seemed to have made good his claims. But other powers were now alarmed. The *Triple Alliance* was formed (England, Sweden, Holland) to defend the tottering Spanish power. Louis XIV. was forced to a peace, by which, however, he retained a substantial part of the Spanish Netherlands.

14.

The Triple Alliance.—During this fighting, Philip IV. of Spain had died, leaving a son by his second wife, Charles II., now only four years of age. Louis was married to the daughter of Philip by his first wife, and he now proceeded to claim the Netherlands as personal estates of the Spanish family, and therefore passing, by law of the Netherlands, to himself. In 1667 Turenne conquered for him a part of Flanders and Hainault, but the alarm felt at these proceedings brought about a triple alliance between England, Holland and Sweden (1663), which induced Louis, after Conde had overcome Franche Comte, to sign the treaty of Aix-le-Chapelle. Under this he restored Franche Comte, but he retained Lille and other cities seized by him in the Spanish Netherlands.—*Patton.*

The Glory of the Reign of Louis XIV.—But one glory which distinguished his reign cannot be taken from it, and it is that which makes his age a conspicuous and honorable landmark in the history of the nation. It was the period in which France founded and established her claim to that eminence in literature and science for which she has ever since been so honorably distinguished. According to Voltaire, it was now that for the first time the language became settled, through the purity of style and delicacy of taste which were displayed by Pascal; and which, as forming a standard by which to measure all subsequent compositions, make the Provincial Letters more memorable than even the exuberance of their wit, the keenness of their logic, or the loftiness of the feeling which animates them. And Pascal had hardly closed his career when writers of every class arose, by the variety of their labors, to give a further development to the powers and a further exhibition of the riches of the language. Corneille, indeed, had laid the foundation of his fame by the Cid in the previous reign; but Racine, who belongs wholly to this age, at least equalled him in poetical genius, and in the general opinion of his countrymen, surpassed him in the delineation of the passions to which tragedy owes its power; as a comic dramatist, Moliere has perhaps no superior in any country, except our own Shakespeare.—*Yonge.*

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15.

The next war involved a departure from the traditional policy of France. The war with Holland broke out (1) because Holland, as a member of the Triple Alliance, had opposed the designs of Louis XIV.; (2) because the Dutch competition stood in the way of Louis' policy of building up French trade; and finally (3) because of the king's personal dislike of French Protestantism and republicanism. The old policy of Richelieu, to support the Protestant powers as a check upon the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburg powers, was now reversed, in a war dictated largely by passion and personal irritation. At first, however, the king's policy seemed successful. England's withdrawal, partly as the result of a disreputable bargain between Charles II. and Louis XIV. (the secret treaty of Dover, 1669), broke up the Triple Alliance. Holland was not prepared to meet the shock, and Louis XIV. had another triumphal march. All seemed lost, when the Dutch people rose and placed the government again in the hands of a prince of the house of Orange, William III. A worthy descendant of William the Silent was destined henceforth to be the great stumbling-block in the path of Louis XIV. He now won no great victories, but maintained a stubborn resistance. The war broadened. Another great coalition was formed, including Spain, Holland, the emperor and several German princes. Battles were fought all along the line between France and her eastern neighbors. England finally again took sides with Holland in spite of King Charles. Louis XIV. then concluded the treaty of Nimwegen, by which, however, he only intended to secure a basis for future aggressions. France had already made substantial gains in Germany and in the Spanish Netherlands, and was in a favorable position for acquiring still more territory.

The conquests made in war were extended by new conquests in time of peace, chiefly in Alsace-Lorraine, the old middle region which ever since the division of Charlemagne's empire had wavered between French and German allegiance. By the treaty of Westphalia France had acquired some of this territory, and some intentionally ambiguous rights over other portions. By obvious processes nearly all this territory now became French domain. The most important of these acquisitions, and the most outrageous, was that of the rich imperial city of Strasburg.

15.

Louis was now desperately indignant with the three powers who had compelled him to withdraw, but especially with Holland, so he resolved at the earliest opportunity to attack the seven united provinces. Money was sufficient to detach the English king from his position. In 1670 the secret treaty of Dover was concluded, by which Charles engaged to abandon his allies, furnish men, make a public profession of Roman Catholicism, and enforce it in his kingdoms, in return for an annual payment of money and prospect of plunder. Sweden was also detached, and in 1672 Louis entered Holland, where he speedily overran four provinces. The Dutch were at this time owners of the most powerful fleet in the world, but by land they could not stand against the mighty army and skilfull generals of the French king. Besides, they were divided among themselves, and an influential party in the republic, headed by John de Witt, grand pensionary, was inclined for peace. De Witt and his brother were the head of the aristocratic republican party, but when Louis was conquering all before him the mob at the Hague rose in fury and murdered them. Prince William of Orange, son of William the Silent, was now elected to the office of stadtholder, which had been in abeyance since his father's death, and he took command of the Dutch army at the age of twenty-two. His forces were but small and inefficient, so he retreated into the interior. Amsterdam was protected by the opening of the dykes; and much of Holland laid under water. The French were unable to cope with this new enemy, and the stadtholder now was strengthened by alliances with the elector of Brandenburg, the emperor, and the king of Spain.—*Patton.*

War with Holland.—Louis was eager to revenge himself upon the little republic that had so long been the ally of France, but now defended its old oppressor, Spain. So, having bribed England and Sweden to desert the alliance, he poured his troops into Holland. With him were Condé, Turenne, Luxemburg, Louvois and Vauban. Armed with the bayonet, then a new and terrible weapon, they swept all before them until within sight of Amsterdam. But once again the courage of the Dutch rose high as in the days of the Sea Beggars. "Better," said they, "let the sea drown our farms than the French destroy our liberties." The sluices were opened, and the German ocean, rushing in, saved the capital. William, prince of Orange, chosen stadtholder in this emergency, aroused all Europe with dread of Louis' ambition. Soon, the *First Coalition* of the empire, Spain and Brandenburg (now Prussia) was formed against France.—*Steele.*

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16.

The power of Louis XIV., the successes of his reign, may now be said to have reached their high-water mark. From this time we have the ebb-tide setting in, though so slowly as to be hardly perceptible. There were changes in the king's policy. Old ministers were passing away or were already gone. The king himself was changing. He was growing old. The ablest men of the kingdom were no longer about him in the civil administration and in the army. The ruling influence was that of a remarkable woman, Madame de Maintenon, whom the king finally married, a woman of a strong but rather narrow religious spirit. She soon brought the king completely to her way of thinking. One of the most striking characteristics of Louis XIV. had been his passion for uniformity. This uniformity was now to be enforced in religion. The heretics must be suppressed. The Edict of Nantes, by which Henry IV. had secured to the Huguenots their privileges of worship, was now annulled. Protestant ministers were expelled, and every possible means was taken to force the conversion of their followers (the dragonnades). The result was a great emigration of French Protestants. France lost in this way thousands of her best and most industrious population. It was a great economic loss to France, and a still greater loss in an immaterial way. Sound and healthy elements in the natural life were sacrificed to secure an unnatural uniformity. Finally the long wars, the splendors of the court, had cost money. They had made a heavy drain on the wealth of the people. France was not exhausted, but she was beginning to feel the burdens imposed upon her by the ambitions of the king. Yet the king could not stop. His life was wrapped up in his ambitions for aggrandizement. With weakened vitality France had to enter into a tremendous conflict with Europe. In order to understand this conflict, we must consider the condition of the other combatants.

16.

The Grandeur of Louis XIV.—It can not be doubted that at this epoch the French king was by far the grandest figure on the stage of Europe. The palace of Versailles outshone any other court in Christendom. Not that the king's character possessed so many elements of real strength and greatness as did that of William of Orange, but Louis displayed himself as the Grand Monarch, and augmented, by every fictitious means at his command, the artificial splendor of his throne. Among other measures adopted to spread the halo of glory around his royal seat, the king took care to retain as members of his court the most brilliant women and dazzling wits of the kingdom. Among those who were thus induced to add their brightness to the social glory of Paris, perhaps the most noted was Madame de Maintenon, whom the king in vain endeavored to bring into the same relations with himself as were held by the Duchess de la Valliere and the Marchioness de Montespan, and whom, after the death of the queen in 1683, he privately married.—*Ridpath.*

The Work of Colbert.—In one point he took Richelieu rather than Sully for his model; and neither the fostering care with which he encouraged the navy, nor the ingenuity and boldness with which he augmented the revenue, contributed more to Louis' gratification at the time, nor have done nearly so much for his renown with posterity, as the liberal protection which he bestowed on the men of genius who adorned his reign. Louis himself, as has been mentioned, despised learning; but Colbert, following on a large scale the example which Richelieu had set him in his Academy of Literature, founded several other academies for different branches of science and art, and gave pensions to men of learning and genius, not only with princely liberality, but, what is far rarer, with honest impartiality and tasteful discrimination. Moliere, Racine, Boileau, La Fontaine, Mezerai, were all recipients of his well-selected bounty. And those who speak of Louis himself and of his reign with admiration, are, whether consciously or unconsciously, far more influenced by their genius and learning than by the most brilliant exploits of Luxembourg or Turenne. For his great services he was ungratefully requited by his master. So eager was Louis to have it thought that his ministers owed everything to himself, that he rarely, if ever, employed one of high birth, and that he preferred men of moderate talents to those of more exalted abilities. He became jealous of the reputation which he saw Colbert was acquiring. The great minister was no flatterer; and, as Sully had endeavored to put a limit to Henry's wastefulness, so Colbert at times urged upon the king the praises of economy with an earnestness which Louis, less generous than his grandfather, resented as a reproach. He began to treat him with harshness. When Colbert had been twenty years in office, his incessant application to its duties began to produce its effect on his constitution; and by the beginning of 1683 he became seriously ill, while Louis took every opportunity of showing not only complete want of sympathy with his ill-health, but increased dislike of his person. High-minded as he was in other matters, Colbert could not support the manifest loss of his sovereign's favor with equanimity, and his anxiety aggravated his disease.—*Yonge.*

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17. II. GERMANY AND THE BALTIC POWERS FROM 1648 TO 1688.

The Empire was a hopeless ruin, from which the life had largely disappeared. The imperial throne was still nominally filled by the Electoral Princess of the Empire; but it was actually the hereditary possession of the Austrian Hapsburg family. These emperors cared little for the Empire. Everywhere the princes became almost independent. The Diet now became more hopelessly cumbrous and unwieldly than ever before through the complicated mechanism introduced to protect the Protestant minority. It commanded little respect. It was in no sense a national assembly. There was no hope for national government through the old forms. It could come only through radical change which should destroy altogether the old Empire.

Meanwhile the states were gradually becoming practically independent. Two of these have special importance for us, because they became later the great rivals in Germany. These powers are Austria and Brandenburg-Prussia. In one sense, Austria was hardly a state at all. It was merely an aggregation of kingdoms and duchies bound together solely by the common subjection to the Hapsburg dynasty. The most important of these dynastic possessions were (1) Austria proper, then an archduchy. (2) Bohemia, a kingdom, and (3) Hungary, also a kingdom; but there are numerous other possessions both within and without the Empire. Of the three principal portions of the Hapsburg domain only Austria was really German. Bohemia was a part of the Empire, but the decided majority of its population was Slavic. In Hungary the ruling race was the Magyars, which does not belong to the Indo-European family at all. Thus Austria was only partially German and its policy was almost entirely governed by dynastic, Austrian interests.

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17. II. GERMANY AND THE BALTIC POWERS FROM 1648 TO 1688.

The Treaty of Westphalia secured peace, and was the basis of the legal relations of the states of Europe for a century and a half, but the disintegration of the empire was complete, and in many places the face of the country was a desert. It has been estimated that in the first half of the seventeenth century two-thirds of the people of Germany perished from war, pestilence and famine. One of the effects of the war was the destruction of almost all trade and commerce. The Hanseatic League fell to pieces, and the interior industries of the realm were paralyzed. The decline of the Hanseatic cities was not altogether due to the Thirty Years' War. The changed relations caused by the discovery of America and the ocean route to India aided in depriving the German coast cities of their importance, which was transferred to Antwerp, Lisbon and other southern ports. The people of Germany relapsed into a condition of serfdom, and the princes asserted a royal authority in their dominions. The states acknowledged but a slack allegiance to the imperial crown, and the cities abandoned themselves either to the government of cliques, or accepted the rule of nobles. The tastes of the people were changed by the introduction of vicious foreign customs. The Germanism of the princes was vitiated by foreign travel and a desire to imitate the luxury of France and other southern peoples. In the midst of these signs of decadence two principles were left alive, which alone gave promise for the future. These were the indomitable race vigor—weakened, it is true, but not destroyed—and the spirit of the Reformation. On this joint foundation was built the power of the modern German Empire, which, with Prussia at its head, is one of the principal states of Europe. —*Sievers.*

The Real Beginning of Prussian Greatness is referable, however, to the ascendency of Frederick William, known as the Great Elector. He was born in 1620, and died in Potsdam in 1688. He came to the electoral office at the age of twenty, and began his reign by dismissing his father's council, reclaiming all the territories which had belonged to the electorate, and concluding important treaties with the surrounding states. The peculiarity of his character was his intense nationality. He hated the French manners and methods which at that time prevailed in almost all the courts of Europe. The etiquette of Versailles, which had been copied by nearly all the rulers of the age, was unceremoniously banished from Brandenburg. While neighboring princes were giving costly entertainments, and striving to make up with ostentation and flummery what they lacked in dignity and virtue, the Great Elector established at his court a rule of economy and rigid honesty that might well be cited as an example for any age or country. While the German emperor was supporting a retinue of about forty thousand officials, Frederick was engaged in giving strict scrutiny to the receipts and expenditures, not only of the electoral treasury, but also of his own household. Though his manners were intolerably coarse, and his government arbitrary, yet there was so much virtue in his methods that his son, Frederick I., was able to take and retain the title of king. From this time forth were laid the foundations of the intellectual and war-like greatness of Prussia. . . . It is well worth while to record that, while the German empress was attended by several hundred maids of honor, while her parrots required two hogsheads of tokay each day, and while twelve barrels of wine were demanded for her bath, the wife of Frederick William was allowed a single waiting-maid by her inexorable lord. Such was Austria and such Prussia two hundred years ago.—*Ridpath.*

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THE GREAT ELECTOR FREDERICK WILLIAM OF BRANDENBURG IN THE BATTLE OF FEHRBELLIN.

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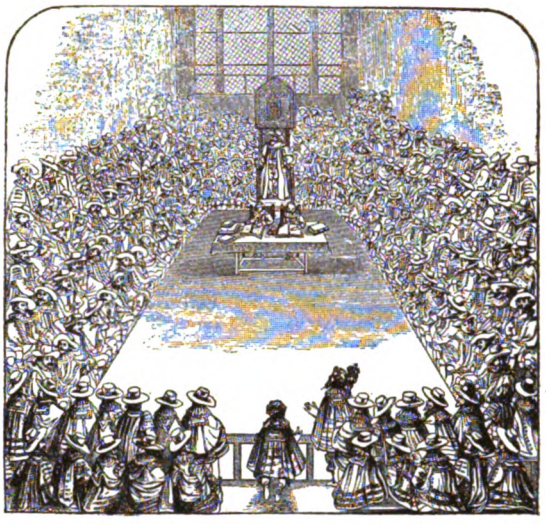
18.

The territory of Brandenburg-Prussia consisted in 1648 of three principal parts, Prussia in the extreme northeast, Brandenburg in the center between the Elbe and the Oder rivers, and some small domains on the Rhine. The reigning prince was Frederick William, the Great Elector, of the House of Hohenzollern. He had one advantage over the Austrian house. His territories were not peopled by heterogeneous races but mainly by Germans. Hence, Prussia having a distinctly German character was better fitted to lead national movements.



The House of Commons in 1623.

In other respects, the Elector's position was exceedingly difficult. (1) In the first place his territories were widely separated from each other. This difficulty was was not altogether done away with for two centuries. Gradually, however, strips of territory were acquired, and the gaps partially filled in. This disadvantage had, however, its compensations. As Prussia included territory in the extreme east, in the center and on the Rhine, it became more distinctly representative than it would otherwise have. Then, too, the very separation of these territories made it necessary to acquire new territory in order to hold what it already had.

(2) These territories had no political unity. On the Great Elector's accession, each province had its own independent Diet, in which sat the nobility and the representatives of the towns. This was only in part a representation of the people. It was really a representation of certain privileged classes. Their chief purpose was to defend their local privileges. They had no conception of a Prussian state which was broader than these local petty interests. The Great Elector believed they stood in the way of an efficient government and they were finally abolished. Local liberties were destroyed, but, for the first time, then began to be a Prussian state for which men could feel patriotism. There was a more orderly administration of justice and better protection for life and property than would have been otherwise possible. The Great Elector, like Louis XIV., sought to establish an absolute government centering in himself. The state was centered in the Great Elector simply because without him there would have been no Prussian state. It was really his creation.

18.

Germany from 1658 to 1713.—Ferdinand III. was succeeded in 1658 by his son, Leopold I., a cold, Jesuitical prince, weak in character and limited in intellect. The government was nominally in the Emperor but really in the hands of a quarrelsome and factious Diet. The ambition of Louis XIV. of France and the weakness of Germany spurred the French king to active interference in the affairs of the empire. By conquest and negotiation he made himself master of Franche-Comte and various cities on the borders of the Netherlands with the fortress of Freiburg and the duchy of Lorraine. These lands and cities were ceded to him by the Peace of Nimuegen in 1678. While the members of the Diet were disputing about matters of etiquette, Louis in 1681 seized Strasburg and other cities, all of which were confirmed to him by treaty. The national honor was sustained only by Frederick William of Brandenburg, who, through an alliance with Sweden and the Duke of Brunswick, put a stop to the designs of the King of Denmark on Holstein and Hamburg. Subsequently Louis XIV. was compelled to give up his claim to a number of the cities, but retained Strasburg. On the east the empire was threatened by the Turks, who overran Hungary and Transylvania, and in 1683 appeared before Vienna. Neither the emperor nor the diet made any effort to protect the capital of Leopold's hereditary state but the duty which they neglected was ably dis-

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charged by other hands. The Electors of Saxony and Bavaria moved in person to the relief of the beleaguered city; the Great Elector sent eight thousand soldiers. Charles of Lorraine at last brought up the imperial army which was joined by



Michael Romanoff.

the heroic king of Poland, John Sobieski. The Turkish army was destroyed and Europe was relieved from the menace of Moslem rule. Within a century Austria repaid the inestimable services of Sobieski by the partition of Poland. Hungary having joined the Turks in the war, that kingdom was severely punished. At the Diet of Presburg in 1687 the Hungarians yielded their right to elect a king, and declared the crown of their country hereditary in the male Hapsburg line. In 1701 Brandenburg was erected into a kingdom, with Frederick I., son of the Great Elector, as sovereign. On the death of Charles II. of Spain, who was the last Hapsburg of that branch, Louis XIV., who had married a sister of Charles, intrigued to secure the succession for his grandson, Philip of Anjou. Leopold claimed Spain for his own son as a descendant of Ferdinand, brother of Charles V. The German emperor formed an alliance against France with England and Holland, both of which powers were jealous of the increase of strength of Louis XIV. This alliance brought on the "War of the Spanish Succession," which lasted from 1701 to 1713, and resulted in the Treaty of Utrecht —*Sievers.*

Tobacco Cabinet.—Finding the cares of state more heavy than might be borne by one man, Frederick William organized what he was pleased to call his "Tobacco Cabinet." His ministers and generals, the foreign ambassadors, and a few citizens without rank were invited by the king to meet him in the evening in a plain room furnished with a three-legged stool for himself and wooden benches for his counselors. Every person present was furnished with a clay tobacco-pipe and a mug of beer. Each must smoke, or at least appear to do so, and drink his quantum of beer. No formality was allowed. Frederick would permit no special mark of respect to himself, not even the rising of his guests when he entered. Around this beer-spattered council-table, under the dense cloud of smoke, hardly penetrated by the flickering light of lamps, the savage old German and his councillors discussed with foreign magnates the political affairs of Europe, of which they themselves were an important part.—*Ridpath.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.**—France under Louis XIV., Richelieu and his Adversaries, Mazarin, Richelieu and Mazarin, The Character of Louis XIV.
14. **THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.** (Continued).—Administrative Reforms, Colbert and Louvois, Foreign Policy of Louis XIV., The Triple Alliance, The Glory of the Reign of Louis XIV.
15. **THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.** (Continued).—War with Holland, First Coalition, Second Coalition, Treaty of Ryswick.
16. **THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.** (Continued).—Madame de Maintenon, Emigration of French Protestants, The Grandeur of Louis XIV., The Work of Colbert.
17. **GERMANY AND THE BALTIC POWERS.**—General Condition of Germany, Condition of Austria, The Real Beginning of Prussian Greatness, Brandenburg and Prussia.
18. **GERMANY AND THE BALTIC POWERS** (Continued).—Frederick William, the Great Elector, The Tobacco Cabinet.

QUESTIONS.

13. *Who succeeded Richelieu as Cardinal? What can you say of the personal qualities of Louis XIV.? What was the character of his reign? Compare Louis, Mazarin and Richelieu; what were the qualities peculiar to each?*
14. *Who was Colbert? What was his governmental policy? What was the foreign policy of Louis XIV.? Give the origin, purpose and history of the Triple Alliance? What was the glory of the reign of Louis XIV.?*
15. *What was the occasion of the war with Holland? Give the history of the secret treaty of Dover? How was Holland saved? Who composed the first Coalition? Give an account of the war of the Second Coalition. What were the conditions of the treaty of Ryswick?*
16. *Name the principal causes of the changes now made in the policy of Louis XIV.? What can you say of his passion for uniformity? What can you say of the emigration of French Protestants? What can you say of the work of Colbert?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What was the governmental policy of Louis XIV.? How did his policy affect national forces? Local self-reliance? Give reasons for your answers.*
2. *Contrast the personal qualifications of Louis XIV. and Richelieu. In what respects did each excel?*
3. *Briefly compare the biographies of Colbert and Richelieu. In what ways were their policies different? What can you say of the immediate success of each? Which do you consider the most commendable? Why?*
4. *What was the origin, history and immediate effect of the Triple Alliance?*
5. *Prepare a brief sketch of the defense of Amsterdam by the Hollanders?*

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19.

(3) The Great Elector was Duke in Prussia, but he held that territory as the vassal of a foreign king. After long conflicts he finally secured his independence.

(4) On every side were dangerous neighbors. His Rhine possessions brought him into dangerous neighborhood with France. There were greater dangers on the north and east from Sweden and Poland. Sweden was the greatest of the Baltic powers. During the Thirty Years' War she had gained large strips of German territory, the mouths of the great German rivers that flow into the Baltic sea, so that the Baltic might fairly have been called a Swedish sea. The Great Electors also tried to gain a foothold on the Baltic, but was jealously watched by Sweden, and failed to get during his lifetime much of the territory of which he thought himself unjustly deprived.

In these dangerous surroundings Prussia had from the start to build up a military power. That system of military organization and discipline which was to become such a formidable engine in the hands of Frederick the Great, Von Moltke and Bismarck, had its beginnings under the Great Elector. . . . Austria was still far stronger, but the little Prussian state had its resources well in hand; it had a very unusual succession of capable rulers and a splendidly disciplined army. Finally, it was thoroughly German in its spirit, and so better fitted to lead in great national movements.

Thus the elements of a healthy growth were to be found in the single states, but the disunited condition of the empire made harmonious and vigorous action against their enemies impossible.

19.

This was a Period of Aggrandizing Efforts among the princes, and these examples influenced several. A prince of Orange had just become king of England, and the Elector of Saxony was king of Poland; this prompted Frederick III., Elector of Brandenburg, who was at the same time duke of Prussia, likewise to assume the royal title. His territories were indeed small, but Frederick loved splendor and outward show more than anything else; he caused himself to be proclaimed king of Konigsberg, January 17th, 1701, and on the following day he solemnly placed the crown on his own head and that of his consort; henceforth he was known as Frederick I. of Prussia. The circumstances of these times were exceedingly favorable for these self-promotions; at another period they might have encountered much opposition. The Spanish war of succession was on the eve of breaking out, and the powers which were implicated in it hastened to obtain allies. The emperor Leopold was the first to acknowledge the new royal title, and he received in return assistance in the war, and the assurance that the imperial dignity should continue in the house of Austria. Sweden, England, Holland, Poland, Denmark, and Russia, also soon followed, all equally from motives of state and policy. On the other hand, France and Spain, together with the Pope, finding their adversaries had already gained over the king, delayed their recognition until the peace of Utrecht.

The curse of our history since the Thirty Years' War has been that our country was drawn into all the quarrels of the nations of Europe, even such as were foreign to her, and her soil was the principal arena on which others spent their rage in war. Hence it is that the plains of Saxony, Swabia, and Bavaria are distinguished by the names of so many battles, and this is the reason why the banks of the Elbe, the Saale, and the Elster, as well as those of the Danube, the Lech, the Inn, and the Neckar, have been so severely trodden down by the burning foot of war.—*Kohlrausch.*

The Elective Kingdom of Poland—or the Republic of Poland, as the Poles themselves called it—was gradually declining during the seventeenth century. Every election of king by the Polish Diet was a scene of violent contention; and the unfortunate country was constantly torn by domestic dissentions and civil wars, and involved in wars with the Swedes, the Russians, the Cossacks, the Turks and the Tartars, by which Poland was successively deprived of large portions of her territories. The constitution and state of society of Poland was not such as tended to develop civilization and political freedom, and to promote peace and prosperity. Poland had no middle class, the only palladium of liberty in a monarchial country. The only liberty which existed in Poland was the power of the nobles to quarrel with each other, to tyrannize over the serfs upon their estates, and to vote for a puppet king Poland had only nobles and serfs—the former built of false pride and buried selfishness and luxury, and the latter in abject slavery and ignorance, without any legal existence This state of society was the cause of the political evils from which Poland was suffering. An election of a king of Poland was a matter of the greatest excitement. All the palatines and the chief nobility from every part of Poland repaired to Warsaw, which had now become the Polish capital; each one coming armed and on horseback, and attended by a numerous retinue of vassals, consisting of all the gentlemen in his palatinate. Warsaw and its environs presented an animated scene, and occasionally swords were drawn in support of the various candidates.—*Clare.*

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20. III. ENGLAND UNDER CHARLES II.

The Restoration, 1660-1685.—Internal Affairs.—The Stuart monarchy had again secured itself on the throne in the person of Charles II. His character was entirely different from that of his predecessors. Personally he was far inferior to his father, Charles I. He was indolent, thoroughly licentious, and shamelessly dishonorable in his foreign policy. Yet he was a man of real ability, who meant, while avoiding as far as possible conflicts with public opinion, to work toward the old Stuart ideal of absolute monarchy. He knew when to yield to strong public opinion, and at one of these times one of the greatest safeguards of the liberty of the individual against arbitrary processes was secured in the *Habeas Corpus Act*. The reaction of enthusiastic loyalty for their banished king made the first Parliament of Charles II. careless about the maintenance of constitutional checks. At the end of his reign the constitution stood dangerously near subversion into an absolute monarchy. Here then, as in France, in Prussia, and in the smaller German states, the principle of absolute monarchy seemed to be making steady progress.



Westminster in 1640.

In the religion and social affairs, also morality, there was reaction. The exacting standards of the Puritans had been followed by revolt from even the national restraints of morality. The court set a disgraceful example, and the same influence was felt in the literature of the time, even in the writings of really great men like Dryden. The old Church of England, after the interruption of the civil war, came back again to power, now, as before, in close alliance with the monarchy. The crown supported the church in its persecution of dissenting Protestants. In return the church in the main stood faithfully by the doctrine of divine right.

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20. III. ENGLAND UNDER CHARLES II.

Charles II. ruled, evading or cutting the knot of the difficulties which opposed his progress in many ways, and with the support of men of profoundly different characters. The nation accepted him blindly, voluntarily embracing illusions respecting the monarch whom she had chosen out of regard for the monarchical principle, and from weariness of revolutionary shocks. As it became possible to judge of the principle, or rather the lack of all principles, which characterized him, a gradual estrangement set in. The history of the reign of Charles II. presents the spectacle, more flagrant day by day, of the defects and vices of the government as well as of the reaction which at the same time was at work within the nation.—*Guizot.*

Charles II.—He was not a man to be imposed upon by the patriarchal theory of government and the doctrine of divine right. He was utterly without ambition. He detested business, and would sooner have abdicated his crown than have undergone the trouble of really directing the administration. Such was his aversion to toil, and such his ignorance of affairs, that the very clerks who attended him when he sat in council could not refrain from sneering at his frivolous remarks, and at his childish impatience. Neither gratitude nor revenge had any share in determining his course; for never was there a mind on which both services and injuries left such faint and transitory impressions. He wished merely to be a king such as Louis the Fifteenth of France afterwards was; a king who could draw without limit on the treasury for the gratification of his private tastes, who could hire with wealth and honors persons capable of assisting him to kill the time, and who, even when the state was brought by maladministration to the depths of humiliation and to the brink of ruin, could still exclude unwelcome truth from the purlieus of his own seraglio, and refuse to see and hear whatever might disturb his luxurious repose.—*Macaulay.*

Charles II. and William Penn.—Among those whom he admitted to familiar intercourse was William Penn, the celebrated Quaker and lawgiver of Pennsylvania. Penn, thinking proper to carry his sectarian prejudices into the presence of royalty, on his introduction, had continued standing before the king without removing his hat. Nothing could be more characteristic than the quiet rebuke of Charles; he merely took off his own hat and stood uncovered before Penn. "Friend Charles," said the future legislator, "why dost thou not keep on thy hat?" "Tis the custom of this place," replied the witty monarch, "for only one person to remain covered at a time."—*Jesse.*

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21.

Charles was succeeded by James II. The aim of James II. was not different from that of his brother; but James was an avowed Catholic and personally unpopular. He began his reign by illegal acts of various sorts, in particular by raising illegal taxes. Still, James received the loyal support of the High Church party. They were willing to sanction unconstitutional acts, if only their interests were protected. James, however, hoped for the restoration of Papal authority in England. The Catholics were then only a hated and comparatively small element in the population. As suspected persons they were, like the Protestant dissenters, excluded from public offices and subjected to other unfavorable discrimination. These disabilities, fixed by statute, were regarded by the High Church party as necessary safeguards. James wished naturally to have them removed, but Parliament could never be brought to take such action. He, therefore, issued the Declaration of Indulgence, suspending the acts against Catholics and Dissenters. It was an exercise of the *dispensing power* of the crown, an alleged right to nullify acts of Parliament. By including the Dissenters, James hoped to secure their support. If the king could exempt subjects from their obedience to acts of Parliament, then all security for constitutional government was gone. The king's action, therefore, met with opposition from even the most conservative supporters of Parliament. The attempt to separate the Protestants failed. The Dissenters rejected the king's offer and took their stand loyally with their old persecutors of the Church of England. The king had finally alienated the High Church party by his attempt to do away with the exclusive privileges of the church. Their old alliance with the monarchy, which had lasted through the century, was now broken. James II. stood almost alone against the nation. The bishops disobeyed the royal order to read the declaration in the churches. They were arrested and tried, but were acquitted in the midst of triumphant acclamations by the whole people. In this crisis, William of Orange was called in to intervene in defense of the English constitution. He was a grandson of Charles I. and had married the older daughter of James II. The invitation was accepted and James was deserted by his most trusted friends and was forced to leave the country.



John Winthrop.

A convention was then called and after a good deal of discussion between the Tories, who wanted to save the doctrine of divine right, and the Whigs, who maintained the doctrine of election, they finally compromised by declaring that James had by leaving the kingdom abdicated and that the throne was vacant.

William and Mary were then declared to be joint sovereigns.

Whatever the theory, the fact was, that the English nation had deposed one king and put up another in his place. It had imposed as a condition a clear declaration of the rights of Parliament and of English subjects. The revolution of 1688 settled the principle of the sovereignty of Parliament. A few years later Parliament again exercised this sovereign power by regulating the succession, providing that the crown should go finally, not to the next heirs, but to the Protestant House of Hanover.

21.

The Bill of Rights.—The Declaration of Rights presented to the Prince of Orange by the Marquis of Halifax, as speaker of the Lords, in the presence of both Houses, on February 18, consists of three parts: A recital of the illegal and arbitrary acts committed by the late king, and of their consequent vote of abdication; a declaration, nearly following the words of the former part, that such enumerated acts are illegal; and a resolution, that the throne shall be filled by the Prince and Prin-

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cess of Orange, according to the limitations mentioned in the last chapter. Thus the Declaration of Rights was indissolubly connected with the revolution settlement, as its motive and its condition. —*Hallam*.

William III.—Both the Tory positions encountered a sudden obstacle in William. He refused the regency, and told the Earl of Danby that he did not intend to be his wife's gentleman-usher. Mary refused to accept the crown unless her husband shared the royal honors. These two declarations put an end to the question. Both Houses of the Convention-Parliament then passed an *Act of Settlement* electing William III. and Mary II. as joint King and Queen of England, with the actual administration in the hands of William, who was thenceforth the head of both a monarchy and a republic, as he was still Stadtholder of Holland.

Somers, a young lawyer who had just distinguished himself in the trial of the bishops, and who afterward played a great part in English history, drew up a *Declaration of Rights*, which was presented to William and Mary by the two Houses of Parliament in the banqueting-room of Whitehall, February 13, 1689. This Declaration of Rights recited the misgovernment of James II., his abdication, and the resolution of the Lords and Commons of England to assert the ancient rights and liberties of England's subjects.



Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford.

Such was the glorious Revolution of 1688, by which the English people established their free constitution on a firm basis, after a century of struggles with the royal House of Stuart; and ever since that great event England has had a free constitutional government. Power was transferred from the king to the House of Commons. The monarch reigns as a mere figure-head, and the "king can do no wrong." His ministers, being responsible for the government's policy, only remain in power so long as they are supported by a majority in the popular branch of Parliament.

A revolution which accomplished results so grand without the shedding of a drop of blood may well be called glorious. Thenceforth there was no more punishment in England except for crime. Englishmen have never since pined in dreary dungeons, or died in God's free air on a heap of blazing fagots, as martyrs to their convictions. Instruments of torture are now found only in museums as relics of a past age, exciting the beholder's wonder that any age, especially any Christian age, could have been so barbarous.

King James II., as the subverter of the laws of the realm, and as the usurper of powers which did not belong to a king of England, was really the beginner of the revolution, while the English people and Parliament were the defenders of law as well as of the constitutional liberties which had been their inherent birthrights. The English monarchy was thus restored to the character which it had possessed under the Plantagenets, and which it had lost under the Tudors and the Stuarts.—*Clare*.

The Declaration of Rights in its final form as presented to William, consists of three parts: a short summary of the illegal and arbitrary acts of James II., which had induced the Parliament to declare the throne vacant; a solemn declaration of their illegality; and a number of clauses offering the crown to William and Mary with the arranged limitations. It was turned into a statute some months later, October 25, 1689, by Act of Parliament, under the name of Bill of Rights, with some slight modifications and additions, in the shape of a new article incapacitating all Catholics, or persons married to Catholics, from ascending the throne, and transferring the crown under such circumstances to the next heir, and a toning down of the provision with regard to the dispensing power to a mere declaration of the illegality of its use "as it hath been exercised of late." . . . . And whereas James II. has abdicated the government, and the throne is thereby vacant, the Prince of Orange assembled the Lords and Commons, who declared that:

I. (1) The suspending power is illegal; (2) the dispensing power as it hath been exercised of late is illegal; (3) the Ecclesiastical Commission and all similar courts are illegal; (4) raising money without consent of Parliament is illegal; (5) petitioning is lawful; (6) keeping a standing army in time of peace without consent of Parliament is illegal; (7) Protestants may carry lawful arms; (8) Parliamentary elections ought to be free; (9) freedom of speech in Parliament should not be interfered with; (10) excessive bail should not be required, nor excessive fines imposed; (11) jurors should be freeholders; (12) Parliaments should be summoned frequently. These rights the Lords and Commons claimed and insisted on as their undoubted rights and liberties.

II. They resolved, also, that the Prince and Princess of Orange be declared King and Queen; the royal power to go to the survivor; the government to be exercised during the joint reign by the prince solely. After their death the crown to go to their joint issue; then to the Princess Anne and her issue; then to the Prince's issue by any subsequent marriage.

III. They declared that no Papist, or any person married to a Papist, shall be capable of inheriting or enjoying the crown; that such persons shall be therefore regarded as civilly dead, and the realm be released from all duty of allegiance to them.—*Skottowe*.

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22.

English Foreign Policy, 1660–1688.—Under Charles II. the prestige gained for England by Cromwell was largely lost. For a few years, the English king was hardly more than the paid servant of Louis XIV. In the early years of his reign, there was a war with Holland caused by the commercial rivalry between the two nations. Holland had had the largest share of the carrying trade of Europe, but English commerce developed and the two powers finally came to blows, first under Cromwell and now again after the Restoration. After some victories and some humiliating defeats by the Dutch, the worst of which was the burning of English men-of-war in the Thames, a peace was finally concluded which at least gave to England the important Dutch colony of New Netherland. In accordance with English public opinion now alarmed by the growth of the French power, England, in 1668, united with Sweden and Holland in the Triple Alliance to oppose the advance of Louis XIV. in the Netherlands. In 1669, however, Charles negotiated the dishonorable secret treaty of Dover. In return for the money subsidy, Charles agreed to desert the Alliance and even to support French policy. Popular feeling, however, turned more and more strongly against France. The foreign policy of England, being the result of these two forces, the personal wishes of the King on one side, and the national feeling on the other, was naturally unstable.

The Revolution of 1688 was not only a defeat for the Stuart theory of the monarchy; it brought to the English throne the leader of the great European coalition against Louis XIV. The long conflict of France and England, which may be said, with some interruptions, to have lasted until Waterloo, had now begun. To William as stadtholder of Holland, it was important that France should not gain too great a power in Europe. That was England's interest also; but as time went on, other great issues became more prominent and above all, the great conflict of commercial and colonial interests on the seas and on the continents of Asia and America.

22.

The Restoration.—Charles II. (1660–1688) was welcomed with a tumult of joy. No conditions were imposed; the year of his accession was styled, not the *first*, but the *twelfth* of his reign, and the restored Stuart was made as absolute as any Tudor.

The Great Fire of London broke out in the following year (1666). It raged for three days, and swept from the Tower to the Temple. Two hundred thousand people were driven to the open fields, homeless and destitute.

Dutch War.—During these calamitous years, a war was going on with Holland—England's rival in commerce. Charles squandered upon his pleasures the money Parliament voted for the navy, and now the Dutch fleet sailed up the Thames, and, for the first and last time, the roar of foreign guns was heard in London. That "dreadful sound" broke the dream of royalty. But other events were hastening the ruin of Charles' popularity, as well as bringing Protestant England into alliance with Protestant Holland.—*Steele.*

A Secret Treaty was concluded at Dover in the month of May, 1670, but signed only by the Catholic advisers of the king. The greater part of the ministers were ignorant of its existence. . . The King of England undertook to declare publicly his return to the Roman Catholic church as his brother, the Duke of York, had done. Louis XIV. promised to assist him to that end with a sum of two million of livres, as well as with an annual subsidy of three millions when the two princes should have declared war against Holland. Peace with Spain, always popular in England, Spain being the natural enemy of France, was to be respected by the two sovereigns.—*Guizot.*

The Greatest Change, however, effected by the Revolution was undoubtedly the change of feeling in the nation. The fundamental maxims of the Constitution, both as they regard king and subject, may seem nearly the same; but the disposition with which they were received and interpreted was entirely different. The doctrine of passive obedience would have been obnoxious and absurb with regard to a dynasty created by Parliament, and the Revolution really swept away all the old Royalist views with regard to the prerogative and the wickedness of resistance.—*Skottowe.*

The Great Advantage, therefore, of the Revolution, consists in that which was reckoned its reproach by many and its misfortune by more—that it broke the line of succession. No other remedy could have been found, according to the temper and prejudices of those times, against the unceasing conspiracy of power. But when the very tenure of power was conditional, when the Crown, as we may say, gave recognizances for its good behavior, when any violent and concerted aggressions on public liberty would have ruined those who could only resist an inveterate faction by the arms which liberty put in their hands, the several parts of the Constitution were kept in cohesion by a tie far stronger than statutes, that of a common interest in its preservation.—*Hallam.*

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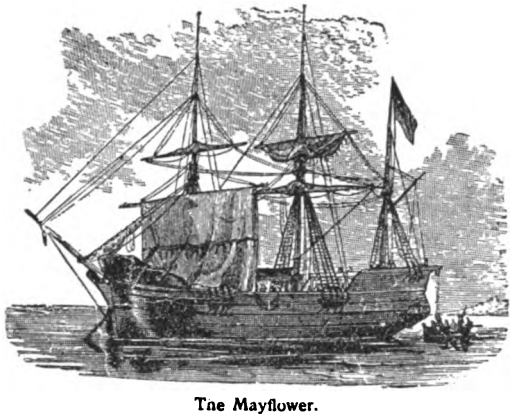
23.

The 17th century was the great sea of colonization, both for France and for England. There had been exploration and some attempts at colonization in North America before. Spain, too, had done something in Florida and the southwest; but the great work was done in this century. While Captain John Smith, the Pilgrims and the Massachusetts Bay Puritans were making Virginia and New England, Champlain was laying the foundations of New France. Gradually the English settlements stretched along the coast from Maine to South Carolina. The French, on the other hand, controlled the St. Lawrence valley and so the waterway to the west. By the end of the century, they had also their outposts on the Mississippi. The English tendency was to expand westward from the coasts. The French from the St. Lawrence shore to control the tributaries of the Mississippi, including the Ohio, and so to cut off the English westward movement.



The Mayflower.

In the East, too, there were already indications of the coming rivalry for the control of Indian trade and territory. The English East India Company had already been founded. France chartered a similar company in the early part of Louis XIV.'s reign. Gradually trading establishments of both nations were established in India. So far, the importance of these issues was only faintly perceived, but it became clearer in the next century.

23.

England's Thirteen Colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America rapidly increased in population. The great body of the colonists were of English descent, though there was a mixture of different European nationalities. The New England colonies, and Maryland and Virginia, were wholly English. The people of New York and of Massachusetts, who sought refuge in America against religious persecution, themselves persecuted those who did not agree with them. They were remarkable for their austerity. Their laws and customs were rigid, and frivolous amusements were not tolerated; while education was fostered, and habits of reading were encouraged. The people of New England were Puritans; the Church of England prevailed in New York, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia; the Quakers were chiefly found in New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware; and the Roman Catholics were most numerous in Maryland. Education received early and special attention in the colonies, especially in New England. As early as 1621 schools for the education of both white and Indian children were established in Virginia; and in 1692 William and Mary College, named after King William III. and his wife Mary II., was established at Williamsburg, Virginia. The Dutch Reformed Church established a school at New Amsterdam in 1633. Harvard College at Cambridge, Massachusetts, was founded in 1637, and named after the Rev. John Harvard. Yale College in Connecticut was established at Saybrook in 1701, and was named after Elihu Yale, President of the English East India Company, one of its most liberal benefactors; and in 1717 it was removed to New Haven. The College of New Jersey at Princeton was incorporated in 1738; and its third president was the distinguished divine and metaphysician, Jonathan Edwards.—*Clare.*

The Subject of Emigration to America was occupying many minds, in the French quarters of London. Frequent and lively were the discussions in the coffee-houses resorted to by the refugees in Soho and St. Giles, and in the weavers' shops of Spitalfields, over the relative advantages of the northern, the middle and the southern colonies, and the ways of reaching them. It was not a new subject, by any means. The thoughts of the suffering Huguenots of France had long turned towards the New World. Those who came from the maritime provinces possessed some knowledge of it, through the commercial relations of these coasts with Canada, Boston and New York; and even in the central and eastern parts of France, much interest had been awakened in the matter of emigration, through printed broadsides and pamphlets that had been stealthily circulated among the Protestants, already before the Revocation. Some came to England, "having nothing but Carolina in their minds," all eagerness to reach that land of fruits and flowers. Others were intent upon joining their countrymen who had already become domesticated and prospered in the more northerly settlements, particularly New York and Boston.—*Baird.*

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24. FRANCE AGAINST EUROPE.—1688-1697.

The threatening position of France led to the formation of a formidable league against her. The German states were jealous of the growing French influence in the empire and in 1686 they formed the *League of Augsburg*. They were joined by Protestants and Catholics alike, by Spain, Holland and Austria, and even the Pope himself gave the coalition his support, in spite of Louis' zeal for the church. Finally, England, with William of Orange on the throne, became the head of the great coalition.

When England was lost Louis XIV. saw clearly its importance, and with his support, James II. went to Ireland. For a time, all seemed to go well, but the landing of William III. changed the whole situation. At the Battle of Boyne, 1690, William clinched his hold on the English Crown. James next undertook to use the French fleet for a descent upon the English coast; but the great naval battle of *La Hogue*, 1692, shattered the French fleet and settled for the time the superiority of England on the seas.



King James at the Battle of the Boyne.

On the continent the French first took the offensive, performing some brilliant feats, but gaining no great positive results. Later, France kept mainly on the defensive. Her most brilliant generals were gone. Still the allies had their reverses also. Both sides were ready to sign the treaty of Ryswick in 1697. The terms were favorable to the allies. France surrendered many of her acquisitions, Louis acknowledged the title of William to the English crown. The war had been a serious burden to France, bringing with it heavy taxation. A more powerful motive for Louis XIV. was the prospect of an even greater prize than could be gained by the war—the succession to the Spanish throne. He hoped by reviving a doubtful claim to win for himself or his family the great Spanish inheritance with its vast domains in Spain, Italy, The Netherlands and America. It was a great ambition; but it was inevitably to bring him into conflict with Europe. The other powers could never permit so tremendous a concentration of power in a single dynasty. They must unite to maintain the balance of power.

Meanwhile, the preliminary skirmish in the great struggle for possession of North America had taken place. English and French forces had come into conflict along the St. Lawrence and the great lakes. On both continents, the century closed with a nominal peace, but the peace was only the prelude to a more desperate conflict.

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24. FRANCE AGAINST EUROPE.—1688-1697.

League of Augsburg.—Through William's exertions the powerful League of Augsburg was formed in July, 1686, uniting the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Charles II. of Spain, King Charles XI. of Sweden, and the leading German princes, such as the Elector-Palatine and the Electors of Bavaria and Saxony, against the king of France. Holland did not immediately join the league, as William's interests did not demand that the illustrious stadtholder should break with Louis XIV. just then. He was secretly preparing to drive his father-in-law, King James II., from the throne of England. He skilfully concealed his designs from the king of France until it was too late for that monarch to oppose them.—*Clare.*

The Grand Alliance.—As Louis XIV. was unable to occupy the whole of the Palatinate of the Rhine, he hearkened to the advice of his brutal minister of war, Louvois, and commanded his generals to ravage that beautiful district with fire and sword; and the Rhenish Palatinate accordingly suffered a desolation far more terrible than in the preceding war. More than thirty cities and hundreds of flourishing villages were reduced to ashes, because the French could not garrison these towns. The important cities of Mannheim, Heidelberg, Spires, Worms, Frankenthal, Oppenheim and Bingen were thus burned; and the beautiful country became a blackened desert, as the farms.

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orchards and vineyards were likewise laid utterly to waste. Such of the unfortunate inhabitants as were able to emigrate took refuge in other countries; but over a hundred thousand peasantry wandered helpless amid the ruins of their dwellings, imploring the curse of heaven upon the merciless French king who had been the cause of their sufferings. These cruelties aroused the most intense hatred of the French in the hearts of the German people—a hatred which has not yet died out. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany now declared war against Louis XIV., denouncing him as the enemy of Christendom; and such was the effect of the cruelties of the French that a grand alliance was formed against the king of France, consisting of England and Holland under William of Orange, Chas II. of Spain, Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy; the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, and the German princes who had formed the League of Augsburg. England, under the vigorous government of King William III., was the head of the Grand Alliance.—*Clare.*

Treaty of Ryswick.—William, as king of England and stadtholder of Holland, now conceived that the time had come for peace. The emperor still resisted the project, but was at length overborne, and negotiations were opened. Commissioners from most of the states of Europe met at Ryswick, near the Hague, and in September of 1697 a treaty was concluded. The French ministers effected a three-fold settlement; one with England, another with Holland, and a third with Spain. In the first Louis acknowledged William III. as the rightful occupant of the English throne, and bound himself to give no further aid or encouragement to James II. or to other members of the Stuart dynasty. The independence of the Netherlands was again acknowledged, and a restoration promised of the conquests made from the Dutch during the war. Spain also was to receive back the towns of which she had been deprived in Catalonia and the Spanish Netherlands. Another month, however, elapsed before a settlement could be reached between Louis and the emperor. At last the treaties of Westphalia and Nimeguen were taken as a basis, and to these certain clauses were added by which it was agreed that Leopold, duke of Lorraine, should be restored to his electorate; that Joseph Clement of Bavaria should receive Cologne; that the duchess of Orleans should renounce her claim to the Rhine palatinate, and that Alsace should remain to France.—***Ridpath.***

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **GERMANY AND THE BALTIC POWERS** (Continued).—General Condition of the Baltic Powers, The Elective Kingdom of Poland.
20. **ENGLAND UNDER CHARLES II.**—The Restoration, Internal Affairs, Charles II., Charles II. and William Penn, Dryden.
21. **ENGLAND UNDER JAMES II.**—The Religious Views of James II., The Declaration of Indulgences, William and Mary, The Bill of Rights.
22. **ENGLISH FOREIGN POLICY, 1660-1688.**—General Condition of England under Charles II., The Revolution of 1688, Reaction against Puritanism.
23. **THE ERA OF COLONIZATION.**—English Settlements, French Settlements, East India Company, England's North American Colonies, England's Thirteen Colonies.
24. **FRANCE AGAINST EUROPE.**—League of Augsburg, The Grand Alliance, Treaty of Ryswick.

QUESTIONS.

19. *What was now the condition of Europe? Germany? In your opinion how were those conditions brought about? The Elective kingdom of Poland?*

20. *What can you say of the character of Charles II.? What can you say of absolute monarchy during his reign? How was the reaction in reality occasioned? What seemed to be the motives which governed Charles II.? What is said in reference to the temper and good-natured familiarity of Charles II.?*

21. *What can you say of the personal characteristics of James II.? What were his religious views? What was the Declaration of Indulgences? What led to the crowning of William and Mary? Give the history of the Bill of Rights?*

22. *What was the condition of England's foreign policy under Charles II.? What was their relation to Holland? Name some of the results of the Revolution of 1688? Give an account of the reaction against Puritanism? What can you say of the "London Plague"? The Great Fire of London? Give a brief statement of the secret Treaty of Dover?*

23. *Why is the Seventeenth Century considered the era of colonization? What was the general condition of the American colonies? Give the history of the Plymouth Company? The London Company? (See Glossary.) How did American colonization affect England? Germany? France?*

24. *What was meant by the League of Augsburg? The Grand Alliance? What were the conditions of the Treaty of Ryswick? What was now the general condilions of Europe? America?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Prepare a brief history of the Parliament of the Restoration.*
2. *Prepare a brief sketch of the escape and wanderings of Charles II.*
3. *What was the history attending the Declaration of Indulgences issued by James II.?*
4. *What were the leading events in the reign of William and Mary?*
5. *What was the history and influence of the Revolution of 1688?*
6. *What was the history, contents and importance of the Bill of Rights?*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Adolphus, Gustavus (see Page 271).

Alsace-Lorraine (al' sass') an old German province, having the Rhine on the east and the Vosges Mountains on the west. It now forms the district of Ober-Elsass and has an area of nearly 1400 square miles.

Augsburg, Treaty of (see Page 266).

Boyne (boin), a river of Ireland. About two and three-fourths miles west of Drogheda; an obelisk marks the spot where William III. (1690) gained the victory known as the "Battle of the Boyne."

Colbert (col' bair'), **Jean Baptiste** (1619-1683), an eminent French statesman and financier, born at Rheims. Voltaire calls hi m "the founder of commerce and protector of all the arts." Probably no minister ever rendered so great service to France as Colbert.

Conde (kon' da), **Prince** (1621-1686), a celebrated French general.

Cromwell, Oliver (1599-1658), was the son of Robert Cromwell and Elizabeth Stewart. He was educated at Huntingdon grammar-school, under a rigid and pious instructor, Dr. Thomas Beard; was admitted a fellow-commoner of Sydney Sussex College, Cambridge, but on the death of his father left the university and proceeded to London to gain some knowledge of law. His wife is represented as a woman of very amiable and prudent character, whose gentle virtues sweetened his domestic life to its close, amid all outward vicissitudes. Returning to Huntingdon, he for nearly ten years fulfilled the ordinary duties of a country gentleman. In 1628 he took his seat in the House of Commons, where he soon came to the front. No royal name is more worthy of our veneration. —*Nicolson.*

Dover (Secret Treaty of).—A secret treaty concluded May 20, 1670, between Charles II. and Louis XIV. Charles was to aid in the designs of France against Holland and Louis was to furnish subsidies and troops. The province of Zealand and the adjacent islands were to be preserved for England. Charles was to receive £200,000 a year if he declared himself a Roman Catholic.—*Century Cyclopedia of Names.*

Dryden.—It was Charles the Second who gave Dryden the hint for writing his poem, called "The Medal." One day, as the king was walking in the Mall, and talking with Dryden, he said, "If I was a poet, and I think I am poor enough to be one, I would write a poem on such a subject in the following manner:" and then gave him the plan for it. Dryden took the hint, carried the poem as soon as it was written to the king, and had a present of a hundred broad pieces for it.—*Spence.*

Hamp'den, John (1594-1643), was the son of William Hampden and Elizabeth Cromwell, who was the aunt of Oliver Cromwell. His reputation of honesty was universal.

Hapsburg (House of).—A German princely family which derived its name from the castle of Hapsburg, and which has furnished sovereigns to the Holy Roman Empire, Austria and Spain.

Hohenzollern (hō'-en-tsol-lern) **House of.**—This princely family ruled over Brandenberg from 1415 and has furnished the kings of Prussia since 1701 (German emperors since 1871).

Huguenots.—Origin of the Name.—The Protestants in France were called Huguenots. The origin of the name is doubtful. Some derive it from "Eidgenossen" (confederates), a term used for the confederates of Switzerland. Others derive it from a small and almost worthless coin of the time of the French King Hugues (987-996). A third and more probable derivation is from "Hugon," a provincialism used in the city of Tours and its neighborhood to denote a nightmare or bad dream (what we call a bugbear); and naughty children were frightened by the threat of sending for Hugon, or King Hugon. So in some parts of England the expression King Hugger-mugger is used in the same way. This term Huguenot then was a term of opprobrium applied by French Roman Catholics to their Protestant fellow-countrymen.—*Hale.*

La Hogue.—A promontory at the northwestern extremity of the department of Mauche, France, projecting into the English channel.

Laud (lawd) **William** (1573-1645) a celebrated Archbishop of Canterbury. He took part in the persecutions of the Puritans.

La Rochelle (la ro-shell') a seaport town of France, midway between Nantes and Bordeaux.

The London Company had better fortune. A fleet of three vessels was fitted out and the command given to Christopher Newport. On the 9th of December the ships, having on board a hundred and five colonists, among whom were Wingfield and Smith, left England. Newport, to begin with, committed the astonishing folly of taking the old route by way of the Canaries and the West Indies, and did not reach the American coast until the month of April. It was the design that a landing should be made in the neighborhood of Roanoke Island, but a storm prevailed and carried the ships northward into the Chesapeake. Entering the magnificent bay and coasting along the southern shore, the vessels came to the mouth of a broad and beautiful river, which was named in honor of King James. Proceeding up this stream about fifty miles, Newport noticed on the northern bank a peninsula more attractive than the rest for its verdure and beauty; the ships were moored and the emigrants went on shore. Here, on the thirteenth day of May (Old Style), in the year 1607, were laid the foundations of Jamestown, the oldest English settlement in America. It was within a month of a hundred and ten years after the discovery of the continent by the elder Cabot, and nearly forty-two years after the founding of St. Augustine. So long a time had been required to plant the first feeble germ of English civilization in the New World.—*Ridpath.*

The Plague broke out in London in 1665. The shops were shut, whole blocks stood empty, and grass grew in the streets. Houses in which the pestilence raged were marked with a red cross, and the words, "Lord have mercy upon us." All night long the carts rattled through the streets, with a tolling bell and the burier's dismal cry, "Bring out your dead." No coffins were used; no mourners followed their friends; and deep trenches served for graves. To add to the horror of the scene, a strange, wild-looking man constantly stalked up and down the deserted city, calling out ever and anon in a sepulchral voice. "Oh, the

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great and dreadful God!" Before the plague was stayed, one hundred thousand persons had perished in the capital alone, and large numbers in other places.

The Long Parliament.—This Parliament, which assembled November 3, 1640, is known in history as the Long Parliament, on account of the extraordinary length of its existence, which lasted thirteen years. Its leading members were Sir Arthur Haslerig, John Hampden, John Pym and Oliver Cromwell, who were opposed to absolute monarchical power and Episcopal church government, and who were staunch advocates of republican or popular institutions.—*Clare.*

Louvois (loo-vwa') (1641-1691) a French minister of war. "He was the greatest adjutant general, the greatest quarter master general, the greatest commissary general, that Europe has seen.—*Macaulay.*

Maintenon (mant-non') **Madame de** (1635-1719) was the unacknowledged queen of France for the last thirty years of the reign of Louis XIV. Her political influence was supreme in matters of detail.

Marston Moor, York, England. Here Cromwell defeated the Royalists in 1644.

Mazarin (maz-a-reen') (1602-1661) was born at Piscina in Abruzzi, Italy. He accepted Richelieu's offer of entering the service of the king of France, and in 1639 became a naturalized Frenchman.

Monk, or Monck (Mungh) George (1608-1670) an English general who served in the Scottish war in 1640; the Irish rebellion in 1642; and was associated with Blake in command of the fleet in the Dutch war in 1652, as well as many other engagements.

Nantes (nants.)—The capital of the department of Loire-Inferieure, France, and situated on the Loire.

Naseby (nāz' bi.)—A village about twelve miles north of Northampton, England. Here June 14, 1645, the parliamentarians under Fairfax and Cromwell, defeated the Royalist under Charles I. and Rupert.

Nimeguen (nim'mā-gen.)—A city of the Netherlands.

Petition of Right.—An act of Parliament passed in 1628; one of the chief documents of the English Constitution. It provided that "no freeman be required to give any gift, loan, benevolence, or tax without common consent by Act of Parliament; that no freeman be imprisoned or detained contrary to the law of the land; that soldiers or mariners be not billeted in private houses; and that commissions to punish soldiers and sailors by martial law be revoked and no more issued."

The Plymouth Company.—In the month of August, 1606, the Plymouth Company sent their first ship to America. The voyage, which was one of exploration, was but half completed, when the company's vessel was captured by a Spanish man-of-war. In the autumn another ship was sent out, which remained on the American coast until the following spring, and then returned with glowing accounts of the country. Encouraged by these reports, the company, in the summer of 1607, dispatched a colony of a hundred persons. Arriving at the mouth of the River Kennebec, the colonists began a settlement under favorable circumstances. Some fortifications were thrown up, a store-house and several cabins built, and the place named St. George. Then the ships returned to England, leaving a promising colony of forty-five members; but the winter of 1607-8 was very severe; some of the settlers were starved and some frozen, the store-house burned, and when summer came the remnant escaped to England.—*Ridpath.*

Pomerania.—In accordance with the terms of the treaty of Westphalia, the Great Elector had received the province of Pomerania, together with the island of Rügen and the county of Hohenstein. From this time forth he gave his attention to the work of organizing the Prussian army. In 1655 he made an alliance with Charles X. of Sweden, and engaged in a war with the Poles. The conflict resulted in the capture of Warsaw and the abrogation of those feudal rights which Poland had until now exercised over Prussia. At this time Frederick William was undoubtedly the most far-seeing ruler east of the Rhine. He was the most dangerous foeman with whom Louis XIV. had to contend on the Germanic side of his dominions. But for the incompetency of Leopold I. of Austria, the Great Elector would have doubtless have thwarted the project of the Grand Monarch to make the Rhine the eastern boundary of France. In 1673 Frederick William was at war with the French, and lost the provinces of Wessel and Rees. Soon afterwards Louis XIV. procured an invasion of Prussia by the Swedes, and a large army of that hardy soldiery was led against Berlin. The Great Elector was at this juncture at Magdeburg; but leaving that city with only six thousand cavalry, he hurried across the Elbe, and without waiting to be joined by his infantry, fell upon the Swedish army on the field of Fehrbellin. Here, on June 18th, 1675, he fought and won a great battle, in which the Swedes were utterly routed and hurled in disorganized masses across the borders of Brandenburg. The victory was so decisive as to end the war and to make sure the elector's claim to Pomerania.—*Ridpath.*

Pym, John (1584-1643) an English Statesman. He was one of the managers of Buckingham's impeachment in 1626, and advocated the Petition of Rights in 1628. In the Long Parliament he assisted in impeaching Strafford and Laud.

Rupert (rö'pert) 1619-1683), Son of Frederick V. and Elizabeth of England, and nephew of Charles I. In 1660 he returned to England; became a privy counselor, and commanded against the Dutch fleet 1665-66, and 1673. He was governor of the Hudson Bay Company.

Ryswick (riz'wik) a village in the province of South Holland and made famous by the treaty of 1697 between France and England, Netherlands and Spain.

Star Chamber.—In English history a court of civil and criminal jurisdiction at Westminster. It administered justice by arbitrary authority instead of according to the common law. So called it is said because the roof was ornamented with stars; or by some said to be from the Hebrew SHTAR. the name of the financial documents executed between the exchequer of the Jews, who farmed the British revenues, and the early kings of England.

Sully (1560-1641.)—A French Protestant statesman. He became the companion and friend of Henry of Navarre; served with distinction in the civil wars and became celebrated as minister of finance under Henry IV.

Tudors.—An English dynasty descended on the male side from Oen Tudor. It comprised the sovereigns Henry VII. ,Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary and Elizabeth.

Turenne (1611-1675). — A celebrated French marshal, grandson of William the Silent.

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SIDE LIGHTS.

Charles II., Adventures of.—It has been said, but we a little doubt the truth of the saying, that there is no country where, in so small a space as in England, so much and so many relics of the past are crowded together; and it is further often said, that of all romantic tales in English history, that of King Charles' flight is the most so. Hair-breath escapes, sufferings, surprises, and disguises shed quite a fictitious halo around one who was, after all, a very mean and commonplace character. The adventures of Charles, however, are indeed full of interest, and the volume of Boscobel Tracts is a charming story of old halls, many of them now gone, many of them still standing, gray and weather-worn, full of hiding-places, where the prince found a refuge. The escape of Charles is one of those stories which the English peasant has in many parts of England told pleasantly in his own rude way. It is a wonderful story of human fidelity, for though a thousand pounds was set upon the capture of Charles, and perhaps more than a score of people knew the route he was taking, not one of them ever revealed it, not one broke faith—peasant and peer were equally true; cottage and hall were equally open to the royal fugitive; indeed, it is a story which if told of a better man might bring tears into the eyes. From that fatal evening, when flying along from Worcester he threw his blue ribbon and garter and princely ornaments away, when his long black hair was cropped off country fashion, when he climbed up into the Boscobel oak, and amid its thick boughs could look down, and peep, and see the red coats of his enemies passing beneath them,

"When all the paths were dim,
And far below the Roundhead rode
And hummed a surly hymn,"

until, by a strangely circuitous route, he reached Brighthelmstone, or Brighton, and from thence embarked in Captain Tattersal's little vessel from Shoreham, it is a constant succession of adventures which from that day to this have furnished subjects for the writers of fiction. Lord Clarendon devotes a good many pages to the story of these adventures; but he gives no honor to the humbler agents who secured the king's escape; the Penderels, for instance, to whom the king always expressed so much gratitude—they are unmentioned; nor does the faithful Jane Lane receive the notice she deserves; quite worthy she appears of all the fame which has waited upon Flora Macdonald, who took a similar part in rescuing a later member of the house of Stuart from similar dangers. There is a quiet and unassuming grace about Jane Lane which gives a real charm to her character. The way was beset with dangers; and it must have been an anxious time to Charles. But some of his retreats, standing still, glow with the lights of the old romantic days; the old house at Trent, for instance, in whose secret chambers he stayed so long, and from whence he heard a Roundhead soldier boasting that he had slain the king with his own hands, and from whence he could see the bonfires the people kindled in their joy, and hear his own death knell rung from the old church tower. Sometimes the king was "Will Jones," a woodman, then he was changed into "Will Jackson," a groom, clad in gray cloth. Once he had to take Jane Lane's horse to a smithy; it had cast a shoe, and the smith began wailing the non-capture of that rogue Charles Stuart, and the king chimed in, that if that rogue could only be taken, he deserved hanging more than all the rest, for bringing in the Scots. Once, close to Stratford, "Will Jackson," in pursuance of his disguise, was sent into the kitchen, where the cook-maid, who was providing supper, desired him to wind up the jack; he was obedient, but he did not do it in the right way, which led the maid with some passion to ask, "What countryman are you, that you



Sir Walter Raleigh.

know not how to wind up a jack?" "Will Jackson" appears to have answered very satisfactorily: "I am a poor tenant's son of Colonel Lane, in Staffordshire; we seldom have roast meat, and when we have, we don't make use of a jack." And so the maid's anger was appeased. That old jack is still hanging up beside the fireplace, but those who have seen it within the last few years say that it would now puzzle a wiser man than Charles to wind it up. Another story tells how the king was hard pressed by soldiers in pursuit of him, and how they sought for him all over the house, and in the kitchen, too; but here the girl in the kitchen knew him, for indeed he was there, and as they entered he looked with trepidation round him, perhaps giving up all for lost now; but the cook hit him a smart rap with the basting ladle, exclaiming, "Now, then, go on with thy work; what art thou looking about for?" And the manœuvre was effectual, and the soldiers started on another track. The wanderings seem to have been long, nor was it until Wednesday, October 15th, the same day on which the gallant Lord Derby laid his head upon the scaffold at Bolton, in Lancashire, and probably about the same time in the day, that the king was able to set sail for the coast of Normandy.—*Hood*.

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Richelieu Punishes his Adversaries.—At the the beginning of winter the court returned to Paris, where Richelieu rejoined it; and there, at the beginning of November, after a violent scene in the Luxembourg palace, in which, in the king's presence, Queen Marie heaped reproaches on the minister, Louis consented to his retirement; and the cardinal retired, to make instant preparations for quitting the country, where he feared personal danger from the many enmities which he had provoked. But finding that the king had afterwards gone to Versailles by himself, at the instigation of one of his friends, he followed him thither, obtained admittance to his presence under pretence of taking a formal leave of his majesty and of completing the formal resignation of his offices, and, in a brief interview, undid all the work of the morning. Louis retained him in his post of Prime Minister; and, while the Parisians, who detested him, comforted themselves for their disappointment by a joke, and nicknamed the day, "the Day of Dupes," left him at liberty with greater power to wreak his revenge on those who had plotted his fall. And he was not a man to make a generous use of such power. He imprisoned Marillac, the chancellor, for life, merely because Marie had designed him for his successor in his office of minister. He threw Marshal Bassompierre into the Bastile, and left him there for twelve years; Louis himself, when he signed the warrant for his arrest, being so much ashamed of it, that he sent the marshal at the same time a message to say that he had committed no crime; his real offense being that he had refused to exert his influence with the king in the cardinal's favor; and that, a week after the "Day of Dupes," he had pleaded a prior engagement when Richelieu invited him to dinner. He prosecuted Marshal Marillac, the chancellor's brother, and commander of the army in Piedmont, on a false charge before a packed tribunal created for the purpose, and sent him to the scaffold, because he was understood to have answered for the adhesion of the troops under his command to the projected change in the ministerial arrangements. Some nobles, even of the first rank, he banished; of others he confiscated the estates; and finally, at the beginning of the next year, having crushed all his minor foes, he proceeded to take vengeance on the queen mother herself; prevailing on her worthless son to banish her from his presence. Not unreasonably fearing for the safety even of her life, she fled the kingdom, at first taking refuge in the Netherlands, and afterwards wandering through different countries and suffering great distress; for Richelieu stopped all the revenue which had been settled on her, but which her son, who added avarice to his other vices, was easily persuaded to appropriate. And finally, having had all her petitions for leave to return to France refused, though more than once Louis would willingly have granted them had not the cardinal interposed to prevent him, she died at Cologne in 1642, of a fever brought on by chagrin and privation, a few months before the deaths of the minister who had defeated, and of the son who had deserted her.—*Yonge.*

Paris in the Seventeenth Century.—The streets of the city were usually in a very miserable condition. They had been irregularly laid out and almost all were very narrow. Sidewalks were unknown, many of the streets were not paved, and the roadways were generally very bad. The expense of constructing them and of keeping the streets clean was divided in various proportions between the state and the city of Paris, but it was attended to by neither. The roadways that were built were of poor material, most of the city was low, the drainage was imperfect and floods were not unfrequent. An ordinance of 1637 appropriated 120,000 livres annually for cleaning the streets, to be collected from the residents. The tax was irregularly paid, and in bad weather the streets were in such condition that people could only walk with high boots. Even the judges in their robes were obliged to wear these unseemly articles. Richelieu complained that the main avenues were in such shape that the cost of teaming was doubled. Notwithstanding the endeavors that were made, there were few streets in Paris that, in wet weather, could be traversed with comfort by men or with safety by carriages. For a carriage to tip over in the ruts or holes was a common occurrence. The mud and dirt became offensive in every way. Little sunlight reached the narrow streets, and the filth of the city was not removed. The mud stained the clothes of those who had to walk through it, and its stench was proverbial. It was not until Colbert that both the streets of the city and the roads through the country were put and kept in fair condition for travel. Mme. de Sevigne wrote that the infernal roads had now become heavenly highways; she only feared they were too broad and easy to lead to Paradise. The streets were not lighted. In a few places an occasional lamp was found, but these were lit by the bourgeois only to be extinguished by the thieves. A gentleman was always accompanied by a lackey, who carried the light in front of him and explored the way. The bourgeois who braved the danger of the city at night took his lantern and his arms. Chains still closed many of the streets in the night-time, and the city appeared as if in a condition of semi-siege. There were no police, and there were innumerable robbers. Carriages were often attacked in the streets of Paris, and the occupants and their lackeys defended themselves with swords and firearms against their assailants. The robbers would first endeavor to snatch the torch from the lackey, so that entire darkness should prevent any rescue. The unwary traveller was often asked by some one who affected the appearance of the stranger, to show the way to a tavern, where they could have a pipe of tobacco together, and, when some convenient place was reached, was attacked and overpowered. The bourgeois complained that Paris was full of robbers, there was risk in the transportation of merchandise, and they themselves were in apprehension even in their own houses. They kept guard, some of them declared, as if they were in a hostile country. The robbers were divided into those who snatched mantles by night, and those who attacked houses. Most of the former had been soldiers, or were valets discharged by their masters, and many of them found shelter in the houses of great nobles, who desired to have a large retinue of men-at-arms in case of need. The worst violence was in the winter, and the return of the Court usually brought with it a body of lawless retainers, who got their dinner by hanging about the establishment of some unruly nobleman, and got money for drink by knocking some bourgeois over the head. The number of men who, by service in ill-disciplined armies, were rendered unfit to return to any peaceful avocation, furnished a great supply of thieves, brigands, and blacklegs. Such disorders were sometimes diminished for a while, but during the civil wars there was less restraint than usual. In 1648 robbers attacked carriages in the streets at night with impunity.—*Perkins.*

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The Long Parliament.—Almost all writers admit that the early proceedings of the Long Parliament were eminently judicious; and even Hume, who takes so much pains to justify the conduct of the Stuarts, makes the following remarks relative to it: "In short, if we take a survey of the transactions of this memorable parliament, during the period of its operations, we shall find, that except Strafford's attainder, which was a complication of cruel iniquity, their merits in other respects so much outweigh their mistakes, as to entitle them to praise from all lovers of liberty. Not only were former abuses remedied, and grievances redressed; great provision for the future was made by law against the return of like complaints." A different opinion has already been expressed relative to the proceedings against Strafford, whose life, notwithstanding the alleged irregularities of his trial, was justly forfeit. "They who grasp at arbitrary power, they who make their fellow-creatures tremble before them, they who gratify a selfish pride by the humiliation and servitude of mankind, have always played a deep stake; and the more invidious and intolerable has been their pre-eminence, their fall has been more destructive, and their punishment more exemplary. Something beyond the retirement or the dismissal of such ministers has seemed necessary to furnish history with an awful lesson of retribution. The spontaneous instinct of nature has called for the axe and the gibbet against such capital delinquents."

Had the parliament felt sure that Charles would not, when the occasion presented itself, attempt to recover the power which he had surrendered, there is no valid reason for supposing that they would have urged those extreme demands which made it practically impossible for the competing claims of the two parties to be decided except by civil war. The great point of difficulty was the command of the military arm, which undoubtedly was a prerogative of the crown; but the altered condition of society, and especially the fear which the parliament entertained of the monarch's designs, made them exceedingly anxious that they should have some power over it.

In all the conferences with Charles, up to the last, this was really the most important matter in dispute. When, by the test of victory, the sovereignty fell into the hands of parliament, and from that parliament all who were opposed to extreme measures were ejected, the trial of the king was determined on; and a scene took place, then unexampled in the history of the world. From a constitutional point of view, Charles' arraignment cannot be defended, for, by the fundamental laws of the kingdom, no legislative enactment can be made except by the consent of the king, lords and commons; whereas the court by which he was tried was established by the commons alone. It is remarkable, that those who managed the proceedings, did so in the open face of day, as if to vindicate themselves before the world.

The feelings of some of the judges is, doubtless, well expressed in the language of Mrs. Hutchinson, who, speaking of her amiable, exemplary, and certainly not fanatical husband, remarks, that having prayed to God to enlighten him in the matter, and "finding no check, but a confirmation in his conscience that it was his duty to act as he did, he, upon serious debate, both privately and in his addresses to God, and in conference with conscientious, upright, unbiased persons, proceeded to sign the sentence against the king. Although he did not then believe but that it might one day come to be again disputed among men, yet both he and others thought they could not refuse it without giving up the people of God, whom they had led forth, and engaged themselves unto by the oath of God, into the hands of God's and their own enemies; and therefore he cast himself upon God's protection, acting according to the dictates of a conscience which he had sought the Lord to guide; and accordingly the Lord did signalize his favor afterwards to him."

Literature, Science, and Fine Arts.—*Literature.*—From this period downwards, as the literary productions became so numerous, it must suffice to name only a few of the most celebrated authors. Of historical works of the first part of the seventeenth centry, may be instanced the "History of the



Peter the Great.

Turks," by Knolles, among the best of our earlier writers (published in 1610); Raleigh's "History of the World" (1614); Camden's "Annals of the Reign of Queen Elizabeth," written in Latin (1615); Bacon's masterly "History of the Reign of Henry VII." (1622); and Fuller's "Church History" (1656).

The principal theological authors were Bishop Hall, who lived during nearly the whole of this period; Hales, who wrote his well-known "Discourse on Schism" in 1642; Chillingworth, the author of "The Religion of Protestants—a Safe Way to Salvation" (1637); Jeremy Taylor, the greatest name by far among the English divines of the middle of the seventeenth century, and the writer of several works, in all of which are found passages of almost matchless beauty: and Baxter, who published his popular "Saints' Everlasting Rest," in 1650.

The two philosophical writers of the period were Bacon, who published the second part of his "Instauratio Magna" in 1620; and Hobbes, who printed his treaties on "Human Nature" in 1650.

Of dramatists we have Shakespeare, who wrote some of his best works in the reign of James I.; Beaumont and Fletcher, who jointly produced several dramas during the same period; Ben Jonson, whose "tragedies are stately, eloquent, and poetical, and his comedies more faithful poetic portraits of contemporary English life than those of any other dramatist of his age, the one great poet only excepted," Massinger; and Ford.

Of the non-dramatic poets who wrote during this age, we may particularize Denham, the author of "Cooper's Hill," a poem of reflective description (pub. 1642); Cleveland, the popular verse writer of the cavaliers; Milton, who issued his minor poems in 1645, and Cowley.

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Newspapers, Etc.—The earliest authentic newspamphlet known to exist is dated 1619, and similar papers of news were issued in the next three years, but the beginning of journalism must be dated from the time of the Long Parliament. The first English newspaper that has been discovered is a quarto pamphlet of a few leaves, containing a summary of parliamentary proceedings for an entire year; it is entitled "The Diurnal Occurrences, or Daily Proceedings of Both Houses, in this great and happy parliament, from the 3d of November, 1640, to the 3d of November, 1641." It is said that more than a hundred papers with different titles appear to have been published between this date and the death of the king, and more than eighty others between that event and the Restoration. The papers were, at first, issued weekly, but as the anxiety of the people increased they were published twice or three times a week; and Spalding, the Aberdeen annallst, mentions that in December, 1642, "printed papers daily came from London, called *Diurnal Occurrences*, declaring what was was done in parliament." In addition to newspapers, the important questions that agitated the public mind were discussed in an immense number of pamphlets, of which no less than thirty thousand are stated to have been printed in the twenty years from the Long Parliament to the Restoration, being at the rate of four or five new ones daily.

Education.—Classical studies still continued to claim chief attention in the school curriculum; and by means of an almost unlimited system of flogging, it would appear that a respectable amount of knowedge was communicated to the pupils. Female education, instead of improving, materially deteriorated.

Science.—Almost at the beginning of this period (1614), Napier published an account of his famous method of logarithms; and his friend, Henry Briggs, who aided him in his task, made a first step towards what is called the binomial theorem in algebra. An astronomer of remarkable genius and promise, named Samuel Horrocks, died at the early age of twenty-two (1641). He was the first person who saw the planet Venus on the body of the sun. In the physical sciences the most glorious event of the age was the discovery of the circulation of the blood by Dr. Harvey. He announced his idea in 1619, but his work on the subject was not published till 1628.

Architecture.—"In the reign of James I. the line is distinctly marked between the ancient and modern styles of architecture in England." The great architect of the time was Inigo Jones, to whom we owe the introduction of the Palladian style into our country; his principal existing works are the Banqueting House of Whitehall; Lyndsay House in Lincoln's Inn Fields, and St. Paul's Church, Covent Garden, "the first and most successful attempt to adapt the pure and unbroken form of an ancient temple to the purposes of a modern church."

Sculpture.—Not many works of sculpture were produced during this period, and few of them are considered to rise above mediocrity. The beautiful equestrian statue of Charles I. at Charing Cross was executed by Hubert Le Sœur, a foreign artist patronized by that monarch.

Painting.—Charles I. largely purchased works of art, and his galleries were adorned with several glorious pictures of Raffaelle, Titian, Correggio, and Guido. Many of these were sold, by order of the parliamentary leaders, on their accession to power; but the cartoons of Raffaelle were purchased by Cromwell, and thus preserved to the nation. Two foreign artists resided in England during Charles reign, and were patronized by him—Rubens and Vandyke, "who as a portrait painter is only second to Titian."

Engraving.—This art began to be cultivated here during this period, the chief artists being Hollar, a native of Prague, and a Parisian named Lombart.

Music.—Both James I. and his son encouraged the professors of music, but when the Puritan party became supreme, it fell into much disuse, and the more rigid of the sect especially denounced its employment in churches. Cromwell appears, however, to have enjoyed instrumental music. His organist, Hingston, received a salary of $500 per annum; and the protector often attended concerts at his house.

Trade in Agriculture. — *Trade.* — The chief branch of home industry continued to be the woolen manufacture. James temporarily injured the trade by a regulation which he made in 1608. Hitherto the home manufactured cloth was sent to Holland to be dressed aud dyed, but a merchant proposed to him that these operations should be conducted in England, so that Holland should no longer reap the advantage of this branch of the trade; and the king accordingly issued a proclamation prohibiting the exportation of cloth in the white, as it was called. This measure so displeased the Dutch and Germans that they resolved not to admit any British dyed cloths. The English, from inexperience, dressed and dyed the cloth so imperfectly that it was inferior to the Dutch, while it was far more expensive. Hence large numbers of persons were thrown out of work: and James found it necessary to abandon his plan. Great attempts were made to firmly establish the silk manufactures in England. The silk throwsters were incorporated in 1620; and by the year 1660 the company employed above forty thousand men, women, and children. Linen was chiefly spun and woven at home for domestic purposes.

SKETCH OF HORMUZD RASSAM.

HORMUZD RASSAM, whose family belong to the primitive Chaldean church, was born in 1826, at Mossul, in northern Mesopotamia, on the bank of the Tigris, opposite the site of ancient Nineveh. In 1845 he joined Mr. (afterwards Sir Henry) Layard to assist him in his Assyrian researches, and lived with him as his friend and guest for more than two years. In his work entitled "Nineveh and Babylon," Mr. Layard speaks thus of his services:

"The trustees of the British Museum owe to Mr. Rassam not only much of the success of these (Assyrian) researches, but the economy with which I was enabled to carry them through. Without him it would have been impossible to accomplish half what has been done with the means placed at my disposal." When Mr. Layard returned to England in 1847 Mr. Rassam came with him to complete his studies at Oxford, but at the end of 1849 he was sent by the British Museum authori-

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ties to assist Mr. Layard in his second undertaking. The trustees having determined to carry on further researches, they commissioned Mr. Rassam to succeed him. During this expedition Mr. Rassam discovered in Nineveh the palace of Assur-Bani-Pal, in which there were found the beautiful sculptures representing the lion hunt, now in the British Museum, with many other remarkable antiquities relating to the history of the Assyrian monarchy.

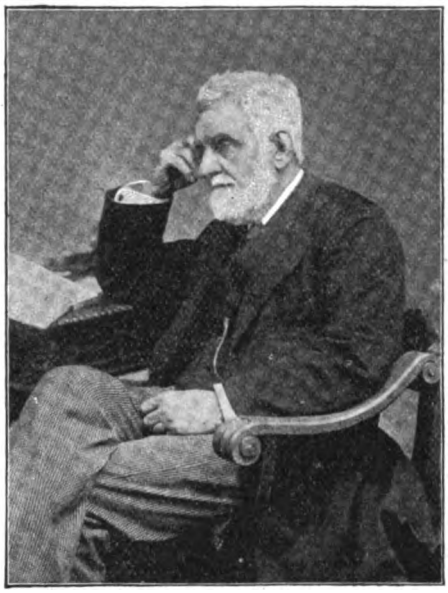
The funds available for the researches having come to an end, Mr. Rassam returned to England in 1854. After this he was appointed judge and magistrate at Aden under the British crown. When the quarrel took place in 1861 between the Imam of Muscat and his brother, the sultan of Zanzibar, Mr. Rassam was chosen by Lord Elphinstone, the governor of Bombay, to represent the British government at Muscat, while the governor-general of India was trying to act as a mediator between the brothers. He also received the special thanks of the supreme government of India, with a substantial present, for the services he rendered to the state during the India mutiny. When the news reached the foreign office in 1864 that Consul Cameron and other European gentlemen had been imprisoned by Theodore, king of Abyssinia, Mr. Rassam was chosen by the British government to proceed to the court of that monarch with a letter from the Queen asking for the release of the captives. He accordingly went to Massowah, the port of Abyssinia, whence he wrote to Theodore for a safe conduct, and after having waited there more than a year, he was invited by the king to proceed to his court. Mr. Rassam was accompanied by Lieutenant Prideaux and Dr. Blanc, of the Bombay army, and they were received with every mark of distinction and honor. It seemed at one time that Mr. Rassam's mission would be crowned with success, but through Theodore's eccentricity coupled with intrigue from other quarters, it was doomed to disappointment. Hopeful as Mr. Rassam was at first of procuring the liberation of Consul Cameron and the other captives, he was himself arrested with his suite, and the three were sent as prisoners to Magdala, where they were kept in chains for nearly two years.

After the old captives, Consul Cameron and his fellow-prisoners had undergone about four years' rigorous confinement—and Mr. Rassam's companions had shared their fate for nearly two years and a half—they were ultimately set free by Theodore on the Easter eve of 1868, after his defeat the day before by the British force under the command of Sir Robert Napier, at Arogay, below Magdala.

Mr. Rassam published a narrative of the "British Mission to Theodore, King of Abyssinia, with Notices of the Country Traversed from Massowah through the Soudan, the Ambara, a d back to Annesly Bay from Magdala," 2 vols., London, 1869. The British government was so satisfied with the conduct of Mr. Rassam on that dangerous mission that they presented him with five thousand pounds and complimented him through the secretary of state for foreign affairs on his success in saving the lives of nearly forty European prisoners, men, women and children, in the following terms:

"I cannot, however, close my correspondence with you, without expressing the high sense entertained by her majesty's government of your conduct during the difficult and arduous period of your employment under this office. You appear throughout to have acted for the best, and your prudence, discretion and good judgment seem to have tended greatly to preserve the lives and thus to insure the ultimate release of the captives."

In 1876 he was selected by the trustees of the British Museum to conduct the Assyrian explorations under a firman granted to him by the Ottoman government, through the influence of Sir Henry Layard, who was then acting as her majesty's ambassador at Constantinople. From that time until July, 1882, he conducted the British national archæological researches in Assyria, Armenia and



Hormuzd Rassam.

Babylonia during which time he succeeded in securing for the British Museum important relics connected with the history of those three great ancient kingdoms, among which he discovered in a small mound called "Balawat," is the vicinity of Nineveh, a magnificent pair of bronze gates, twenty feet high, forming a memorial of the wars of Shalmaneser II., B.C. 850. The rich embossed bronzes are now in the British Museum.

He also discovered among other sites, the great cities of Sippara, or the Biblical Sephawaim, and Cuthah, situated in southern Mesopotamia. Mr. Rassam's Assyrian and Babylonian discoveries were so much appreciated on the continent of Europe that he was awarded by the Royal Academy of Sciences of Turin the Brissa prize of twelve thousand francs, though Mr. Rassam had done nothing for that institution and was quite a stranger to its members. During the Turko-Russian war he was sent by the British foreign office on a special mission to Asia Minor, Armenia and Kurdistan to inquire into the condition of the different Christian communities, who were said to be maltreated by their Moslem fellow-countrymen and render them the necessary protection through the local authorities.

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ASSYRIAN AND BABYLONIAN ARCHÆOLOGY.*

By Hormuzd Rassam.

IT is an honor to me as well as a pleasure to contribute to the World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exposition a short account of the discoveries that have been made in the buried cities of Nineveh and Babylon since the middle of this century.

It must be very fascinating to all Biblical students to find that the names of all the Assyrian and Babylonian kings mentioned in the Bible, like Tiglath-pileser, Shalmaneser, Sargon, Sennacherib, Esarhaddon, Nebuchadnezzar, Merodach-Baladan and Belshazar have been identified from the discoveries made in the ruins of the Nineveh and Babylon. It is also interesting to note that those buried cities of ancient civilization had remained in oblivion for more than twenty-five centuries until the spade of the zealous explorers, Mr. (now Sir Henry) Layard and M. Botta, brought them to light nearly fifty years ago.

I was fortunate enough when I was quite a youth to meet Sir Henry Layard in 1845 at Mossul, which is situated on the bank of the river Tigris, opposite the site of ancient Nineveh. As he wanted some one to assist him, he invited me to stay with him and give him the necessary help in his intended explorations. I was with him more than four years during his explorations in Assyria and Babylonia, and to this opportunity I owe my success in archæological researches as well as other public services under the British Crown.

In 1844, while Sir Henry Layard was passing through Assyria, he noticed both at the mounds of Koyunjik, the principal seat of the kings of Assyria, and Nimroud, the Calah of the Bible (mentioned in the tenth chapter of Genesis), some indications of ancient remains which led him to obtain a firman from the Sultan to enable him to excavate there. He commenced operations in the last mentioned mound, and after a few days' work he was rewarded by the discovery of the palace of Assur-Nazir-pal, the father of Shalmaneser II., who was the first of the Assyrian kings who came in contact with the Israelites. The sculptures of Assur-Nazir-pal's palace, which now adorn one of the Assyrian galleries at the British Museum, were in better preservation than those of Khorsabad or any other edifice discovered in Assyria thereafter, but with the exception of the hunting and war scenes most of the bas-reliefs in the different chambers consisted mostly of representations of kings, eagle-headed figures, eunuchs and sacred trees. A few of these were sent to the British Museum, and the remainder were acquired for different museums in Europe and America. As late as 1878 I carried to Constantinople, sculptures from the same locality as a present from the trustees of the British Museum to the Sultan and His Majesty gave them to the Imperial Museum at the Turkish capital.

Besides the palace of Assur-Nazir-pal Sir Henry Layard discovered a temple built by that monarch and the remains of the edifices erected by Tiglath Piloser, Esarhaddon, and Saracus, the grandson of the latter, who was the last of the Assyrian kings.

Afterwards Sir Henry Layard commenced work at Koyunjik (city of Nineveh) and was rewarded by the discovery of the grand palace of Sennacherib; but, unfortunately, the magnificent sculptures which adorned it were found in a dilapidated state, as they had been greatly damaged by fire; and though a great number of the bas-reliefs were sent to the British Museum the greater part fell into pieces as soon as they were uncovered.

The most interesting and valuable inscriptions found by Sir Henry Layard in his explorations, which related to Biblical history, were the accounts given on a black marble obelisk and human-headed bulls, of the invasion of the Holy Land by Shalmaneser and Sennacherib. The former was discovered at Nimroud, and on it is recorded that Jehu, the son of Omri or Nimshi, paid a tribute to Shalmaneser II. of "silver, gold, a golden cup, golden vases, golden vessels, lead, a staff for the hand of the king, and sceptres." The latter was found in the palace of Sennacherib at Koyunjik, on which was inscribed the expedition of that monarch against Lachish, as it is recorded in the 18th chapter of II. Kings and 36th chapter of Isaiah, wherefrom Rab-Shakeh was sent with a threatening message to Hezekiah, king of Judah.

After Sir Henry Layard's second successful expedition to Assyria he declined to go out again, and I was therefore commissioned by the Trustees of the British Museum to proceed to Mesopotamia to continue the researches in Nineveh, which were then conducted on a small scale under the general control of Major (the late Sir Henry,) Rawlinson, the then British Consul General at Bagdad. I had come to England to complete my studies at Oxford, but as I took a great interest in Assyrian researches I willingly accepted the proffered task.

My exploration extended to Koyunjik, Nimroud, and Kalaa-Shirgat (the ancient Asshur), but my great success was achieved in the former site. There I discovered in the Northern part of the mound, the edifice of Assur-bani-pal. The sculptures of this palace have been considered by competent authorities to be of a higher order of art than those of other Assyrian buildings. The royal lion hunt, especially, has been the admiration of every one. The animals are portrayed in every variety of posture and are sculptured with surprising vigor. In the lion hunt saloon, I discovered the library of Assur-bani-pal; and among the records were found the legends of the creation and the deluge.

To prove that there may be still invaluable treasures buried underground, both in Assyria and Babylonia, I will mention two important discoveries I made in the former country, some years ago, which will show how necessary it is to examine thoroughly every ancient site without being discouraged by disappointment and failures.

A few years ago while an Arab was digging a grave in a mound, called Balawat, about fifteen miles to the east of Koyunjik, and nine miles to the northeast of Nimroud, he came upon a bronze band, covered with embossed illustrations and inscriptions,

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which he broke into a number of pieces and sold to different individuals. Fortunately one of those who purchased three or four portions of the rare antique sent me two pieces of it, and so when I went out to Assyria for the Trustees of the British Museum, in 1877, the first thing I did was to find out where that relic was obtained; and as I felt certain that the band discovered by the Arab digger was a part of a large trophy I determined to find the remainder. On arriving there I found to my great regret that the mound in which that object was buried had been used as a cemetery from time immemorial by the Mohammedans, and there was not a vacant space even of 2 feet where a grave had not been dug to the depth of 5 or 6 feet. For nearly 2,500 years that monument of Assyrian grandeur was unknown to explorers, and no one happened to hit upon it, though it was buried only about five feet below the surface of the ground. It was both difficult and dangerous to dig there for antiquities on account of the prejudice of the natives; but nothing daunted I managed by the help of my Arab friends to try a spot on which there was no grave visible, and in a few hours' time I was rewarded by the discovery of that part of the trophy which was only five feet deep. There were, however, two good reasons why that mound was left untouched by European explorers before I commenced work in it; the first was its insignificance, quite unlike Koyunjik, Khorsabad, or Nimroud; and, secondly, the existence of the graves on it would naturally debar an archæologist, from attempting to dig in it from fear of coming into collision with the fanatical Arabs.

These bronzes, which are now exhibited at the British Museum, appear to have covered a two leaf cedar gate, about 20 feet square by four inches thick; and as the wood had rotted away I could only find out its thickness from the bend of the nails that were found fixed to it. The scrolls, or bands, of bronzes which I found lying flat on the soil in their original position did not cover the whole wooden frame, but between each of the scrolls there must have been some ornamented cedar work or some other rare material of which the monument was stripped when the Assyrian Monarchy began to decay. The illustrations on this relic, which are of bas-reliefs in repose work, are minute in detail and artistic in style. They represent the battle scenes, marching order, and religious ceremonies of the Assyrians. Each plate is divided into two sections and surrounded by a large number of rosettes, which answered the purpose of ornamentation, and also encircled the top of the nails that fastened the metal to the wood.

The second valuable discovery I made at Koyunjik was a perfect ten-sided terra-cotta cylinder, with 1,300 lines of fine inscriptions detailing the conquests of Assur-bani-pal. It was by a mere chance that this unique historical record was discovered, because, generally speaking, Sir Henry Layard and I did not think it necessary to waste our time and money in digging thick solid brick walls to no purpose. But I was asked by the overseer superintending the work in the palace of Assur-bani-pal if he should remove a small remnant of brick wall, which was left in digging out two chambers, or leave it to be covered with the rubbish which came out of the excavations. On seeing that its removal would not entail much expense I ordered it to be pulled down, and I was glad to find that the little labor and expense had gained us that most valuable record of Assyrian history. It was found built inside the solid brick wall.

There were four sites of the royal residences discovered on the left side of the Tigris, in what was considered Assyria proper, and which were, I believe, in the time of the preaching of the Prophet Jonah within the metropolis of Nineveh. These are Koyunjik, Nebbi-younis, Nimroud, and Khorsabad, as London takes in now the city, Westminster, and Kensington. There are other ruins within what I consider to be the radius of that "great city," such as Yarimja, Balawat, Karamlais, Bahsheeks, and Shareef-Khan. Taking the oblong dimensions of these different ruins, together with Koyunjik and Nebbi-younis on the western limit, Nimroud on its southern border, and Khorsabad on its northern boundary, we find the size of the old city to be about 60 miles in circumference or three days journey, as it is mentioned in the book of Jonah, because 20 miles is reckoned in that country, according to pedestrian traveling, about a day's journey..

That part of Nineveh is called Nebbi-younis, where the Prophet Jonah is alleged to have been buried and which is still called officially "Ninweh," or Ninevah. The remains of the palace of Eserhaddon was discovered by a native of the village while digging a foundation for a house in 1852.

As I had a great desire to conduct archæological research in Babylonia I went down to Bagdad in 1879 for that purpose, after leaving a competent agent to carry on the necessary work at Koyunjik in search of inscriptions. I commenced excavating at once in Babylon and Birs Nimroud, the ancient Borsippa and the supposed site of the tower of Babel where the famous temple of Belus stood. In both ruins I found important Babylonian records, and in the latter spot I discovered the palace of Nebuchadnezzar where Nabonadius took refuge after the defeat of his army by Cyrus.

I found it very difficult to explore systematically in Babylon proper, because from time immemorial the spade of the digger has been at work there either in search of bricks for building purposes, or for treasure. The area on which the palaces of the kings of Babylon were erected is now divided into four different quarters by the natives, namely, Jimjima, Quarich, Omran, and Imjaileeba, in all of which I carried on extensive explorations, but I was only able to find a small remnant of the great palace in the limit of the latter site. In all the four localities my workmen found inscribed terra cottas and clay tablets, but the most valuable of these were discovered in Jimjima, amongst which we found the contract clay document with some silver ornaments.

The present visible ruins of Babylon consist of a mound called by the Arabs "Babel."

In the mound of "Babel" I followed the excavations of the Arabs, who were digging for bricks and stone, and uncovered four carefully built walls of granite placed parallel and within a few feet of each other in the northern center of the mound. The stones, of which they were built, were scientifically joined together, and it is most vexing to think that the Arabs are allowed to demolish them for the purpose of burning lime. Each well was built of circular blocks of granite which must have been brought thither from a great distance higher up the Euphrates, as there is no stone quarry to be seen in Babylonia. Each stone, which measured about three feet in depth, had been bored and made to fit the one below it so perfectly and without cement that the whole structure looked as if the well had been hewn in one solid rock. These wells were connected with an aqueduct supplied with water from the Euphrates;

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and when I had two of them cleared out in the year 1879, the water was seen to ooze out through the debris in the water course during the rising of the river. These wells prove that "Babel" was the site of the famous hanging gardens of Babylon mentioned by Diodorus Circulus, as the mound stands higher than any other site there. Unfortunately I could not find any of the terraces mentioned by historians, because the work of destruction has been going on for centuries in those parts, and the only reliable ancient remains that can be identified now are the existing wells, which must have been at least 140 feet deep.

The destruction of Babylon was so complete that one wonders whether the accounts given of its greatness and magnificence by different Greek writers and others were not exaggerated, especially as regards the dimensions of its walls, which are said to have been 60 miles square. Herodotus mentions that the wall of the city was three hundred and fifty feet in height, eighty-seven in thickness, and six chariots could move abreast upon it. Not a trace can now be seen of it. The prophetic denunciation of Jeremiah has been wonderfully fulfilled, for he said that "the Babylon shall be utterly broken and her high gates shall be burned with fire."

The ruins of the tower termed by different historians and travelers Borsippa, temple of Belus, Birs Nimroud, and tower of Babel, stand, up to the present day, as a memorable monument of past splendor. It towers high above any other existing Babylonian ruin, as the country around it is perfectly flat, the top of the remaining brick masonry can be seen far and wide for a distance of about twenty-five miles. I was very much struck with what seemed to me supernatural destruction from the masses of vitrified brick scattered around the tower. Different travelers attributed the cause of vitrification to either lightning or extreme power of artificial heat, but I found on examining the different blocks that neither the work of man nor the effect of lightning could have caused such vitrification. The huge boulders are not large lumps of vitrified bricks, like those found in brick-kilns, but actual masonry which had been torn down from the top to the bottom. I consulted two scientific gentlemen in England who understand the effect of lightning upon such massive structures, and I was told that electric fluid could not have caused such wholesale vitrification.

At Birs Nimroud I was fortunate enough to discover, after three days trail, the palace of Nebuchadnezzar; Nabonidus was supposed to have been reading when Cyrus captured Babylon. It contained about eighty chambers and halls, but nothing was found in them excepting in four rooms, where there were some remains of Babylonian antiquities, which proved that Nebuchadnezzar was the builder. In the first hall discovered we found broken pillars, capitals, and fragments of enamelled bricks with cedar beams which must have belonged to its embellishment. At the grand entrance of the palace we found a solid or brass object ornamented, and inscribed on the side of it, recording its dedication by Nebuchadnezzar to his god for his restoration to health. I found it at the threshold of the entrance to the temple of Belus. I was quite convinced from its position that it was not made originally for that purpose and it must have been brought there from its original position. The shape of it seemed to me to point to quite a different use, and that is that it belonged to a "two-leaved gate" which is mentioned in the 45th chapter of Isaiah. Herodotus also mentions (book 1, chap. 181) that the gates of Babylon were made of solid brass.

About a quarter of a mile to the north-east of Birs Nimroud there is a much larger mound called Ibraheem-al-Khaleel, *i.e.*, "Abraham the Friend" (of God), as the natives of the country believe in a tradition that Nimroud, "the mighty hunter," had tried there to throw Abraham into the fiery furnace.

I also explored another large mound called Habl-Ibraheem, that is to say "the rope of Abraham" from the shape of the great canal which runs to it from the Euphrates, a distance of about thirty-five miles. That ruin is supposed to be the site of ancient Cuthah.

The most important discovery I made during my explorations in Babylonia was at a mound called "Aboo-Habba" about sixty miles to the north of Babylon and fifteen to the south-west of Bagdad. From the records I found there, it has been proved that the place was the site of the ancient Sippara, the Sepharvain of the Bible.

During my first expedition to Babylonia I took a trip to Shat-al-Hai, the channel which runs from the Tigris, at Koot-al-Amara, to the Euphrates, as I had heard of a mound called Tel-loh, about 150 miles to the south-east of Babylon, which was said to contain ancient statues. I found on arriving there that Tel-loh was not included in the terms of my firman. However I was able to dig there three days, and discovered a ruined temple, from which I sent some inscriptions to the British Museum which proves that the ruin dates as far back as 2,000 B.C.

There are still, I am sure, invaluable historical records buried in different parts of Assyria and Babylonia, which will be lost to the world forever, if men in authority do not use their energy and influence in checking the wicked traffic in antiques, and save what remains of buried treasures for the benefit of science and Biblical knowledge.

I would suggest that all societies and public institutions of the world should join together and solicit the help of their respective governments to use their influence with the Sublime Porte, who is the present custodian of all ancient Biblical localities, to allow a proper research to be made by experienced explorers either on their own account or intrust the management to agents of foreign museums and leave the distribution of all antiquities for further consideration.



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NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

By Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

Inscription of Tiglath-Pileser I.—The inscription of this Assyrian king is the longest and one of the most important which has been recovered.

The genealogical details which are here found are of great assistance in determining the chronology and succession of the earlier monarchs of Assyria, while the description of his campaigns throws an unexpected light upon the ancient geography of Western Asia.

The date of Tiglath-Pileser I., has been approximately fixed (with the aid of an inscription of Sennacherib) as being slightly earlier than B. C. 1106.

This inscription is found in eight columns, and contains eight hundred and twelve lines.

Extract from the Inscription.—Like other monarchs of his time and our own, his records consist largely of descriptions of his own greatness. Many lines are also devoted to the exaltation of the Assyrian gods, while the rest contain an account of his victories. The following excerpt will give a good idea of its general tenor:

"May Assur, and the great gods who have magnified my kingdom
Who have given strength and increase to my fetters,
Cause my hand to hold their countries, even the deluge of battle.
Countries, mountains, fortresses and kinglets
Have I conquered, and their territories I have made to submit.
With sixty kings, I have contended furiously,
And power over them I displayed.
A rival in the combat, have I not.
To the land of Assyria, I have added land,
To its men, I have added men."

Written upon Cylinders of Clay.—The record is inscribed upon four large octagonal cylinders of clay, and they were buried under the foundations of the four corners, of the great temple of Kileh Sherghat, the ancient city of Assur. They are now in the British Museum.

The Standard Inscription of Assur-natsir-pal.—The long inscription of this king who came to the throne about 83 B C., was written across the bas-reliefs of his palace and it ranks next in geographical importance to the annals of Tiglath-Pileser I. Although Assur-natsir-pal reigned more than two hundred years later than his illustrious predecessor, Assyrian history had been almost a blank in his time, for it would seem as if the successors of Tiglath-Pileser I. lost territory rather than gained it.

Boasts of His Cruelties.—Like that of his predecessor, Assur-natsir-pal's record is largely a eulogy upon his gods and himself, but many lines are employed to recount his victories, and his barbarities, for instance:

"The fortified city of Khula, I approached
With the strength of my army, and with violent battle I attacked the city;
Six hundred of their fighting men, I slew with the sword.
Three thousand of their captives, I burned with fire;
I left not one of them alive, to become a hostage.
The Lord of their city I captured alive.
I built their bodies into pyramids.
Their young men and their maidens, I burned to ashes
The lord of their city I flayed.
With his skin I clad the fortress wall of the city.
The city, I threw down, dug up and burned with fire."

The Capture of Pitura.—Of this conquest, the king wrote as follows:

"I crossed the Tigris. All night I pursued my way,
To the city of Pitura I approached.
The city was very difficult of access. Two walls surrounded it
Its citadel was like the peak of a mountain.
Through the hands supreme of Assur, my lord, and with the might of my armies, I fought with them.
I rained destruction upon them;
My fighting men flew upon them like the vulture.
I captured the city. Eight hundred of their fighting men I slew.
Their heads I cut off.
A pyramid of the living and of heads I built up, at the entrance to its chief gate.
I impaled seven hundred men upon stakes at the approach of their gate.
Their young men and maidens, I burned as a holocaust."

The Conquest of Arbaki:

"From the city of Pitura, I departed,
Into the city of Arbaki, I descended.
They were terrified before the glory of my majesty, and deserted their cities.
To save their lives, they ascended Mount Madni, a mighty mountain.
I pursued after them;
A thousand of their fighting men I cut to pieces.
With their blood I dyed the mountain.
With their bodies, the valleys I filled.
I took two hundred soldiers alive; I cut off their hands.
I carried away two thousand captives.

The Cities of Nairi.—The standard inscription states that Assur-natsir-pal "overthrew and dug up two hundred and fifty cities whose walls were strong in the countries of Nairi," and he gives a vivid description of his victories here. But there is another inscription of the same king engraved upon a monolith found among the ruins of Kurkh, on the Tigris, twenty miles below Diarbekir. And this record of the same campaign, contradicts the first in several important particulars, showing that the Assyrian king did not realize the necessity of keeping his statements in harmony with each other.

The Votive Inscription of Assur-natsir-pal.—This was written upon a tablet of alabaster, and Mr. Rassam found it with a duplicate, in a marble coffer, during his excavations at Balawat. It is now in the British Museum. It begins with the genealogy of the king, and gives a brief account of his triumphant advance from the east to the west, from beyond the Tigris to the Mediterranean. He then recounts the capture of a town or fortress to which he gave the name of Inigur-Bel or "Bel's Delight."

Here he built a temple to Makhir, whom we know only as the god of dreams, but who probably possessed other attributes. It was among the ruins of this temple that the coffer containing the tablets was discovered.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

A.D.

1600 Chas. I. of England born.

1601 Birth of Roger Williams. Death of Tyco-Brahe, the astronomer. Rhode Island founded by him. Beheading of the Earl of Essex.

1602 The Dutch East India Company established. Bartholomew Gosnold discovers Cape Cod. Birth of Wm. Chillingworth, English theologian and author.

1603 Terrible plague in London; over 30,000 persons die. The English and Scotch crowns united under James I. of England (James VI. of Scotland), son of Mary Queen of Scots.

1604 Celebrated theological conference at Hampton Court Palace, England, designed to bring about a union between the established church and dissenters. The Commons of England assert their right of judging finally in regard to their own elections and returns. England concludes peace with Spain, Aug. 18. England expels the Jesuits. Birth of John Eliot, "the apostle of the Indians."

1605 The Gunpowder Plot, designed to blow up the King, the Lords and the Commons of England in the Parliament House, London. Birth of Edmund Waller, the English poet. The French found Quebec.

1606 Dr. Gilbert experiments with electricity and the power of conductors and non-conductors.

1607 Settlement of Virginia in April at Jamestown, on the James river. The first settlement of whites in America. Death of Baronius, Cardinal and historian.

1608 The Pilgrims remove to Leyden. Propagation of his opinions organized by Arminius. First use of forks in England.

1609 The English occupy the Bermudas. Death of Joseph Scaliger, historian, poet, etc. Pocahontas discovers the plot of the Indians. Drebbel of Alcmaer invents the thermometer, and, according to some, the microscope.

1610 Arundelian marbles, said to have been sculptured 264 B.C., were found in the Isle of Peros, in the reign of James I., about this date. They were given to the University of Oxford, by Lord Arundel. Assassination of Henry IV. of France by Ravillac. Henry Hudson discovers Hudson's Bay. Galileo discovers the satellites of Jupiter. The Moors and their descendants, numbering nearly one million, are banished from Spain by Phillip III.

1611 Terrible pestilence at Constantinople. Over 200,000 persons perish. The Poles burn Moscow. James I. of England first creates Baronets.

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1612 Christian IV. of Denmark establishes the Danish East India Company.

1614 Death of Casubon, historian and divine. Sir John Napier, an eminent Scotchman, invents Logarithims. The Dutch found New York City. Prince Charles calls North Virginia, New England.

1615 Birth of Richard Baxter, the distinguished noncomformist.

1616 Death of F. Alfonso Rodriguez, the divine. Death of Shakespeare, the greatest dramatic poet. William Baffin, an Englishman, discovers Baffin's Bay. Sir Walter Raleigh colonizes Virginia. Birth of John Owen, an eminent theologian. 50,000 persons perish in a great inundation at Catalonia. Death of Cervantes, Spanish writer.

1617 War and pestilence sweep away the inhabitants from Narragansett to Penobscot. King James of England attempts to introduce Episcopacy into Scotland.

1618 The convening of the Synod of Dort in Holland by deputies of all the reformed churches in Europe to settle the differences between the doctrines of Luther, Calvin and Arminius. Beheading of Sir Walter Raleigh, aged 65 years; Thirty Years' War begun in Germany.

1619 Harvey discovers the circulation of the blood. John Barneveldt, Dutch statesman, is beheaded, aged 72 years. Kepler discovers the true laws of the planetary motions.

1620 The English settle in Madras. The first negro slaves are brought to Virginia in a Dutch vessel of war. First settlement of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, New England, Dec. 21. Copper money first used in England.

1621 Massasoit and the Pilgrims make a treaty. Death of Bellarmine, Cardinal, controversialist. The memorable protest of the Commons, in England, vindicating their right to a full freedom of debate.

1622 Birth of Algernon Sidney, the great English martyr of liberty. Death of St. Francis DeSales, founder of "The Visitation."

1623 Founding of the city of Albany, capital of the state of New York, by the Dutch. Settlement of New Hampshire.

1624 Birth of George Fox, founder of the Society of Friends, or Quakers. Cape Ann settled. Settlement of New Jersey.

1625 Death of Herrera, historian. Death of James I. First English settlement of the Island of Barbadoes in the West Indies. Nearly 30,000 persons die of the plague in London. John Fletcher, the English dramatist, dies, aged 41 years.

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1626 Birth of Robert Boyle, a distinguished natural philosopher. Death of Francis Bacon, one of the greatest of English philosophers, aged 65 years. Victory of Tilly over Christian IV. of Denmark, at Lutter.

1627 Telescopes and other instruments used in astronomy. Giles Fletcher, an English poet, dies, aged 47 years. Settlement of Swedes near the Delaware.

1628 Founding of Massachusetts Bay Colony. Founding of Charlestown, Mass. John Endicott makes Salem, Mass., his home. Assassination of the Duke of Buckingham. The Petition of Right recognized by the English Crown.

1629 Formation of the first church in Massachusetts at Salem. The Dutch make first permanent settlement at Manhattan, New York Ferdinand II. publishes the Edict of Restitution. Completion of St. Peter's Church at Rome.

1630 Founding of Cambridge, Boston, Dorchester and Roxbury. Gov. Winthrop, of Mass., arrives with about 1,500 persons. Birth of John Flavel, a distinguished English nonconformist. Birth of Isaac Barrow, an eminent English theologian and mathematician.

1631 Galileo makes important discoveries in astronomy. Renaudot establishes the first newspaper in France called "Gazette de France." Eruption of Mount Vesuvius destroys the town of Torre del Greco, in which 4,000 persons perished. First vessel launched July 4 ever built in Massachusetts, termed the "Blessing of the Bay." Diet of Leipsic convened. Birth of John Dryden, one of the great English poets. The East India Company bring calico to England. The celebrated John Smith of Virginia dies, aged 52 years.

1632 Death of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, in the memorable battle of Lutzengen, called also the Battle of Lippstadt. Tilly defeated at Nuremburg-on-the-Lech. Birth of John Locke, one of the greatest of English philosophers.

1633 Foundation of the Colony of Connecticut at Windsor. Sir Roger L'Estrange publishes "Public Intelligencer." Tasman discovers Van Diemen's Land, called also Tasmania.

1634 Foundation of tha Colony of Maryland, by 200 Catholics. Death of Albert of Wallenstein, murdered Feb. 25.

1635 The illegal imposition of ship-money by Chas. I. Several Spanish galleons taken by the Dutch admiral, Peter Hen. Death of Lope de Vega, the great Spanish dramatist, aged 63 years.

1636 Roger Williams settles in Providence. The Swedes conquer Saxony and Thuringia.

1637 Death of Benjamin Jonson, aged 64 years. John Hampden refuses to pay the ship-money tax. Pequot Indians at war in Connecticut.

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1638 Harvard College established—the first college in the United States—at Cambridge, Mass., by Rev. John Harvard.

1639 The Transit of Venus over the sun's disk first observed Nov. 24. First printing in America at Cambridge, Mass. Birth of Increase Mather, the distinguished clergyman and author. Birth of Benjamin Church, an American military commander. Death of Phillip Massinger, one of the early English dramatists, aged 54 years. Episcopacy is abolished by an act of the General Assembly in Scotland.

1640 Charles dissolves the English parliament. Meeting of the Long Parliament, Nov. 3. Impeachment of the Earl of Strafford. Death of Peter Paul Rubens, the celebrated painter of the Flemish school.

1641 Massacre of the Protestant settlers in Ulster, Ireland, to the number of 40,000. Beheading of the Earl of Strafford in England, for high treason.

1641 Death of Sir Anthony Van Dyck, the celebrated painter. Encroachments of the Scottish parliament on the royal prerogative. Rise of the party-names of Roundheads and Cavaliers, England.

1642 Battle between the Royalists and the parliament troops at Edgehill. The beginning of the great civil war in England. Birth of Sir Isaac Newton, the greatest of England's philosophers and mathematicians. Death of Cardinal Richelieu. Death of Galileo, the astronomer.

1643 The throne of France occupied by Louis XIV., called Louis the Great. The New England Settlements form a Confederacy under tne name of the United Colonies of New England. The barometer invented by Torricelli. Death of Lord Falkland. Solemn League and Covenant between the English and Scottish parliaments. The Scots enter England with a great army.

1644 The great battle of Marston Moor. The Royalists are routed. Death of Hugo Grotius, the renowned Dutch statesman, aged 62 years.

1645 Trial and execution of Archbishop Laud. Battle of Naseby, between the Royalists and the parliament forces, which settles the fate of Chas. I. Venice and the Turks wage war in Candia.

1646 Eliot begins his mission among the Indians. Massachusetts holds its second synod.

1647 The Scots deliver Chas. I up to the English parliament. The great epidemic in America.

1648 The Scots invading England are routed by Cromweli. The English Commons appoint a committee to bring in a charge of high treason against the king. Formation of "the rump" parliament in England.

1649 Execution of Charles I. England declared a republic. Society formed in England for propagating the gospel in New England.

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1650 Society of Friends are termed Quakers, by Justice Bennet of Derby. Otho Guericke invents the air pump at Madgeburg. Cromwell gains a single victory over the Scots at the battle of Dunbar, Sept. 3. Settlement of North and South Carolina Wooden rails used on the railroad near Newcastle, England. Death of Descartes, meta physician, philosopher.

1651 Charles II. crowned at Scotland marches into England with a Scottish army; is signally defeated by Cromwell at the Battle of Worcester, Sept. 3. 8,000 prisoners taken. Most of them sent to bond-service in the American Colonies. Charles II. escapes in disguise and is hidden in an oak tree. Every place in the dominion of Great Britain and Ireland submits to the Commonwealth of England. The Dutch abolish the dignity of Stadtholder. Naval war between England and Holland. "The Act of Navigation" passed in England. Birth of Fenelon, the distinguished Archbishop of Cambray.

1652 Maine submits to Massachusetts. Dutch Colony formed at Cape of Good Hope. The English and Dutch meet in their first warfare. A decree against slavery in Rhode Island by Roger Williams and Gorton. Blake, the English admiral, obtains a signal victory over the Dutch fleet off Portland.

1653 The English parliament is dissolved by Cromwell. "Praise God Barebones" Parliament meets. Oliver Cromwell declared Lord Protector of England. The Dutch are defeated by Monk and Dean. John Milton becomes private secretary to Cromwell. Death of Van-Tromp, Dutch admiral.

1654 The Dutch purchase peace by concessions. Cromwell summons a free parliament.

1655 Cromwell dissolves the parliament. Conspiracy against his authority crushed. War between England and Spain. Conquest of Jamaica, by the English under Penn. Death of Gassendi, mathematician and philosopher.

1656 The plague is brought to Naples from Sardinia. Nearly 400,000 persons perish in 6 months. Admiral Blake reduces Tunis, on the Bey's refusing to give up the British captives. Guter of Nuremburg invents the air-gun. Quakers persecuted in Massachusetts. Battle of Warsaw.

1657 Destruction of the Spanish Fleet in the bay of Santa Cruz by Admiral Blake. Death of Harvey, celebrated English physician. A bill is voted for investing the Protector with the dignity of king. Cromwell refuses it. Prussia acknowledged an independent state by Poland. Death of Robert Blake, the celebrated English Admiral, aged 58 years.

1658 Cromwell attempts to constitute a house of peers The commons refuse to acknowledge its authority. Cromwell dissolves the parliament. Several conspiracies are formed against him. Cromwell dies Sept. 30, and is succeeded by his son Richard, Sept. 3. Dunkirk surrenders to the English.

1559 Richard Cromwell resigns the protectorship. "The Rump" Parliament restored and dissolved by the army in April. The Dardanelles, consisting of two castles commanding the entrance of the strait of Gallipoli, built by the Emperor Mahomet IV. They were named from the contiguous town of Dardanus. Two Quakers executed in Boston.

1660 Restoration of the Stuarts by Chas. II. in England. Death of Van Ryn Rembrandt, celebrated painter of the Dutch school near Leyden. Death of Paul, founder of the Lazarists and of the sisters of charity. Marriage of Anne Hyde, daughter of Edward Hyde, Earl Clarendon, to James II. in September.

1661 Birth of Charles Rollin in France, the famous historian. New parliament in England. Death of Julius Mazarin, the celebrated Cardinal. He was prime minister of France during the portion of the reign of Louis XIV.

1662 Death of Blaise Pascal, one of the most eminent literary men of France, aged 39 years. Act of Uniformity passed by the English Parliament. Great earthquake in China; 300,000 persons swallowed up in Pekin alone. Birth of Matthew Henry, one of the most popular of English commentators on the scriptures. The Royal Society established by Charles II. at London.

1663 Marquis of Worcester suggests the first idea of a steam engine in his "Century of Inventions" as "a way to drive up water by fire." The English take Bombay.

1664 War between the English and the United Provinces. New York taken by the Dutch, from the English. Printing of Eliot's Indian Bible at Cambridge, Mass. Organization of the French East India Company. New Jersey granted by Chas. II. to Lord Berkeley and George Carteret. Great naval preparations of England and Hollond.

1665 The Dutch defeated by the English fleet under the Duke of York. Nearly 70,000 persons die of the plague in London. France and Denmark league with the United Provinces against England. Jansenists persecuted in France. Death of Nicholas Poussin, the originator of the French school of painters.

1666 Great naval engagement between the English and the Dutch, in which Rupert and Albemarle are victorious. Great fire in London, Sept. 2. 400 streets; 13,200 houses; 89 churches, including St. Paul's and many prominent structures destroyed. Insurrection of the Protestants in Scotland, which is subdued by the English. Tea first used in England. The French Academy of Sciences instituted. Death of Queen Anne of Austria.

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1667 Death of Dr. Jeremy Taylor, in England, the great preacher of this century, a prelate of the Irish church, aged 55 years. Louis XIV., king of France, invades the Spanish Netherlands. New York is ceded to England by the peace of Breda. Birth of Dr. Jonathan Swift, the celebrated Irish satirist. Death of Edward Hyde, the distinguished Earl of Clarendon, in exile, aged 65 years.

1668 Triple Alliance formed between the States-General and England against France for the protection of the Spanish Netherlands. The League is afterwards joined by Sweden, Jan. 28. Independence of Portugal acknowledged. Louis XIV. surrenders the greater part of his conquests in the Spanish Netherlands. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1669 The Turks reduced the Isle of Candia after a siege of 24 years, in which more than 200,000 persons perish. Louis XIV. meditates the conquest of the United Provinces. Charles II. concludes a secret treaty with France. Abdication of John Casimir in Poland.

1670 The French monarch subdues Lorraine. The English introduce bees into New England. The word *Cabal* used in English history, the *Cabal* consisting of a council of Sir Thomas Clifford, the Lord Ashley, the Duke of Buckingham, Lord Arlington and the Duke of Lauderdale. The initials of their names formed the word *Cabal*.

1672 France and England declare war against Holland. Louis XIV. enters the United Provinces at the head of a great army. The sluices are opened, and the country inundated. The Prince of Orange is declared Stadtholder, July 5. White slaves sold in England to be sent to Virginia. Birth of Peter I., called Peter the Great.

1673 Naval engagements between the Dutch fleet and that of France and England. Louis XIV. is obliged to abandon his conquests in the United Provinces. The Mississippi River discovered by Marquette and Joliet. "Test Act" passed in England. Death of Salvator Rosa, the great painter of the Lombard school. Death of Moliere, dramatist.

1674 Peace between England and Holland. Battle of Senef. Rapid progress of Turenne. Death of John Milton, one of the chief poets and greatest men of England, aged 66 years.

1675 Death of Turenne. King Philip's War in New England. The English compute longitude from the meridian of Greenwich. Birth of Samuel D. Clark, an English theologian and philosopher.

1676 Halley proves the motion of the sun round its own axis. Death of King Philip. The French defeat the Spaniards and Dutch off Palermo. The burning of Jamestown. Death of Admiral Ruyter. Sea-fights near Messina between the French and the Dutch. Congress at Nimeguen.

1677 Russia and Turkey at war.

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1678 Statute of Charles I. erected in England, the first of equestrian statues in this country. New Test Act in England. England is thrown into consternation by the rumor of a Popish plot.

1679 Habeas Corpus Act passed. Archbishop Sharpe murdered in Scotland. Meal tub plot discovered in England. Peace of Nimeguen. Peace concluded between France and Denmark at Fontainebleau. The covenanters are severely persecuted in Scotland. Rise of the names of *Whig* and *Tory*.

1680 Lord Strafford of England convicted of high treason. Foundation of Charlestown, S. C. Appearance of a great comet from Nov. 3 to March 9 following, causing great alarm among the people.

1681 Penny-Post first established in London, by a Mr. Murray. Louis XIV. takes Strasburg from the Germans. William Penn is granted Pennsylvania. Birth of Dr. Edward Young, the English poet. Secret money treaty with France concluded by Charles II. of England. Persecution of the Protestant dissenters in England

1682 Wm. Penn founds the city of Philadelphia. La Salle sails down the Mississippi River. Death of Claude Lorraine, the great Italian painter, aged 82 years.

1683 Discovery of "The Rye House Plot," designed for the assassination of Charles II. and his brother, the Duke of York, afterwards James II., at a place called Rye House, near London. Death of Colbert, the great financier of Louis XIV. of France.

1684 Dr. Robert Hook, a distinguished mathematician and philosopher, first suggests the idea of the modern telegraph. Death of Peter Corneille, the eminent French dramatic poet, aged 78 years. Birth of Geo. Frederic Handel, the great musical composer.

1685 Trial of Oates for perjury in England. Death of Charles II. of England. James II. becomes king. Revocation by Louis XIV. of the Edict of Nantes; many Protestants massacred and exiled. Rebellion in England of the Duke of Monmouth and the Duke of Argyle. Both executed. Atrocious inhumanity of Judge Jeffreys. Death of Bartholomeo Esteven Murillo, a great painter of Spain, aged 67 years.

1686 League of Augsburg. Death of Prince Condé, general. Buda carried by storm by the Duke of Lorraine and Mohammedans massacred. Otho Guericke invents the air pump. The Newtonian philosophy made public in England.

1687 Athens taken by the Turks. The roof of the Acropolis, which had stood 2,000 years, was destroyed in the siege. Death of Edmund Waller, an English poet, aged 82 years. Death of Henry More, a brilliant scholar and philosopher, aged 83 years.

1688 William, Prince of Orange, invited to settle the affairs of the kingdom. James flees to France, Nov. 5. New England

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made to embrace New York and New Jersey in its jurisdiction. War with the Indians. Death of Duquesne, admiral. Birth of Alexander Pope, the great English classic poet. Bill of Rights and Instrument of Settlement in England. The grand struggle between *Privilege* and *Prerogative* terminated, and the limits of the English constitution fixed.

1689 Peter the Great becomes sole ruler of Russia. William III. and his wife Mary, daughter of James II., are crowned king and queen of England. French war begun in North America. The act excluding the Roman Catholics from the crown of Great Britain passed. Act of toleration passed in England. England accedes to the Edict of Augsburg. Scotland submits to the authority of King William. Siege of Londonderry, Ireland, by James II. Gallant defense of the Protestants. Birth of Emanuel Swedenborg, the great religious teacher.

1690 Battle of the Boyne, July 1, gained by William III. over James in Ireland. First factory established at Calcutta. Death of Charles, Duke of Lorraine, general. Death of Boyle, philosopher and divine.

1691 Siege of Athlone. Limerick capitulates, and Ireland renounces the authority of James.

1692-93 The horrible massacre of Glencoe, Scotland. Defeat of the French fleet by

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the English admiral, Russell. Splendid victories of Marshal Luxembourg over the allies at Steinkirk and Nerwinde. William and Mary's College established in Virginia, the second college in the United States. 100,000 lives lost in a great earthquake in Sicily. First use of the bayonet. The establishment of the Bank of England by King William. Drawing of the first public lottery in England.

1694 Stamp duties first instituted. Conspiracies found against the authority and life of William. Death of Puffendorf, civilian.

1695 Death of Lafontaine, poet, aged 74 years. Death of Huygens, mathematician and astronomer. Death of the Duke of Luxembourg, general.

1697 Peace of Ryswick between France, England, Spain and Germany. Decisive battle at Zenta in favor of the Austrians against the Turks. Death of Sobieski, Poland. Death of Jean la Bruyere, French moralist, aged 52 years.

1699 Peace of Carlowitz, between the Grand Signor and the Christian powers. Galileo confirms and extends the discoveries of Copernicus. Death of Sir William Temple, an eminent English statesman Yellow fever rages in Philadelphia, destroying a large number of inhabitants. Death of Racine, French dramatist.

1700 Eight thousand Swedes defeat eighty thousand Muscovites near Narva.

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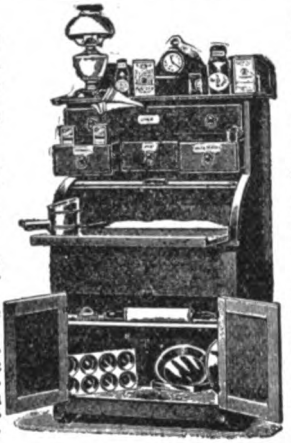

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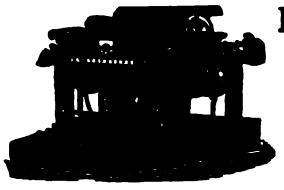

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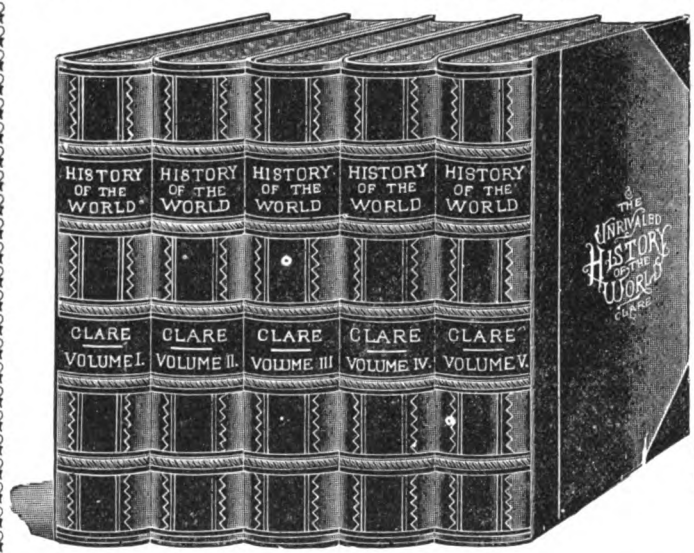

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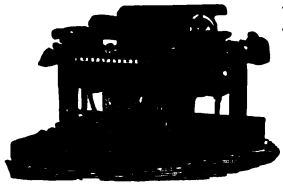

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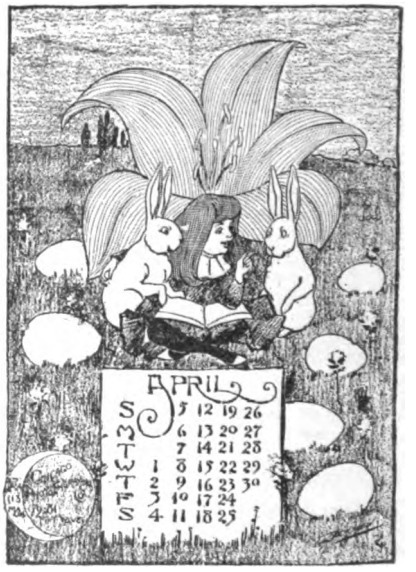

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THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION

COURSE IN UNIVERSAL HISTORY

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

PREPARED BY

FREDERICK C. HICKS, Ph.D., Prof. of History and Economics, University of Missouri

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED

EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

INTRODUCTION.

EUROPEAN history in the Eighteenth Century is a record of international struggles to maintain the balance of power. The idea of a universal empire had given place to the idea of individual nations, each of which should be prevented from becoming so powerful as to endanger the existence or prosperity of the others. This is called maintaining the "balance of power," and is the fundamental idea in European politics to-day. But at the beginning of the Eighteenth Century a considerable portion of Europe had not been formed into nations that could be regarded as at all permanent. Such territory was looked at with longing eyes by the more important monarchs, who hoped to add some of it to their own possessions. So the "balance of power" was often in danger of being destroyed, and frequent wars resulted.



Charles James Fox.

To understand the progress of events, it is necessary to consider first the conditions in Europe at the opening of the century. Following this will come a survey of the most important of the international struggles, and then an examination of the conditions near the close of the century, when the French Revolution began a re-making of Europe.

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1. I.—CONDITION OF EUROPE IN 1700.

Western Europe.—In Western Europe, France and England were rivals for supremacy. France had reached the zenith of her power, and was in the midst of the magnificent but corrupt reign of Louis XIV. England had passed through a revolution, accompanied by a change of monarch, that involved the recognition of the dependence of the king upon the people—an important step in the development of constitutional liberty. The supremacy on the sea had been transferred from France to England, as was demonstrated by the battle of La Hogue (1692), but France was still the most powerful continental country. The importance of Spain had declined and her throne had become a bone of contention in European politics.

EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.—INTRODUCTION.

The Beginning of the Eighteenth Century.—The eighteenth century has been said, on one hand, to have no history, and, on the other, to be the father of modern history. Whatever truth there may be in either of these phrases, it is certain that the period was one of transition not only in the power of states, but in the political ideas of mankind. The eighteenth century began with the dynastic war of the Spanish Succession; it ended with the French Revolution and the birth of those republican institutions which have since modified profoundly the thoughts and actions of civilized men even in countries which still remain monarchical. In its opening years, courts and aristocracy were powerful and corrupt to a degree now almost incredible. In old established monarchies, such as France and Spain, the contempt of the rich and high-born for the poor, who but lived to minister to their pleasures, had already begotten a savage desire for resistance to daily oppression. The working classes were dogs to their masters, but dogs no longer licking the hands which threw occasional scraps to them. Luxury in the upper classes and the growing hatred of the poor had sapped the strength of nations formerly all-powerful.—*Brackenbury.*

For France the eighteenth century begins with the death of Louis XIV. The party which had surrounded the late king—the party of Madame de Maintenon, the Jesuits, the Duke of Maine—represented the past; their opponents were ambitious to represent the future. At their head stood Philip, Duke of Orleans, who had in extremest form all the characteristics of the Orleans branch of the Bourbon family; who was brilliant and most intelligent, highly educated and cultivated; who was brave and capable as a soldier, full of good ideas as to the benevolent management of the people, and, lastly, profligate and utterly without rule in his moral life, so that his better side was always neutralized by his worse qualities, and he ended by failing completely in his attempt to govern France on principles opposed to those of Louis XIV. Like so many of the prominent personages of the eighteenth century, his intellect grasped the future, while his vices clung to the past. Even while the old monarch's remains were being hurried with scanty pomp and tearless eyes to St. Denis, Philip of Orleans swept away all the arrangements of the royal will, and had himself declared regent, with full power to appoint his council of regency. The public opinion, as far as it could exist and express itself, warmly supported this *coup d'etat*, and the party of the duke of Maine shrank into utter obscurity. At once the regent set himself to reform the government and alter the foreign policy of France. In this he was guided partly by his knowledge of the plans of the late Duke of Burgundy and partly by the acute intelligence of his former tutor, the Abbe Dubois. —*Kitchin.*

1. I.—CONDITION OF EUROPE IN 1700.

Western Europe—Louis XIV.—There were evil deeds, enough and to spare, in Louis XIV.'s reign Long before its evening, a kind of crapulosity seems to have set in, which in itself was fertile stuff for the quickening of revolution. The memoirs of the time, the writings of Bussy Rabutin, reveal to us a grave degree of corruption among the rising nobility, which disagreeably affected Louis, and which was significant in its warnings. When we read of the way in which some of the young nobles, some of the bearers of famous names, such as the bearer of the name of Colbert, were banded together for debaucheries, atrocities, and excesses of the most degrading type, we can only wonder that the Revolution did not break out long before its time. The satyr-like lust and fiend-like cruelty of some of the acts recorded of these young nobles must be borne in mind when we think upon the horrors which disfigured the time of the Terror. When we read of two cases in particular in which these wearers of great names inflicted horrible torture, for the mere sake of torture, upon a woman who was their plaything, and upon an unfortunate man who died of his sufferings, we wonder if any descendant of either of those unhappy victims took part in the September massacres and sated in those wild days a revenge that was none the less welcome because it had been long delayed.—*McCarthy.*

Louis Assumed the Government.—Henceforth, for over half a century, he was sole master in France. He became his own prime minister, and, though only twenty-three years old, by his diligence soon acquired the details of public affairs. He selected his assistants with rare wisdom. Colbert, the new finance minister, was another Sully, by economy and system increasing the revenues, while he encouraged agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Louvois, the war minister, organized and equipped the army, making it the terror of Europe. Never had France been so powerful. One hundred fortresses, monuments of the skill of Vauban, the greatest engineer of his day, covered the frontier; one hundred ships of the line lay in the magificent harbors of Toulon, Brest, and Havre; and an army of 140,000 men, under Turenne, Condé, and Luxemburg, was ready to take the field at the word. The French people, weary of strife, willingly surrendered their political rights to this autocrat, who secured to them prosperity at home and dignity abroad.—*Steele.*

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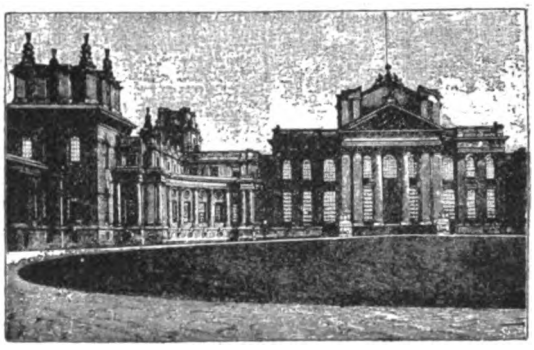
2. CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE.

Italy and Germany "were by their own profession battle-fields of Europe." Prussia had not yet taken her place among nations of the first rank, but her rapid rise under Frederick William and his famous son, Frederick the Great, was to be one of the important events of the eighteenth century. Austria was still the leading nation of central Europe. Her ruler was, according to well-established custom, always elected Emperor of Germany. In the north, Sweden, whose possessions extended on three sides of the Baltic sea, was the ranking power; while Russia under Peter the Great was for the first time becoming a factor in European affairs.



Blenheim, Built 1704.

2. CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE.

Germany had ceased to have an important influence among the European nations; the local sovereignty of the states had been secured by the Peace of Westphalia, and the title of Emperor was but little more than an empty honor. From the entire empire, outside of his hereditary territories, the sovereign received an annual income of not more than five thousand dollars. The days of the great vassals of the crown were long since past, and interest centers in the struggles for supremacy between the great states of Austria and Prussia. The Imperial Court was located at Vienna, but exercised no political influence beyond the possessions of the Hapsburgs. Among other changes which occurred was the elevation of the Elector of Hanover to the throne of England in 1714 as George I. His wife was the granddaughter of James I. of England, upon which relationship was founded his claim to the throne of Great Britain. In 1697 Augustus of Saxony had become King of Poland. In the southwest the former circles of the empire, Swabia, Bavaria and Franconia, were still of some importance, because in them lay the military strength not of the states, but of the shadowy empire. The internal condition of Germany was deplorable. The extravagance of the Imperial and State officers was supported by the unrequited toil of the people, but there were glimpses of the dawning of that broad intellectual life which in the following century gave to Germany a greater glory than had ever been achieved by her arms.—*Sievers.*

The Geographical Position of Prussia.—The claim which Prussian history makes upon our attention is based neither upon venerable antiquity nor upon the uniformity of origin. The territorial and political development of the country has taken place wholly within the last thousand years; and the materials out of which it has been built up—marquisates and duchies, ecclesiastical principalities and free imperial cities—are of the most heterogeneous description. The history of Prussia acquires its primary significance from the fact that this state was the instrument by which the political regeneration of Germany was ultimately effected from within, and the unity and coherence of the narrative are best observed when we consider it as a record of the training that fitted the country for this task. This role was forced upon Prussia rather by the exigencies of its geographical position than by its title to be racially the most representative German state. The people who have established the power of Germany cannot rank in purity of Teutonic blood with the inhabitants of the central, western and southern parts of the empire. The conquest of the Slavonic regions that form so great a part of modern Prussia did not occur without a considerable intermingling of race, and Prussia may perhaps be added to the list of great nations that seem to owe their pre-eminence to the happy blending of their composite parts. It is perhaps also worthy of remark that this state, like its great rival, was developed from a Marchland of the German empire. Prussia arising from the North Mark erected against the Wends, and Austria from the East Mark erected against the Hungarians.—*Muirhead.*

Frederick ruled over a population of less than five million souls, while his adversaries could draw their armies from a joint population of a hundred millions. The disproportion in wealth was at least as great. Nor was the small size of Frederick's land made up for by its strong patriotism and loyalty; on the contrary, the affections of his subjects had been partially alienated by the severity of his rule and the weight of taxation. Prussia had no strong natural bulwarks on its frontiers, but lay exposed to every foe. Yet Frederick's brilliant military genius was able to counteract all these disadvantages and carry on the contest in spite of all odds.—*Muirhead.*

After the victorious conclusion of the Seven Years' War the king devoted his attentions to the repair of the ruin wrought by it. The war had caused his subjects terrible sufferings. It is said that 14,500 houses lay in ashes, and so many men had been consumed in his armies that there were not men to till the fields, nor horses to draw the harvest wanes. In Saxony 100,000 men had perished of famine alone; in Bohemia 180,000 had died of hunger; but Prussia and Silesia had suffered less from this cause, because the king and his minister, Schalaberndorf, had enforced the cultivation of the potato. At first, great prejudice had existed against this useful tuber, but Frederick saw its value and insisted on its growth.—*Baring-Gould.*

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James Brindley.

3. II.—EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES.

Among the most Important International Struggles of the Eighteenth Century were:—1. The war of the Spanish Succession, 1701-1713. 2. The war between Sweden and Russia, 1700-1721. 3. The war of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748. 4. The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763. 5. The Partition of Poland, 1772, 1793, 1795.

1. **War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-1713.**—(a) *Cause.*—The war of the Spanish Succession grew out of the attempt of Louis XIV., King of France, to establish his grandson, Philip of Anjou, as King of Spain upon the death of Charles II. in 1700. As Philip was then but a boy, Louis XIV. would have been the real ruler of Spain, and so close a union of France and Spain endangered the "balance of power."

3. II.—EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES.

War of the Succession.—The object of the war, as it is commonly called, of the Grand Alliance, commenced in 1702, was, as expressed in an address to the House of Commons, for preserving the liberties of Europe and reducing the exorbitant power of France. The occupation of the Spanish dominions by the Duke of Anjou, on the authority of the late king's will, was assigned as its justification, together with the acknowledgment of the pretended Prince of Wales as successor to his father James. Charles, Archduke of Austria, was recognized as King of Spain, and as early as 1705, the restoration of that monarchy to his house is declared in a speech from the throne to be not only safe and advantageous, but glorious to England.—*Hallam.*

In Spain the childless Charles II. was on his death-bed. He was a brother-in-law of Louis XIV., and also of the Emperor Leopold of Austria. Each of these sovereigns had married a sister of the Spanish king, and each was a grandson on the mother's side of Philip III. of Spain. There was, therefore, some ground for a plot between Louis and Leopold looking to a seizure of the dominions of the Spanish king as soon as the latter should pay the debt of nature. Such a plot at one time existed; but neither of the royal conspirators could hope to be successful in his designs upon the kingdom of the peninsular brother-in-law, while one half of Europe was at war with the other. Louis especially became anxious that the powers should be pacified to the end that he might have an open field for his operations against Spain. He accordingly solicited the aid of Pope Innocent XII. and urged that potentate to take upon himself the office of mediator between the states of war. He also appealed to the kings of Denmark and Sweden to use their influence in favor of peace; but at this juncture the Emperor perceiving that the pacific Louis was actuated by motives wholly selfish set himself resolutely against the schemes of the French king, and united most cordially with William III. to prevent the making of peace. The king of England knew full well that his great adversary had exhausted his resources and must soon humble himself by proposing more favorable terms as the price of a settlement.—*Ridpath.*

Spain.—*Her condition on the Accession of Charles III., 1759.*—The attempts to manufacture the products of the country, to start the mines again, to revive business by the building of canals and turnpikes, to repress mendicancy by the establishment of houses of correction, swallowed huge sums without immediate beneficial consequences. The magnificent saltpetre works at Madrid, for instance, lost something like three reals on every pound of material. The great spinning establishment erected by the archbishop of Toledo for the employment of the poor, ended in disaster. Hundreds of millions were spent on roads which were left unfinished. Numberless speculators spread their mazy nets over the land. The census of 1787 showed indeed a considerable decrease in the clergy, and the convents were reduced one-third in number as compared with the seventeenth century; but the ninety-five thousand eight hundred and seventy-nine persons who lived in three thousand one hundred and eighty-nine convents, were a frightful burden to bear. Among the seventy thousand secular clergy, there were only twenty-two thousand priests. The elementary schools were visited by only one-tenth of the youth. Though the population had nearly doubled (10,268,150) in one hundred years, yet sixteen hundred and eleven once inhabited places now lay waste, and out of every thirteen houses, one was, even according to Spanish ideas, uninhabitable. The thirty years of reform had in 1787 increased the revenues only to four hundred millions reals, and expenses ran beyond income by more than one hundred millions. Two foolish wars with England compelled the issue of the vales reals, a paper currency bearing interest at four per cent, four hundred and fifty millions of which, with interest amounting to eighteen millions, circulated down to 1783. Instead of providing for the payment of these obligations in the succeeding years of peace, they were increased to meet the expenses of roads and canals.—*Harrison* (Gilman).

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4.

(*b*) **The War.**—The emperor of Germany, with England, Holland and Prussia, formed the Grand Alliance to prevent Louis XIV. from seating Philip on the throne of Spain. The chief seat of the war was in Italy, Germany and the Netherlands. The armies of the alliance were under the immediate direction of the two great commanders, Eugene, prince of Savoy, and Marlborough, an English general. The result was the defeat of Louis.

Marlborough and Eugene.—There were, at this time, two men at the head of the allied armies capable of profiting by all this: an Englishman and a Frenchman, Marlborough and Eugene. The latter, a younger son of the house of Savoy, but son also of the Count of Soissons and of a niece of Mazarin, may be called French. Marlborough, the *handsome Englishman*, was cold, but acute and judicious; he studied under Turenne, and returned to France her own lessons. Eugene, although Vendome called him a *bad financier*, was a man of extraordinary tact, who troubled himself not much about rules, but who thoroughly understood places, things, persons, knew the strong and the weak, and took advantage of the weak. His most striking and easy successes were over Ottoman barbarism. This man, who always went straight to the point, won victories alternately at the two extremes of Europe, over the great king and over the Turks, and it seemed as if he had saved both liberty and Christianity. These two generals had one convenience for prosecuting war, that is, they were practically kings in their respective countries; they fought in the summer, they governed and negotiated in the winter. They had full power, and needed not, on the eve of a battle, to send to Versailles to obtain authority to conquer. —*Potter.*

Marlborough was still counted among the Tories, when Anne ascended the throne; he shared with Lord Godolphin the political confidence of the queen. The Duchess of Marlborough, haughty, violent and avaricious, naturally powerful and domineering, as well over her husband as over the queen, was the intimate friend of this little council. The influence of the Duke of Marlborough, as well as public sentiment, induced Anne to favor the war and fulfill England's engagements. The first speech from the throne clearly announced her resolution to continue, on this subject, the policy of King William III. "We cannot encourage our allies too much in their efforts to destroy the enormous power of France." Marlborough was sent as envoy extraordinary to the Hague, to assure the states-general of the intentions of the queen. As skillful a negotiator as he was great as a general, he knew from the first how to gain the confidence of Heinsius, and to give to the European powers a firm assurance of the maintenance of the grand alliance. On the 4th of May, 1702, a declaration of war was simultaneously promulgated at London, Vienna and the Hague. Marlborough was appointed general-in-chief of the combined English and Dutch forces. After his first compaign upon the Meuse, although the successes were very insignificant, Anne raised him to the rank of duke. She overwhelmed her favorite with the most lucrative offices. Finally, to perpetuate the splendor of his house, she demanded that parliament confer, with the title which she had given to the illustrious general, a pension of £5,000. The houses refused. The queen multiplied her personal favors, accepted with repugnance, or magnanimously refused at first, and subsequently reclaimed with avidity. When, in 1712, the Duchess of Marlborough had forever lost the favor of the queen, she demanded and obtained all the arrears of a pension of £2,000 that she had refused from the privy purse of the queen in 1702.—*Guizot.*



John Churchill, First Duke of Marlborough.

Eugene was bred in France, and offered his sword to Louis, but was contemptuously rejected. Having called the grand monarch "a stage-king for show and a chess-king for use," he had grievously offended the king, and now, having entered the emperor's service, he became the bitterest enemy of France.—*Steele.*

Philip V.—"Pride," says the proverb, "goes before a fall." This proved true now. Fortune turned unexpectedly, and favored the French king. The Emperor Joseph I. died without children, and the Austrian inheritance passed to his brother Charles, who claimed the throne of Spain. But European sovereigns did not want to have an emperor with the dominions of Charles V., so he was forced to give up his claims to Spain, and the grandson of Louis XIV. was acknowledged as king and took the title of Philip V. This was the result of the agreement come to by the powers at the Peace of Utrecht in 1713, and the emperor was obliged next year to consent to it at the treaty of Rastadt —*Baring-Gould.*

This Struggle also involved the American colonies, and is known in our history as Queen Anne's War.

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5.

(c.) **The Peace of Utrecht** (1713) terminated the war. Notwithstanding the defeat of Louis, Philip was recognized as king of Spain. For during the war the emperor died and Archbishop Charles, whom the Grand Alliance had sought to make king of Spain, became Emperor of Germany. Had he been made King of Spain the balance of power would have been threatened by the union of Spain and Austria. So the treaty allowed Philip to become King of Spain, but provided for the permanent separation of Spain and France. The treaty, among other things, recognized the Elector of Brandenburg as King of Prussia and gave Gibraltar, which commands the entrance to the Mediterranean sea, to England.



Lord Mansfield.

5.

(c) **Peace of Utrecht.**— The terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, which regulated almost all the boundary lines of Europe, can only be generally indicated. The succession of the elector of Hanover to the English crown after the death of Queen Anne, was acknowledged by the king of France, who engaged also to dismantle Dunkirk, and to cede to England the whole tract in North America, including Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay. Louis recognized the royal title of the king of Prussia, and ceded to him, as representative of the House of Orange, the principality of Neuchatel in Switzerland, while Frederick I. relinquished his claims to the principality of Orange. The Duke of Savoy received back his territories, which were divided from those of France by the watershed of the Alps. He was invested by Spain with the island-kingdom of Sicily, and the ultimate succession of the Spanish crown in case of the failure of the line of Philip V. The duke was crowned at Palermo, November, 1713. Philip V. was formally recognized by the other powers as king of Spain. He ceded Gibraltar and Minorca to England on the condition that neither Moors nor Jews should be tolerated in either; recognized the Hanoverian succession, and assigned to England a monopoly of the slave trade with the Spanish colonies for thirty years. Spain and Portugal resumed their former boundaries. The remaining articles of the treaty related chiefly to commercial and colonial matters, and though important to the nations concerned, were too minute to be detailed here.—*Thalheimer.*

The Peace which was signed at Utrecht on the 11th of April, 1713, and of which St. John—recently made Viscount Bolingbroke—determined the final conditions in a journey which he made to Paris, has been often and bitterly attacked. It was concluded by France, England, the United Provinces, Portugal, the king of Prussia, and the duke of Savoy. Louis XIV. consented to recognize the Protestant succession in the House of Hanover, although the elector still refused to separate himself from the emperor, and the Pretender was to leave France. This was a great bitterness for the king: the difficulty was aggravated by the obstinacy of the Chevalier St. George, who desired to live at Fontainebleau. "Let M. de Torcy recall his journey to the Hague," said Bolingbroke, "and let him compare the plans of 1709 and 1712." England kept Gibraltar and Minorca; the fortifications of Dunkirk were to be razed. Sicily was given to the Duke of Savoy. Louis XIV. regained Lille and some cities in Flanders, by fortifying the barriers of the Dutch. The king of Spain protested for some days, but finally signed. The emperor and the empire alone resisted; the taking of Speyer, of Kaiserlautern, of Laudan and of Freiburg—seized one after the other by Villars, triumphed over the anger and pretensions of the Germans.—*Guizot.*

England was the Chief Gainer.—She secured her succession through the House of Hanover, which now became a ninth electorate; the Pretender was to be compelled to leave France; the crowns of France and Spain were never to rest on one head; Dunkirk was dismantled; Newfoundland, Acadia, and the Hudson's Bay territory were transferred from France to her; a friendly commercial treaty followed. Holland got a strong barrier on the side of France; the Spanish Netherlands were handed over to the United Provinces, which undertook to transfer them to Austria on the final conclusion of peace. She, too, made a favorable commercial treaty with France. The duke of Savoy was made a king and got Sicily, while Austria received Naples and Sardinia. Prussia received part of Gelderland, and gave up to France all her claims on the Orange principality. England was recognized as mistress of Gibraltar and Minorca. France recovered Lille, and retained Strasburg and the whole of Alsace. Freiburg in the Brisgau, Breisach and Kehl, she had to restore to Germany; the rights of Philip V. to the throne of Spain remained unshaken; the resistance of Barcelona, which obstinately refused to recognize him, was overcome by Berwick in 1714. Far lighter were the terms of peace than those which the triumvirate had tried to force on Louis XIV., yet the aged monarch must have deeply felt the permanent retrogression which they involved. His splendid ambitions were shown to be unattainable, after they had wellnigh ruined France in the pursuit; she had paid already a terrible price for the glories of a grand monarch and a great age. It would acquire the awakening of the revolution to restore her to her right place in Europe. Her old antagonists, Austria and Spain, were also losers by the war; north Germany, under the guidance of the new kingdom of Prussia, was destined gradually to reduce the supremacy of the south, and at last to take its place; England was fitted for the great destinies she was to fulfill in the course of the century; Holland, secure from all disturbance, withdrew from the political arena.—*Kitchin.*

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6. 2—WAR BETWEEN SWEDEN AND RUSSIA, 1700-1721.



Group Showing Costumes and Sedan Chair, about 1720.

(a.) **Cause.** — In 1697, Charles XII., a youth of fifteen years, became King of Sweden. Russia, Denmark and Saxony thought to take advantage of his youth to dismember Sweden.

(b.) **The War.**— Charles at first defeated his enemies, but subsequently sought to invade Russia and met with overwhelming defeat.

(c.) **The Peace of Nystadt, 1721**, brought the war to a close. The most important result of the war was the surrender to Peter the Great of Sweden's possessions east of the Baltic, thus giving to Russia an outlet on that sea.

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6. 2—WAR BETWEEN SWEDEN AND RUSSIA, 1700–1721.

The War is closed in 1713 and 1714 by the treaties of Utrecht and Radstadt. These treaties provide as follows: That France shall abandon the claims of the Stuarts to the English throne, cede to Great Britain Acadia (Nova Scotia), Hudson's Bay, and Newfoundland, and make such arrangements for the succession in France as shall prevent any possible union of French and Spanish crowns; that the elector of Brandenburg shall be recognized by the title of *King of Prussia*, and that France shall cede to him certain territories in the Spanish Netherlands, on condition of the Catholic religion being still upheld; that the duke of Savoy shall gain new Italian territories and become the king of Sicily; that France shall surrender all those parts of the Spanish Netherlands still held by her, and not otherwise disposed of, to Austria; that Spain shall give Minorca and Gibralter to England, on condition of neither Jews nor Moors being allowed therein; that the trade in African slaves shall be given to an English company for thirty years; that all places on the right bank of the Rhine shall belong to the empire; that the archduke of Austria (emperor) shall retain all the parts of Italy which he occupies, namely, Sardinia, the duchy of Milan, and the kingdom of Naples. At the same time commercial treaties are concluded between France and Great Britain, and between France and Holland.

Meanwhile war between Russia, Poland, Denmark, and Sweden, each country desirous of gaining firmer foothold on the Baltic lands with their important harbors. The war ends with treaties (1719–1721) which gave Russia the Baltic lands about St. Petersburg, and give the King of Prussia, who had entered the war as a "free lance," added territories in Northern Germany.—*Steele.*

The War. — *Charles at First Defeated his Enemies.* — This prediction seemed about to be verified, when the Turks, stimulated by the intrigues of the Swedish monarch, took up arms against the Russians, and investing Peter on the banks of the Pruth, obliged him to make that famous capitulation in 1711. By this he was bound to withdraw all his troops from Poland, and never interfere in the affairs of that government: besides which, Charles was to be ensured an unmolested return to his kingdom.—*Fletcher.*

The Condition of Sweden was now truly deplorable. She had neither trade, money, nor credit. Her army was annihilated, and above 150,000 of her best soldiers were slaves in Turkey and Muscovy, or locked up in the fortresses of Denmark and Poland. Her foreign provinces were lost, some of them being held as pledges, others as conquests. Finland was in possession of the Czar; Bremen was filled with Danish garrisons; the whole of Pomerania, except Rugen and Stralsund, with some adjacent places, had fallen a prey to the allies, and was sequestered in the hands of the King of Prussia, who consented to hold it until the establishment of a general pacification, when he agreed to restore Stettin and its dependencies to the Swedes, on condition of their paying him an indemnity of 400,000 crowns for his expenses.—*Crichton and Wheaton.*

The Peace of Nystadt.—By the Peace of Stockholm with Poland, Prussia, Denmark and England, in 1720, and by the Peace of Nystadt with Russia, in 1721, Sweden surrendered most of her foreign possessions in return for an indemnification in money. The Baltic provinces of Ingria, Esthonia and Livonia were ceded to Russia; the greater part of Pomerania to Prussia; and Schleswig and Holstein to Denmark. Sweden thus lost her rank as the great power of the North; while Russia, under the great Peter, began to control the destinies of the North and the East.—*Clare.*

The Peace of Nystadt.—To arrest the progress of these disasters, the Swedes proposed an armistice, and the states were convoked to deliberate on the necessary steps for removing the only impediment that opposed the general pacification of the North. The winter was consumed in fruitless negotiations, and various circumstances threat-

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ened to involve the kingdom in fresh troubles, when the Czar at length consented that plenipotentiaries should attend the congress appointed to sit at Nystadt, for adjusting a suspension of arms and preliminaries of peace. The conclusion of this treaty, which was finally signed on September 13, 1721, was accelerated by the depredations committed on the coasts and commerce of Sweden by a Russian squadron under General Lesly, who had been sent on a predatory expedition with a view to extort more favorable concessions. By the stipulations of that convention, the provinces of Livonia, Ingria, Esthonia, part of Carelia, the territory of Viborg, and the islands of Oesel, Dago, and Moen, were ceded to the Czar, in lieu of which he surrendered the great duchy of Finland, and agreed to pay two millions of crowns as indemnity for losses sustained in course of the war. The prisoners on both sides were to be set at liberty without reserve, and the privilege was granted to the Swedish merchants of exporting corn to the value of 50,000 rubles yearly from Riga, Revel, and other Russian ports in the Baltic. The sacrifices exacted from Sweden by the treaty were deemed too great, and excited considerable discontent; but in the exhausted and half-ruined state of that kingdom, it was evidently impossible to contend on equal terms with a power then rapidly increasing in military resources, and already mistress of the Northern seas.—*Crichton and Wheaton.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **CONDITION OF EUROPE IN 1700.**—Western Europe, The Beginning of the Eighteenth Century, Louis XIV., Louis Assumes the Government.
2. **CONDITION OF EUROPE IN 1700** (Continued).—Central and Eastern Europe, Germany, Geographical Position of Prussia, Frederick.
3. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES.**—War of the Spanish Succession, Spain, Charles II., Charles III.
4. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued).—War of the Spanish Succession, The War, Marlborough, Eugene and Philip V.
5. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued).—War of the Spanish Succession, The Peace of Utrecht, England the Chief Gainer.
6. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued).—War between Sweden and Russia, Cause, The War, Charles, Condition of Sweden, Peace of Nystadt.

QUESTIONS.

1. *What can you say of "international struggle" during the Eighteenth Century? What was meant by "the balance of power"? What causes produced this doctrine? At this time what nations were rivals for supremacy? What was now the condition of France? What nation held the supremacy of the sea? What was now the relative standing of France, England, and Spain? What was now the general condition of the higher classes of people? The lower classes?*
2. *What was now the status of Prussia? Austria? Sweden? Russia? What was the geographical position of each of these nations? The relative political standing of each? Give a sketch of Frederick William?*
3. *Name the most important international struggles of the Eighteenth Century? What was the cause of the War of the Spanish succesession? Why is this war sometimes called the Grand Alliance? Who was Charles II.? Why did Louis XIV. favor Philip? What was now the general condition of Spain?*
4. *Name the leading events in the progress of the War of the Spanish Succession? State what you can of Marlborough? Eugene? Philip V.? What were the leading political acts of the first two?*
5. *What were the conditions of the treaty of Utrecht? In what way was Charles made Emperor of Germany? Upon what condition was Philip allowed to become King of Spain? What disposition was made of Prussia? What advantages were secured by England?*
6. *What was the cause of the war between Sweden and Russia? What nations aided Russia? Why? What success was at first had by Sweden? Why were they finally defeated? What was now the general condition of Sweden? Name the conditions of the Peace of Nystadt?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Name the causes producing the change in European history from a "Universal empire" to the "idea of individual nations." Give the reasons for your statements.*
2. *Prepare a brief sketch giving your ideas of the development and growth of the doctrine of "the balance of power."*
3. *What were, in your opinion, the agencies which transferred "the supremacy of the sea" from France to England?*
4. *Why was France still the most powerful continental country?*
5. *Give your opinion of the causes which had produced the decline of Spain?*
6. *Germany is said to have been the "battle field of the world." Search history for illustrations of this fact.*
7. *To what extent have the physical features of Europe influenced the formation of the European nations?*
8. *Prepare a review showing the geographical extent and relative political standing of the modern European nations at the beginning of the Eighteenth Century.*
9. *Prepare a brief sketch showing the bearing of the Peace of Utrecht on American history.*
10. *To what extent do you consider the Peace of Utrecht of international importance? What do you consider its most important influences?*
11. *Prepare a brief of the strategic points in the political history of Marlborough.*
12. *What were the leading causes in the development of Prussia? What is your estimate of these causes?*

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7. 3. THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, 1740-1748.

(a) **Prussia** had risen to such power that she was able to compete with Austria for the leadership in the German Empire. The foundation of her success had been laid by the Great Elector and by his grandson, Frederick William I., whose rigid economy and strict discipline had given to his son and successor, Frederick the Great, a magnificent army of 83,000 men.



Robert Clive.

(b) **Austrian Succession.** — The Emperor, Charles VI., being without male off-spring, established an order of succession called the Pragmatic Sanction, by which he sought to insure the possession of his Austrian dominions to his daughters. Accordingly, upon the death of the Emperor (1740) his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, was proclaimed Queen of Hungary and ruler over Hungary, Austria and the other hereditary dominions of Charles. But other claimants appeared, among them Frederick the Great, who laid claim to a portion of Silesia, which was included in the Austrian possessions.

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7 THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION, 1740-1748.

Maria Theresa.—When Charles VI. died, in 1740, Maria Theresa, who was married to Duke Francis of Lorraine, seized the reins of government of all the lands belonging to Austria, that is, Bohemia, Hungary, Austria proper, Tyrol, Styria, Corinthia, etc. But, in spite of the Pragmatic Sanction, various claims were made for several of these lands. The ambassador of Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, entered Vienna to announce that his sovereign could not acknowledge the young queen as heiress and successor to her father, because the House of Bavaria laid claims to the Austrian inheritance. Frederick II. of Prussia, also, seeing that he had to do with a young and feeble woman, blusteringly demanded some of the Silesian principalities. As Maria Theresa had sufficient spirit to refuse these insolent demands, war broke out, in which France, Spain and Poland took part with Bavaria and Prussia against her. These wars go by the name of the "Three Silesian Wars."—*Baring-Gould.*

Frederick William I. was succeeded as king of of Prussia by his son Frederick II., who afterward became so illustrious in history as Frederick the Great. Frederick II. was twenty-eight years of age at his accession, and was in vigorous health. He was endowed with great natural abilities, and was destined to become one of the greatest characters of history—a great warrior and a great sovereign. Upon his accession he at once devoted himself with diligence to the government of his kingdom; and his subjects soon perceived that he was as much a king as his father had been, but that he was a more enlightened monarch. He took all branches of the government into his own hands, and administered each according to his own will, asking advice from no one, and requiring his minister simply to record his decisions and to execute his orders. His kingdom at once felt the impulse of his vigorous policy.—*Clare.*

The Eight Years' War of the Austrian Succession left Austria still a power of the first rank, though deprived of Silesia and the Italian duchies. France, its chief promotor, in spite of the victories won by foreigners in her service, gained absolutely nothing, while the addition of $250,000,000 to her debt was among the chief causes which hastened the terrible catastrophe of the Revolution. She had lost, moreover, her cherished position as the arbitress of European affairs. . . . England, by subsidizing all her allies, had greatly increased her influence in continental politics. The same series of events which had undermined the specious prosperity of France, had elevated Prussia, through the energy and military genius of her king, to a foremost rank among the European powers.—*Thalheimer.*

The Pragmatic Sanction.—German history enters upon a new epoch in the year 1740. In this year Frederick II. became king of Prussia, and Maria Theresa became sovereign in Austria. But the insatiable greed of increasing their power, which seems to have been inherent in the Hohenzollerns, impelled Frederick into war with Maria Theresa at the very beginning of their reigns, costing many thousands of men their lives and wasting many fair provinces. The occasion was this: The Emperor, Charles VI., died without male issue. His efforts had been directed during his reign chiefly to one point, to secure the Austrian dominions to his admirable daughter, Maria Theresa. To this end he contrived that an agreement should be signed both by the estates of the empire and the Austrian monarchy, and also by the reigning princes of Europe. This agreement was called "THE PRAGMATIC SANCTION."—*Yonge.*

These Wars were waged, on the part of England and France, in their colonial possessions as well as in Europe, causing, among other conflicts, the so-called "King George's War" and "The Old French and Indian War." These colonial wars end in the *Peace of Paris*, by which France cedes to England Nova Scotia and Canada, while a line drawn from the source to the mouth of the Mississippi is to make the boundary between British and French possessions on this continent; she also grants certain lands in Africa, in the West and East Indies, and promises to keep no troops in Bengal. Great Britain restores certain West Indian territory to France; Spain gives England Florida and other Spanish colonies east of the Mississippi, the right of the Newfoundland fisheries, and the privilege of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras. France agrees to give Spain Louisiana, including New Orleans.—*Sheldon.*

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8.

(c) **First Silesian War, 1740-1742.**—Frederick the Great seized Silesia. A secret alliance was concluded against Austria by France, Spain, Prussia and others. Maria Theresa, that she might be freed from at least one of her enemies, ceded Silesia to Prussia.

(d) **Second Silesian War, 1744-1745.**—Frederick, hearing that his Silesian possessions were in danger, began the second (Silesian) war, which was concluded by the Peace of Dresden. Frederick's possession of Silesia was confirmed and he in turn recognized Francis I., the husband of Maria Theresa, as Emperor of Germany. Meanwhile other nations had engaged in hostilities, which were finally ended by the

(e) **Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748,** which guaranteed Silesia to Prussia, and recognized the Pragmatic Sanction.

8.

(c) **First Silesian War, 1740-1742.**—Maria Theresa was now ready to make peace with Frederick, and it is said that he became possessed, shortly after the battle, of a letter from Fleury to the Queen of Hungary, offering to make peace with her secretly, and leave the king to her tender mercies. Once more he saw, or supposed, that his allies were cheating him, and again played his concealed ace. On the 11th of June he signed at Breslau a treaty by which Silesia and even Glatz were yielded up to him. When Belle-Isle went to him in person to remonstrate with him for treating the King of France badly, Frederick confounded the diplomatist by producing the letter from Fleury to the Austrian court, offering peace on the basis of leaving Prussia for Maria Theresa to deal with as she pleased. It is said that Belle-Isle's equanimity was so disturbed that, on coming out of the king's presence, he tore off his own wig and dashed it on the ground.—*Brackenbury.*

Silesia Ceded.—In England the unprovoked aggression of the King of Prussia had excited general indignation, and Parliament granted 300,000 pounds to the queen. In a short time a considerable army of Hungarians and Croats was assembled, which in a few weeks cleared Austria of the Bavarians and French, and pursued them into Bavaria, and took the capital, Munich. The French, who were in possession of Prague, were blockaded, but broke out in the depth of winter and escaped over the snowy fields, leaving their course strewn with frozen corpses. Out of 40,000 men who had entered Bohemia only 3,000 survived the miseries of the retreat and returned to France. But the Austrians opposed to Frederick II. had been less successful. The king defeated them again, and then, alarmed at the gathering power of Maria Theresa, concluded a peace with her, by which she made over to him a large portion of Silesia.—*Baring-Gould.*

(d) **Second Silesian War, 1744-1745.**—At Crossen the king received and put aside a protest from the authorities at Grünberg, on the other side of the frontier, against his entering Silesia. This was all in proper order, but could have no effect. While the king was at Crossen, the old bell, held up by rotten supports, came thundering down. "This is a good omen," said Frederick; "the high are to be brought low." On December 16 the march began. The usual proclamations of invaders were issued. "The troops come as friends. There is to be strict discipline; no plunder, and the best treatment for all who submit." At Grünberg, the burgomaster would not actually give the key of the town, but allowed it to lie on the table and be taken up by a Prussian officer without resistance. This diplomatic action may be taken as the type of Silesia's yielding at first. The country made no pretense at objection, and the towns, whispering they would ne'er consent, consented. Let us not forget that Silesia was more than half Protestant, and had suffered under Austrian religious intolerance.—*Brackenbury.*

Maria Theresa Addresses the Diet.—When things had come to this pass, the Elector of Bavaria, supported by the French, advanced his claims by force of arms. He marched upon Vienna. At Linz he had homage done to himself as Archduke of Austria. He was within three days' march of Vienna, and Maria Theresa was without an army, for that in Silesia was held in check by Frederick of Prussia. Her treasury was empty. She fled from her capital to Presburg in Hungary, convoked the magnates, and appeared among them attired in Hungarian costume, the crown of St. Stephen on her head and his sword at her side. Radiant with beauty and spirit she addressed the diet, and called on the nobles as cavaliers to stand by a woman in her jeopardy. Then she held up her baby boy in her hands before the assembly, and the tears came welling out of her beautiful eyes. Then came the answer. The whole diet rose and flashed their swords from their scabbards, and as a roll of thunder, "*Moriamur pro rege nostro, Maria Theresa!*" ("We will die for our sovereign, Maria Theresa!")—*Baring-Gould.*

All men of heart must sympathize with the high-spirited young queen, Maria Theresa, whose husband, Francis of Tuscany, was the Austrian candidate for the imperial crown. It was not her fault that the Hohenzollerns had been cheated out of Silesia nor had her voice been heard when her father promised Jülich and Berg to Frederick William and to the Elector Palatine at the same time. A woman, young, beautiful, high-souled, and impetuous, it must have appeared to her that the whole of Europe, except England and the Dutch, were acting vilely by her, and that Frederick's attack on Silesia was the deed of a robber and common enemy of mankind. Archduchess of Austria and Queen of Hungary, she was passionately determined to preserve the integrity of her dominions if she could. She had been received with acclamations by her Hungarian subjects, when, at the ceremony of her coronation, she, a bright young queen, and a mother of three months' standing, galloped to the top of the Königsberg, and with flashing sabre cut defiantly towards the four quarters of the world.—*Brackenbury.*

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9. 4.—THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR, 1756-1763.

(a) **Cause.**—Austria, desirous of regaining Silesia, concluded an alliance with Russia, France, Poland, Saxony and Sweden for the partition of Prussia. England, having engaged in a contest with France over boundary disputes in America, gave her support, though in a half-hearted manner, to Frederick.

(b) **The War.**—Frederick, knowing of the league that had been formed against him, invaded Saxony and defeated the Austrians. The fortunes of war varied. Now all seemed lost to Prussia, and again the heroic efforts of her great king were victorious in spite of the odds against him. Finally, in 1763, the death of Elizabeth of Russia gave Frederick a new ally in her successor, Peter III.

(c) **Peace of Hubertsburg, 1763.**—Prussia retained Silesia and "took her place as one of the five great powers of Europe."

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9. 4.—THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR, 1756-1763.

(a). **Cause.**—Maria Theresa could not forget Silesia snatched from her unjustly. Moreover, the growth of the power and influence of Prussia was a cause of envy to other princes. Maria Theresa was able by this means to unite a large confederation against Prussia. France, Russia and Saxony took part against it; and it was proposed to deprive the king of his royal title, and reduce him to be merely Margrave of Brandenburg. Prussia succeeded in securing England as her ally. George II. himself disliked Frederick, and would willingly have continued the alliance with Austria, but the English Parliament ranged itself on the side of Prussia. Following his usual tactics of making cat-like leaps before his enemies expected an attack, Frederick, without even declaring war, iuvaded Saxony, defeated the Austrians, and surrounded and captured a Saxon army. This was the opening of the Seven Years' War, or Third Silesian War.—*Baring-Gould.*

(b.) **The War.—The Combination against Frederick** was one to appal the stoutest heart. His own country numbered about 5,000,000 of population; its revenue was rather less than £2,000,000 sterling. He had a hoarded treasure for war purposes, the amount of which is not exactly known. This treasure prepared for first expenditure in case of war is a regular Prussian institution which continues in our own time, and enables the army to commence a campaign without fresh supplies granted by Parliament. Frederick's army had been increased during the winter so that it now numbered 150,000 men for the field, besides a home defensive force partly in garrisons of about 40,000. His allies the English had in their pay a composite "Brittanic army of observation" in Hanover. It was about 50,000 strong, and consisted of the Hanoverians and Hessians who had been brought to England when invasion was threatened, and other Hanoverians, Brunswickers, and various men from North Germany. The whole strength of himself and his allies amounted to about 240,000 men. Against him and his small nation were arrayed France, Austria, Hungary, presently Sweden, and, in the background, Russia. Of troops actually in the field with intent to crush him there were altogether 430,000 coming from four different quarters. —*Brackenbury.*

(c) **Peace of Hubertsburg.**—It would be difficult to overrate the importance of the contribution thus made by Frederick to the politics of Europe. Prussia was now universally recognized as one of the great powers of the Continent, and she definitely took her place in Germany as the rival of Austria. From this time it was inevitable that there should be a final struggle between the two nations for predominance, and that the smaller German states should group themselves around



Empress Elizabeth of Russia.

one or the other. Frederick himself acquired both in Germany and Europe the indefinable influence which springs from the recognition of great gifts that have been proved by great deeds.—*Muirhead.*

The Peace of 1763 left the nations of Europe under the pressure of an enormous taxation, one of the many and never-failing results of a protracted war. The reduction of the armies at the same time dispersed a number of men whose military habits had now rendered them but little calculated for the employments of honest industry, many of whom, in various countries, swelled the catalogue of crimes; while others sought their livelihood on the Ural and the Volga, in the colonies of Russia; but America became the chief receptacle for the superfluous population of Europe.—*Jones.*

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10. 5. PARTITION OF POLAND.

Poland had at one time been the most powerful nation in eastern Europe, but an unfortunate system of government weakened the country and left it a prey to unscrupulous neighbors. The success of Peter the Great in the war with Sweden had given to Russia an influence in the affairs of Poland.

(a) **First Partition, 1772.**—Elizabeth of Russia and Frederick the Great, who had been bitter enemies, found a bond of friendship in the desire to add to their respective dominions a portion of Poland. The only obstacle seemed to be the possible opposition of Austria; but about this time Maria Theresa formed a desire to secure some Polish territory. With this unanimity of desire on the part of three such powerful countries a division was inevitable. A distribution was agreed upon that deprived Poland of about one-third of her territory, and by force and fraud the ratification of this robbery was secured from the Polish Diet.

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10. 5. PARTITION OF POLAND.

In Order to Prevent the great northern empire of the Czar from absorbing the whole Polish kingdom, Frederick joined with Austria and Russia in the first partition of Poland. The Prussian king assented to this iniquitous transaction for the purpose of restraining Russia, and Maria Theresa was forced into it only by the sternest political necessity. By this act Prussia received an addition to her territory of about nine thousand square miles, with a population of about six hundred thousand; Austria obtained Gallacia and Lodomira, in all about sixty-two thousand square miles, while the remainder, more than eighty-seven thousand square miles, went to Russia.—*Sievers.*



Catherine I. of Russia.

As Catherine remarked, "Poland seemed a country where one had only to stoop to pick up whatever was needed," and in this view they now proposed to the Austrian ministers to join in the act on which they had determined, and to share the spoil. After a decent pretense of coyness, the proposal was accepted. In the beginning of 1772 a treaty was formally concluded, which divided one-third of Poland between the three allies; specifying with precision the share which was to be assigned to each power. Frederick's portion was the smallest both in extent and population. It was West Prussia and Pomerania, with the exception of the seaport of Dantzig and the inland fortress of Thorn. Russia was to have Polish Livonia and the rich provinces to the east of the Dwina; the acquisitions of Austria, though less extensive than those of Russia, in population exceeded those of both her allies united, and were of sufficient importance to receive a new name as the kingdom of Gallacia. And, in the autumn of the same year, the three powers, with an audacity so monstrous as to be almost comical, not only announced to the Poles the resolution which they had adopted, in a manifesto in which the injuries which Poland had in bygone days inflicted on the countries of her spoilers, and their consequent right to recover what had been wrongfully wrested from them, were oddly combined with an enumeration of the advantages which Poland herself was to derive from the proposed measure as one which would give her a more natural and sure boundary than she had enjoyed before, and which required Poland herself to sanction her own mutilation by a formal vote of her own diet.—*Yonge.*

The First Partition, 1772.—The portion assigned to Frederick comprised 9,465 square miles, against 62,500 acquired by Austria and 87,500 by Russia. But the territory was important, for it connected east Prussia with Pomerania and the rest of Frederick's dominions. Above all, the partition staved off a general war. Poor Poland went forth into the desert as the scapegoat of Europe. Since then the cries of the Russian Poles have never ceased their shrill lament in the ears of the civilized world; he would be a bold man who should say that Maria Theresa's prophecy is not still awaiting fulfillment. Besides their undoubted courage and patriotism, the Poles, like the Italians before they were free, have a sort of feminine power of exciting sympathy. The outer world has for many years gazed more or less calmly upon the moral and physical suffering of Christian populations under the Turks; Alsace and Lorraine have been tossed from Germany to France and from France to Germany; Denmark has been crushed and partitioned; Nice and Savoy, the very birthplace of the royal house of Italy, have been sold to France for her help in a war. Yet never have the woes of Armenia, or even, except for a brief interval, of Bulgaria, created so much sympathy as those of Poland. Denmark, Alsace, Lorraine, Nice, Savoy are interesting to their immediate neighbors; the heart of Europe has almost forgotten them.—*Brackenbury.*

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11.

(b) **Second Partition** (1793).—The second partition was, if possible, more atrocious than the first. Russia was for some time engaged in war with Turkey, which resulted in adding a large slice of Turkish territory to Russia. Prussia had been occupied with internal reforms and the restoration of her resources, which had been so nearly exhausted by the Seven Years' War. Meanwhile, Poland had adopted an admirable system of government, and had made an alliance (1790) with Frederick William II., successor to Frederick the Great, whereby the King of Prussia had agreed to assist Poland to prevent interference with her affairs. Despite this fact, when Catherine of Russia, upon a most flimsy pretext, invaded Poland, Frederick declared himself released from his promise, and together Russia and Prussia prepared to despoil Poland of two-thirds of her remaining territory.

11.

(b) **The Second Partition.**—Whichever power was the proposer of the original partition, it is beyond a doubt that the second, which indeed was not a partition, but a complete destruction, was the work of Russia. Prussia was indeed a willing accomplice; and, on this occasion, gave the first instance of that treachery which in after years tainted her grasping policy with a still greater disgrace; concluding, as late as the spring of 1790, a formal treaty with Poland, by which she bound herself to come to her assistance if any "other power should claim a right of interfering in her internal affairs," and still more, "if hostilities should ensue;" and, at the very moment that the treaty was signed, making arrangements to induce the Poles to cede to her Dantzig and Thurn; and to seize upon them by force should Stanislaus refuse to strip his kingdom of cities of such importance.—*Yonge.*

Frederick and Silesia.—Frederick sent an ambassador to Vienna, offering, in the event of his rights in Silesia being conceded, to aid Maria Theresa against her enemies. The queen of Hungary, who regarded the proposal as that of a mere robber, haughtily declined; whereupon Frederick immediately invaded Silesia with an army of 30,000 men. His first victory was gained at Mollwitz on April 10, 1741. Under the impression, in consequence of a furious charge of Austrian cavalry, that the battle was lost, he rode rapidly away at an early stage of the struggle—a mistake which gave rise for a time to the groundless idea that he lacked personal courage. A second Prussian victory was gained at Chotusitz, near Czeslau, on May 17, 1742, by which time Frederick was master of all the fortified places of Silesia. Maria Theresa, in the heat of her struggle with France and the elector of Bavaria, now Charles VII., and pressed by England to rid herself of Frederick, concluded with him, on June 11, 1742, the peace of Breslau, conceding to Prussia Upper and Lower Silesia as far as the Oppa, together with the country of Glatz. Frederick made good use of the next two years, fortifying his new territory, and repairing the evils inflicted upon it by the war. By the death of the prince of East Friesland without heirs, he also gained possession of that country. He knew well that Maria Theresa would not, if she could help it, allow him to remain in Silesia; accordingly, in 1744, alarmed by her victories, he arrived at a secret understanding with France, and pledged himself, with Hesse-Cassel and the palatinate, to maintain the imperial rights of Charles VII., and to defend his hereditary Bavarian lands. Frederick began the second Silesian war by entering Bohemia in August, 1744, and taking Prague. By this brilliant but rash venture he put himself in great danger, and soon had to retreat; but in 1745 he gained the battles of Hohenfriedberg, Sorr, and Hennersdorf; and Leopold of Dessau won for him the victory of Kesselsdorf in Saxony. The latter victory was decisive, and the peace of Dresden (December 25, 1745) assured to Frederick a second time the possession of Silesia.—*Sime.*

The Terrible Lesson was not received in vain. Taught by the dismemberment of their territory, what remained of Poland strove to amend their institutions; the liberum veto was abandoned; and the nobles themselves, taking the lead in the work of reformation, made a voluntary surrender of their privileges for the public good. The example of the French Revolution had penetrated the wilds of Sarmatia, and a new era seemed to open upon the world from its example. On May 3, 1791, a constitution, founded upon the hereditary descent of of the throne, the abolition of the liberum veto, religious toleration, the emancipation of the bourgeois, and the progressive enfranchisement of the serfs, was proclaimed at Warsaw, amid the tears of joy of a people who hoped that they had at last found a period to their misfortunes. The Polish reform was so different from the French, that it would seem as if it was expressly set down by Providence to afford a contrast to that bloody convulsion, and deprive the partitionary powers of a shadow even of justice in the mournful catastrophe which followed.—*Alison.*

In Contemplating that Change humanity has everything to rejoice and glory in, nothing to be ashamed of, nothing to suffer. So far as it has gone, it is probably the most pure public good ever yet conferred on mankind. Anarchy and servitude were at once removed; a throne strengthened for the protection of the people, without trenching on their liberties; foreign cabal abolished, by changing the crown from elective to hereditary; a reigning king, from an heroic love to his country, exerted himself in favor of a family of strangers as if it had been his own. Ten millions of men were placed in a way to be freed gradually, and therefore to themselves safely, not from civil or political chains, which, bad as they are, only fetter the mind, but from substantial bondage. Inhabitants of cities, before without privileges, were placed in the consideration which belongs to that improved and connecting situation of social life. One of the most numerous, proud, and fierce bodies of nobility in the world was arranged only in the foremost rank of free citizens.—*Burke.*

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12.

(c) **Third Partition, 1795.**—The second dismemberment of the kingdom was not accomplished as peacefully as the first. Under the leadership of the patriot, General Thaddeus Kosciusko, who had served as a volunteer under Washington in our own struggle for independence, the Poles made a desperate attempt to maintain their independence. Though contending against vastly superior odds, success at first attended their efforts. But Russia at length sent an army of 80,000 men under the able but cruel General Souvarof, whose very name was sufficient to inspire terror in his enemies. The Poles were defeated, and the third partition followed, which divided what had been left after the second partition, among Russia, Prussia and Austria.

It is estimated that by the three partitions Russia obtained 181,000 square miles with 6,000,000 inhabitants; Austria obtained 45,000 square miles with 3,700,000 inhabitants, and Prussia obtained 57,000 square miles with 2,500,000 inhabitants.



Alexander I., of Russia.

12.

(c) **Third Partition, 1795. They Again Take up Arms.**—In the midst of their internal distractions, and through all the prostration of their national strength, the Poles had never lost their individual courage, or the ennobling feelings of civil independence. They were still the redoubtable hussars who broke the Mussulman ranks under the walls of Vienna, and carried the Polish eagles in triumph to the towers of the Kremlin, whose national cry had so often made the Osmanlis tremble, and who had boasted, in their hours of triumph, that if the heaven itself were to fall, they would support it on the point of their lances. A band of patriots at Warsaw resolved at all hazards to attempt the restoration of their independence, and they made choice of Kosciusko, who was then at Leipsic, to direct their efforts.—*Alison.*

General Thaddeus Kosciusko, a noble Lithuanian, in the prime of life, had learned the theory of war in France, under that most eccentric of all war ministers, the count of St. Germains; he had acquired a practical experience of its duties in America, where he had served as a volunteer in the army with which Washington taught our own generals the difference between carrying on war in the soldier's own country and waging it three thousand miles from their supplies and reinforcements; and, having returned to his own country, after the peace of Versailles, with a mind well stored with military science; a heart deeply imbued with those principles of liberty and independence, of which he had witnessed the triumph in another hemisphere; a courage proof against dangers; and a patriotic firmness invincible alike to threats and temptations, he had eagerly taken arms for his country in the brief campaign of 1792; and, as the commander of a small force of 4,000 men, had distinguished himself in several actions; on one occasion keeping at bay a force more than three times as numerous as his own, throughout an entire day, and, under cover of the night, withdrawing them with comparatively little damage. To him the eyes of those who had resolved to make one more effort to save their country naturally turned as their leader. He was as zealous in the cause as they; and his zeal made him even believe in the possibility of success.—*Yonge.*

Kosciusko.—This illustrious hero, who had received the rudiments of military education in France, had afterward served, not without glory, in the ranks of independence in America. Uniting the Polish enthusiasm, French ability, the ardent friend of liberty, and the enlightened advocate for order, brave, loyal, and generous, he was in every way qualified to head the last struggle of the oldest republic in existence for its national independence. But a nearer approach to the scene of danger convinced him that the hour for action had not yet arrived. The passions, indeed, were awakened, the national enthusiasm was full, but the means of resistance were inconsiderable, and the old divisions of the republic were not so healed as to afford the prospect of the whole national strength being exerted in the defense. But the public indignation could brook no delay; several regiments stationed at Pultusk revolted, and moved towards Gallicia; and Kosciusko, determined not to be absent in the hour of danger, hastened to Cracow, where, on March 3, he closed the gates, and proclaimed the insurrection.—*Alison.*

A Description of Poland a Few Years Before its Extinction, will sufficiently reveal the causes of that event. Two-thirds of the nation were serfs, whose ignorance and squalid misery held them in a condition scarcely different from that of brutes. They were incapable of possessing property; if a crop failed, thousands died from starvation. The remaining third consisted of three orders of nobility, with clergy, lawyers, citizens and Jews. Of

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the magnates, or highest nobles, there were not more than 120, of whom four or five were the heads of powerful factions. The middle class of nobles numbered 20,000 or 30.000 persons, and the lower nobility more than a million. These were an idle ignorant, and often beggarly class of people, shut out by their pride of birth from the thrift and comfort which might have been gained by industry; yet the most insignificant of them could nullify the proceedings of a whole diet by his single veto. The citizens chiefly consisted of 40,000 or 50,000 artisans, who, scattered in wretched villages, were almost as absolutely subject to the oppressions of the nobles as the serfs themselves. Taxation fell only on the Jews, artisans, and clergy; but the finances were wholly destitute of system. The heads of all the departments of government were responsible to the diet and not to the king. To aggravate all these elements of weakness, the nobles clung to their ancient and constitutional privileges of forming armed confederations against the king whenever they were dissatisfied with his policy. — *Thalheimer.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued).— The War of the Austrian Succession, Prussia, Frederick William I., Pragmatic Sanction, Peace of Paris.
8. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued).—The Silesian Wars, First Silesian War, Maria Theresa, Silesia Ceded.
9. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued). — The Seven Years' War, Cause, The War, The Combination Against Frederick, Peace of Hubertsburg.
10. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued). — First Partition ofPoland, Elizabeth, Catherine, Maria Theresa, Frederick.
11. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued). — The Second Partition, Frederick and Silesia, The Terrible Lesson.
12. **EIGHTEENTH CENTURY STRUGGLES** (Continued). — The Third Partition, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, Condition of Poland, Kosciusko.



Light Dragoon, 1760.

QUESTIONS.

7. *What were the causes of the War of the Austrian Succession? What was now the standing of Prussia? Who was Maria Theresa? What can you say of Frederick William I.? What was the Pragmatic Sanction? By what names were these wars known in colonial possessions? Name the conditions of the Treaty of Paris? What was now the condition of Austria?*

8. *What were the results of the first Silesian War? What countries formed an alliance against Austria? What was the action of England? What were the results of the second Silesian War? Describe the appearance of Maria Theresa before the Hungarian Diet? What are your individual opinions in reference to Maria Theresa? What were the conditions of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle?*

9. *What was the cause of the Seven Years' War? What American interests were involved? What were the feelings and actions of Maria Theresa? What was the behavior of Frederick? What was the combination against Frederick? What were the conditions of the Peace of Hubertsburg?*

10. *What had formerly been the rank of Poland as a nation? In what way did Russia obtain an influence in the affairs of Poland? In what way was the First Partition (1772) obtained? What proportion was given each, to Russia, Prussia and Austria? What was the general condition of Poland just prior to the Partition?*

11. *What were the conditions attending the Second Partition? What was the behavior of Prussia in reference to this Partition? What change was now made in the government of Poland? What did Burke say of the new system of Government adopted by Poland?*

12. *What were the results of the Third Partition of Poland? Give the leading events connected with the life of Kosciusko? What is your estimate of him? What is Alison's statement in reference to the Poles just prior to the Third Partition? Give the substance of Thalheimer's statement of the condition of Poland at the time of her extinction?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Prepare a brief sketch giving the leading causes of the growth of Prussia up to the War of the Austrian Succession.*
2. *Prepare a brief biography of Frederick William I.*
3. *Prepare a brief sketch of Maria Theresa.*
4. *What were the conditions, history and results of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle?*
5. *What were the influences of the results of the Seven Years' War on American history?*
6. *Prepare a brief sketch of the life of Kosciusko.*
7. *What, in your opinion, were, up to the date of this lesson, the strong points in Polish history? The weak points?*
8. *Prepare a brief history of the rise of Russia.*

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13. III.—HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS.

At the outbreak of the French Revolution there were five nations in Europe that ranked as the leading powers: Russia, Prussia, Austria, England and France.

1. Russia.—Up to the Eighteenth Century Russia had taken no important part in European affairs. Her people belonged to the Slavic race, but had long been exposed to the inroads of the barbarian Tartars, who for over two hundred years ruled the country. By 1700 Russia had freed herself from Tartar supremacy, but as yet was hemmed in on all sides by other nations.

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13. III.—HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS.

1. Russia. Slavonic Races.—The vast Empire of Russia, as may be readily imagined, is peopled by many different races. These may ethnologically be catalogued as follows:

1. Slavonic races, the most important in numbers and culture. Under this head may be classified: (1) The Great Russians, or Russians properly so called, especially occupying the Governments round about Moscow, and from thence scattered in the north to Novgorod and Vologda; on the south to Kiev and Voronezh; on the east to Penza, Simbirsk, and Viatka, and on the west to the Baltic provinces. Moreover, the Great Russians, as the ruling race, are to be found in small numbers in all quarters of the Empire. They amount to about 40,000,000. (2) Little Russians (Malorossiani), dwelling south of the Russians, upon the shores of the Black Sea. These, together with the Rusniaks, amount to 16,370,000. The Cossacks come under these two races. (3) The White Russians, inhabiting the Western Governments. Their number amounts to 4,000,000. (4) Poles, living in the former kingdom of Poland and the Western Governments of the Empire. Their number amounts to 5,000,000. (5) Servians, Bulgarians, and other Slavs, inhabiting especially Bessarabia and the country called New Russia. Their number reaches 150,000. The Non-Slavonic races comprise either original inhabitants of the country who have been subdued by the Russians, or later comers. Among races originally inhabiting the country, and subjugated by the Russians, are included the Lithuanians and Letts, the Finns, the Samoyeds, the Mongol-Manzhurians, the races of Eastern Siberia, the Turko-Tartar, the Caucasian, the German, and the Hebrew.—*Morrill.*

By 1770 Russia had Freed Herself.—The Russian plan for the campaign of 1770 was on a grand and almost romantic scale. Two armies were to enter Turkey on the north, one by Moldavia, the other by New Servia; two fleets were to set sail, one to scour the Mediterranean, and the other from the Black Sea; the Dardanelles were to be forced, and all these armaments, military and naval, meeting from the north, east, south, and west, at Constantinople, were to overthrow the throne of the sultans. Another and a nobler scheme formed also a part of the design; Greece was to shake off her chains and aid the destruction of her tyrants. This project is ascribed to the gigantic genius of Peter the Great, and it must be confessed that its marked features and character gave it a very probable affinity to the towering offspring of that great man's mind. In February, one Russian fleet under Admiral Spiritoff was on the coasts of the Peloponnesus; and by the beginning of May another squadron reinforced it. The latter was commanded by Elphinston, a Scotchman, who staked his head to the empress that he would force the Dardanelles. So confident was he of success, that, during his stay in London, where he put in on his passage, he freely stated his plan to bombard Constantinople. "A naval fight," said he, "will take place; we shall gain it with God's good-will, and then we shall pass these famous Dardanelles as easily as I drink this pot of beer." The Peloponnesus, Thessaly, and the "Isles of Greece" rose up in arms at the sight of the Russian ships. On the 5th of July the Russians burnt the Turkish fleet of above twenty-five ships in the straits of Scio, and Elphinston sailed to the Dardanelles. The Russians, either through fear or jealousy, refused to accompany him; he sailed alone into the midst of the channel, without firing a single gun, cast anchor, ordered a flourish of trumpets and drums, drank tea, and rejoined the fleet. But so disgusted was he at his disappointment that he left the service, and returned home. There is no doubt that the Russians might have struck a decisive blow, the Turks being almost entirely unprepared. So chimerical did the project appear to the Turkish minister when the French ambassador warned him of it, that he took up a map, and pointing out Petersburg, said to him. "Show me how a fleet can sail from there to here! We have never had any Russians on the south; we can only fear them on the north." But such indecision and discord prevailed in the Russian fleet, that they took up their winter quarters in the island of Paros without having struck any effective blow.—*Fletcher.*

Extraordinary Influence of Religion in Russia.—In this eternal conflict between the principles of good and evil, there is one, and one only, sheet-anchor to which Russia has to trust, and it constitutes the grand distinction between European and ancient civilization. Religion is all-powerful with the bulk of the nation; it forms the true national bond of the Empire; the foundation at once of the authority of the throne and the morality of the people. When Alexander, amid the terrors of the French invasion, issued proclamations, breathing devout confidence in Almighty protection, and invoking the prayers of the Church to the Throne of Grace to aid the warriors in the deliverance of their country, he appeared to the astonished French to have gone back to the days of the Crusades, and to utter an incomprehensible jargon of mysticism and superstition. He spoke the language, however, of all others the most calculated to rouse the national efforts; he touched a chord which vibrated alike in the hearts of the rich and the poor; he inspired that lofty spirit, that sublime patriotism, which, looking for its reward in another world, is superior to all the dangers and temptations of the present. The lever was well worth the wielding which broke the power of Napoleon; the enthusiasm not to be despised which fired the torches of Moscow.—*Alison.*

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14.

(a) **Peter the Great** became Czar of Russia in 1689, and immediately set about raising his country to a position of importance among the other European nations. His first object was to secure a seaport. This he accomplished by seizing a Turkish port on the Black sea. A second ambition was to possess a fleet. To secure this Peter journeyed to Holland and England and worked as a common laborer in the ship-yards until he had mastered the art of ship-building, which he taught to his people. A third desire was to secure an outlet on the Baltic. This desire was gratified by the war with Sweden (see "War between Sweden and Russia").



Peter the Great Saved by His Mother.

14.

(a) **Peter the Great.**—From the age of ten, when he became joint-king with his demented half-brother, this youthful czar was plotted against by his unscrupulous step-sister, the regent Sophia. When seventeen years old, he grasped the sceptre for himself (1689). At once he began to civilize and elevate his savage subjects. Having organized some troops after the European manner and built a small flotilla, he sailed down the Don and captured Azof, the key of the Euxine, and Russia's first seaport on the south. He next resolved to visit foreign countries and learn the secret of their progress.

Visit to Western Europe.—Leaving the government in the hands of an old noble, he accordingly went to Amsterdam, where he hired as a laborer in a ship-yard. Under the name of Peter Zimmermann, he plied his adze, earned his regular wages, lived in two rooms in a garret, mended his clothes, and cooked his own food. Meanwhile, besides learning how to build a ship, he studied the manufactures and institutions of this famous Dutch city, where he picked up blacksmithing, enough of cobbling to make a pair of slippers, and of surgery to bleed and to pull teeth. Then, crossing to England, he was heartily received by William III., and presented with a fine yacht, which he soon learned to manage with the best of the sailors.—*Steele.*

A Second Ambition was to Possess a Fleet.—One day, Peter, at one of his summer palaces of Ismaelhof, saw upon the shore of the lake the remains of a pleasure boat of peculiar construction. He had never before seen any boat but such as was propelled by oars. The peculiarity of the structure of this arrested his attention, and being informed that it was constructed for sails as well as for oars, he ordered it to be repaired, that he might make trial of it. It so chanced that the shipwright, Brandt, from Holland, who had built the boat, was found, and the tzar, to his great delight, enjoyed, for the first time in his life, the pleasures of a sail. He immediately gave directions for the boat to be transported to the great lake near the convent of the Trinity, and here he ordered two frigates and three yachts to be built. For months he amused himself piloting his little fleet over the waves of the lake. Like many a plebeian boy, the tzar had now acquired a passion for the sea, and he longed to get a sight of the ocean. With this object in view, in 1694 he set out on a journey of nearly a thousand miles to Arcangel, on the shores of the White Sea. Taking his shipwrights with him, he had a small vessel constructed, in which he embarked for the exploration of the Frozen Ocean, a body of water which no sovereign had seen before him. A Dutch man-of-war, which chanced to be in the harbor at Arcangel, and all the merchant fleet there accompanied the tzar on this expedition. The sovereign himself had already acquired much of the art of working a ship, and on this trip devoted all his energies to improvement in the science and practical skill of navigation.—*Abbot.*

The Reforms Introduced into Russia by Peter the Great are too well known to need recapitulation here. There will be always many different opinions about this wonderful man. Some have not hesitated to say that he "knouted" Russia into civilization; others can see traces of the hero mixed with much clay. One of the darkest pages in the annals of his reign, is that upon which is written the fate of his unfortunate son, Alexis. All Russia seems but one vast monument of his genius. He gave her six new provinces, a footing upon two seas, a regular army trained on the European system, a large fleet, an admiralty, and a naval academy; besides these, some educational establishments, a gallery of painting and sculpture, and a public library. Nothing escaped his notice, even to such minutiæ as the alteration of the Russian letters, to make them more adapted to printing, and changing the dress of his subjects so as to be more in conformity with European costume. All this interference savored of despotism, no doubt, but it led to the consolidation of a great nationality.—*Morrill.*

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15.

(b) **Catherine II.**—Peter the Great died in 1725. For forty years Russian history was comparatively uneventful. But in 1762 Catherine II. succeeded to the throne, and for thirty-four years pushed forward the interests of Russia with untiring and unprincipled zeal. In two wars against the Turks the boundaries of Russia were extended on the south, while in conjunction with Austria and Prussia, Poland was partitioned and the territory increased in the west. Thus in one century Russia had become a powerful nation. "She was near the heart of Europe, and also extended to the heart of Asia. She was the only country of the continent that could increase indefinitely by absorbing barbarian lands." "Russia has entered the sphere of European affairs, but she was not a part of Europe. She was something different; she was Russia."



Old Print of the Siege of Gibraltar, 1781.

15.

A Great Codification of the Laws took place under Catherine, which may be styled the sixth great period of Russian legislation. The serfs, however, were not benefited by these changes. In 1767 an ukase forbade them to bring any complaints against their masters. The latter had the power of sending their serfs to Siberia as a punishment, or handing them over to be enlisted in the army. The public sale of serfs was not put an end to till the reign of Alexander I. (1801-25). The country was now divided into governments for the better administration of justice, each government being subdivided into districts. Catherine also took away from the monasteries their lands and serfs, and allowed them payments according to their importance from the state revenues. The plans of Peter I. were thus fully carried out, and the church became entirely dependent on the state. In spite of her correspondence and affected sympathies with Voltaire, Diderot, and many of the advanced French thinkers, Catherine showed great opposition to the principles of the French Revolution, and the policy of the latter part of her reign was reactionary. . . . Whatever her private vices may have been, she was unquestionably a woman of great genius, and the only sovereign worthy of Russia, who had appeared since the days of Peter the Great.—*Kropotkine.*

The Statue of Peter the Great.—The empress resolved to erect, in St. Petersburg, a statue of Peter the Great, which should be worthy of his renown. A French artist, M. Falconet, was engaged to execute this important work. He conceived the design of having, for a pedestal, a rugged rock, to indicate the rude and unpolished character of the people to whom the emperor had introduced so many of the arts of civilization. Immediate search was made to find a suitable rock. About eight miles from the city a huge boulder was discovered, forty-two feet long, thirty-four feet broad, and twenty-one feet high. It was found, by geometric calculation, that this enormous mass weighed three millions two hundred thousand pounds. It was necessary to transport it over heights and across morasses to the Neva, and there to float it down to the place of its destination. The boulder lay imbedded a few feet in the ground, absolutely detached from all other rock, and with no similar substance anywhere in the vicinity. It would seem impossible that a mass so stupendous could be moved. But difficulties only roused the energies of Catherine. In the first place, a solid road was made for its passage. After four months' labor, with very ingenious machinery, the rock was so far raised as to enable them to slip under it heavy plates of brass, which rested upon cannon balls five inches in diameter, and which balls ran in grooves of solid metal. Then, by windlasses, worked by four hundred men, it was slowly forced along its way. Having arrived at the Neva, it was floated down the river by what are called camels, that is, immense floating fabrics constructed with air chambers so as to render them very bouyant. This statue as completed is regarded as one of the grandest ever executed. The tzar is represented as on horseback, ascending a steep rock, the summit of which he is resolved to attain. In an Asiatic dress and crowned with laurel, he is pointing forward with his right hand, while with his left he holds the bridle of the magnificent charger on which he is mounted. The horse stands on his hind feet bounding forward, trampling beneath a brazen serpent, emblematic of the opposition the monarch encountered and overcame. It bears the simple inscription, "To Peter the First, by Catherine the Second, 1782." The whole expense of the statue amounted to over four hundred thousand dollars, an immense sum for that day, when a dollar was worth more than many dollars now.—*Abbot.*

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16.

2. **Austria.**—Originally a margraviate established by Charlemagne near the close of the Eighth Century, the country had progressed with varying fortunes until at the close of the Seventeenth Century it was one of the first powers of Europe. Hungary had been joined to Austria, and the imperial power of Germany, theoretically conferred by election, was by custom always given to Austria. This country occupies a leading place in the international struggles of the century. (See Eighteenth Century Struggles.)

(a) The close of the Seven Years' War found Maria Theresa firmly established in her Austrian possessions. She "now zealously devoted herself to improving the condition of her people and country. She established schools, removed feudal hardships, improved the condition of the serfs, reformed ecclesiastical abuses, and fostered industry and commerce. . . The empress died November 29, 1780, in the sixty-fourth year of her age and the forty-first of her reign. She was a woman of many and great virtues, with few weaknesses, and effected more for Austria than any of her predecessors." . .

16.

2. **Austria.**—Maria Theresa is one of the noblest and best of women who have made themselves a name in history. In the spring of her life, nobly built, her dignity of majesty and charm of womanhood combined to turn the scale of her fortunes at the most critical period of her career. The Elector of Cologne acknowledged her only by the title of archduchess. The Elector Palatine sent her a letter by the common post, superscribed, "To the Archduchess Maria Theresa," and the King of Spain refused her any other title than Duchess of Tuscany. Her husband was a poor creature, who treated her without regard, and was no strength to her in her trials. At first only the King of Prussia seemed to stand by her; he promised his support whilst collecting his troops for a descent on Silesia. It was with surprise, therefore, that the young queen received an insolent demand for Silesia from the rude messenger of Frederick II. Even the ministers of the Prussian king blushed at their master's conduct.—*Baring-Gould.*

Frederick's Treatment of Maria Theresa.—No prince in Europe was so bound to aid Charles' daughter as Frederick, who owed his very life to her father's intercession. But obligations of gratitude, scruples of conscience, of considerations of anything but personal interest, were never to influence the course of the young prince, who, having just attained sovereign power, longed to convince himself and the world of its reality. He saw in the sex of Maria Theresa, and in her situation, only a helplessness which pointed her out as a promising object for immediate attack. He knew that the treasury at Vienna was nearly exhausted; that the Austrian army had been allowed to dwindle down to a force scarcely exceeding 30,000 men; while he himself had upwards of 80,000, admirably trained, and fully provided, and an exchequer which his father's economical if not avaricious management had left better filled than that of any other sovereign. He looked around him for a pretext for war; and those who seek such are rarely at a difficulty in finding one. He set up a claim to Silesia, a province of the Bohemian kingdom. It was not altogether a new claim, but it was more untenable than if it had never before been heard of, since one of his ancestors in the preceding century, after advancing it, had formally abandoned it, and had even received a small indemnification for so doing. Nor, indeed, though Frederick now reasserted it in a public manifesto, did he pretend to conceal that he had no strong belief in its validity or justice. In one of his familiar letters he confessed to his correspondent that his actuating motive was a desire for glory, and the pleasure of seeing his name in newspapers, and hereafter in history; and in the autobiographical memoirs which he had left behind him, he admits the inducements to have been the "deplorable state of the court at Vienna; with its finances in disorder, its army ruined, its ministers disunited, and a youthful, inexperienced princess at the head of the government." . . . And with such rapidity did he form his resolution and act upon it, that, though it was not till the twentieth of October that the Emperor died, in the first week of December he despatched his envoy to Vienna to demand the cession of Silesia, and at the same time, with a discourteous bad faith, refused to wait for an answer to his demand, but at once poured his troops into the province. For a time he was unopposed and successful; Breslau, the capital, and all the chief fortresses, were wholly unprovided with means of resistance, and surrendered without a struggle; but when, by the beginning of April, the queen had been able to assemble an army sufficient to give him battle, his own share in the action which ensued threw no little doubt not only on his military skill, but for a moment even on his courage.—*Yonge.*

The Death of Maria Theresa.—For fifteen years she had sorrowed for her husband, with a grief, the loneliness of which can perhaps only be understood by women whose station is exalted above the consolations of ordinary human life. Like one whose sorrows have been shared by every inhabitant of these isles, she continued to wear widow's weeds. August 18 she always descended to the vaults where the body of Kaiser Frantz lay, and sat in meditation beside his coffin; faithful beyond death, though in her case the man whom she mourned had been a burden to her rather than a guide and counsellor. In November, 1780, she caught a chill which fell upon her lungs and she sank quickly. When the hour of death approached she refused to sleep, saying, "For fifteen years I have been making ready for death. I must meet him awake."—*Brackenbury.*

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17.

(b) **Joseph II.**—Maria Theresa was succeeded by her son Joseph II. "He attempted a number of changes, of which several were praiseworthy in their objects, but abrupt and premature in their operation, so that in the end they were productive of evil consequences. He sought to establish a system of central government and uniformity of legislation throughout his dominions; enjoyed the exclusive use of the German language in all schools, courts of justice, etc.; granted free and unreserved toleration to all sects of Christians; abolished numerous convents and monasteries; dismantled various fortresses, and did away with primogeniture and feudal vassalage. . . . He was, says Mr. Carlyle, 'a man of very high qualities, and much too conscious of them; a man of ambition without bounds; one of those fatal men—fatal to themselves first of all—who mistake half genius for whole; and rush on the second step without having made the first.'"



Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke.

17.

(b) **Joseph II.**—With the accession of her son Joseph II. in 1780 a new era began for Austria. The work deferred rather than inaugurated by Theresa was then taken up by a monarch whose conceptions of social and religious reform left little for the boldest innovators of France ten years later to add. Passionately desirous of elevating every class of his subjects at the same time that he ignored all their habits and wishes, Joseph attempted to transform the motley and priest-ridden collection of nations over whom he ruled into a single homogeneous body, organized after the model of France and Prussia, worshiping in the spirit of a tolerant and enlightened Christianity, animated in its relation of class to class by the humane pilosophy of the eighteenth century. In the first year of his reign Joseph abolished every jurisdiction that did not directly emanate from the crown, and scattered an army of officials from Ostend to the Dniester to conduct the entire public business of his dominions under the immediate direction of the Vienna Offices of State. In succeeding years edict followed edict, dissolving monasteries, forbidding church festivals and pilgrimages, securing the equal protection of the State to every form of Christian worship, abolishing the exemption from land-tax and the monopoly of public offices enjoyed by the nobility, transforming the Universities from dens of monkish ignorance into schools of secular learning, liberating the press from the censorship of the church, converting the peasant's personal service into a rent-charge, and giving him in the officer of the Crown a protector and an arbiter in all his dealings with his former lord. Noble and enlightened in his aims, Joseph, like every other reformer of the eighteenth century, underrated the force which the past exerts over the present; he could see nothing but prejudice and unreason in the attachment to provincial custom or time-honored opinion; he knew nothing of that moral law which limits the success of revolutions by the conditions which precede them. What was worst united with what was best in resistance to his reforms. The bigots of the University of Louvain, who still held out against the discoveries of Newton, excited the mob to insurrection against Joseph, as the enemy of religion; the Magyar landowners in Hungary resisted a system which extinguished the last vestiges of their national independence at the same time that it destroyed the harsh dominion which they themselves exercised over their peasantry. Joseph alternated between concession and the extreme of autocratic violence. At one moment he resolved to sweep away every local right that fettered the exercise of his power; then, after throwing the Netherlands into successful revolt, and forcing Hungary to the verge of armed resistance, he revoked his unconstitutional ordinances (January 28, 1790), and restored all the institutions of the Hungarian monarchy which existed at the date of his accession.—*Fyffe.*

Among all the German princes who ascended the imperial throne Joseph II. takes one of the first places. He was the son of Maria Theresa and inherited from her the good qualities which made her the darling of her people. This noble emperor devoted his whole life to the service of the state, and at a time when gambling was the rage never played for money. On the occasion of a visit to Versailles he declined to take a hand at cards. "A prince who loses," he said, "loses the money of his subjects." He was not a drinker or a gourmand. He loved music, and played the violincello. He was eager to redress wrongs, almost too eager, for he made sweeping changes before his people were prepared to accept them, and Frederick the Great was right when he said that Joseph always took the second step before he made the first.—*Baring-Gould.*

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18.

3. **Prussia.**—The origin of Prussia, like that of Austria, dates back to the Middle Ages, when the mark of Brandenburg was established by the successors of Charlemagne; like Russia, it first came into prominence in European affairs near the beginning of the Eighteenth Century. The Great Elector, Frederick William(1640-1688), transformed his possessions from a poor insignificant "appendage of the empire" into a power that had to be reckoned with in all European combinations. Though the progress of the country was somewhat interrupted by the inefficient rule of Frederick I. (1688-1713), it had the good fortune to be ruled during most of the Eighteenth Century by two of the most remarkable monarchs of modern times, Frederick William I., and Frederick II., better known as Frederick the Great.



William Pitt.

(a) **Frederick William I., 1713-1740.**—Under this ruler the country enjoyed twenty-five years of peace, which was the best preparation the country could have had for the vigorous policy of the next king, Frederick the Great. "By carefully husbanding his finances, Frederick William filled his treasury, and was able to keep on foot one of the largest and best disciplined armies in Europe, thereby securing for Prussia an influence in European councils altogether disproportionate to its size and population. In internal management he made Prussia the model state of Europe, though his administration was of a purely arbitrary type, in which the estates were never consulted, and his ministers were merely clerks to register his decrees. . . . Attempts were made to better the condition of the peasants, and the worst features of villainage were abolished in the crown domain. . . . The agricultural and industrial interests of the country were fostered with great zeal."

18.

3. **Prussia.** (a) **Frederick William I.**—He had, indeed, inherited his father's desire to augment and extend the reputation and power of his kingdom; he dissented widely from most of his views of the means by which the result was to be accomplished. Being a man of the most narrow mind, he discouraged commerce, believing, with a strange political economy, that its chief effort was to render his people effeminate, and to implant in them a fondness for foreign fashions. "Nothing," he said, "was ever got by the pen; acquisitions could only be made by the sword": and, accordingly, his army was from the first the sole object of his attention. And even that, though he himself had served in the Netherlands during the war of the Succession, he had not learned from Marlborough and Eugene to regard with the capacious views of a great general. He looked at it with a mixture of the feelings of a recruiting officer and a drill sergeant; even disbanding the militia that it might not interfere with the levies for the regular army, and instituting an unprecedently severe code of military law for the enforcement of discipline. To bring all ranks more completely under its obligations, he also abolished the last relics of the feudal system which still lingered in his German states, and by which the chief tenants of the crown were bound to render military service; commuting the burdens for which they were liable for a yearly payment, which replenished his military chest, and thus enabled him to raise additional regiments without having recourse to increased taxation. Nothing could cramp the genius of the people more than to have the whole energy of the government directed into one channel, and to find a knowledge of military drill the sole avenue to royal favor and distinction. Yet it cannot be denied that this king's unremitting attention to his favorite object did not also prove advantageous to the kingdom in subsequent years, when the sceptre had passed into other hands; for, as far as his own objects were concerned, his system was eminently successful. In his father's time the army barely amounted to 39,000 men. At the end of twenty-seven years he left to his successor between eighty and ninety thousand, of which an

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unusual proportion were cavalry and artillery; a force inferior to that of no sovereign, but the king of France, though the population of his kingdom was almost the smallest in Christendom. — *Yonge.*

Frederick William I., King of Prussia, the father of Frederick the Great, was a brutal, hard man, but not without some good points in his character. He hated ceremony, but not ceremony only—the very decencies of life. His great amusement was to get foreign guests into his Tabagie, or smoking-room, and there ply them with beer till he made them sick. He despised and hated learning, and when Baron Gundling, a very learned man, was invited to dine with the king, Frederick William had an ape introduced, dressed exactly like the savant, and made the ape sit by him at table. To show his scorn for learning, he moreover insisted on having Gundling, when he died, buried in a cask, instead of a coffin. His daughter, in her memoirs, says: "My brother Frederick told me that one morning, when he went into the king's room, our father seized him by the hair, flung him down, and after he had exhausted the strength of his arm on the boy's poor body he dragged him to the window, took the curtain rope, and twisted it round his neck. The prince had presence of mind and strength to grasp his father's hands and scream for help. A chamberlain came in and plucked the boy away from the king."—*Baring-Gould.*

The Poor Jew.—As Frederick William was riding round Berlin one day he saw a poor Jew slink out of his way. He stopped, seized him, and asked him his reason. "Sire, I was afraid of you!" said the scared Hebrew. The king caught him by the nape of the neck, and, laying on to him with his riding whip, with fury roared, "Love me! You shall love me! I'll teach you to love me!"—*Baring-Gould.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS.**—*Russia*, Slavonic Races, By 1770 Russia had Freed Herself, Extraordinary Influence of Religion in Russia.
14. **HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS** (Continued).—*Peter the Great*, His ambition to Possess a Fleet, The Reforms Introduced into Russia by Peter the Great.
15. **HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS** (Continued).—*Catherine*, A Great Codification of the Laws, Catherine and Her Grandchildren, The Statue of Peter the Great.
16. **HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS** (Continued).—*Austria*, Maria Theresa, Frederick's Treatment of Maria Theresa.
17. **HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS** (Continued).—*Joseph II.*, A New Era for Austria, Joseph II.
18. **HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS** (Continued).—*Prussia*, Frederick William I., Features of His Reign.

QUESTIONS.

13. *Name the leading nations at the outbreak of the French Revolution? What people composed the Empire of Russia? Give the chief plan of the campaign of Russia, 1770? To what extent does the Russian religion influence the people?*

14. *What were the first steps taken by Peter the Great? Describe his visit to Western Europe? What great reforms did he inaugurate? Relate the story of Abbot in reference to Peter's ambition to possess a fleet? Give Merrill's statement in reference to the reforms introduced by Peter the Great?*

15. *How long did Catherine II. reign? What may be said of her character? Wisdom as a ruler? In what way did she reform the Russian laws? How did she commemorate the name of Peter the Great? What do you consider the strong features of her reign? What is your estimate of Catherine as a ruler?*

16. *What was now the position of Austria in the eyes of the world? What was the condition of Austria at the close of the Seven Years' War? What reforms did Maria Theresa now inaugurate? What can you say of the life of Maria Theresa? What were her last words?*

17. *Who succeeded Maria Theresa? What changes did Joseph II. attempt? Name the leading reforms inaugurated by Joseph? How does Joseph rank as a ruler?*

18. *What was the origin of Prussia? How was this country first brought into prominence? What was the condition of Prussia under the rule of Frederick William I.? Give some of the leading political ideas of Frederick William I.? Relate the story of William's "Tabagie"? Give instances of Frederick William I.'s peculiarities?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Prepare a brief review giving the geographical position and leading characteristics of the people inhabiting Russia.*
2. *Prepare a brief account of the life of Peter the Great, noting particularly the events which have most influenced civilization.*
3. *Give the history of the "Great Codification of the Laws" inaugurated by Catherine II. How did this work influence Russian history?*
4. *What do you consider the commendable features of the reign of Catherine? Why?*
5. *Prepare a brief history of the origin and growth of Austria. What influences have most aided this people? What retarded?*
6. *What is your estimate of the rule of Maria Theresa? Of her private life? Give reasons for your answers.*
7. *Carefully examine arguments pro and con in reference to Frederick's treatment of Maria Theresa Give reasons for your conclusions.*
8. *What, in your opinion, were the events which most aided the growth of Prussia? Give reasons for your statements.*

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19.

(b) **Frederick the Great, 1740-1786.**—The fortunes of Prussia in the War of the Austrian Succession and in the Seven Years' War have already been told. (See Eighteenth Century Struggles.) These wars placed Prussia among the first powers of Europe, but they at the same time left her one of the most impoverished. "The misery and poverty indirectly attendant on the war were incalculable. Numerous Prussian towns and villages were destroyed or made tenantless; large tracts were left uncultivated for want of laborers; and famine reigned to such an extent that even the seed-corn was converted into bread." But Frederick proved himself not less great in peace than in war. "Foreign colonists were invited to repeople the deserted villages; taxes were in several instances remitted for a series of years; the horses of the army were employed in farm labor; and individual effort in every department was liberally supported by the government. By 1770 nearly all the ruined villages had been rebuilt; the ground was again under cultivation; order had been restored; the vacant offices had been filled; and the debased currency had been called in." Religious toleration and freedom of speech were marked features of Frederick's policy.

The next king was a man of inferior talents. Lacking both wisdom and energy, he allowed the affairs of the kingdom to deteriorate. Religious liberty and freedom of the press were abrogated; the army lost its efficiency, and the finances of the kingdom were exhausted. The greatness of Prussia had thus far been the greatness of her monarchs. Independence and self-government among her people were yet to be developed.

19.

(b) **Frederick the Great, 1740-1786. Frederick's Early Life.**—He was brought up with extreme rigor, his father devising a scheme of education which was intended to make him a hardy soldier, and prescribing for him every detail of his conduct. So great was Frederick William's horror of everything which did not seem to him practical, that he strictly excluded Latin from the list of his son's studies. Frederick, however, had free and generous impulses which could not be restrained by the sternest system. Encouraged by his mother, and under the influence of his governess, Madame de Roucoulle, and of his first tutor, Duhan, a French refugee, he acquired an excellent knowledge of French and a taste for literature and music. He even received secret lessons in Latin, which his father had invested with all the charms of forbidden fruit. As he grew up he became extremely dissatisfied with the dull and monotonous life he was compelled to lead, and his discontent was heartily shared by his sister, Wilhelmina, a bright and intelligent young princess for whom Frederick had a warm affection. Frederick William, seeing the divergence of his son's tastes from his own, gradually conceived for him an intense dislike, which often found expression in violent outbursts of anger.—*Sime.*

His First Care after the war was, as far as possible, to enable the country to recover from the terrific blows by which it had been almost destroyed; and he was never, either before or after, seen to better advantage than in the measures he adopted for this end. Although his resources had been so completely drained that he had been forced to melt the silver in his palaces and to debase the coinage, his energy soon brought back the national prosperity. Pomerania and Neumark were freed from taxation for two years, Silesia for six months. Many nobles whose lands had been wasted received corn for seed; his war horses were within a few months to be found on farms all over Prussia; and money was freely spent in the re-erection of houses which had been destroyed. . . . Unfortunately, he adopted the French ideas of excise, and the French methods of imposing and collecting taxes—a system known as the Regie. This system secured for him a large revenue, but it led to a vast amount of petty tyranny, which was all the more intolerable because it was carried out by French officials. It was continued to the end of Frederick's reign, and nothing did so much to injure his otherwise immense popularity. He was quite aware of the discontent the system excited, and the goodnature with which he tolerated the criticisms directed against it and he is illustrated by a well-known incident. Riding along the Jäger Strasse one day, he saw a crowd of people. "See what it is," he said to the groom who was attending him. "They have something posted up about your majesty," said the groom returning. Frederick, riding forward, saw a caricature of himself: "King in very melancholy guise," says Preuss (as translated by Carlyle), seated on a stool, a coffee mill between his knees, diligently grinding with the one hand, and with the other picking up any bean that might have fallen. "Hang it lower," said the king, beckoning his groom with a wave of the finger; "lower, that they may not have to hurt their necks about it." No sooner were the words spoken, which spread instantly, than there arose from the crowd one universal huzzah of joy. They tore the caricature into a thousand pieces, and rolled after the king with loud, "*Lebe Hoch*, our Frederick forever!" as he rode slowly away. There are scores of anecdotes about Frederick, but not many so well authenticated as this.—*Sime.*

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20.

4. **England.** (a) **Anne (1702-1714).**—Parties and party strife were essential features of English politics. The two parties were called Whigs and Tories. They were divided chiefly on the questions of the Church and of the succession to the throne. The Whigs favored the Low Church party, with freedom of worship to all Trinitarian Protestants. The Tories favored the High Church party, opposing the toleration of Dissenters. The Whigs favored the Act of Settlement, which, in providing for a Protestant succession, recognized the supremacy of Parliament over the king. The Tories recognized the principle of hereditary right and desired the restoration of the Stuart line. The intrigues of party leaders form the most important feature of the internal history of the reign. England and Scotland were united as one kingdom in 1707. In foreign affairs England pursued a vigorous policy, marked by Marlborough's brilliant campaigns in the War of the Spanish Succession. The interest of England in this war was chiefly due (1) to a desire to prevent Louis XIV. from assisting in the restoration of the deposed Stuart line to the English throne, and (2) to the rivalry with France for possession of America.



Queen Anne.

20.

The Act of Settlement.—In 1700 the death of the young Duke of Gloucester, the only surviving child of the Princess Anne, rendered it necessary for parliament to make some further provisions for the succession to the throne, and these were embodied in the Act of Settlement, 1700-1. "There was no question," says Hallam, "that the Princess Sophia was the fittest object of the nation's preference." For though many persons stood between her and the direct hereditary right, they were all Catholics, and she was at least nominally a Protestant. All prior claims of inheritance were therefore set aside and annulled; and the Princess Sophia was made the source of a new royal line. It was determined to accompany this settlement by additional securities for the liberty of the subject, consisting for the most part of those clauses which had been originally proposed in the rough draft of the Declaration of Rights and subsequently dropped out in deference to the wishes of the Prince of Orange. Taken, therefore, independently, these clauses may be regarded for the most part as a supplement to the Bill of Rights, with some few additional innovations. Practically, however, they were an unreasonable vote of censure on William's conduct during the reign, passed in a spirit of bitter hostility by a Tory parliament. These articles were seven in number:

1. The sovereign must be a member of the Church of England

2. If the sovereign is a foreigner, that country shall not be obliged to go to war for the defense of his foreign dominions.

3. All matters connected with the government and laws of the kingdom shall be transacted by the advice of the Privy Council, who shall be responsible.

4. Aliens born shall be incapable of holding any office, of sitting in Parliament, or of receiving grants of land in England.

5. Holders of places of profit or pensions under the crown shall be incapable of sitting in the House of Commons.

6. Judges shall hold their places during good behavior, and shall be removed only on petition of both Houses of Parliament.

7. A pardon under the great seal cannot be pleaded as a defense to a parliamentary impeachment.—*Skottowe.*

England and Scotland United.—The year 1707 was rendered memorable by the constitutional, or Parliamentary Union, of England and Scotland. For a long time the policy of uniting England and Scotland into one kingdom had been seriously considered by leading statesmen in the two kingdoms, but the project was long delayed by religious differences and commercial jealousies. Scotland would not bear any portion of the English national debt. England refused to yield any part of her monopoly of trade with her colonies. The English Churchmen longed for the restoration of Episcopacy in Scotland, while the Scotch Presbyterians refused to listen even to the legal toleration of Episcopalians.—*Clare.*

Results of Union.—The two nations whom the union brought together have ever since remained one. England gained in the removal of a constant danger of treason and war. To Scotland the union opened up new avenues of wealth which the energy of its people turned to wonderful account. The farms of Lothian have become models of agricultural skill. A fishing town on the Clyde has grown into the rich and populous Glasgow. Peace and culture have changed the wild clansmen of the Highlands into herdsmen and farmers. Nor was the change followed by any loss of national spirit. The world has hardly seen a mightier or more rapid development of national energy than that of Scotland after the union. All that passed away was the jealousy which had parted since the days of Edward the First two peoples whom a common blood and common speech proclaimed to be one.—*Green.*

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21.

(b) **George I., 1714-1727.**—Upon the death of Anne without heir, George, Elector of Hanover, ascended the throne in accordance with the Act of Settlement. His reign was disturbed by an attempt to place on the throne the son of James II. The Pretender landed in Scotland, but was soon defeated. A rage for speculation seized the people. The South Sea bubble hopelessly ruined great numbers of people. From this reign dates the beginning of modern cabinet government. Previous to this time the king had selected his own advisors, but George I. was densely ignorant of English affairs, not being able even to speak the language. Accordingly he adopted the plan of choosing a chief (prime) minister, and leaving to him the selection of the other members of the cabinet. As the Tories favored the restoration of the Stuarts, it was but natural that George I. should favor the Whigs. The Whigs, moreover, had a powerful leader in Walpole. Political methods were shamelessly corrupt.



George I.

21.

(b) **George I., 1714-1727. Rage for Speculation.**—It is also remarkable that a wild spirit of gambling had taken possession of society from top to bottom. Mississippi schemes and South Sea bubbles were but one expression of a recklessness which was universal. If common men gambled in shares, monarchs habitually staked with light hearts their empires on the chances of war. And this they did regardless of the social cancers, luxury, vice, misery, which were eating the hearts of nations. While Louis XIV. was spending vast sums on his wars, his mistresses, and his fortifications, Vauban estimated that every tenth man in France was an actual mendicant, five-tenths did not absolutely beg, but were on the verge of starvation; three-tenths were ill at ease, embarrassed with debts and lawsuits; and even of the remaining tenth—the army, the bar and the clergy, the high noblesse, the distinguished noblesse, the officials, the good tradesmen and burghers having property, perhaps a hundred thousand families in all—not more than one-tenth were really in easy circumstances.—*Brackenbury.*

The South Sea Bubble.—The South Sea Company had been founded in 1711 by Harley. In guarantee for the payment of the national debt, important privileges had then been accorded to him. In 1719 the directors of the company proposed to liquidate the public debt in twenty-six years, upon condition that the different claims were to be concentrated in their hands, and that they would be supplied with new privileges as well as great latitude in their negotiations. The Bank of England disputed with the South Sea Company the honor and supposed profit of this enterprise, which was put up at auction. A bill of Parliament assured the monopoly to the company, which had engaged to pay seven and a half million sterling. In order to sustain this enormous burden, the directors plunged into the wildest speculations. Walpole had predicted the fatal effects, but without measuring the criminal folly of the leaders, and the stupid avidity of the followers. The shares of the company increased from one hundred and thirty to a thousand pounds sterling; while new societies were formed for the working of the most insane industries. Raising the wrecks upon the coast of Ireland, the freshening of the waters of the sea, the fabrication of the oil of turnsole, the importation of donkeys from Spain, the fattening of pork, formed simultaneously the objects of fictitious speculations, suddenly arrested at the instigation of the South Sea Company, jealous and anxious to concentrate upon their enterprise all the energy of the stock-jobbers. Exchange Alley became the rival of Quincampoix street; the greatest lords, the most delicate ladies, ecclesiastics, elbowed merchants and servants, all hurrying to secure for themselves the new stocks put in circulation, and the fabulous profits which were expected from them. The Prince of Wales himself consented to become a director of the company for the working of copper mines in Wales. The intervention of the ministry was necessary to threaten the company with prosecution, before his royal highness would consent to withdraw with a profit of £40,000. The edifice of Law, in France, began to totter; the ruin of the fictitious companies in England soon involved all reasonable and legitimate speculations. In a few weeks the stock of the South Sea Company fell below three hundred pounds sterling; the suddenness of the catastrophe seriously involved the English speculators. Everywhere families were ruined, fortunes the most solid were shaken, and character and reputations were lost.—*Guizot.*

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22.

(c) **George II., 1727-1760.**—Walpole continued as prime minister until 1742, when he was compelled to resign. Another attempt was made to restore the old Stuart line in the person of a grandson of James II., Charles Edward, the young Pretender. Landing in Scotland, he at first met with success, but was finally defeated at Culloden. The social life of England was coarse and intemperate. A great religious revival sprang up which led to the organization of the Methodists. During the latter part of the reign, William Pitt, the great commoner, became a leader in politics, and to him much of England's success was due.

(d) **George III., 1760-1820,** was unlike his predecessors in that he was an Englishman both by birth and in his sympathies. He was a man of good character, but was too stubborn to make a good king. In 1763 the war with France that had begun in the preceding reign was terminated by the treaty of Paris, by which Canada became an English possession and English supremacy in North America was established. But the stubbornness of the king lost him the most valuable part of his American possessions and gave to the world the United States. British control in India was greatly strengthened. Warren Hastings, governor-general of India, was impeached for corrupt administration. His trial lasted for eight years and is one of the most famous in history. Liberty of the press was established. At the close of the century, England was at war with France in the European struggle that grew out of the French Revolution. In 1800, the union of Great Britain and Ireland was accomplished. The reign of George III. was an era of great statesmen, among whom were Pitt, Fox and Burke.

22.

(c) **George II., 1727-1760. Walpole.**—One of the most striking circumstances in the administration of Sir Robert Walpole was the conduct of the



George II.

nation on the subject of the Excise Scheme. It was a very striking exemplification of the constitutional jealousy which animated our ancestors at this particular period. The minister found himself at last obliged to abandon his measure, and the opposition to the bill owed its success entirely to the sensation that was excited in the community on the general ground of constitutional jealousy. "Liberty, property, and no excise," was everywhere the cry, and the cry that triumphed. The sentiment, whether in this instance judiciously applied or not, did the community honor. It was a sentiment received from earlier times, and was, then, even in its application on this occasion, neither so unreasonable nor so unnecessary as by some may have been pretended. Summary convictions before commissioners or justices of the peace, without the intervention of juries, were very properly considered by Englishmen at all times as a subject of alarm and aversion. Equally so, and with equal justice, the entry of the king's officer into the dwelling of a private man by day or by night at his pleasure.—*Smyth.*

(d) **George III., 1760-1820.**—Though rank in England has almost always brought with it a very disproportionate weight, although it is undoubtedly true that in the last years of George II. and in the first years of George III. three or four aristocratic families threatened to control the efficient power in the state, yet, on the whole, no other aristocracy has shown itself so free from the spirit of monopoly. In the great Whig period, from the Revolution till the death of Walpole, there were numerous instances of statesmen who were not of noble birth taking a foremost place in English politics. The names of Somers, Montague, Churchill, Addison, Craggs, and many others will at once occur to the reader, and the most powerful leader of this age was a simple country gentleman, a member of the House of Commons, who was so far from allowing himself to be the puppet of anyone, that one of the chief faults of his administration was his extreme reluctance to part with the smallest share of the influence of the government.—*Lecky.*

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LOUIS XVI. TAKING LEAVE OF HIS FAMILY BEFORE HIS EXECUTION.

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BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.

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23.

5. **France.**—At the beginning of the Eighteenth Century, Louis XIV. was still King of France. The war of the Spanish Succession witnessed the defeat of the French armies, and Louis died in 1715. "He left France overwhelmed with debt, its resources exhausted, its credit gone, its maritime power prostrate, a land covered with poverty and wretchedness. This was the reward of lawless pride and ambition in a monarch who owed his strength, however, to the sympathy and subservience of the nation."

(a) **Louis XV., 1715-1774.**—"There have been few worse kings than Louis XV. of France." Until 1723, France was ruled by a regent, Philip of Orleans. It was a period of the most degraded licentiousness. Overwhelmed by debt, the government grasped at the relief promised by John Law, who thought to make credit the basis of prosperity. Enormous issues of paper money inflated values and ultimately led to bankruptcy and ruin. From 1726 until 1743 French affairs were in the hands of Fleury. This administration was an improvement upon what had preceded. Fleury gave the people comparative peace, made certain reductions in the taxes and improved the public credit. After his death in 1743, control passed into the charge of the king's mistresses, and the remainder of this reign was characterized by extravagance, immorality, disregard of personal liberty, excessive taxation and other abuses, until France was plunged into the deepest misery. Tyranny and human degradation could go no further.

23.

5. **France. War of the Spanish Succession.**—The termination of this war discovered great financial distress in France, and owing to this the regent listened eagerly to the speculations of a Scotchman, named James Law, who propounded vast schemes for raising money on national credit. A royal bank and a Great Western company to plant a settlement on the Mississippi river were some of the leading features of the plans of this vast speculation, but the bank failed and the company collapsed, so that financial distress became still greater and disaster more widespread. In 1723 the regent died, and so did Dubois, and the next caretaker of the administration of France was the Duke of Bourbon, a grandson of the famous Conde. He proceeded to secure that the king should be forthwith married to some suitable princess. Hating Spain with unnecessary bitterness, he actually sent back to Spain the young Infanta, then in Paris and being educated to be the wife of the king. The marriageable princesses of Europe were in number ninety-nine, and Bourbon finally chose for the king the daughter of the deposed King of Poland, Stanislaus Leczinski. Philip V. of Spain was of course highly indignant, but immediate war did not ensue. About this time the young king took the government into his own hands, and being entirely under the influence of his tutor, Cardinal Fluery, in 1726 he made that tutor his chief minister, the Duke of Bourbon being banished from count. Fleury now became ruler of France, and his administration, which was able and upright, lasted for seventeen years.—*Patton.*

Mississippi Scheme.—One fatal legacy of Louis XIV. to France was a debt of $400,000,000, the yearly interest upon which amounted to nearly nine times the surplus revenues of the state. The regent, who, in spite of his profligacy, was a man of brilliant talents, attempted to grasp the yet unrealized wealth of the American dominion as a relief from present embarrassments. With his favor, John Law, a Scottish banker, proposed the famous Mississippi scheme. The public credit was to be retrieved by an enormous issue of paper money secured by shares in the Mississippi Company, and based upon a monopoly of trade with Louisiana and Canada. For a year speculation raged high in France. The very vastness of the enterprise and the unknown extent of its basis appealed to the popular imagination. The days were not long enough to satisfy the eager throng of purchasers of the company's stock; princes, bishops, scholars, and ladies of noble rank embarked their fortunes. The public debt disappeared, its bonds having been exchanged by their holders for the shares of the company.—*Thalheimer.*

Edict of Nantes.—Though Louis XIV.'s tyranny in other things must at least have brought down his power from the dizzy height it attained through his earlier wars, it is significant that decline first became pronounced after he had revoked the Edict of Nantes, 1685. . . . So long as Louis XIV. lived, such was his personal force, such the memory of his deeds, that the monarchy retained appearance of considerable solidity. Not so in Louis XV.'s reign, decadent throughout in consequences of his vices, impotence and subservience to every faction. Depraved women directed the state to foolish alliances and fatal wars. Immense territory was lost. Frederick the Great laughed at the thought that France could effect aught by protesting against the partition of Poland. At home, nothing was done to unify the people, interest them in the government or develop national resources, but everthing tended mightily in the contrary direction. In such ruin was France at the accession of the well-meaning Louis XVI., that, had this monarch been a second Richelieu instead of the cipher he was, his effort to preserve the old monarchy must have proved about equally vain.—*Andrews.*

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24.

(b) **Louis XVI., 1774-1793.**—With the death of Louis XV. came a promise of better times. The new king was a well-meaning youth of twenty, married to a frivolous queen, Marie Antoinette. France gave the United States assistance in her war for independence. But the finances were in a wretched condition which even the genius of Turgot could not relieve. A new doctrine was taking hold of the people, proclaiming the equal rights of men to liberty and happiness. Two centuries of tyranny had not prepared the people for the temperate realization of their rights. So deplorable had the situation become that the States General, which had not met for one hundred and seventy-five years, was summoned. This was the beginning of the end. The French Revolution broke in all its fury. A republic was proclaimed. The king and queen were executed. Before the close of the century, Europe was in arms.



Storming of the Bastile.

24.

(b) **Louis XVI., 1774-1793.**—The new ruler of France had an excellent character. He was a man of pure life and of the best intentions, but unfortunately lacking in the energy requisite for troublous times, such as those in which he was destined to rule. A storm was rapidly approaching. The populace of France had long been kept in a state of misery induced by royal extravagance and disastrous wars, which were only paid for by iniquitous taxation. Worst of all these impositions was the salt tax, or Gabelle, levied on all members of the community, young and old. The tender-hearted king was willing to do his best, and recognized the evils which existed, but he was unfitted to remedy them, while his wife, though energetic and clever, was sadly unpopular, partly from her Austrian origin, partly through the simplicity of her manners, which shocked the courtiers of Louis.—*Patton.*

The French Revolution might be described as a remote but inevitable result of the invention of the art of printing. The gift of speech, or the communication of thought by words, is that which distinguishes man from other animals. But this faculty is limited and imperfect without the intervention of books, which render the knowledge possessed by every one in the community accessible to all. . . . The feudal system was in full vigor almost up to the period of the discovery of printing. Much had been done since that time, but it was the object of the French Revolution to get rid at one blow of the framework and of the last relics of that system. Before the diffusion of knowledge and inquiry, governments were for the most part the growth of brute force or of barbarous superstition. Power was in the hands of a few, who used it only to gratify their own pride, cruelty, or avarice, and who took every means to extend and cement it by fear and favor.—*Hazlitt.*

In France the Political Causes of revolution were especially numerous and powerful. At the death of Louis XV., the finances were in hopeless ruin. To advance his private fortune, the king had speculated in national securities and thus in the distresses of his people. So well was this understood, that the multitude, who in one generous impulse had styled him the "Well-beloved," now bestowed upon his successor the title of "Louis the Desired." Louis XVI. was in his twentieth year when the death of his grandfather raised him to the tottering throne of France. His intentions were good, but he lacked that energy, both of intellect and of will, which alone could have saved the nation.—*Thalheimer.*

The Marquis de La Fayette, as he was then called, distinguished himself much at this time for his opposition to the arbitrary measures of the court and its ministers. He had made seven or eight campaigns in America, much to his reputation as a soldier; he had also spent his leisure hours with Washington, Paine, Schuyler, and others, not less to his honor as a philosopher, and was highly esteemed by them all. It was in their company that he attempted the fierceness of the warrior with the philanthropy of the man; it was from them he learned—for he was very young—those maxims of civil polity which served as the groundwork in the constitution of the free American government, and which were one day to be disseminated among his compatriots at home.—*Perry.*

The Close of the 18th Century was a period of great literary waking. In the rococco time the general unreality invaded and pervaded literature: but now a change took place, and men of real genius came to the front who have made themselves imperishable names. The first to break away from the fantastic foppery of the rococco style was Gotthold Lessing (1729-1781), who, though he tried at first to study theology and medicine, was destined to give his life to pure

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literature. . . . Before Lessing died he saw the two greatest authors of Germany started on the literary career which has lent its chiefest glory to the period—John Wolfgang von Goethe (1749-1832) and John Christopher Frederick Schiller (1759-1805). The former stands second only to our Shakespeare as a poet, and was a man of wonderful genius marred by intense vanity.—*Baring-Gould.*

The Political History of the Last Hundred Years betrays four leading tendencies; 1. A constitutional. Absolutism, which, till the American Revolution was universal and supreme, has gradually given way, no longer existing in any state of first rank. Monarchy has been dispensed with by many peoples even as to its form; others retain its form only, in the rest its old power is gone. Civilized lands are now ruled in unprecedented measure for the people as well as more and more by the people. Serfs and slaves have been freed, suffrage enormously extended. 2. A centralizing. This movement is less general than the above, being mainly confined to the United States, Germany and Italy, though manifested also in the foreign conquests of England, France and Chili, but scarcely less rational or beneficial, since modern means of communication immensely facilitate the unifying of large and widely separated bodies of men. 3. A race-national. This, which, observe, in some cases antagonizes the last, appears in the new prominence assumed by the element of blood-relationship in determining the boundaries of states. The nation political inclines more to coincide with the nation as thing of race. Here, too, next after Ireland, Germany and Italy best illustrate, and this not only by their recent but also by their prospective history. The German empire bids fair in the end to embrace German Austria, as Italy-Italian, Elsass-Lothringen strives to be French again. 4. A non-confessional. Men have been coming to view religion more clearly as separable from politics, to see that various religious faiths can dwell harmoniously under the same constitution. Witness especially France, England and America. In Germany, Austria, Italy and Spain the idea is equally active, though for various reasons not yet so victorious.—*Andrews.*

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS (Continued).—*Prussia*, Frederick the Great, Frederick's Early Life, His first Care after the War, Leading Events under His Rule.

20. HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS (Continued).—*England*, Anne, Queen Anne's Bounty, The Act of Settlement, England and Scotland United, Results of Union.

21. HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS (Continued).—*England*, George I., Rage for Speculation, The South Sea Bubble.

22. HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS (Continued).—*England*, George II., George III.

23. HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS (Continued).—*France*, Louis XV., War of the Spanish Succession, Mississippi Scheme, Edict of Nantes.

24. HISTORY OF THE LEADING NATIONS (Continued).—*France*, Louis XVI., The French Revolution, La Fayette, The Close of the Eighteenth Century, The Political History of the Last Hundred Years.

QUESTIONS.

19. *Give the leading events in the early life of Frederick the Great? What was now the rank of Prussia among nations? What was the condition of the people? In what ways did Frederick rally the energies of the people? What may be said of the independence and self-government of the people?*

20. *What was now the general condition of English politics? What were the leading doctrines of the Whigs? The Tories? What was England's interest in the War of the Spanish Succession? What is meant by "Queen Anne's Bounty"? Define the "Act of Settlement"? Give the events connected with the union of England and Scotland?*

21. *Who was George I.? The Pretender? Give illustrations of the so-called "Rage for Speculation"? Give an account of the South Sea Bubble?*

22. *What can you say of George II.? George III.? What was now the condition of English social life? What influence did the stubbornness of George III. have in America?*

23. *What was the condition of France at the close of the War of the Spanish Succession? What can you say of the speculations of John Law? What was the condition of France at the time? What may be said of the reign of Louis XV.? Who was Fleury? When did the decline of France really begin?*

24. *What may be said of the character of Louis XVI.? Of his reign? What new doctrine now sprang up? What can you say of the French Revolution? What were the political causes of the Revolution? Give a brief sketch of the life of La Fayette?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Give a resume of the political history of the last one hundred years.*

2. *Prepare a brief showing the general condition of Europe at the close of the Eighteenth Century.*

3. *What were the leading events in the reign of Frederick the Great?*

4. *Carefully compare the Whig and the Tory parties. What were the distinguishing tenets of each? What gave rise to these doctrines?*

5. *What gave rise to the "Act of Settlement"? What is your estimate of its leading features?*

6. *Prepare a brief sketch of the history and results of the union of Scotland and England.*

7. *Prepare a brief history of the American colonies of the date, noting especially events which were influenced by foreign politics.*

8. *To what extent did the peculiar disposition of George III. influence the growth and independence of the colonies?*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Aca'dia.—A former French colony in America, bounded by the Atlantic, the gulf and river of St. Lawrence, and westward by a line running north from the mouth of the Penobscot.

Ad'dison, Joseph (1672–1719).—A famous English essayist, poet and statesman. A Latin poem published in 1697 on the "Peace of Ryswick" brought him a pension of £300.

Aix-la-Chapelle (āks-lä-shä-pel'). — A city in the Rhine Province, Prussia. Named from its mineral springs (L. Aquæ) and the chapel (Fr. chapelle) of the place.

An'glican Church.—Pertaining to the Church of England.

Arkwright, Sir Richard (1732–1792).—An English manufacturer and inventor, a barber by trade. He invented the cotton-spinning frame and was the first to employ machinery on a large scale as a substitute for hand labor.

Armē'nia.—The classical name of the Hebrew Ararat, Assyrian Urartu, the country which extends from the shores of Lake Van between the upper Euphrates and Media, forming the junction between the high plateau of Iran and the tableland of Asia Minor.

Augustus II. (1670-1773).—Elector of Saxony 1694–1733. Surnamed "The Strong."

Auvergne (ō-varny') **Mountains of.**—A branch of the Cevennes mountains of France.

Bacon, Francis (1561–1626), the great English philosopher, known better as Lord Bacon (Viscount St. Albans), founded the inductive system of philosphy; and his great works were his Essays, the Advancement of Learning, and Novum Organum.

Bavā'ria.—A kingdom of Southern Germany, the second in area and population of the states of the German Empire.

Beethoven (bā'-tō-ven) **Ludwig van** (1770-1827). —A celebrated Austrian composer of Dutch descent.

Belle-Isle (bel-ēl') **Duke of** (1684-1761).—A French marshal and politician.

Blenheim (blen'-him) **Palace.**—A mansion at Woodstock, England, built for the first Duke of Marlborough.

Bolingbroke (bōl'ing-bruk), **Henry Saint John** (1678-1751).—An eminent English author, orator and politician.

Robert Boyle (1627–1691).—A famous Irish-English philosopher, noted for his piety; also made chemical discoveries.

John Bunyan (1628–1688)—A tinker of Bedford and a Baptist preacher. Was imprisoned twelve years for preaching, during which he wrote Pilgrim's Progress, the most famous allegory in the English language, and which has been translated into all languages.

Samuel Butler (1612–1680) wrote Hudibras, a satirical poem on the Puritans.

Carinthia.—A crown land of the Cisleithan division of Austria-Hungary.

Cassini (1625–1712)—an Italian astronomer—discovered four satellites of Saturn. His son, James Cassini, discovered the divisions in Saturn's rings.

Chatham, Earl of, William Pitt the Elder (1708–1778).—A famous English Whig statesman.

Chevalier (shvä-lyā') **St. George.**—A title assumed by James Stewart, the old Pretender.

Chotusitz (chō-tō'-zēts).—A village of Bohemia southeast of Prague.

Churchill, John (1650–1722), first Duke of Marlborough, a famous English general and statesman.

Colbert (see No. 6).

Cornellle (1606–1684). A great dramatist; excelled in tragedy, as The Cid.

Cossacks (kos'-aks).—A military people inhabiting portions of Russia. Their origin is uncertain.

Cracow (krā' kō), the second city of Gallicia, Austro-Hungary.

Craggs, James.—An English politician and friend of Addison. Died in 1720.

Croats.—The Slavonic race which inhabits Croatia, and from which it takes its name.

Crompton, Samuel (1753–1827).—An English mechanic, inventor of the spinning mule in 1779.

Crossen or **Krossen.**—A town of Prussia in Brandenburg.

Cullōden Moor.—A moor just east of Inverness, Scotland. Here the Royalists in 1746 defeated the Highlanders.

Czar (zar).—An emperor, especially the Emperor of Russia. Derived from the Latin Cæsar.

Czaslau (chäs'-lou),—A town in Bohemia, Austria-Hungary, southeast of Prague.

Dantzic—A seaport capital of West Prussia, Prussia.

Descartes (da-kart').—(1596–1650), the eminent French philosopher, had great influence on the method of philosophizing in the seventeenth century. He was the tutor of Queen Christian of Sweden.

De Grasse.—A town of France west southwest of Nice.

Dneister (nēs'ter).—A river of Gallicia and Russia.

Dresden, Peace of.—A treaty concluded December 25, 1475. Frederick the Great, as the result of the Silesian war, was confirmed in possession of Silesia.

John Dryden (1631–1700), poet-laureate under Charles II., wrote dramas and satirical poems, and translated Virgil's Æneid.

Duhan (dü-hon') **Charles Gilles** (1685–1746).—A French Protestant tutor of Frederick the Great.

Dunkirk.—A seaport of France situated on the Strait of Dover.

Eugene (1663–1736), **of Savoy.**—Austrian by birth, and born at Paris. Aided Marlborough in the wars with the French.

Flanders.—A former country or district of Europe, now included in Netherlands, Belgium and France.

Fleury (flü-rī') (see No. 7).

Fontainebleau (fon-tān-blō') **Peace of.** — A treaty, 1785, between the Emperor and the Dutch.

Fortescue (for-tesk') **Bay.**—A beautiful bay of Tasmania.

Franconia (see page 191).

Frantz or Francis II. of Germany and Francis I. of Austria.—The husband of Maria Theresa.

Friesland (friz'land) (see page 191).

Gabelle or Gabel.—An old English or European law, a tax, excise, impost or duty; especially in French history a tax on salt.

Galileo (1564-1642), the distinguished Italian astronomer, adopted the Copernican theory of the

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solar system and invented the telescope, with the aid of which he discovered the satellites of Jupiter, the rings of Saturn, and the moon-like phases of Venus. He was twice brought before the Inquisition to renounce the theory of the earth's rotation which he published in his System of the World. His second incarceration brought on an affection of the eyes terminating in blindness.

Gallic'ia —A province of Austria.

Gibraltar (je-brawl'-ter) **Strait of.**—Named from the town of Gibraltar and a strongly fortified rock at the southern extremity of Spain. From the Arab *Jebel-Tarik*.

Glatz.—A province of Silesia.

Godalphui, Earl of (1645-1712).—An English statesman and three times prime minister.

Goethe (gū'-te) (1749-1832).—A German poet.

Goree (go rā').—The name of an island and a town of Africa.

Guericke, Otte (1602-1686), a German, invented the air pump.

Gundling (goond'ling).—A German historian and court fool.

Halley, Edmund (1656-1742), made important discoveries highly serviceable to navigation, and discovered the comet bearing his name.

Hargreaves, James (——-1778).—The inventor of the spinning jenny (1764).

Harvey, William (1578-1657), a great English physician and surgeon, discovered the circulation of the blood, which he first announced in 1615 and published in 1628.

Hastings, Warren (1732-1818).—An English statesman. He was impeached on the charge of high crimes and misdemeanors. The trial opened before the House of Lords in 1788, and resulted in an acquittal in 1795.

Heinsius (hīn'-sē-ös), **Antonius** (1641-1720).—A Dutch statesman and grand pensionary.

Hennersdorf.—A village in northeastern Silesia.

Hesse-Cassel (hes'-kas' el).—A former landgraviate and electorate which lay north of Hesse-Darmstadt.

Hobbes, Thomas (1588-1679), a famous English philosopher, was early associated with Galileo and Descartes, and his principal works are the "Leviathan" and "Behemoth."

Ho'garth, William (1697-1764).—A celebrated satirical painter, born in London.

Ho'henfried'berg.—A small town in the province of Silesia.

Hol'stein.—The southern part of the province of Schleswig-Holstein, Prussia.

Honduras (hon-dö'ras).—A republic of Central America.

Hubertsburg.—A castle near Wennsdorf, Saxony, 25 miles east of Leipsic.

Hussars'.—A light-horse trooper, armed with sabre and carbine, and formerly wearing dolman.

Huyghens (1629-1695), a Dutch astronomer, discovered Saturn's rings and one of her satellites.

Hunga'rians (see page 158).

Innocent XII. (1611-1700).—Pope from 1691 to 1700.

Jonson, Ben (1574-1637), poet-laureate under James I., was the greatest dramatist after Shakespeare.

Kepler (1571-1630), the eminent German astronomer, called "the Legislator of the Heavens," discovered what are known as Kepler's Three Laws, which laid the foundations of mathematical astronomy. Kepler was one of the greatest thinkers of any age. He combined the inspiration of a prophet and the creative genius of a poet with the method of a mathematician. Persecuted by religious bigots, he led a melancholy life in the most abject poverty.

Kesselsdorf.—A village five miles southeast of Dresden.

Kiev (kē'-ev), **or Kieff, or Kief.**—A government of southwestern Russia.

Kosciusko (see No. 7).

Kremlin.—The citadel of Moscow, Russia.

La Hogue (see No. 6).

Leibnitz (1640-1716), an eminent German philosopher, metaphysician, mathematician, historian, jurist, and scholar, was the founder of the



Marie Antoinette Going to Execution

eclectic system of German philosophy, and discovered the Calculus about the same time as Newton.

Leopold II. (1747-1792).—The third son of Francis I. and Maria Theresa, and Grand Duke of Tuscany. In 1790 he succeeded his brother, Joseph II., as emperor.

Lessing, Gotthold Ephraim (1729-1781).—An eminent author, regarded as the father of the new era of German literature.

Lillie, John (1553-1600).—An English dramatic writer.

Letts.—A branch of the Lithuanian or Lithic race, inhabiting portions of Russia. They called themselves Latvis.

Lithua'nia.—A former Grand Duchy of Europe, in its later history united with Poland.

Lödönie'ria.—The Latin name of the medieval principality of Vladimir, in Volhynia. It later belonged to Poland.

Lorraine (lo-rān'), **Claude de** (1496-1550).—The first Duke of Guise and a French general and politician.

Lō'thian.—A former division of Scotland, reaching from the English border to the Firth.

Malplaquet (mäl-plä-kā').—A village in the department of Nord, France.

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Marie Antoinette (Mar'-i An-toi-net').—Queen of France and daughter of Francis I. and Maria Theresa.

Maria Theresa (see No. 6).

Marlborough (see Churchill).

Milton, John (1608-1674), the great epic poet of England, who had been Oliver Cromwell's Latin secretary, wrote "Paradise Lost" and "Paradise Regained" in poverty and blindness, after the Stuart Restoration in 1660.

Minorca.—The largest of the Balearic Islands.

Molière (1622-1673). A great dramatist, surpassed in comedy.

Mollwitz (mōl' vits) —A village of Silesia.

Mon'gols.—An Asiatic race now chiefly resident in Mongolia.

Montague (mon' tā gū), **Henry James** (1843-1878).—An English-American actor.

Montcalm (1712-1759).—A French general who was mortally wounded at the battle of Quebec.

Moors (see page 238).

Mo'zart (1756-1791). — A celebrated Austrian composer.

Mus'cōvite. —A name often given to Russians.

Mussulman.—A follower of Mohammed.

Napier, Lord (1550-1617), a Scotchman, invented logarithms, thus abridging calculation.

Neumark, George (1621-1681)—A German poet and musician, and librarian at Weimar.

Newton, Sir Isaac (1642-1727), the illustrious English astronomer, mathematician, and philosopher, who was then professor of mathematics at Cambridge University, discovered the law of universal gravitation, by which the earth and all the heavenly bodies are kept in their respective places. Newton's theory of light and colors is the foundation of the science of optics; and his Latin work, "Principia," is the basis of all natural philosophy, or physics. Newton also discovered that important instrument of mathematics, the calculus.

Nov'-go-rod'. — Capital of a government of Russia southeast of St. Petersburg.

Nystadt (nü' stad).—A seaport town of Finland.

Op'pa.—A river forming part of the boundary between Prussia and Austrian Silesia.

Os'tend.—A commercial seaport in the province of West Flanders, Belgium.

Ou'-dan ar'de.—A town in East Flanders, Belgium.

Paler'mo.—A province of north Sicily, the ancient Panormus.

Pascal (1623 1662), a great philosopher and scientist, wrote against the Jesuits in his provincial letters.

Penza.—A government east of Russia in Europe.

Pitt (see Chatham).

Priestly, Joseph (1733-1804).—An English clergyman and natural philosopher, especially celebrated as the discoverer of oxygen.

Pultusk.—A town north of Warsaw in Russian Poland.

Racine (1639-1699), the greatest French dramatist, was noted for his tragedies.

Ramilli (ra mel' lee) (1666-1740). — An Italian priest and painter in miniature.

Regie (re' zhi).—The revenue department established by the governments of Spain, France, Austria and Italy to have the sole control of all the tobacco bought and sold in these countries.

Rochambeau (rō'' shăm'' bō'), **Jean Baptiste** (1725-1807).—A French general and marshal; aided Washington at Yorktown.

Roemer (1644-1710), a Dane, invented the thermometer bearing his name.

Rügen.—A Prussian island in the Baltic Sea.

Saint Denis'.—A town of France, the burial place of French kings.

Saint Germain (zhār''man), **Claude Louis** (1707-1777).—A French general, field marshal and minister of war.

Sarmātia.—The ancient name of Poland.

Schiller, Johann Christopher Frederick (1759-1805).—The great national poet of Germany.

Sen'egal.—A river of west Africa.

Servia.—A kingdom southeast of Europe.

Sile'sia.—A duchy in northern Austria.

Slav.—A descendant of the Slavonic race.

Somers, John (1652-1716).—An English statesman and jurist.

Sorr, or Soor, or Sohr.—A village of Bohemia.

Souvaroff (sö-vä'rof), or Suvaroff, Suvoroff, Suwarrow, or Suwaroff (1729-1800).—A celebrated Russian field-marshal of Swedish descent.

Spyer (spī'er).—The capital of the Rhine Palatine, Bavaria.

Spinoza (1622-1677), a Jew of Holland, and likewise a great philosopher, carried forward the new system of philosophy founded by Bacon and Descartes, and was a famous Pantheist.

Stanislaus II. (1732-1798), King of Poland, 1764-'95.

Stralsund (sträl'sönd).—A seaport in the province of Pomerania, Prussia.

Styr'ia.—A crownland of Austria-Hungary.

Swabia (see page 192).

Sybel (sē'bel, **Heinrich von** (1817-——). — A noted German historian.

Tartars or Tatars.—Numerous tribes or peoples of mixed Turkish, Mongol and Tartar origin. Also applied to certain tribes of Chinese Tartary.

Taylor, Jeremy (1613 1667), a great divine and theologian, wrote such works as "Liberty of Prophesying," "Holy Living and Holy Dying."

Thurn (törn), **Henreich von** (1580-1633).—A Bohemian Protestant teacher at the commencement of the Thirty Years' War.

Torricelli, the Italian (1608-1647), of Florence, invented the mercurial barometer, the basis of hydraulics.

Turgot (tür gō') **Anne Robert Jacques** (1727-1781).—A noted French statesman, political economist and financier.

Tyrol (tir'ol). — A county of Austria-Hungary, which, with Vorarlberg, forms a crownland of the Austrian Empire.

Ural (ū'ral).—A river which rises in the Ural Mountains.

Utrecht (ū'trekt).—A province of the Netherlands, famous for the Peace of Utrecht (1713).

Versailles (ver-sālz').—The capital of the department of Seine-et-Oise, France, eleven miles west-southwest of Paris.

Viatka or Vyatka.—A government of Russia, also having Viatka as its capital.

Villars (vē-yär') **Duc de** (1653-1734.—The name of a French marshal.

Vol'ga.—The chief river of Russia.

Vo'log'da.—A government of Russia bordering on Siberia on the east, having the city of Vologda for its capital.

Voronezh'.—A government of Russia. Voronezh is its capital.

Walpole, Sir Robert (1676-1745).—A noted English statesman; prime minister 1715-17 and 1721-42

Watt (wot), **James** (1736-1819).—A famous British mechanician, inventor, and civil engineer.

Westphalia, Peace of. — The treaty of 1648 which ended the Thirty Years' War.

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SIDE LIGHTS.

French History Eighteenth Century.—*The king* lives mostly in his palace at Versailles. He has some ninety gentlemen to take care of his bed-chamber, nearly five hundred for his table, and more than fifteen hundred to attend to his horses. These offices about the royal person and household are considered the most honorable in the kingdom, since they are all filled by nobles whose pay is high, while their duties are very light or even nominal. Besides the household officers, the king has his guards, French and Swiss, cavalry and infantry, more than nine thousand men, costing the people annually more than $1,500,000. When the king makes a journey, all these people must accompany him, at the expense of the state.

In 1783, no less than $33,800 is paid for feeding the king's horses, and more than $10,000 for feeding his hunting dogs. The coffee and bread for each of the ladies of the bed-chamber cost $400 a year. The court kitchen, according to the printed register, employs 295 cooks, and the total number of persons to be supported by the king amounts to more than fifteen thousand.

The king also gives many presents; this is especially true of Lewis XV.; but we find that Lewis XVI., in 1785, gives away more than $27,000,000; and Von Sybel reckons that the annual average given in this way should be reckoned at $20,000,000. As for Lewis XV., it is known that in one year he spends about $36,000,000 on his own pleasures. As for the palace of Versailles itself, it costs more than $50,000,000, while "on the bridges, roads, public and scientific institutions" not more than $7,000,000 are expended.

Around the king are the dukes, counts, and marquises, who care for his household. As for the nobles, they spend their time with the king, gaming, hunting, making a fine appearance, amusing themselves.

All these nobles have great estates in the country, which they rarely visit. As for their own lands, two of the greatest properties of the time are described as being "wastes, deserts, bracken," while the residence is "probably found in the midst of a forest very well peopled with deer, wild boars, and wolves." The owners are so lightly taxed that it is generally said that they pay no taxes; yet one fails on a debt of $7,000,000, and another dies owing $15,000,000, and a third, when charged by the king with being largely in debt, replies, "I will ask my agent and inform your majesty." Another owes more than $10,000 to her shoemaker, another more than $30,000 to a tailor.

The peasants live in houses of stone or earth, without windows and with earth chimneys. They are dressed in rags, and never taste meat; there are whole districts where they eat grass, and thousands who live on the bark of trees; they can neither take game from the forest, nor fish from the stream, for these belong to the lord of the estate. They have old and awkward tools, and can get no better. When the crops are up, the pigeons and the rabbits and the deer destroy much that the peasant can raise; but he cannot protect himself under pain of heavy punishment, since the lord must have the pleasure of the hunt; and when the hunt comes, horse and hound may trample down his only wheat-field. The tax-gatherer never fails to come to get money for the king or money for the church. Land worth $800 may pay $600 for taxes; it will surely pay $400. Can the peasant not pay, his furniture must be sold to meet the tax. If he want salt, he must buy it of the king; should he not need it, still he must buy or go to prison or the galleys; this is the hated "*Gabelle*." As for the lord, to him he must pay for feudal dues a part of all his fields, his orchards or his vineyard yield. For a certain number of days each year he must give give his own labor and that of his oxen and his horses, even though the lord should choose to take him from the very harvest field (*corvées*).—*Edited from Sheldon.*

The War of the Spanish Succession began the 18th century. Charles II. of Spain willed his crown to Philip of Anjou—son of the Dauphin; Louis supported his grandson's claim. The Emperor Leopold was as nearly related to the Spanish family as was Louis, so he asserted the right of his second son, the Archduke Charles. The union of France and Spain under the House of Bourbon endangering the balance of power, a *third coalition* was formed. William, the soul of this league also, died at the beginning of the war. But his place in the field was more than filled by the bril-



George III. in 1767.

liant Duke of Marlborough, and by Prince Eugene, who commanded the imperial forces. The former won the famous victories of *Blenheim*, *Ramillies*, *Oudenarde*, and *Malplaquet;* the latter drove the French headlong out of Italy, and threatened France. The long wars had exhausted the people; famine and disease ran riot through the land; and Louis humiliated himself in vain, begging the allies for peace.

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In the midst of disaster, however, he achieved his end by two unlooked-for events. The archduke became emperor, and the allies were as unwilling that Spain should be united to Austria as to France; in England, the Tories came into power, and recalled the dreaded Marlborough. The terrible struggle was ended by the treaties of *Utrecht* and *Radstadt*.—*Steele*.

English History. — GOVERNMENT. — *Parliament*.—No material alteration took place in the constitution of Parliament; but by the Septennial act, the crown had the power to continue the



Sir Robert Walpole.

houses in being for seven instead of three years. Whatever technical and theoretical objections may be offered against this measure, it is agreed on all hands that its practical operation has been unquestionably beneficial.

The Cabinet.—Down to the end of the seventeenth century, the sovereign presided in the cabinet council, and took part in its deliberations. George I., however, being ignorant of English, abstained from attending, and was satisfied with being informed of the result of the consultations of the ministry. His example was imitated by his son. Hence the custom has acquired the validity of constitutional right, and no attempt has ever been made to infringe it.

Criminal Laws.—The penal code was much increased in severity during this period. It is said that before the Revolution the number of capital offences did not exceed sixty; but in George II.'s reign alone sixty-three new ones were added. To steal, or even hamstring, a sheep was punished as severely as murder or treason.

SCIENCE AND FINE ARTS.—*Science*.—The leading cultivators of science, during the reigns of the first two Georges, were (in addition to Newton, who lived till 1727) Bradley, who made his great discovery of the aberration of light, in 1728; Hadley, the inventor of the valuable instrument called the quadrant; Dollond, the inventor of the achromatic telescope (1759); and Thomas Simpson, a self-taught genius, who published several works on mathematics.

During this era, English experimentalists made very important researches in electricity as well as in chemistry. Dr. Black, in particular, announced in his "Experiments on Magnesia, Quicklime, and other Alkaline Substances," published in 1755, the discovery of a new kind of air, now known by the name of carbonic acid.

Architecture.—Vanbrugh, who died in 1726, designed several works during the reign of George I. Grimsthorpe in Lincolnshire, and Seaton Delaval in Northumberland, are strongly marked with the picturesque beauties of his style. In church architecture, the most celebrated artists were Gibbs and Hawksmoor; the chief work of the former is St. Martin's-in-the-Fields, the portico of which is very beautiful, but the tower, contrary to sound principle, appears to rise from the roof; Hawksmoor's *chef-d' œuvre* is either St. Mary's Woolnoth, Lombard street, or Limehouse church.

One of the best proofs of the interest taken in architecture at this time is that several edifices of great merit were erected under the superintendence of amateur artists. The most distinguished of these was Lord Burlington, to whom we owe Burlington House, in Piccadilly, and who, though essentially a copyist, "possessed a consummate taste and a strong perception of the beautiful."

Sculpture.—Rysbrack, Scheemakers, and Roubiliac, all foreigners, were the most eminent sculptors of the time. By far the best was Roubiliac, whose most celebrated work, the monument of John, Duke of Argyle, in Westminster Abbey, has been pronounced to be of its kind one of the finest monuments in that building.

Painting.—Portrait painting greatly declined during the time under notice, and, till the appearance of Hogarth, the same progress of decline was observable in the other departments of the art. England at this period "possessed neither a school of painting, nor galleries of pictures, nor writers on art." Hogarth was the true regenerator of painting in this country. His merit as a delineator of manners, and especially as a humorist and satirist, can hardly be too highly estimated. Some of his pictures are vivid and earnest lessons on morals, teaching that a life of vice must end in misery.

Engraving.—Several artists of average ability now flourished, but there were none of particular eminence. The most industrious and talented of this class was George Vertue, who was equally distinguished as an antiquary and engraver.

Music.—Rapid strides were made in this branch of the fine arts. The Italian opera was introduced at the beginning of the eighteenth century; and a few years after, the English opera was established. The first complete work of the latter class was Gay's "Beggar's Opera" The great musical composers were Croft, Greene, and Boyce, all noted for the production of anthems, and Handel, who, though a native of Saxony, settled in England. As an instance of the want of appreciation sometimes shown by the public, it may be noticed that "The Messiah," "that sublime emanation of genius," was regarded as a failure when produced for the first time (1741).

TRADE AND AGRICULTURE.—*Trade*.—An act was passed in 1720 to preserve and encourage the woolen and silk manufactures. With most short-sighted policy, the Legislature thereby endeavored to check the use of calico goods. The wearing of such articles was prohibited under a penalty of

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five pounds, and the selling thereof, except for exportation, under a penalty of twenty pounds. The woolen manufacture continued to flourish. From 1732 to 1741 inclusive, nearly 600,000 pieces of cloth were produced in the West Riding; and in the nine following years, more than double that quantity. The Leeds Cloth Hall was erected in 1758.

The first mill for throwing silk was erected at Derby, in 1719, by Sir Thomas Lombe, whose brother had gained a knowledge of the mechanism employed in Italy. It is probable that his mill did not conduce to the progress of the manufacture, as excessive duties were laid on foreign thrown silks, in order to protect the new home trade. By the middle of this period, however, English silks were so highly esteemed in Italy that at Naples, when a tradesman wished to particularly recommend his silk stockings, he protested they were English.

Wages.—The period succeeding the reigns of William and Mary has been truly characterized as the most prosperous period that England had ever experienced. The laborer's wages had never hitherto commanded so largely the means of subsistence. From the scale agreed on by the justices of Lancashire, we learn that the common husbandman might receive 5*d*, per day with, and 10*d*. per day without, meat and drink; and working masons, carpenters, and bricklayers, 6*d*. per day with, and 1*s*. without meat and drink. These wages, however, were very considerably less than those obtained in some other districts, and particularly in the metropolis. This difference, which may appear at first inexplicable, is easily accounted for by the restrictions which were placed on the laboring classes, in respect to change of residence.

Laws were passed in 1725 and 1749 prohibiting workmen from combining in order to regulate the price of goods, and to advance wages; and those who attempted to do so, rendered themselves liable to three months' imprisonment with hard labor.

Inventions, Etc.—Some improvements were made in the steam engine; but it was not at present brought into extensive use. The most important undertaking bearing on trade was the commencement of the Bridgewater canal in 1758, for the purpose of connecting Manchester and its coal fields with Liverpool. It is needless to observe that the project, through the originality and skill of Brindley, the engineer, was completely successful. In 1738, Mr. John Kay invented the present mode of casting the shuttle by what is called a "picking-peg," by which means the weaver could weave cloth of any width, and produce twice the quantity in the same time. For twenty years after its invention, it was confined to the weaving of woollens. Near the close of this period (1755), Mr. Jedediah Strutt introduced great improvements in Lee's stocking frame.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—*Dress.*—No material changes in the general character of costume occurred during the reigns of the first two Georges. The ladies prided themseves on their excessive simplicity; but they continued the use of the ugly and inconvenient hoop, as well as the pernicious habit of tight lacing.

Residences.—In large towns, especially in London, improvements were made in domestic architecture; but the country residences of even the gentry still remained wanting in neatness and taste. They were rarely kept clean and in good good repair; and, as a general rule, the stables and kennels were close to the house. It was seldom that these mansions possessed an ordinary flower garden, though, occasionally, large sums were laid out in horticulture.

Furniture.—The mansions of the nobility were abundantly supplied with almost every article of convenience and luxury. The favorite style of



Napoleon Inducing Pope Pius VII. to Sign the Concordat.

furniture was almost wholly French. The rage for porcelain of all kinds, tea-cups, saucers, jars, mandarins, animals, birds, monsters, formed a continual source of theatrical satire. Glass of home manufacture, in the shape of drinking-glasses, decanters, and such-like articles, was tolerably abundant, but plate-glass was still obtained from Venice. In the middle of the reign of George II. (1745), carpets began to be woven at Kidderminster, and it is said that, by the close of this period, "the floors of all respectable houses were carpeted as at present."

Food.—Peas, beans, greens and other vegetables were now largely consumed by the working classes, but, as late as 1760, a seventh of the people of England and Wales fed on rye bread; whereas, at the present day, less than 20,000 persons make use of that kind of grain. Animal food was cheap, for till the reign of George II, the price of beef and mutton was generally from 2½*d*. to 3*d*. per pound.

Sports, Etc.—There were several places of fashionable amusement in the metropolis, such as Ranelagh, a large building in Chelsea, and Vauxhall, both of which were scenes of dissipation, drunkenness, and vice Gambling prevailed to an alarming extent. "Men and women, the old and young, beaux and statesmen, peers and apprentices, the learned and polite, as well as the ignorant and vulgar, were alike involved in the vortex of play." The theaters were much resorted to; and, retaining all their profligacy, they at once indicated the low state of public morals, and furnished the most effective means for its continuance.

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NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

By Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

Excavations at the Sphinx.—The news comes by special cable, that Col. Geo. Raum, of San Francisco, has just made excavations at the foot of the great Sphinx of Gizeh, and has penetrated under the back, where he discovered a sort of a well twenty-two feet deep.

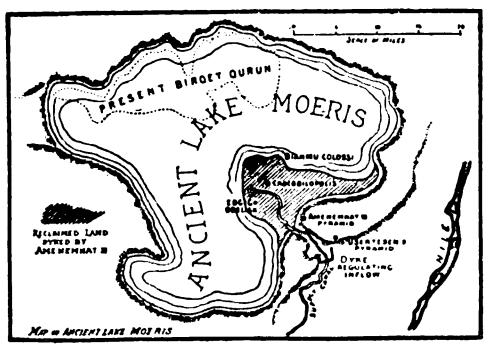
When this was cleaned out, two corridors were found branching off from the lower level, the one running northwest and the other southwest. The top of the Sphinx's head is pierced with a hole, in which, it is believed, there belongs a head-dress or cap of stone.

Col. Raum thinks that he has discovered this great ornament, buried twelve feet under ground, in the temple-like space, between the paws of the great statue. It represents a coiled serpent, supporting three columns, in the form of a lotus, painted red, and measuring forty-five inches at the widest part.

The Stele of Thothmes IV.—The stele of this king of the eighteenth dynasty was found some time since between the paws of the Sphinx. At the end of a long passage, there is a small temple ten feet in length, by five in breadth, immediately below the chin of the figure. The extremity of the temple was occupied by a block of granite, fourteen feet high, covered with sculptures and hieroglyphs, and recording the name of Thothmes IV.

It has been successively discovered by several explorers, as the desert sands so quickly fill and cover every excavation which is made.

Text of the Stele —There is a copy of the text in the British Museum, but it is imperfect and in-



Map of the ancient Lake Moeris in the Fayum basin. The shaded part is that reclaimed from the lake by Amenemhat III.—(See Petrie's New History of Egypt, pp. 190, 192.)

complete, the stone having been greatly injured in some places, and nearly one-half the inscription has become illegible. And, therefore, the savants of the nineteenth century have not yet succeeded in fully solving the problems of this unique monument of early Egypt.

Maspero's Translation. — Prof. Maspero has translated a portion of it as follows: "The king of the South and the North, Men-khopiru-Ri Thothmes Khakeu, who grants life, stable and pure." And the god replies: "I have given life, stable and pure, to the master of the two lands, Thothmes Khakeu."

There is much in praise of the god, and the inscription ended with the adulation of the king, the god promising him a glorious reign as a reward for his many virtues. "I bestow upon thee the sovereignity over my domain, the supremacy over the living: Thou shalt wear its white crown and its red crown (the crowns of Upper and Lower Egypt) on the throne of Seb, the hereditary chief.

"May the earth be thine in all its length and breadth; may the splendor of the universal master illumine thee. May there come unto thee the abundance which is in the double land, the riches brought from every country and the long duration of years. Thine is my face, thine is my heart; thy heart is mine.

"Behold my actual condition, that thou mayest protect my perfect limbs. The sand of the desert whereon I am laid has covered me. Save me, causing all that is in my heart to be executed. For I know that thou art my son, my avenger. . . . Behold, I am with thee. I am thy father. Afterward (the prince awakened) he understood the word of this god and kept silence in his heart."

Lake Moeris.—The discussion concerning the existence of this lake appears now to have been definitely settled. "The celebrated Lake Moeris," says Dr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, "was the natural basin of the Fayum oasis, regulated and utilized by Amenemhat III. The extent of the basin, up to the Nile level, was such that its circuit was equal to the coast line of Egypt, according to Herodotus, *and this was approximately the case.* The supposed extension of it into other desert valleys to the southwest is impossible during historical times, as the hills rise above the Nile level between the two depressions."

The Wounded Bull.—Many traditions have been corrected or verified, by recent discoveries. A notable instance of this is the story that the god Apis, the sacred bull of the Egyptians, was wounded in the thigh by Cambyses after he had been brought before the conqueror, by the priests. According to Plutarch, he slew the animal and cast its body to the dogs, while according to Herodotus, "Apis lay some time, pining in the temple, but at last died of the wound," and according to some of the tablets, Apis did not die until the fourth year of the reign of Darius.

The sequel to the story is furnished by the discovery of the mummy of the sacred bull, by Mariette. It was proven that the animal had survived the wound, because one of the thigh bones showed unmistakable evidence of both injury and healing.

It may also be true, as the monuments claim, that Cambyses worshiped the gods of Egypt (at another time) on the same principal, that his father, the cool and politic Cyrus, worshiped the gods of Babylonia.

Statues at the Boulak Museum.—The Boulak statues are the product of the tombs, and like the tombs, they were prepared during the lifetime of the people whom they represented. Crossing the threshold of the great vestibule, one is surrounded by a host of these extraordinary figures, which are in an erect position, colored like living beings, and clothed as if in life.

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SKETCH OF WILLIAM COPLEY WINSLOW, D.D., I.L.D., PH.D., D.C.L.

HONORARY SECRETARY OF THE EGYPT EXPLORATION FUND.

THE Rev. Dr. William Copley Winslow was born in Boston in 1840, being the second son of the late Rev. Hubbard Winslow, D.D., who was the successor of Dr. Lyman Beecher, as the pastor of "Bowdoin Street Church" in that city. Mr. Winslow graduated in 1862, at Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y. In 1865, after graduating from the General Theological Seminary of New York City, he passed several months in Italy, devoting much time to the study of Roman Archæology, upon which he afterwards delivered many lectures.

He has long been a prominent worker in philanthropic and educational fields, and since its organization, in Massachusetts, in 1881, of the Free Church Association, he has been its active secretary. He was, for ten years, the prelate of the St. Bernard Commandery of Knights Templars. He has long been actively associated with many historical societies, and at the fiftieth anniversary of the American Oriental Society, held in the Smithsonian Institution, in 1892, Dr. Winslow was appointed on the Committee to Obtain Records of Oriental Antiquities sent to this country.

A member of the council in the department of history, and in that of philology, of the World's Congress Auxiliaries, he contributed a paper to the African Congress, and also one to the department of Philology, which appears in the present number of PROGRESS. His genial presence, also contributed largely toward the success of the Congresses in which he took a part.

Dr. Winslow's European affiliations are mostly with the Egyptological bodies, the Royal Archæological Society of Great Britain, the Society of Antiquaries, the Victoria Institute, and the Congress of Orientalists. He is also connected with the most distinguished learned bodies in the Dominion of Canada.

He has received the degrees of LL D and D.D. from St. Andrews, the senior University of Scotland. The University of King's College conferred the degree of D.C.L. upon him. He has also received D.D from Amherst, L.H.D. from Columbia (centennial), Ph.D. from Hamilton, S.T.D. from Griswold (Iowa), and Sc.D. from St. John's College, Annapolis, at its centenary, "in recognition of the learning and ability with which he had conducted various scientific investigations."

He is also an Hon. Fellow of the Royal Society of Letters and Arts, Hon. Member of the British Archæological Association, Hon. Member of the Nova Scotia Historical Society, Hon. Member of the Quebec Historical Society, and Hon. Member of twenty or more of the State Historical Societies. It is worthy of note, that among the three thousand alumni of Hamilton College, the only graduates who have received foreign honorary degrees, are the late Dr. Edward Robinson, the pioneer of exploration in Palestine; Dr. Winslow, the American representative of the Egypt exploration Fund, and Prof. Isaac H. Hall, the Cypriote researcher and translator

In 1880 Dr. Winslow devoted several months to the personal study and exploration of Egyptian monuments and sites, and returned home deeply impressed with the necessity of immediate and thorough exploration in that land.

When, therefore, Miss Edwards informed him of the new society, the Egypt Exploration Fund, he promptly enlisted in the work of promoting its objects. Three years later he became the honorary treasurer in the United States, and in 1885, the American vice-president. Afterward, he was made also the honorary secretary for the United States, the same position which Miss Amelia B. Edwards then held, and which Prof. R. Stuart Poole, D.C.L., LL.D., now holds, for England.

Dr. Winslow is one of the world's faithful workers, and a leaf from the published "Journal of Convention" of the diocese of Massachusetts for 1889 will give some idea of his busy life.

In obedience to the canon, he reported his year's work to the Bishop, as follows: "Including nearly three hundred editorials, articles, letters for the press, and seventeen lectures, in relation to Egyptian and biblical research, the larger part of



William Copley Winslow.

my year's work has been for the Egypt Exploration Fund. Nearly two thousand personal letters, countless circulars dispatched, five hundred and eighty receipts written, the entire financial management, with its arduous clerical toil, are among my drudgeries. The bright side of the labor to me, and a sufficient reward, is in the noble achievements of the Fund for religion and science, and in the personal receipt of thousands of grateful and inspiring letters from some of the greatest and best men in our land. Passing by congenial work, in connection with the Free Church Association, various societies and learned bodies of Europe and America, I will simply add that I have officiated at one hundred and ten services, attended ninety-seven meetings (taking part in nearly all of them) for philanthropic, charitable, or educational purposes, besides attending many committee meetings. Sermons and addresses for all occasions, foot up one hundred and ninety-nine."

Among his most important Egyptological writings are "What Says Egypt of Israel?" "The Store City of Pithom," "Explorations of Zoan," "A Greek City in Egypt," "The Identification of Avaris," "The Ritual of the Dead," and "The Tombs at Beni Hasan."

His translations of the Statue of Rameses II. and of the Column from Ahnas (the Pi-Beseth of the Scriptures) have been published.

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OLD TESTAMENT HISTORY IN THE LIGHT OF RECENT DISCOVERIES IN EGYPT.*

By William C. Winslow, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.C.L., LL.D.

AMONG the rays flashed from the prism of archæological exploration and research in Old Egypt, during the past decade, are those which relate directly or indirectly to Old Testament history. From a purely scientific standpoint, light upon the history of the Hebrew nation, particularly in the dawn of its career, is of no little value to the scholar and to all interested in the evolution of civilization; while to the believer in Christianity as well as to the Jewish race, such light cast upon the narrative of the sojourn in Egypt is doubly precious as well as interesting. If science is glad to have a Schliemann answer the question, Are the stories of Homer pure fiction? both science and religion are glad to have a Naville reply to the interrogation, Was Rameses II. the Pharoah of the Oppression?

Now, does the Pithom discovered by Naville substantiate the descriptive contexts of Exodus I.? We read that the children of Israel "built for Pharaoh, treasure cities, Pithom and Raamses" (Exodus I., II). The sacred name Pithom (Pi Tum) occurs fifteen times, and the civil name, Succoth, twenty-two times, on the various excavated monumental inscriptions. To describe these inscriptions in detail, touched with local color and archæological environment, would alone far exceed the limits of this paper, which can only outline some of the discoveries in Egypt relating to Old Testament history.

Consider how well the English, the Hebrew, and the Septuagint descriptive words—treasure, store, fortified—harmonize on this site of Pithom found by Naville. A treasure city has special significance when we remember that grain was a medium of exchange, and graneries a kind of government bank. An order for so much corn meant an order on the treasury. An order for bread in the Fifty second year of Rameses II. is thus translated: "Paid out in bread to the men this day—serf-folk, 8 persons, 16 loaves; house folk, 12 persons, 24 loaves." I think the English translation does not, after all, misconceive the Hebrew of Exodus I , II; for in the absence of iron and time-locks, the grain treasuries were strongly built, and the treasury not easily plundered. How was it at Pithom? Enormously thick walls and most substantial partitions between the chambers; entrance only from the top; a place easily guarded against the Shasu, or Bedouins, of that day. In fact, these grain treasuries were as much needed in the days of Rameses as are government treasuries in the days of Victoria and Cleveland.

And the site itself scientifically testifies to the statement of both versions

We are informed, also, that the Israelites were forced to make bricks with straw, without straw, with stubble—the precise conditions of the brick found at Pithom. Moreover, it was not the usual practice to use mortar with sunburnt brick; yet the rare exception was made at Pithom, for there to-day may be seen the thin layers of mortar between the excavated bricks; and the sentence in Exodus after the mention of Pithom refers to its use.

The Hebrew builded better than he knew at Pithom. In the course of time, the clay, the brick and the mortar over which he sighed, bore witness to his historic servitude in Egypt, to his tyrant, to Pithom as a biblical, and Hermopolis as a classical, site of greatest value in our knowledge of ancient geography.

It was no hyperbole for the London *Times* to say that the discovery of Pithom was the most brilliant biblical identification of our time.

Be it plainly understood that I, as a scientist, am now making no plea for the verification of Old Testament History. Indeed, I am simply bringing to notice the results, from recent discoveries in Egypt, that relate, directly or indirectly, to sites mentioned in the Old Testament.

Our spades find fire to have been a most destructive agent at the imperial Zoan, the Tanis of the Greeks. The unearthing of the private houses, in genuine Pompeiian style, reveals the sad havoc played by fire almost everywhere. By the mouth of Ezekiel, God had declared, "I will set fire in Zoan." We had known it was a desolate ruin, now we know scientifically that fire was set in Zoan—most destructively.

On an altar, excavated at Am in the suburbs of Zoan, is engraved as a title that of the "Chief of the chancellors and royal seal bearings." Our volume on the site says "this person was one of a series of officials whose titles were singularly parallel to the English Lord High Chancelior and Lord Privy Seal. Such titles imply a unique position, or one which would only be held in duplicate by a viceroy in a distant province." Under Pharaoh at Memphis, Thebes or Zoan, there could be but one such personage. Now this occurred, monumentally speaking, under the Hyksos kings. Joseph was under a Hyksos king—propably Apepi, the last monarch of the XVIIth Dynasty. And, biblically speaking, Joseph had such power. So we read: "Let Pharaoh look out a man discreet and wise, and set him over the land of Egypt. . . . And Pharaoh said unto Joseph . . . Thou shalt be over my house, and according unto thy word shall all my people be ruled; only in the throne will I be greater than thou. . . . See, I have set thee over all the land of Egypt. And Pharaoh took off his signet ring from his hand, and put it upon Joseph's hand, and arrayed him in vestures of fine linen, and put a gold chain about his neck; and he made him to ride in the second chariot which he had; and they cried before him, Bow the knee; and he made him ruler over all the land of Egypt." Such an inscription as the above, therefore, reflects much light upon these vivid passages in the biography of Joseph.

A marked peculiarity of the Hyksos inscriptions at Tanis is that they are always in a line down the right shoulder, never on the left; whereas the native Egyptians inscribed either side indifferently. This Semitic honoring of the right shoulder recalls at once such passages as Exodus, xxix: 22; Leviticus, vii: 32, 33 ; Numbers, xviii: 18.

* Delivered by the author in the Hall of Columbus, July 13, 1893, Department of Philology, World's Congress Auxiliary. Edited from the official copy by Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M., Chairman.

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The statement, "There went up with Joseph both chariots and horsemen," disputed as impossible by Kalisch and others, who have said that there were no mounted horsemen in the Egyptian army, is established by two granite tablets which refer to "the very valorous upon horses," and "strong upon their horses."—expressions applied to Rameses and his soldiers. The sublime hymn, "The horse and his rider hath he thrown into the sea," becomes fact, as well as poetry, in the light of such texts from the long-buried monuments of a site like Zoan.

In the Boston Museum of Fine Arts is an ungainly statue of an elderly brother of the Pharaoh of the Exodus. This crouching figure is entitled "General of Cavalry," while Menepthah was called "General of Infantry," terms indicative of both mounted, and foot soldiers in the armies of Egypt. I beg to ask if Menepthah's early training with infantrymen, and, at all events, not with cavalry, saved him from drowning in the Red Sea? He was king, to be sure; but it was a mighty array of charioteers and cavalry that rushed after the fugitive Israelites, and he may have been a very poor horseman, as timid on horseback as he was fickle when Moses interviewed him.

Where in Egypt was the land of Goshen? Saft-el-Henneh, some four miles east of the railway station, Zagazig, is shown to be the site of the capital, in that land, and the all-important discovery is told in the volume of the Egyptian Exploration Fund entitled "Goshen, and the Shrine of Saft-el-Henneh." Dr. Naville had read on two fragments in the Museum at Cairo, inscr.ptions relating to this nome; and when in his personal research he espied a block of black granite peeping from the mud at Saft-el-Henneh, his trained eye instantly recognized it as a third fragment of the monument, from which the two fragments had been taken. Excavations followed with the proofs that this site, within the walls of brick, anciently was the city of Goshen, and the country about it, the land of that name.

In briefly introducing another biblical site, that of the *Tahpanhes* of Jeremiah, let me remark that even the dull spade must have enjoyed turning up a gold handle to a tray, such as Pharaoh Hophra used when he passed the cup to his ascetic visitor. That exquisite ornament now flashes its mellow radiance from a case in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. Mr. Petrie found Pharaoh's wine-jars formerly containing choice wine, marked with the lute-shaped hieroglyph *nefer*. Nefer means "good," and three nefers on a jar stood for what they meant. The XXX on a barrel of American ale, is simply an evolution of *nefer*, *nefer*, *nefer* on those wine-jars at Tahpanhes.

A re-study is necessary of the ten chapters of Jeremiah, from the 37th to the 47th chapter inclusive, in which the events in Egypt following the destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar are described, in order to fully appreciate the importance of such excavations as those of Tell-el-Defeneh, the site of the Daphnae of the Greeks, and the Tahpanhes of Jeremiah.

The most precious treasures revealed at Bubastis, when Naville's wand touched the mounds, are the inscriptions of the XVIIIth Dynasty and of the Hyksos monuments Declared the prophet Ezekiel: "The young men of Aven and of Pi-Beseth (i.e., Bubastis) shall fall by the sword: and these cities shall go into captivity." The name of Menepthah occurs several times upon the monuments; and the explorer also disinterred the first Hyksos statue ever found with the head-dress complete; and then another Hyksos statue. Near to the latter statue, now in the British Museum, was found the name that signifies his standard—Apepi—the last of the Hyksos kings, under whom Joseph entered Egypt. Bubastis adjoins what is now proved to have been "the land of Goshen," just where Jacob settled; and Bubastis would be precisely where Joseph's Pharaoh would reside, or, at least, often hold a court.

Here is a remarkable coincidence: near to a statue that is in all probability that of Joseph's Pharaoh, is found one bearing the name Raian—the name that Arab tradition assigns to that Pharaoh. From our scientific investigation, we can simply suppose that Dr. Naville has unearthed veritable statues of the renowned prime minister's sovereign; and we ask the significant question, Did Joseph's Pharaoh have the name Raian as well as Apepi? or, did he flourish in his long life under two potentates? *Every mound of Egypt is history in fragments, if not in complete form.*

The tablets found at Tell-el-Amarna reveal to us much of the court and diplomatic life of the XVIIIth Dynasty, when Israel prospered in Egypt and shows how Semitic influence and Semitic officials were in favor particularly with Amenophis IV., who was known in Egyptian history as Khuenaten, the heretic, because he worshiped the sun's disc. With the XIXth Dynasty came the king "that knew not Joseph," when Israel, getting too strong numerically, passed under the harrow.

A tablet disinterred at Lachish, the city of the Ammonites captured by Joshua, bears the name of Zimrida, the governor of Lachish, the very man mentioned in the Tell-el Amarna tablets! So not only do the Tell-el-Amarna tablets establish the existence of Lachish, but Lachish testifies to the existence of the tablets at that time. Moreover, the Lachish clay document illustrates the interchange of these tablets for correspondence, between Egypt, Canaan and Babylon. Professor Sayce was, I think, the first to point out how these tablets, as well as the Assyrian cylinders, record the name Uru-Salim, that is, Jerusalem, and that the position held by Melchizedek, as described in Genesis, was simply that held by other kings—kings by reason of their priesthood.

A complete picture of the varied society in the Fayum in the golden days of the Ptolemys, is afforded by the rescued papyri from Gurob; and Professor Mahaffy tells us that the vocabulary of the Septuagint is in many cases paralleled by these papyri; the peculiar words which occur in it occur also in them.

Here we pause. Our endeavor to present in simple speech some of the "results" of recent research in Egypt, which relate to Old Testament history, will, we hope, lead a few, who hear, or may read these words, to scientifically examine these "results", and to give them the same benefit that a true impartiality awards to all historical exploration and achievement. Let the discoveries of the Navilles be as critically, but as fairly, judged as those of the Schliemanns. In performing its mission in the land of the Pharaohs, the Egypt Exploration Fund decrees that all its representatives be broadminded, fair, thorough, and, above all, scientific, in their aims and work, whether the site be secular or sacred, of an early dynasty, or of a biblical epoch, of a nature interesting to the Egyptologist, or fascinating to the student of Greek architecture or art, in its evolution from Egyptian ideals and examples. Its fitting motto may be expressed as "Light, more Light," and its goal as "Truth, and Truth only."

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

A.D.

1701 Cassini discovers the Satellites of Saturn. Frederick III. crowns himself and his consort and assumes the title of Frederick I., King of Prussia. War for the succession of Spain. Death of the King of Spain. Duke of Anjou is crowned at Madrid under the name of Phillip II. Grand alliance signed by the Plenipotentiaries and the Emperor King William, and the States General. Battle of Narva Charles XII. defeats the Russians with great slaughter. He defeats the Poles and Saxons near Riga. Death of James II. of England.

1702 England declares war against France, the Hague and Vienna. Russia and Austria dismember Poland. The French fleet at Vigo defeated by the English and Dutch. Warsaw surrenders to Charles XII. Queen Anne successor to William III. of England.

1703 Ascendency of Tory principles in England. St. Petersburg built by Peter. Augustus, king of Poland, deposed by Charles I.

1704 Battle of Blenheim, Aug. 13. Gibraltar taken by the English Admiral Brooke from the Spaniards. The French and their allies defeated at Hochstadt. Death of James Bénigne Bossnet, the celebrated French divine.

1705 The Whig interest predominates in the English parliament The French maintain their superiority in Italy.

1706 Battle of Ramillies between the English and French, the Duke of Marlborough commanding the English forces. Union between England and Scotland. Siege of Turin The English and Portuguese take Madrid. Battle of Clissaw.

1707 Prince Eugene conquers the King of Naples. Scottish representatives admitted for the first time to the British parliament. Battle of Almanza. Battle of Ondenarde, July 11.

1708 The Emperor Joseph humbles the Pope and the Italian states. Expedition against Moscow by Charles I.

1709 Battle of Malplaquet, Sept. 11. Battle of Pultowa, July 8. Charles XII. is defeated by the Czar of Russia. He escapes to Bender.

1710 St. Paul's Cathedral, London, begun by Sir Christopher Wren, is completed. Peter the Great conquers Livonia, Corland, etc. Spaniards are defeated by Generals Stanhope and Staremberg at Almenara and Saragossa. Tories possess a majority in the English House of Commons.

1711 Ruins of Herculaneum discovery. Death of Nicholas Boileau, an eminent French poet, aged 75 years. Marlborough takes Bouchain. The Duke of Marlborough deprived of his employments by the English House of Commons.

A.D.

1712 Death of John Dominic Cassini, French astronomer, aged 87 years. Prince Eugene reduces Quesnoy.

1713 Treaties between the different powers signed at Utrecht, March 6. Arcadia ceded to the English. Charles II. taken prisoner by the Turks.

1714 Death of Queen Anne of England. George I. ascends the English throne. The French and Germans make peace at Radstadt. Death of Louis XIV. of France, Sept. 1. Naples invaded by Philip V.

1715 Battle of Sheriffmuir, Nov. 15, between the Scotch and rebel forces, under the Pretender to the English throne. Death of Malebranche, French metaphysician. Death of Fenelon, the celebrated archbishop of Cambray. Death of Dr. Thomas Burnett, aged 80 years.

1716 Wismar surrenders to the Danes and Prussians. Frederick IV. of Denmark drives the Swedes out of Norway. Death of Leibnitz. Battle of Peterwaradin, where the Turks are signally defeated by Prince Eugene of Savoy.

1717 The French found the city of New Orleans.

1718 Death of Charles I. of Sweden, Dec. 11; killed by a cannon shot. Quadruple Alliance. John Law and the famous Mississippi Scheme. The South Sea Scheme. Inoculation for the small pox introduced by Lady Mary Wortley Montague.

1719 Death of Joseph Addison, one of the greatest of England's classic prose writers, aged 47 years. Death of Madame de Maintenon.

1720. Failure of the South Sea Company in England. Gibraltar attacked by the Spaniards, who were repulsed with great loss.

1721 Conspiracy in favor of the Pretender in England.

1722 The title of Czar, from Cæsar, assumed by the sovereigns of Russia. Death of Marlborough, the great English general.

1723 Death of the Duke of Orleans. Death of Lady Rachel Russell, wife of Lord William Russell, aged 87 years.

1725 Treaty of Vienna. Treaty of Hanover. Linnæus, Swedish botanist, begins his system.

1726 6,000 persons perish in an earthquake at Palermo.

1727 Treaty of Saville. Death of George I. and accession of his son, George II., of England. Gibraltar unsuccessfully attacked by the Spanish. Dr. Bradley of England discovers aberration of the stars. Death of Sir Isaac Newton, great astronomer.

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A.D.

1728 The Danish navigator, Behring, explores Behring's Strait. Great conflagration in Copenhagen.

1729 Rise of the Methodists in Oxford University, England. North and South Carolina are separated under different governments. Founding of Baltimore. Death of Sir Richard Steele, the great Irish essayist and dramatist.

1730 Death of Jacques Saurin, the great Huguenot preacher. Russia deposes Peter II. and gives the crown to Anne of Courland. Founding of the Wesleyan Methodists by John Wesley.

1731 The contracting powers of the Seville Treaty guarantee the Pragmatic Sanction.

1732 Franklin issues his Poor Richard's Almanac. Birth of George Washington, Feb. 22, at Pope's Creek, Virginia.

1733 Death of the king of Poland. Georgia granted to Gen. Oglethorpe by George II. Savannah founded Feb. 1. Continental war through the death of the king of Poland.

1734 Naples and Sicily gained to the House of Bourbons under Charles, son of the king of Spain. Battle of Parma. England, France and Spain united against the emperor of Austria. Founding of the Moravian Missionary Society. Rapid progress of the French arms in Italy.

1735 Wm. Ged of Edinburgh is said to have suggested stereotyping. Diphtheria rages in New Hampshire and Massachusetts.

1736 War between the Russians and the Turks. Corsica is erected under a kingdom under its first and only king, Theodore. Death of Prince Eugene of Savoy.

1737 The Russians make themselves master of Oczakoff. Discovery of buried Herculaneum.

1738 150,000 people perish in a massacre ordered by Kouli Khan at Delhi, India. Beginning of Westminster Bridge, England.

1739 The Turks obtain an advantageous peace.

1740 War for the succession of Austria.

1741 Linnæus founds the Royal Academy of Sweden. New Hampshire formed into a separate organization. Battle of Molwitz. Death of Rollin, the historian. Death of Rousseau, the poet.

1742 Munich taken from Charles of Germany by the Austrians. Battle of Czeslau. Treaty of Breslau. Siege of Prague.

1743 Battle of Dettingen, in which the French are defeated. Death of Massillon, the celebrated Bishop of Clermont. Battle of Campo Santo. Treaty of Alliance between France and Spain.

1744 Death of Alexander Pope, English poet. The siege of Coni, in which the king of Sardinia is defeated. The Prussians take Prague.

1745 Battle of Fontenoy, in which the allies are defeated, April 30. The famous battle of Preston Pans, Scotland, July, in which the Pretender gains the victory.

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1746 The Battle of Culloden, April 16, in which the Scottish rebels, headed by the Pretender, are defeated by the English, led by William, Duke of Cumberland. Destruction of Lima by an earthquake. Mareschal Saxe takes Brussels. Battle of Roucoux, Oct. 1. The French reduce Madras. The English Admiral Hawke defeats the French squadron. Siege of Genoa by the Austrians and Piedmontese. The office of Stadtholder made hereditary in the Orange family in Holland.

1747 Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which Milan is vested in the House of Austria. Death of Dr. Isaac Watts, the great English hymnist. Great riots in England.

1749 The last imperial army defeated by the Rohillas, India. Founding of the Radcliffe library, Oxford, England, by Dr. John Radcliffe.

1751 New style of reckoning adopted in England made to agree with the Gregorian calendar, by leaving 11 days out of the calendar the next year. Maria Theresa and the French king make an alliance against the king of Prussia.

1752 Identity of lightning and electricity ascertained by Franklin at Philadelphia.



Jacques Saurin.

1754 Birth of Gilbert Charles Stuart in Rhode Island. Slavery abolished among the Quakers by themselves. French commence hostilities in Nova Scotia on the frontier. Terrific eruption of Ætna.

1755 Destruction of Lisbon by the great earthquake. French settlers expelled from Acadia. Defeat of Gen. Braddock.

1756 Terrible black-hole of Calcutta, in which 123 out of 146 British subjects perish in one night, Calcutta having been taken by Surrjah Dowla. The French invade the island of Minorca. War declared against France by England. The French take Oswego. The king of Prussia invades Saxony, and makes himself master of Dresden. Defeat of the Austrians at the battle of Lowositz. Birth of John Trumbull, painter, in Connecticut. The French are defeated at Rosbach.

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A.D.

1757 The English Admiral Byng tried and shot in Portsmouth harbor. Col. Clive retakes Calcutta. Battle of Prague, in which the Imperialists and Bohemians contend, May 6. Battle of Rosbach, Nov. 5, in which the French are defeated. Battle of Lissa, Dec. 5. Death of Augustine Calmet, aged 85 years, a learned theologian.

1758 Battle of Crevelt, June 23. The French defeated. Battle of Zorndorff. The Russians defeated with great slaughter. Abercrombie is repulsed by Montcalm at Ticonderoga. Louisburg and Fort Duquesne taken by the English.

1759 The English take Quebec. Death of General Wolfe, Sept. 13. Battle of Minden or Thornhausen, Aug. 1. The French defeated. Battle of Cunersdorff Aug. 12. Defeat of the Prussian Infantry. The English Admiral Hawke defeats a great French fleet.

1759-60 Death of Gen. Montcalm. The French lose all Canada. Death of Ferdinand VI. of Spain and secession of Charles III.

1760 All Canada is surrendered to the English. The Battle of Warbourg, July 31. The French retreat. Battle of Torgau,



Riot in London. July 7, 1780.

Nov. 3. Austrians are routed. Death of George II. of England. Accession of George III. The denomination of Swedenborgians began about this time. Blackfriars bridge started.

1762 Murder of Peter III. of Russia. Catherine II., his wife, succeeds to the throne. Great drought in America; no rain for four months. Siege of Moro by the earl of Albemarle. Spanish defeated.

1763 Treaty of Hubertsburg, which terminates the war in Germany. Dispute between Jansenists and Jesuits in France. Augustus III. of Poland dies.

1764 Expulsion of the Jesuits from France. Expulsion of Wilkes from the English House of Commons. Rhode Island College granted a charter, now Brown University. Pontiac makes war with the Indians.

1765 Passing of the Stamp Act in New York; following year repealed.

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1767 Jesuits expelled from Spain, Apr. 2. From Mexico, June 25, and from Naples, Nov. 3. The English government passes an act taxing tea, paper, glass, etc.

1768 The Massachusetts Assembly petitions the king of England against tax on trade in the American Colonies. Landing of an English force in Boston, Oct. 1.

1769 The Turks terribly defeated at the Battle of Choczim, Russia.

1770 Lord North succeeds Chatham as prime minister of England. The Boston Massacre, March 5. Captain Cook discovers New South Wales Death of Geo. Whitefield, the celebrated English divine. Imprisonment of Ann Lee for her peculiar religious belief; founder of the Shakers.

1771 Thomas Grey, English poet, dies July 3.

1772 Warren Hastings becomes governor of Bengal, April 13.

1773 Jesuits expelled from Rome, Aug. 16. Three hundred and forty-two chests of tea thrown into Boston harbor, Dec. 16.

1774 Death of Oliver Goldsmith, Irish poet, historian and essayist, aged 46 years. Louis XV. of France dies, and is succeeded by his grandson, Louis XVI., May 10. First American Continental Congress meets at Philadelphia.

1775 Battle of Lexington, Apr. 19, the beginning of the war of American Independence.

1776 Death of Hume, the great English historian and philosopher.

1777 Neckar becomes prime minister of finance in France.

1778 Death of Jean Jacques Rousseau, French writer, July 3, aged 66 years. Captain Cook discovers the Sandwich Islands. Death of Carl von Linnæus, Swedish naturalist and botanist, aged 71 years, Jan. 10. Death of David Garrick, English tragedian, aged 63 years. The Treaty of Pardo, March 31. The war between Spain and Portugal. Death of William Pitt, Lord Chatham, May 11. Death of Voltaire.

1780 Death of Sir Wm. Blackstone, the great English judge, aged 57 years, Feb. 14. Anti-popery riots in England, in which Lord George Gordon figures. Torture abolished in France.

1781 May 23, French Minister Neckar resigns. Naval engagement between the Dutch and English fleets off Dogger-bank, Aug. 5. Naval battle between the French and English. The Nabob of Oude and Warren Hastings sign the treaty of Chunar, Hindostan.

1782 Holland recognizes the independence of the United States, Oct. 8. England signs a provisional treaty, acknowledging the independence of the United States at Paris, Nov. 30. Abolishment of the inquisition in Naples.

1783 Sweden acknowledges the independence of the United States, Feb. 5. Denmark, Feb. 25. Spain, March 24. Japan visited by a terrible earthquake. Twenty-seven towns and scores of

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thousands of lives lost. Great Britain, France and Spain conclude a treaty at Versailles, Paris, Sept. 3.

1784 Death of Allan Ramsay, Scottish portrait painter, aged 75 years, Aug. 10. Death of Samuel Johnson, English lexicographer, aged 75 years, Dec. 13.

1785 Warren Hastings, governor-general of India, resigns and returns to England. Beginning of the Germanic Confederation at Berlin, July 23. Invention of the guillotine, by Dr. Guillotine, of Paris.

1786 Death of Major-General Greene, of America.

1787 The Anglican Church establishes its first colonial see.

1788 Death of John Ledyard, the traveler. Beginning of the trial of Warren Hastings, governor-general of India, Feb. 13, continuing seven years. Hastings is acquitted. Prince Charles Edward, the Pretender, dies at Rome, March 3. Death of Thomas Gainsborough, English landscape and portrait painter, aged 61 years, Aug. 2.

1789 Poland announces its independence of Russia. The title of National Assembly of France assumed by the states-general, June 17. The French people destroy the Bastile, July 14. The declaration of the "Rights of Man," adopted by the French assembly, Aug. 13. The Austrian and Russian army defeat the Turks at the battle of Martinesti, Wallachia, Sept. 22. The French people attack the palace of Versailles. Oct. 5 and 6. The King of the French adopted instead of the title, King of France, Oct. 16. The French people confiscate the property of the French clergy, Nov. 2. Death of Ethan Allen.

1790. Death of John Howard, English philanthropist, aged 64 years. The French king and queen visit the assembly and agree to the Revolution. Poland and Russia conclude an alliance at Warsaw, March 29. Death of Benjamin Franklin, celebrated natural philosopher and politician, aged 84 years.

1791 Death of John Wesley, founder of Methodism. Death of Honoré Gabriel Riquetti Mirabeau, one of the most celebrated characters of the French Revolution. Battle of Seringapatam, South India. Lord Cornwallis defeated. French populace arrest Louis XVI., his queen and family at Varennes, in their attempted flight from Paris, June 21. June 25, the French royal family are imprisoned in the Tuilleries by the Revolutionists.

1792 Russia attempts the protection of Greece, Russia and Turkey conclude the treaty of Jassy, Jan. 9. Death of Sir Joshua Reynolds, English painter. He was first president of the Royal Academy. Assassination of Gustavus III., king of Sweden, by Count Ankerstrom. Gustavus Adolphus IV. ascends the throne. France begins war against Austria, April 20. A band of nobles attempt to restore the Russian constitution of 1775 in Poland, called the Confederation of Targowitz, May 14. The French revolutionists attack the Tuilleries, June 20. The Austrians defeated at the battle of Menin, Belgium. June 20. Prussia, Austria and Holland unite against France in June. Massacre of the Swiss guards by the French revolutionists, Aug. 10. "Massacre of the Abbaye," which was one of the chief prisons of Paris, Sept. 30. The royal prisoners in Paris, including the Princess de Lamballe, are massacred by the French revolutionists. The "National Convention," abolishes royalty in France, Sept. 21. Establishment of the French Republic, Sept. 22. The French invade the Sardinian territories and occupy Savoy and Nice. Austria defeated at the battle of Jemmappes, Nov. 6. France annexes Savoy and Nice. Death of Johann C. Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, Austrian musical composer, aged 36 years, Dec. 5. Flanders is annexed to France, Dec. 15.

1793 Prussia and Russia sign the second treaty for the partition of Poland. Beheading of Louis XVI., aged 39 years, by the French revolutionists, January 21. France declares war against England, Spain and Holland. The establishment of a Revolutionary Tribunal in France. The French Republic invests Robespierre and his colleagues with dictatorial authority, March 25. England and Russia combine against France, March 25. Charlotte Corday assassinates Marat. Poland and Russia sign a treaty, July 22. Queen Marie Antoinette of France executed, Oct. 16. Madame Roland executed, Nov. 8.



Coach, Time of Anne.

1794 Death of Edward Gibbon, English historian, aged 57 years, January 16. The French invade Spain in February. Kosciusko expels the Russians from Cracow, March 24. Danton and his colleagues executed in France April 5. The Polish garrison massacre the Russians in Warsaw April 16. French defeated at the battle of Cambria, April 24. Death of Antoine Laurent Lavoisier, French chemist, May 8. Polish republic established by the Poles, with a national council for its government, May 10. Madame Elisabeth, sister of Louis XVI., executed May 12. French suffer a great defeat at the Battle of Espierres, May 22. "Habeas Corpus

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A D.

Act" suspended in England, May 23. Lord Howe defeats the French fleet near Ushant, June 1. Prussian forces capture Cracow, June 15. Austria and Prussia unite against Poland, June 15. Capitulation of Masstich. Battle of Fleurus, June 26. The fall of Robespierre in France, July 27. Robespierre, St. Just and 70 of their confederates executed. Close of the Reign of Terror, July 28. Death of Sir William Jones, the great oriental scholar, August 27. Russians defeat the Poles under Suwarrow at Praga. Over 12,000 Poles slain, November 4. Suwarrow captures Warsaw, November 9. The "Goddess of Reason" enthroned and worshiped in France, November 11. United States conclude a treaty of amity with Great Britain November 19.

1795 France and Prussia make peace at Basle, April 5. Warren Hastings acquitted April 23. Beginning of the voyage of Mungo Park to Africa, May 22. Louis XVII. dies in the Temple, June 8. Death of Boswell, biographer of Dr. Johnson, aged 55 years, June 19. France and Spain conclude a Treaty as Basle, July 22.

1796 Beginning of the Italian victories by Napoleon, April 9. Battle of Mondovi, Piedmont, April 22. Famous battle of Lodi in North Italy, May 10. France secures Savoy and Nice by the treaty of Paris, May 15. Death of David Rittenhouse, LL. D., of Philadelphia, aged 64 years, June 24. Death of Robert Burns, the great national poet of Scotland, July 21. Battle of Lonati at Lombardy, August 3. Death of Dr. Thomas Reid, metaphysician, aged 87 years, October 7. Battle of Arcola, November 14.

1797 France and Rome conclude Peace of Tolentino, February 19. The Bank of England stops payment through a commercial panic, February 27. France and Austria conclude Peace of

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Leoben, April 18. Death of Edmund Burke, the great English statesman, aged 68 years, July 9. The Dutch fleet defeated at the Battle of Camperdown, October 11. The Emperor of Germany recognizes the Cisalpine Republic, October 17. Treaty of Campo Formio between Austria and the French Republic. Napoleon Bonaparte returns to Paris, December 10.

1798 All English merchandise is confiscated in France, January 4. The Roman republic proclaimed by the French, March 20. Pope Pius VI. made prisoner by Napoleon and driven into exile. Great Britain again suspends the Habeas Corpus Act, April 20. France establishes the Helvetian republic in Switzerland. Embarkation of Napoleon Bonaparte for Egypt, May 20. Washington appointed Lieutenant-General and Commander-in-chief of the Army of the Revolution, July. Battle of the Pyramids, in Egypt, July 21. The French defeated at the Battle of the Nile, Egypt, August 1. England and Austria form a coalition Russia against France, December 29.

1799 The French capture Gaeta, January 14. The French establish the Parthenopean republic at Naples, January 23. England and Russia retreat from Holland. The French storm Jaffa, March 7. Napoleon retreats from Syria, May 20. The French defeated by the Austrians at the Battle of Zurich, June 5. The French retake Naples, after which an awful massacre takes place, June 17. England, Russia, Germany, Portugal and Naples form a second coalition against France, June 22. The great Battle of Aboukir, Egypt, July 25. Rome captured by the Neapolitans, August 25. Dutch fleet surrenders to the British Admiral Mitchell at the Texil, August 30. Death of Pope Pius VI. Death of George Washington, aged 67 years, December 14.

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For those who wish to read extensively, the following works, used in the preparation of this number, are especially commended:

AUTHOR.	TITLE OF WORK.
Abbot	History of Russia.
Alison	History of Europe.
Andrews	Institutes of General History.
Baring-Gould	The Story of Germany.
Brackenbury	Frederick the Great.
Burke	Appeal to Old Whigs.
Crichton-Wheaton	History of Denmark, Sweden and Norway.
Fletcher	History of Poland.
Fyffe	History of Modern Europe.
Green	Short History of the English People.
Guizot	History of England.
Hallem	Constitutional History of England.
Harrison (Gilman)	History of Spain.
Hazlett	The Life of Napoleon Bonaparte.
Kitchin	History of France.
Kropotkine	History of Russia.
Lecky	History of England in the Eighteenth Century.
Muirhead	History of Prussia.
McCarthy	The French Revolution.
Morrill	Russia.
Patton	Modern History.
Potter	Modern History, from the French of M. Michelet.
Sheldon	General History.
Sievers	History of Germany.
Sime	Frederick the Great.
Skottowe	A Short History of Parliament.
Smyth	Lectures on Modern History.
Steele	General History.
Thalheimer	Manual of Medieval and Modern History.
Yonge	Three Centuries of Modern History.

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NOT THINGS, BUT MEN

NOT MATTER, BUT MIND

THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES OF THE World's Columbian Exposition

HELD AT CHICAGO IN 1893

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

THE WORLD'S CONGRESS AUXILIARY

BY

CHARLES CARROLL BONNEY, LL.D.

Counsellor of the Supreme Court of the United States; Originator and General President of the World's Congresses of 1893; President of The International Council of The University Association, etc.

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NOT THINGS, BUT MEN.

THE World's Congress Auxiliary

OF THE

World's Columbian Exposition of 1893.

President, CHARLES C. BONNEY.
Vice-President, THOMAS B. BRYAN. Treasurer, LYMAN J. GAGE.
Secretaries, BENJ. BUTTERWORTH, CLARENCE E. YOUNG.

NOT MATTER, BUT MIND.

WOMAN'S BRANCH OF THE AUXILIARY.
MRS. POTTER PALMER, President. MRS. CHARLES HENROTIN, Vice-Pres.

PREFATORY MATTER.

THE WORLD'S CONGRESS AUXILIARY WAS CONSTITUTED AS FOLLOWS:

1. A CENTRAL ORGANIZATION, authorized by the Directory of the World's Columbian Exposition, and recognized by the Government of the United States as the proper agency to conduct a series of World's Congresses in connection with the Exposition.

2. A LOCAL COMMITTEE OF ORGANIZATION for each Congress. This Committee constituted the means of communication and action between the Auxiliary and persons and organizations that participated in a given Congress. This Committee of Arrangements consisted of a comparatively small number of persons who, with few exceptions, resided in or near the place where the Congresses were held.

3. ADVISORY COUNCILS. Each Committee had adjoined to it, and constituting its non-resident, but active branch, an Advisory Council, composed of persons eminent in the work involved, and selected from many parts of the world. The members of such Councils coöperated with the proper Committees by individual correspondence.

4. GENERAL HONORARY AND CORRESPONDING MEMBERS were also appointed. They were invited to give their advice and coöperation in relation to the whole series of the proposed Congresses.

5. COMMITTEES OF CO-OPERATION, appointed by particular organizations, were also recognized by the Auxiliary as representatives of Societies or Institutions, and were cordially invited to an active participation in the World's Congress work.

6. THE WOMAN'S BRANCH OF THE AUXILIARY consisted of the Committees of Women appointed to coöperate with the corresponding Committees of Men, in making the arrangements for Congresses appropriate for the participation of women. Mixed Committees were not appointed, but the two Committees acted as a Joint Committee, when occasion required.

THE GENERAL OBJECTS OF THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES WERE DECLARED TO BE,

To Establish fraternal relations among the leaders of mankind; to review the progress already achieved; to state the living problems now awaiting solution; to suggest the means of further progress; to bring all the departments of human progress into harmonious relations with each other in the Exposition of 1893; to crown the whole glorious work by the formation and adoption of better and more comprehensive plans than have hitherto been made; to promote the progress, prosperity, unity, peace, and happiness of the world, and to secure the effectual prosecution of such plans by the organization of a series of world-wide fraternities, through whose efforts and influence the moral and intellectual forces of mankind may be made dominant throughout the world.

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THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES

OF THE

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

CHAPTER I.

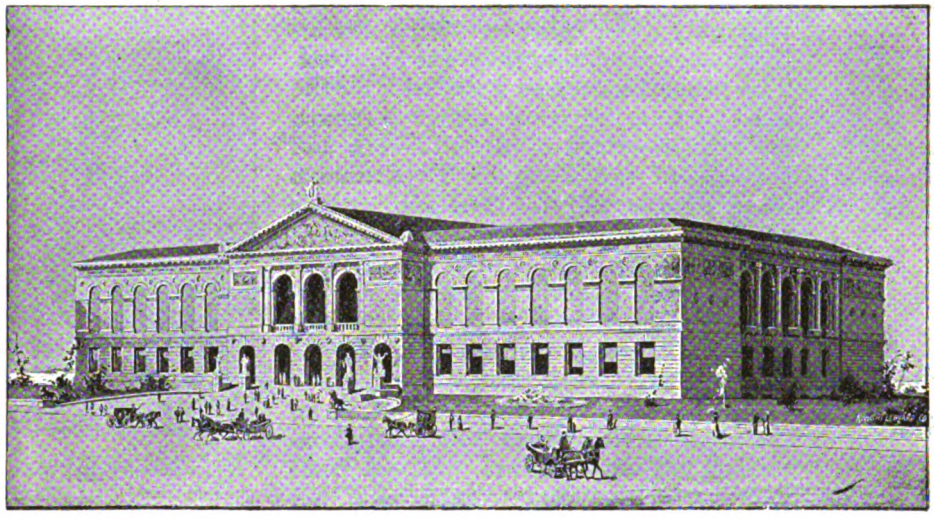
Introductory Outline of the World's Congress Organization and Work.

When proposed, opened, and closed.

THE World's Congresses of 1893 were first publicly proposed September 20, 1889; the first session was opened May 15, 1893, and the last was held October 28 of that year.

How organized.

The beginning of the organization was the formation of an Executive Committee of ten which held its first meeting October 15, 1889. As the plans developed, the need of a larger organization was seen, and



The Permanent Memorial Art Palace, in Which the World's Congresses were Held.

October 30, 1890, "the World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 was organized to arrange and conduct the proposed series of international Congresses.

Inaugural Ceremonies.

October 21, 1892, the Inaugural Ceremonies of the World's Congresses were held in connection with the dedication of the buildings erected for the Material Exposition, which was held at Jackson Park, at the South end of the City of Chicago.

Where held.

The World's Congresses were held in what was called the Permanent Memorial Art Palace, erected through the co-operation of the City of Chicago, the Directory of the Exposition, and the management of the Art Institute of Chicago. The city contributed the site, consisting of a part of the Lake Front Park, on the Shore of Lake Michigan, near the heart of the city, and about six miles north of Jackson Park; the Exposition Directory furnished two hundred thousand dollars, and the Art Institute four hundred thousand dollars for the building erected.

Memorial Art Palace.

This Art Palace, now called the Art Institute, is a massive building of three stories in height, in antique style, 319 feet in front on Michigan Avenue, with two wings extending eastwardly 176 feet. It contains

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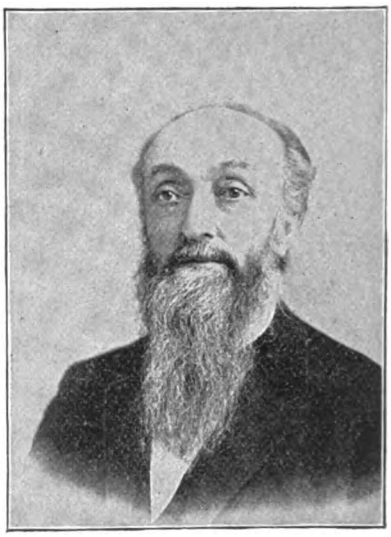
thirty-three halls, besides committee rooms and storage rooms, and there were also built, between the wings, two temporary auditoriums calculated to seat three thousand persons each. There were occasions when it was estimated that four thousand persons were crowded into each of these auditoriums, the northerly of which was called the Hall of Columbus, the other the Hall of Washington. Of the smaller halls in the permanent building, twenty were used for meetings and the remainder for the other purposes of the Congresses. These halls were seated to accommodate from one hundred to six hundred persons each.

Attendance on the Congresses.

There were times when the whole building was crowded and it was claimed that twelve thousand persons were in simultaneous attendance on the sessions of the various Congresses; and there were other times when the interest was less intense, and the daily participants in the Congresses were numbered by hundreds rather than by thousands. It is impossible, in this matter, to give exact numbers, but there were only a few cases in which the attendance was smaller than was expected. The general meetings were held, for the most part, in the great audience rooms, and the meetings of the divisions and sections of the Congress Departments in the smaller halls. The applications for times and places of meeting were so numerous, that long before the Congresses were opened it became an extremely difficult matter to find suitable accommodations for a new Congress.



Charles Carroll Bonney, LL.D.

The Auxiliary Membership and Committees.

As finally organized, the World's Congress Auxiliary consisted of 2,170 members, divided into 214 local Committees of Organization. Mixed committees of men and women were not appointed, but in all cases suitable for the participation of women, a Committee of Women was appointed to act in co-operation with the Committee of Men. These Committees of Women constituted what was called the Woman's Branch of the World's Congress Auxiliary. The general officers of the Auxiliary were a President, Vice President, Secretary and Treasurer; and the Woman's Branch had also its own President and Vice President.

Advisory Councils.

To these local Committees of Organization were adjoined what were called Advisory Councils, which consisted of eminent persons selected from the various participating countries to advise and assist the Committees of Organization in selecting writers and speakers for the different Congresses, and in perfecting the plans for them. The aggregate membership of these Advisory Councils was 14,528. The Chairman of each Committee of Organization was the Director of the Congress committed to its charge, and the President of the Auxiliary was the General Director of the whole series of the Congresses.

Departments, and General Divisions.

As finally settled, the World's Congress work was divided into twenty Departments and two hundred and twenty-four General Divisions, in which Congresses were held. These, in their chronological order, were as follows:

I. Woman's Progress, 25 Divisions; II. Public Press, 6 Divisions;

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III. Medicine and Surgery, 6; IV. Temperance, 12; V. Moral and Social Reform, 15; VI. Commerce and Finance, 10; VII. Music, 9; VIII. Literature, 9; IX. Education, First Series 17, Second Series 16; X. Engineering, 9; XI. Art, 5; XII. Government, 7; XIII. General Department, 1, besides 4 held out of their regular order and here transferred to their proper places; XIV. Science and Philosophy, 13; XV. Social and Economic Science, 4; XVI. Labor, 1; XVII. Religion, 46, (of which the marvelous Parliament of Religions was the chief); XVIII. Sunday-Rest, 1; XIX. Public Health, 1; XX. Agriculture, 11.

Congress Sections.

The programmes also show 125 sections, of which 29 were of the nature of the General Divisions.

Sessions and Addresses.

These Congresses held 1,283 sessions, aggregating 753 days. The printed programmes show 5,978 addresses delivered or papers read, including 5,454 formal contributions, 131 Addresses of Welcome, 176 Addresses of Response and 217 Agricultural Reports. But these are much less than the actual number, for many papers and addresses were admitted after the programmes were printed, and were inserted in the corrected programmes used by the presiding officers.



Hon. W. T. Harris, A.M., LL.D.
U. S. Commissioner of Education.

Speakers and Countries.

A carefully prepared alphabetical index shows 5,822 speakers and writers whose names appear on the printed programmes, including 368 cases in which the name of the paper to be read or subject discussed, is not given. These participants in the Congresses represented all the continents of the world, and 97 nations, states, provinces, territories and colonies, besides 50 States and Territories of the American Union, making a total of 147 actually represented.

In the cases of 2,005 of the 5,822 names given in the printed programmes, the residence of the contributor is not given, but the tables compiled show the different occasions on which the 3,817 speakers and writers whose places of residence appear, took part in the Congress proceedings. This extremely interesting exhibit is as follows:

Countries in Detail.

Europe 803, Asia 104, Africa 41, North America 2,770, South America 48, Australasia 39, Pacific Islands 12. The places represented and the number of entries are: Algeria 5, Angola 1, Arabia 1, Argentine 7, Armenia 1, Asia Minor 1, Australia 8, Austria 35, Bavaria 5, Belgium 19, Bohemia 7, Brazil 6, British Guiana 4, Bulgaria 5, Burmah 1, Canada 39, Cape Colony 3, Ceylon 6, Chili 1, China 14, Columbia 3, Congo 3, Corea 1, Costa Rico 4, Cuba 3, Curacoa 2, Denmark 17, Ecuador 3, Egypt 15, England 200, Finland 7, France 99, French Congo 1, Germany 112, Great Britian 113, Greece 11, Gautemala 1, Hanover 1, Hayti 3, Holland 16, Honduras 1, Hungary 2, Iceland 5, India 31, Ireland 10, Italy 52, Jamaica 2, Japan 28, Johore 3, Liberia 4, Madagascar 1, Manitoba 3, Mexico 23, Monaco 1, New Brunswick 2, New Hebrides 2, New South Wales 19, New Zealand 1, Nicaraugua 2, North-West Territories (Canada) 1, Norway 9, Nova Scotia 1, Ontario 30, Orange Free State 3, Paraguay 4, Persia 3, Peru 3, Poland 3, Portugal 7, Quebec 15, Roumania 3, Russia 39, Sandwich Islands 7, Saxony 1, Scotland 41, Siam 4, Siberia 1, South Africa 3, South Australia 3, Spain 13, Straits Settlements 2, Sweden 33, Switzerland 20, Syria 7, Transylvania 1, Trinidad 2, Tunis 1, Turkey 11, United States of America 2,641, Uru-

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guay 3, Venezuela 9, Victoria 6, Wales 4, Wurtemberg 1. The representation of the United States was: Alabama 20, Alaska 2, Arizona 7, Arkansas 19, California 113, Colorado 34, Connecticut 50, Delaware 3, District of Columbia 127, Florida 11, Georgia 35, Idaho 7, Illinois 350, Indiana 85, Indian Territory 1, Iowa 59, Kansas 39, Kentucky 26, Louisiana 24, Maine, 31, Maryland 55, Massachusetts 236, Michigan 125, Minnesota 78, Mississippi 11, Missouri 97, Montana 8, Nebraska 28, Nevada 2, New Hampshire 16, New Jersey 48, New Mexico 4, New York 307, North Carolina 19, North Dakota 5, Ohio 140, Oregon 11, Pennsylvania 156, Rhode Island 21, South Carolina 19, South Dakota 14, Tennessee 49, Texas 29, Utah 5, Vermont 6, Virginia 21, Washington 14, West Virginia 6, Wisconsin 66, Wyoming 2.

This list embraces, in round numbers, only about two-thirds of the papers and addresses. It should, therefore, be borne in mind that the actual representation of the several countries was really much larger than here appears. The present exhibit, however, sufficiently shows that the Congresses of 1893 were truly World's Congresses in fact, as well as in name.

Important Rules and Regulations.

It is important to observe that not one of all the great array of speakers and writers had the right to be heard, of his own motion, in the Congress in which he appeared. No provision was made for any free debating society in the whole range of the Congresses. On the contrary, strict regulations were made and enforced for the exclusion of volunteer addresses, and of every form of random talk. The entire time at disposal was allotted to those who were supposed to be most competent to instruct and advise. The speakers and writers for each Congress were carefully selected by the Committee of Organization, with the advice of members of the Advisory Council of the Congress involved. Participation in the several Congresses was strictly regulated by the programmes formed by the Committees of Organization and approved by the President. Those whose names appeared on the programme, and those only, had the right to be heard.

Members of the Advisory Council of each Congress, located as they were in the chief centers of all the participating countries, were earnestly requested by the local Committee of Organization to recommend for the Congress, speakers and writers of the highest qualifications and abilities; and, as far as practicable, the preference was given to representatives from foreign countries.

Controversy Prohibited.

As was said in the announcements circulated throughout the world, CONTROVERSY WAS PROHIBITED, AND THE PASSING OF RESOLUTIONS OF APPROVAL OR OF CENSURE WAS FORBIDDEN IN THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES OF 1893. The writers and speakers were asked not to attack the views of others, but to set forth with as much cogency as possible the merits of their own.

The theory of the Congresses was that those who spoke in them were addressing the intellectual and moral world through the medium of the Congresses, and that the views expressed would be afterwards widely discussed in pulpit, forum, public press, and private conversation; and would ultimately be approved or disapproved by the enlightened public opinion of mankind.

The Aim of the Congresses.

To review the progress of the past, to make a clear statement of the problems that still await solution, and to suggest the means by which further progress may be made, were declared to be the supreme purposes of the World's Congresses of 1893.

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Wonderful Conformity to the Plans.

Notwithstanding all these precautions, it naturally happened, from the immensity of the work and the multiplicity of its details, that in a few cases papers not in conformity with the rules obtained admission. But so wonderfully well did the speakers in the various Congresses conform to the regulations made for their government that few violations occurred, and these served to prove the wisdom of the regulations adopted.

The Value of the Work.

The quality and value of the papers read and addresses delivered before the World's Congresses of 1893 has been witnessed by many competent judges. President Low, of Columbia College, says: "The World's Congresses at Chicago during the Columbian Exposition were a unique feature of that splendid undertaking. They were notable as a whole for the broad range of subjects treated, and for the wide territory from which the speakers came. The international element was naturally much more conspicuous than on ordinary occasions. In many cases the eminence of the speakers and writers would command general recognition."

President Low.

President Angell.

President Angell, of the University of Michigan, said: "I can truthfully say of the two Congresses I was able to attend—the Historical and the Educational—that in the importance of the subjects presented and the eminence of the speakers and writers, and the excellence of the papers and addresses, they compare favorably with any similar meeting which I ever attended. I think that at no educational Congress in this country was there ever such an attendance of eminent scholars from abroad."



Edward Everett Hale, D.D.

Cardinal Gibbons.

Cardinal Gibbons says: "These Congresses will be considered by posterity as of the first excellence. The greatest benefits resulting will be a greater and higher appreciation of the views held by others; a closer fellowship between all nations; and holier and stronger impulses for the betterment of humanity."

Dr. Edward Everett Hale.

Dr. Edward Everett Hale says: "I have no doubt that the administration of government in the next century will depend very largely upon the careful opinions digested in such congresses of experts."

Rev. Dr. Josiah Strong.

Rev. Dr. Josiah Strong, Secretary of the Evangelical Alliance, says: "The World's Congresses of 1893, generally, can hardly be compared with anything else because they were *sui generis*. These Congresses constitute, as has well been stated, a Great World's Summer University. They cannot fail to exert a great educational influence."

Hon. William T. Harris.

Hon. William T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, says: "I think that wider benefits will result from the World's Congresses of 1893 than from any similar ones held before, because of their connection with the great Exposition, and because of the wider and fuller representation of the countries of the world at these Congresses, and because the preparation of the programmes for them was undertaken with more radical views, and with the characteristic energy of spirit which prevails in Chicago to get at once to the heart of the matter."

Rev. Dr. George Dana Boardman.

Rev. Dr. George Dana Boardman says: "The World's Congresses of 1893 were so distinctively and conspicuously intellectual and moral as to make any comparison needless and almost impossible. Among the resulting benefits will be a quickening and broadening of intellect, and the upbuilding of character, personal, national, human."

Rev. George T. Candlin.

Rev. George T. Candlin, Missionary at Tsin Tsin, China, says: "The Parliament of Religions was of the mountainous order of greatness. It suggested infinitude and eternity. Like great events, like great deeds, like great men, it asks the perspective of time to show that change,

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which wastes and scars all earthly things, will grave deep and imperishable, as in granite, the record of its durability and abiding influence. Its purpose was not to chronicle past victories and record past progress, though this of course it did, but to open the door to future and immeasurably greater ones. It was a prelude, not a finale; a promise, not a boast; a prospect, not a recollection."

Right Hon. Emilio Castelar.

Emilio Castelar, the Spanish orator and statesman, says: "From the beginning of the world until today, history has never recorded an event so momentous as the union, under one roof and one leadership and for one purpose, of the clergy of the world, representing the chief religions whose dogmas and rites hold our planet in touch with the Creator, as the forces of affinity and attraction hold it in touch with the universe."

Prof. F. Max Muller

Prof. F. Max Muller, of Oxford, says: "Who would have thought that what was announced as simply an auxiliary branch of the World's Columbian Exposition could have developed into what it was—could have become the most important part of that immense undertaking—could have become the greatest success of the year; and, I do not hesitate to say, could now take its place as one of the most memorable events in the history of the world? It seemed at the first glance that it would be a mere show, a part of the great show of Industry and Art. But instead of a show, it developed into a reality, which, if I am not mistaken, will be remembered, aye, will bear fruit when everything else of the mighty Columbian Exposition has long been swept from the memory of man."



Dr. F. Max Müller.

British Royal Commission.

The British Royal Commission in its official report declared that "whole series of the Congresses was certainly the most elaborate and complete that has ever been held."

French Delegate General.

The French Delegate General to the Congresses, the Marquis de Chasseloup-Laubat, concludes his elaborate report with the statement that "the lasting results of the Congresses at Chicago have been great, just and generous, and that these Congresses constituted one of the most remarkable manifestations of the human mind that has ever occurred on American soil—that gigantic America which will gain each day a greater importance in the world, in the evolution of civilization, and in the destiny of the human race." Such expressions of opinions might be indefinitely extended, but enough has been said to show how the proceedings of the World's Congresses of the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893, are regarded by leaders of the first rank in the intellectual and moral world.

Cost of the World's Congress Work.

The cost of the World's Congress work was in round numbers three hundred thousand dollars. Of this amount, two hundred thousand dollars was contributed, as above stated, to provide places of meeting for the Congresses, leaving one hundred thousand dollars for the other expenses of the work. Of this sum about seventeen thousand dollars was provided by various Committees of Organization, and the residue was furnished by the Directory of the Exposition, except a small appropriation made by the national government in an act of recognition.

NOTE.—The foregoing chapter is published in this number of PROGRESS to meet a general demand from our many hundreds of local centers for the information which it contains.

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NOTES FROM CENTERS

We publish below, extracts from a few of the many kind letters recently received from friends of the Association in all parts of the country. They indicate the rapidly growing popularity of this great educational movement among the masses.

"After careful investigation I am ready to give the work of The University Association my hearty approval and co-operation. The plan for universal education along University Extension and Chautauqua lines, affords grand opportunities to thousands of men and women—young and old—for a broader and more liberal culture. This section must not fail to take advantage of these opportunities. I bespeak for the movement the kind encouragement of all good citizens—an encouragement which it certainly merits."

J. G. CRABBE.
Supt. of Schools, Ashland, Ky., and Chairman Kentucky Educational "Committee of Ten."

Prof. Crabbe has shown his practical appreciation of the work by organizing a center of 100 members at Ashland. The Ashland *News* of recent date says: "The Center is composed of our brightest and most intelligent people. It is a splendid thing and many more should avail themselves of the opportunity of taking up these studies."

"We have a flourishing center at this place. We have twenty-nine members, all workers and very enthusiastic. This is indeed a great work and the best organ for the dissemination of education among all classes of which I have ever had knowledge."

MRS. E. T. TALIAFERRO.
Principal North Mississippi Presbyterian College, Holly Springs, Miss.

"Accept best wishes for the usefulness and success of The University Association, expressive of my appreciation of its objects."

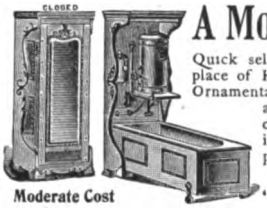
JAMES LEGGE.
Prof. of Chinese Literature, University of Oxford, England.

"I congratulate you on the success of The University Association, and I know how perfect will be its work for the good of the community."

MRS. ELLEN M. HENROTIN.
President of General Federation of Women's Clubs of America.

The Minister's Club of Mason City, Iowa (representing all denominations), send the following emphatic endorsement: "The work of the University Association deserves the earnest attention and support of thoughtful people, especially ministers of the Gospel and educators. As education is not finished when we leave school, college or university, such a means of continuous systematic and suggestive self-culture as that provided by the University Association will be very helpful to all who are ambitious enough to pursue systematic study in the fields of science, literature, economics or art. Your committee would, therefore, suggest that the Ministers' Club of Mason City, Iowa, endorse the work of The University Association for the following reasons:

First, because the plan for the study of Universal History, if followed closely as laid out in the Syllabus, cannot fail to help students to a better conception of the history of the world in ancient, mediæval and modern times. Second, because the thorough study that will be necessary to make up



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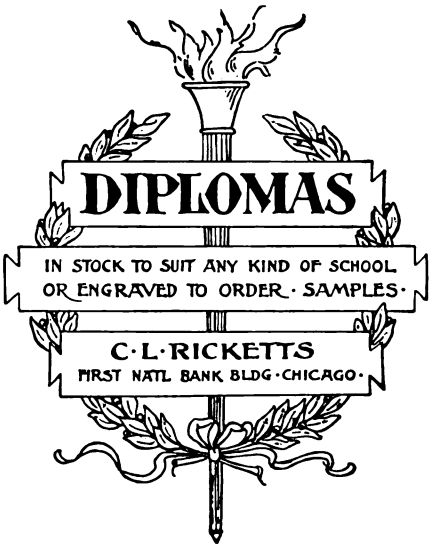

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"universal history" will also prove beneficial as a mental invigorator and stimulus to further thoughtful investigation in the perusal of the suggested books for special research. It is further suggested that we very cordially recommend the work of the University Association to the thoughtful consideration of our citizens and that a copy of this report be handed both to the city press and to Prof. King for the University Association."

Respectfully submitted,
J. C. QUINN, D. D., Ph. D.
Committee on the work of The University Association.
Accepted and adopted. F. G. WILCOX, Secretary.

"Your organization appears to be sound and admirably designed to furnish needful assistance and safe guides to every earnest self-educator. I shall be glad to serve it in any way."

COL. A. T. PRESCOTT.
President The Industrial Institute and College of Louisiana, Ruston, La.

"I have examined with much interest the general plan of the University Association, and believe it to be deserving of hearty encouragement and support. The organization seems calculated to arouse a wide spread interest in studies on the part of those who cannot attend higher institutions of learning, and to give an intelligent direction to such besides."

ELMER E. BROWN.
Professor of Science, University of California.

"The plan and purpose of the University Association is good, and I heartily commend it to teachers and all others who are interested in the diffusion of knowledge.

The magazine, PROGRESS, is valuable for school libraries, and in schools having advanced pupils I would especially advise its purchase."

WALTER S. BAILEY.
Supt. of Schools, San Diego, Cal.

"I have examined the plan of work outlined by the University Association, and believe it to be most excellent. Since we cannot all attend the Universities, it seems an excellent plan to bring the Universities to us. The furnishing of all necessary material and the privilege of doing daily work seems to be especially good.

E. L. HENDRICKS.
Supt. Johnson County Schools, Franklin, Ind.

ANNOUNCEMENT.

The Course in Literature which is to follow Universal History is now in preparation. Watch for complete outline of the course in the next issue of PROGRESS. The instructors for this course have been selected from the leading colleges and universities of Europe and America. Each is a specialist in his chosen field. Literature and history go hand in hand; and the new course will prove equally as popular as the old.

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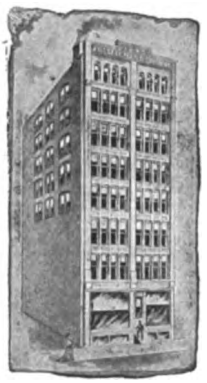
CHICAGO  CHICAGO

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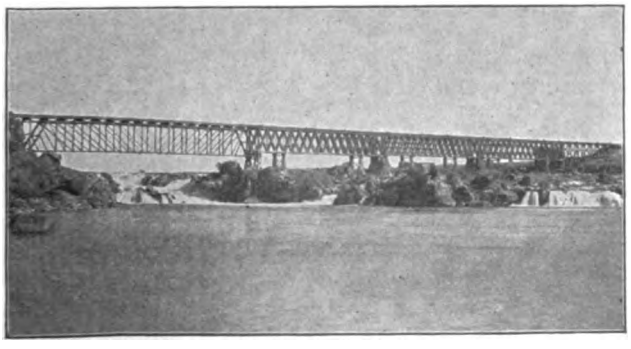
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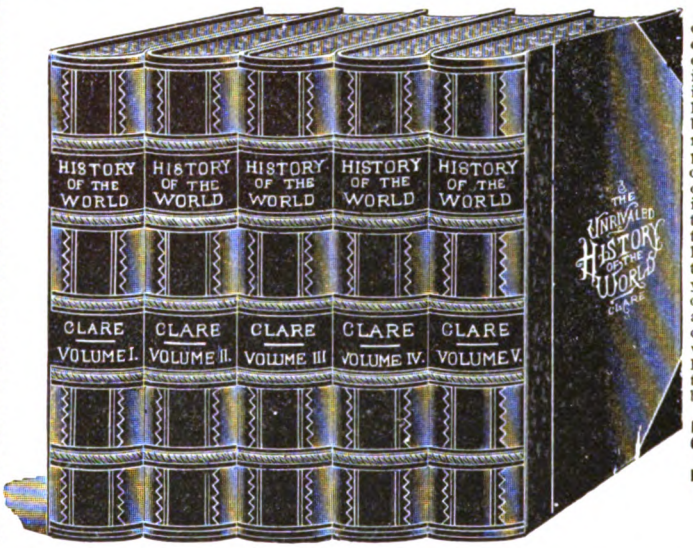

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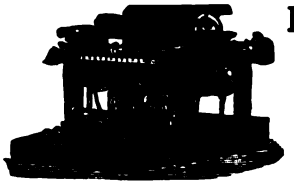

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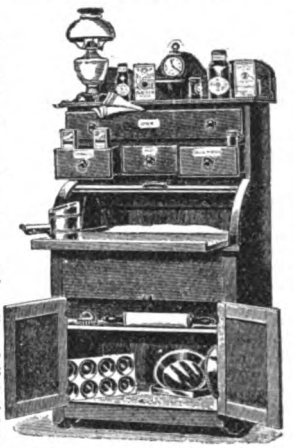

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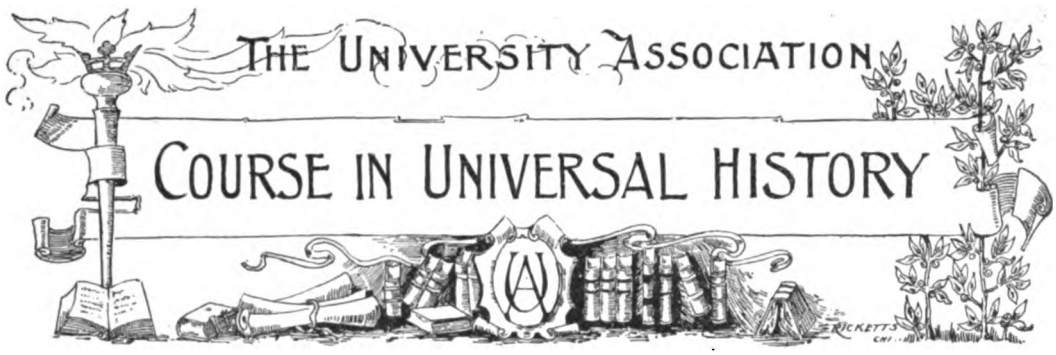

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY IN EUROPE.

PREPARED BY

RICHARD HEATH DABNEY, A.M., Ph.D., Associate Prof. of History, University of Virginia.

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED

1. I. EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS.

THE French Revolution destroyed much in society, church and state. But it did not simply destroy. It laid the foundations of modern European life. The Nineteenth Century is its child. It did not begin on July 14, 1789, or end with the "whiff of grape shot" on Vendemiaire 13; but was the culmination of a storm that had been gathering for centuries, and still thunders around us to-day. It destroyed the oppressive privileges of nobility and clergy and king, but also trampled undoubted rights in the dust. Seldom have means so atrocious been employed; but liberty, equality, fraternity, unity, were the ends. France did not become Utopia, but much solid freedom did result. The soil was freed from the unproductive hands of absentee bishops and lords; and thriving peasants now dwell where wolves once roamed. Internal trade was freed from an army of inter-provincial customs officials; and goods are now transported by railway trains, instead of by smugglers armed to the teeth. Agriculture and manufactures were freed; and meddling officials no longer select the crops to be planted or the cloth to be made. The mind and conscience were freed from the control of licentious or bigoted priests, and the body from arrest by *lettres de cachet*. If absolute equality proved a fiction, yet many inequalities were removed. The judicial system was reformed, and torture and barbarous penalties were abolished. But when the theories of philanthropists had ended in the dictatorship of Robespierre, a reaction set in, and the orderly despotism of the sword replaced the irregular tyranny of the mob. And when Napoleon's marvelous career had culminated in final defeat, men turned disgusted from the present, and invested former times with a halo of romance.

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1. I. EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS.

General Result of the Revolutionary Movements.—It might be appropriate in this connection to pause and consider briefly the general results of the great revolutionary movement with which Europe was convulsed at the beginning of the present century. The leading fact which arose out of the convulsions of this epoch was the transformation of society, first in France and afterwards in the greater part of Europe. This movement went on most rapidly during the French Revolution from 1789 to 1795. Then came the ascendency of Napoleon. Civilization was greatly the gainer by his appearance True, his ambition made him a tyrant, but his genius made him a reformer. The nascent institution of the fiery Revolution and the young republic became organic under his powerful hand. He was a representative of the future rather than of the past; and the future was defeated and the engines of civilization for the time reversed on the field of Waterloo.—*Ridpath.*

The Convulsions of France, and the dread of revolutionary agitation in England, transformed both Pitt and the Whigs, by whom he was opposed. Pitt sacrificed his schemes of peaceful progress to foreign war and domestic repression, and set his face against the reform of parliament; which he had once himself proposed. The Whigs broke up into two sections, represented respectively by Burke and Fox, the one denouncing the violence of the Revolution, and ultimately uniting itself with Pitt; the other friendly to the Revolution, in spite of its excesses, as the cause of civil and religious liberty, and identifying itself, under the healthy influence of parliamentary defeat and disappointment, with the defence of popular rights in England and the advocacy of enlightened reform.—*Fyffe.*

The Two Great Convulsions of Modern Times, the religious Reformation and French Revolution, demonstrate, in the clearest manner, the agency of the opposite powers of action and reaction on general thought, and, through it, on the fate of nations. When the Catholic Church, strong in the consciousness of universal power, and tainted by the belief of supposed infallibility, revolted the growing intelligence of mankind by the open prostitution and sale of indulgences, the giant strength of Luther arose, and, Samson-like, threw down the pillars of the corrupted edifice. The Protestant nations fondly anticipated the total destruction of the Papal power from the shock, and the rapid progress of the Reformation at its commencement seemed in a great measure to justify the expectation. But human passion and ambition, as usual in such cases, got possession of the stream; crimes and violence were committed by the popular party; intellect and interest combined their efforts to resist it; the torrent was rolled back in Southern Europe as rapidly as it had advanced; and for two subsequent centuries the frontiers of the opposite opinions have been observed in Northern Christendom, without any sensible advantage being gained on either side. The abuses of the Catholic Church, the selfishness of the noblesse, the extravagance of the monarchy, induced, in a subsequent age, the terrible convulsion of the French Revolution; the force of genius, the powers of intellect, the weapons of ridicule, were directed for half a century to the emancipation of thought; and an interminable era of progress and felicity was anticipated from the liberation of mankind from the fetters which had hitherto restrained and directed them. Here again, however, human wickedness soon obtained the mastery of the current selfishness, ambition, rapacity, veiled under the successive names of liberty, patriotism, and glory, directed the movement; Europe was deluged with blood; the original devil was expelled, but straightway he returned with seven other devils more wicked than himself, and the last state of that nation was worse than the first. Humanity sunk and wept in silence, philanthropy trembled at the prospect of the race during that long night of suffering; but all this time the salient energy of thought was unceasingly in activity.—*Alison.*

English Critics usually take France during her revolutionary period and compare her with England at another stage when she has got through her revolutionary and is in her reforming period. A more just comparison would be to take England between 1630 and 1730, and France between 1780 and 1880. There are so many points of resemblance between the two that history has almost repeated itself. Our ancestors decapitated a king and the French decapitated theirs; the difference being that the axe was used in one case, and a more ingenious mechanical contrivance in the other. After the execution of Charles I. the English were not yet ripe for liberty, so they fell under the dictatorship of a soldier; the French did exactly the same. When the English were not disposed to endure the Stuarts any longer, they sent them across the channel. The constant tendency in both countries has been to increase the power of the representative chamber and diminish that of the nominal head of the state, with this final result: That in France the National Assembly (the two chambers meeting as one) is declared to be sovereign, and in England the Marquis of Hartington has openly attributed sovereignty to the House of Commons, quoting Professor Dicey in reply to an old-fashioned member who stood aghast at what seemed to him an almost treasonable employment of the word.—*Hamerton.*

It is Admitted that this directorate, which owned, at its starting, these three things, an "old table, a sheet of paper, and an ink bottle," and no visible money or arrangement whatever, did wonders; that France, since the Reign of Terror hushed itself, has been a new France, awakened like a giant out of torpor; and has gone on, in the internal life of it, with continual progress. As for the external form and forms of life—what can we say, except that out of the eater there comes strength; out of the unwise there comes *not* wisdom! Shams are burnt up; nay, what as yet is the peculiarity of France, the very cant of them is burnt up. The new realities are not yet to come; ah no, only phantasms, paper models, tentative prefigurements of such! In France there are now four million landed proprietors; that black portent of an agrarian law is, as it were, *realized.* What is still stranger, we understand all Frenchmen have "the right of duel;" the hackney-coachman with the peer, if insult be given; such is the law of public opinion. Equality at least in death. The form of government is by citizen king frequently shot at, not yet shot.—*Carlyle.*

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2.

No people have the faculty of making ideas so popular as the French, who have propagated, if they have not originated, the leading religious, political and social ideas in modern Europe. From Cluny and Clairvaux went forth religious influences of far-reaching power. The French were the first Crusaders, and also the last. But it was they, too, who afterwards made the fiercest assaults upon the church, and worshiped the Goddess of Reason at the altar of *Notre Dame*. Medieval France summoned Europe to the rescue of the Holy Sepulchre from the Turk; revolutionary France preached atheism to the world. Medieval France was the focus of the feudal idea; revolutionary France trampled feudal inequality in the dust. Royal despotism reached its zenith in the Fourteenth Louis; while democratic fanaticism led the Sixteenth to the guillotine. And as the princes of Europe had aped Louis XIV., so the peoples of Europe learn "liberty, equality and fraternity" from the Republic. The autocracy and feudalism of Europe tried to crush the Republic, and the revolutionary armies to hurl all kings from their thrones. And these armies did actually sweep away many states and dynasties of the past. The masses hailed the French as deliverers from tyranny and wrong. But the arrogant disdain of Napoleon for all popular feelings caused reaction at last, and, the passions which he despised brought the tyrant to the ground, and made the sentiment of nationality stronger than ever before. The history of the Nineteenth Century consists largely in the attempt to realize two ideas—democratic equality and nationality. The one was largely due to the contagion of French ideas; the other to reaction against Napoleon's imperial rule.



Napoleon Bonaparte.

2.

The French Nation in the Eighteenth Century.—It is impossible to describe in adequate terms the system of government and of social despotism established over the French nation in the eighteenth century. The unprecedented reign of Louis XIV.—its character, methods, principles, tendencies—will be readily recalled. It will be remembered that at this epoch nearly the whole activity of France was displayed in the government. The government was everything. It was meant to be so. The doctrines of paternalism in the state were completely triumphant. The theory reduced to a formula ran thus: It is the duty—the business—of the state to teach men what things to do, and of the Church what things to believe. As for man, it is his business to be governed. That is, and was, the object of his creation. He must receive with unquestioning simplicity and obedience whatever is doled out to him by the noble and the priest to whom his management, his interests, his destiny in this world are intrusted.—*Ridpath.*

Napoleon.—Among the many able generals possessed by France at this period, Napoleon Bonaparte stood pre-eminent. He was the son of a Corsican lawyer, and was born at Ajaccio. As a boy he had shown a love for military studies. In his sixteenth year he entered the artillery in Paris as sub-lieutenant, and at the age of six-and-twenty he was nominated commander of the army of Italy. He found there that the soldiers were in a pitiable condition, without food, money or clothing, dissatisfied and disorganized. But Napoleon was not one to be daunted. "Soldiers," he said, "you are badly fed, naked, and miserable among barren rocks. I will lead you down into the richest plains in the world. Great cities full of wealth, whole provinces will fall into your power; in them you will acquire all you want—fame, treasure, repose. Soldiers of the Army of Italy, with this prospect will your hearts fail? No; surely not. Forward!" and, in fact, in a surprisingly short time he conquered the greater part of Italy and converted the provinces that came into his power into republics. The Austrian armies sent against him were led by incompetent generals, who were perfectly incapable of winning success opposed to so consummate a genius as Bonaparte.—*Baring-Gould.*

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3. NAPOLEON'S RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.

Napoleon being overthrown and the Bourbons restored, a great congress met at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe. The effects of the long reign of force were seen in the greed for territory displayed by the Powers, and bitter jealousies and disputes soon arose. Another war seemed imminent, but was avoided by compromises. Prussia obtained part of Saxony, Posen and Thorn, and Swedish Pomerania. Russia took all the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, except Posen and Thorn. Austria got Eastern Galicia, the Tyrol, Salzburg and the Inn district, Venetia and Lombardy. The royal families of Spain, Portugal, and several Italian states were restored. The Pope recovered his territory. Switzerland regained Geneva, Wallis and Neufchatel, and was declared a neutral state. Holland, Belgium and Luxemburg were united as the Kingdom of the Netherlands, under the House of Orange. The national party in Germany was doomed to disappointment, a well-nigh impotent confederation being formed.



Josephine.

But suddenly Napoleon left Elba and landed in France. The Bourbons had not made themselves popular; the returned *emigres* had talked of restoring the feudal abuses; the army was discontented; and when Napoleon landed, his eagle flew "from steeple to steeple with the tri-color to the towers of *Notre Dame.*" Louis XVIII. fled; but the Powers, laying aside their dissensions at Vienna, proclaimed Napoleon an outlaw and declared war on France. At Waterloo, Napoleon was overthrown, and Murat, his ally in Italy, was captured and shot. Louis XVIII. again became King of France, and Ferdinand of Naples was restored. France was compelled to pay 700,000,000 francs, and to support an allied army of 150,000 men for five years. But her territory remained a little larger than before the revolution.

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3. NAPOLEON'S RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.

Napoleon strained every effort to make this gigantic undertaking successful. At the head of 600,000 men, in the summer of 1812, he crossed the Russian frontier. . . . The army led by Napoleon against Russia was principally composed of German troops, who were skilfully mixed up with the French, so as not to be themselves aware of their numbers. Austrians, Prussians, Saxons, Hessians, Bavarians, Würtemburgers, Badeners, Swiss, Flemings, even Portuguese, Spaniards and Italians went to make up this great host, which was destined to whiten with its bones the plains of Russia. In order to secure his rear Napoleon garrisoned the Prussian fortresses with French troops, and the Prussians sent forward to fight in Russia were commanded by French officers. Sixty thousand French held Prussia, whilst the sons of Prussia were sent to die in arms for their conqueror. —*Baring-Gould.*

The Faults and Crimes of this Remarkable Man are too evident to need enumeration. He drained the life-blood of France by reckless conscriptions; he overthrew the liberty of the press and of opinion; he involved his empire in two ruinous wars by a tyrannical commercial policy arising from his resentment against England; he heartlessly pursued his own ends at the expense of the life, liberty and happiness of others—both individuals and nations. Yet it may be questioned whether he was more selfish, or only more able, than the hereditary sovereigns, into whose feebly ceremonious courts his energetic movements struck terror and confusion. He found Europe encumbered with lifeless forms, the remains of institutions of former ages; his mission seems to have been to clear the ground for new and better growths. If his fall was owing to his errors, his extraordinary success was not less the natural result of profound knowledge, untiring industry and irresistible will.—*Thalheimer.*

Napoleon's Return to Paris in 1797.—On Napoleon's arrival in Paris, the leaders of the different parties were eager to call upon him, and to make him different offers, to which he paid little seeming attention. . . . He had a public audience given him by the Directory, who had scaffoldings erected in the Palace du Luxembourg for the ceremony, the ostensible reason for which was the delivery of the treaty of Campo-Formio. In his address to the Directory, he made use of the following expressions, which were considered as remarkable at the time, and which did not become less so in their application to subsequent events: "In order to attain freedom, the French people

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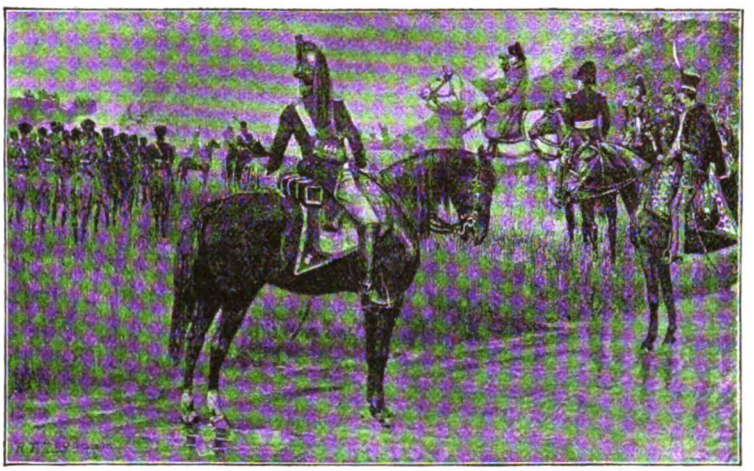
had to fight with the Allied Kings; and to obtain a constitution founded on reason, they had to combat the prejudices of eighteen centuries. Superstition, the feudal system and despotism have successively governed Europe for twenty ages; but the era of representative governments may be dated from the peace which you have just concluded. You have accomplished the organization of the Great Nation, whose vast territories are bounded only by the limits which nature herself has set to them. I present you the treaty of Campo-Formio, ratified by the Emperor. This peace secures the liberty, prosperity and glory of the Republic."—*Hazlitt.*

Napoleon's Overthrow.—With increase of dominion Napoleon lost whatever desire may have inspired his earlier conquests to make them further the real interests of the conquered, giving way to a mere vulgar lust for power. France was stretched over half Europe, most of the rest in vassalage. These subject nations had to fill the Emperor's coffers, fight his battles. He made his a family of kings, set up and pulled down thrones at his whim, his tyranny goading minions, even relatives, to revolt. This spirit and policy wrought against him worst in England, rendering the solid nation, Whigs now even more than Tories, his deadly foes. Worse when, enraged by England's mastery of the seas and in despair of humbling her directly, he uttered the famous Berlin Decree, forbidding all trade between the continent and British ports. Fruits of this were (1) Britain's attempt to blockade French Europe; (2) the American Non-intercourse Act: (3) Wellington's long, brilliant and at last victorious fight for Spain; (4) new and desperate hatred of French sway on the continent, where, in spite of persistent contraband trade, the continental system immensely increased prices, and (5) the renewed and this time uncompromising hostility of Russia, leading to the crushing Moscow campaign which cost 350,000 men, and depriving the emperor of the to him so important naval aid of Russia and Sweden. But the head continental force in the final overthrow of the Corsican was Prussia, the chief recipient of his hatred and abuse, which most happily evoked here an entire new national life. Stein's civil and Scharnhorst's military reforms had, under the tyrant's eye, yet unnoticed by him, at last raised Prussia to an eminence of power beyond even that attained under Frederick the Great. Forbidden to keep more than 42,000 men in arms, they drilled first one set, then another, till the entire male population was army. . . . Answering the king's appeal, "*An mein Volk*," March 17, 1813, 110,000 men rallied to arms in ten days, 170,000 more by the end of May, whose quality Napoleon tested to his sorrow at Leipzig, Ligny and Waterloo. Wellington had to thank Blücher for Quatre-Bras, Gneisenau for Waterloo.—*Andrews.*



Napoleon Watching a Cavalry Charge at Waterloo.

Europe in 1815.—Napoleon's overthrow led to a complete rearrangement of the map of Europe. He had neglected ancient traditions, and had shaped and planned the states he conquered, dividing races like herds of cattle, without paying the least attention to nationalities. The allied sovereigns when victorious, in their turn, followed the same course, and the famous Congress of Vienna, 1814-1815, was only a market where royal greed for territory endeavored to satisfy itself, the only check being the collision of rival ambitions. The political map of Europe after this treaty was entirely altered from its territorial aspect in 1789, and France paid dearly for her moment of expansion and the excitement of her triumph. . . . Reduced to the limits of 1789, she lost all the advantages gained by the conquests of the Revolution and the territories which completed her natural possessions, even Savoy being wrested from her. A kingdom was formed on her northern frontier by the union of Belgium and Holland. Prussia and Bavaria divided the Rhenish provinces, and threatened her adjoining territories thus left completely exposed to their attacks. The kingdom of Prussia, enlarged by part of the rich valley of the Rhine with a portion of Saxony and Pomerania, recovered the Duchy of Posen, its share of the spoil of Poland. Although still subject to certain international restrictions, Prussia then extended from the Moselle to the Niemen, predominating through the whole of Northern Germany. Austria regained the provinces it had lost, with the addition of Venetia and Lombardy in Italy, and was the only power that could counteract the influence of Prussia. The German empire was not re-established, but it had been replaced by a confederation, outwardly governed by a diet, but in fact ruled by Austria and Prussia, whose rival ambitions were thus to a certain extent neutralized. Denmark lost Norway, which was given to Sweden, and in spite of itself some of its duchies were considered to belong to the German Confederation, and, after a war, these were incorporated with Germany in 1864. Switzerland was enlarged by three cantons given from the districts taken from France. Russia seized the lion's share, nearly the whole of Poland, and its possessions penetrated into Germany like a formidable wedge. England retained its new and vast foreign possessions and the empire of the seas.—*Ducoudray.*

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4. II. WESTERN EUROPE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE.

The "Holy Alliance," the alleged purpose of which was to govern according to the precepts of Christianity, was originated by the Czar, Alexander I. Consisting at first of Russia, Prussia and Austria, it was joined by nearly all European countries except England, and soon showed itself to be in reality a league of princes for the suppression of liberal and popular movements. In Austria Metternich stifled the faint symptoms of liberalism and easily maintained the old absolute system. In Prussia the promised constitution was withheld, and the liberal party, which hoped for German unity under Prussian leadership, was bitterly disappointed. In Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Baden, Hanover, Brunswick and other German states, however, constitutions were granted. But when the books of Kotzebue and other reactionary persons were burnt by an assembly of German students in 1817, and when, in 1819, Kotzebue was murdered by a fanatical student, the Holy Alliance was shocked, and the press was subjected to a rigid censorship, the universities were put under governmental control, and liberal professors were removed.

Louis XVIII., owing his crown to foreign bayonets, tried to conciliate the French by constitutional government. But the violent majority in the chambers forced him, against his judgment, to approve illiberal laws. When they desired still more extreme measures, he dissolved the chambers, reduced the number of deputies, and extended the suffrage to all paying three hundred francs in direct taxes—thus securing a majority for the moderate party. The liberal majority increased in subsequent elections, and many popular measures were passed. But the murder of the Duke of Berry by Louvel in 1820 created another powerful reaction, bringing with it the censorship of the press and the transfer of power to the wealthy classes.

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4. II. WESTERN EUROPE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE.

The Holy Alliance.—One might have believed that the sovereigns had no less an aim in mind than to give to the world a new Golden age. For, on September 26, 1815, Alexander, Czar of Russia, Francis, Emperor of Austria, and Frederick William III., King of Prussia, issued a proclamation wherein they announced their firm resolve, from that time forth, to adopt the Christian religion alone as their standard; to rule wholly in accordance with Christian love and peace, as well within their respective states as in their intercourse with foreign governments; to afford one another assistance in all cases, and to regard themselves merely as the plenipotentiaries of Providence appointed to rule three branches of one and the same family. Within the next few years all European sovereigns, with the exception of the King of England, the Pope, and the Sultan, entered into this holy alliance. It was essentially the work of Alexander, who was influenced by a certain religious enthusiast, Frau von Krüdener. It was during the summer of 1815, in Heilbronn, Heidelberg, and Paris, that she aroused him to the formation of such a league by personal exhortations, naming him, in contrast with the "black angel" Napoleon, the "white angel of Peace," and the chosen of the Lord.—*Muller.*

Kotzebue was Murdered.—A special branch of the Burschenschaft was the society of the "Uncompromising," whose members sought to carry out uncompromisingly whatever they recognized as true and right. To this belonged Charles Sand, of Wunsiedel, an honest, morally irreproachable young man; a zealous but not prominent member of the league, inclined to religious enthusiasm, and of a brooding disposition withal. The two brothers Follenius, one of whom was privat-docent at Jena, and the soul of the society, exerted a decided influence over him. It had become his fixed idea that something great must be done, if the fatherland were not to go to pieces; and it became daily clearer to him that this must be wrought by him, that he must give himself as an offering for the fatherland. Kotzebue appeared to him the person most worthy of hatred, the one who had done the greatest injury to the aspiring freedom of Germany. He, the spy, the traitor, the frivolous mocker, the personification of servility and every tendency hostile to the rights of the people, appeared to him the fittest victim for the goddess of revenge. He had earlier felt the strength within him, had occasion offered, to raise his hand against Napoleon's life, and he had not in the meantime grown weaker. Without giving any one the slightest indication of his intentions, he traveled in March, 1819, from Jena to Mannheim, where Kotzebue had been living since the end of the previous year, further residence in Weimer having become quite impossible. Sand reached Mannheim at ten o'clock in the morn ng of March 23, presented himself at Kotzebue's house about eleven, and made an appointment to come between four and five in the afternoon. He returned punctually, and was ushered into a room. Kotzebue appeared shortly. The first salutations had hardly been exchanged, when, with the cry, "Take that, thou traitor to the fatherland!" Sand thrust a dagger into his heart, following this by two thrusts more. Then he stabbed himself in the breast, ran down the stairs, shouted to the passersby, "Long live my German fatherland!" knelt down and thrust the knife a second time into his breast with the words: "I thank thee, God, for this victory!"—*Muller.*

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5.

In Spain Ferdinand VII. broke his promises of reform and handed the country over to nobles, Jesuits, monks and the Inquisition. Secret societies arose, and the ill-paid soldiery revolted in 1820 and compelled the king to accept the constitution of 1812. The Cortes met, dissolved the monasteries and the Inquisition, confiscated clerical tithes, and secured freedom for the press. Royalist risings of the peasantry were suppressed, and the revolution seemed to have triumphed.

The Portuguese were discontented because John VI. resided in Brazil and left Portugal itself in the hands of a regency. Imitating the Spaniards, they rose in revolt, compelled the regency to abdicate, and forced John to accept a constitution. Brazil became independent, with John's son, Don Pedro, as emperor.



Blucher.

In Italy the Austrian spies and police kept Lombardy and Venetia quiet; and the rulers of Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Piedmont and Naples copied Metternich's methods. Secret societies, however, gave them anxiety, and the Spanish revolution gave the signal for revolt. Ferdinand of Naples was compelled by the army to grant the Spanish constitution. Sicily declared herself independent, but was forced to remain united to Naples.

The Holy Alliance was startled, and the Congress of Troppau decided, against England's protest, that Austrian troops should suppress the Liberals in Naples. They did so, and Ferdinand took dire revenge. In Piedmont also, where a combination of Liberals and army officers effected a revolution, Austrian troops restored the old system. Meantime the Spanish disorders continued, and the Congress of Verona decided in 1822, against England's protest, to intervene. A French army invaded Spain; Ferdinand revoked his concessions, and took bloody vengeance on the revolutionists; whereupon the reactionary party in Portugal also triumphed.

5.

Ferdinand VII., who had been in theory king of Spain ever since the abdication of Charles in his favor in 1808, returned to his capital to assume his crown. He had been living meanwhile in an honorable captivity in France. He now took up his residence in Spain, in 1814. Two years before, a constitution had been drawn for Spain in the king's absence. It was the work of the Cortes on which all the real government of Spain had depended in the absence of its kings. It remodeled the whole administration, so that Spain, which had been the most absolute monarchy in Europe, would become, under this constitution, the monarchy most severely limited. But Ferdinand returned on the wave of absolutism, and he took advantage of it, as sovereigns did who had more sense than he. It was not long before he promulgated a decree by which the Cortes were declared illegal and all their acts rescinded, the constitution among the rest. The Inquisition had been abolished since the king's departure, but it was now restored, and the most arbitrary bigotry reigned triumphant.—*Hale.*

Don Pedro had to pay dearly for the incomprehensible short-sightedness which he had shown regarding his brother. This "Lisbon Gutedel," as he was called in Vienna, was an ignorant, hypocritical man, but enjoyed the protection of Metternich, who confirmed him in his intention to overthrow the constitution, all oaths to the contrary notwithstanding, and make himself absolute king of Portugal. Not alone to the people, but even to kings, did Metternich deny the right of framing a constitution. He found the Portuguese prince full of "noble sentiments." Before his departure Don Miguel made a pilgrimage to Mariazell in order to strengthen himself for the bloody work before him, and boastfully named himself "the Archangel Michael, who shall bring the liberals to judgment with his trumpet." At his landing in Lisbon February 22, 1828, he was greeted as king by the excited populace. February 24 he took the oath of fidelity to their majesties, Don Pedro and Donna Maria, before the Cortes, yet in such wise that no one heard anything. His mother again acquired complete control over him. It was said that she forced him to each crime—when he needed any spur thereto—by threatening to reveal the secret that he was not the king's son, but the son of one of her favorites. All the constitutionalists were deprived of their offices and a ministry of "Cringers" formed; the Cortes was dissolved; the followers of Don Pedro were branded as freemasons; the old Estates of the kingdom were convoked, and by these Don Miguel was declared king on June 26.—*Müller.*

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6. III. EASTERN EUROPE AND GREEK INDEPENDENCE.

The days when the "Infidel Turk" was regarded as the common foe of Christendom were gone. Turkey was weaker than of old, and the growth of Russia caused alarm. Only the soldierly qualities of the Turks and the divisions among the subject populations saved the empire from disruption. The Greeks, though mainly Slavonic in blood, were regarded as descendants of the ancient Hellenes, and many people sympathized with their longings for independence. The risings in Spain and Naples gave the signal for a movement already prepared in Greece. A rising headed by Ypsilanti in Moldavia collapsed when the Congress of Laybach disapproved; but in Greece proper there was a general rebellion, which was joined by the wealthy islands Spezzia, Hydra and Ipsara. Ali Pasha of Albania also revolted and occupied the Turks for a long time. The Porte was taken unawares, and Tripolitza was stormed. Atrocities committed by the Turks were imitated by the Greeks. . . . In 1822 a national convention was held, and a constitution was adopted; but dissensions prevailed among the leaders, and in spite of some successes, Greece could hardly achieve independence without foreign aid. And as Metternich persuaded Alexander, at the Congress of Verona, not to aid the cause of rebels, the Greeks were left to their fate. Even the arrival of Byron and other enthusiasts, and of a large loan by foreign capitalists in 1824, could not avail when Ibrahim, the son of Mehemet Ali, the Egyptian Pasha, landed in 1825 with 17,000 trained soldiers. The Morea was subdued and Ibrahim joined the Turks before Missolonghi, which fell in 1826. Athens surrendered the next year, and the cause seemed lost.



Frederick William of Prussia.

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6. III. EASTERN EUROPE AND GREEK INDEPENDENCE.

The Sultan himself studied French books of tactics, drilled his men in person, mounted like any dragoon, with long English stirrups and a trooper's saddle. He worked hard, but fate was against him. He deprived himself of his old army, and had not yet collected a new one, just at the moment when any sort of an army would have been serviceable. The danger that menaced him sprang from Homer. But for the associations with great deeds and noble words which the very name of Hellas awakens, no sane man assuredly would have meddled in the Greek "War of Independence." The impulse which stirred up the insurrection was not so much the sublime passion of freedom as the suggestion of Russian agents and that delight in noisy excitement which is the heritage of the Greek. Whatever the cause, philanthropists, scholars, and enthusiasts, in England and France, fancied that in the revolutionary movement, which was partly the effect of the ground-swell raised in France a quarter of a century before, they could trace the echoes of Thermopylæ and Marathon; the songs of the klephts were sung in the same tongue—somewhat degraded—that Sophocles and Æschylus had spoken, and a general, natural, and very creditable feeling spread over Western Europe in favor of the oppressed Greeks. Poets like Byron flung themselves into the fray in a spirit of patriotic antiquarianism; soldiers like Church, who loved adventure, and habitually espoused the cause of the weak against the strong, cast away the scabbard; and a crowd of knights-errant of various ranks, nations, and motives, joined in the "War of Independence."—*Lane-Poole.*

The Outbreak of 1821 had long been foreseen, and even prepared for. It extended in some degree to the Greeks of the whole Turkish Empire, and was fostered, especially in Moldavia and Wallachia, by Russian intrigues, and by the fervent exhortation of patriots like Georgios Gennadios at Bucharest—a direct descendant of the Patriarch. On the Danube, the Turks had a comparatively easy victory; but in the Morea and on the mainland of Greece the struggle was carried on desperately for several years, with a vast amount of cruelty and determination on both sides. Alternate success and failure attended the efforts of the patriots; but, on the whole, and for the first four years, they managed to hold their own. At sea they distinguished themselves by great skill and courage, particularly in their manipulation of fire

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ships. . . . By land the Greeks were less fortunate. Their soldiers lacked what their sailors possessed—a previous knowledge and experience of their craft. If it had not been for the klephts and armatoles—the former of whom had long been encouraged amongst the Greeks in the hope that they would one day be serviceable in the liberation of their country—the art of fighting would have been almost unknown in the patriot ranks.—*Sargeant.*

The Greeks.—Among all the uprisings of the third decade, that of the Greeks claimed in the highest degree the attention and sympathies of Europe. The reminiscences of antiquity joined themselves to the heroic deeds of the present to render the Grecian war for freedom the most popular of living dramas. Even if one does not see in the Greek the pure descendants of the heroes of Marathon and Salamis, even if one must admit that Slavonic immigration and conquest have effected great changes—nevertheless, the Slavonic element has become master here as little as in northeastern Germany, and the Hellenic character is attested by unmistakable signs. Especially is this true of the islands, where many Homeric customs still hold their own. The splendid patterns of antiquity, and the political agitation consequent upon the Napoleonic wars, aroused anew, after previous attempts had failed, the hope of shaking off the Turkish yoke and winning independence. The young men who had studied in France and Germany, the bold sea-farers who, with their rich merchant fleets, felt themselves kings of the Grecian waters; could no longer endure to remain Turkish slaves.—*Müller.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS.**—*The French Revolution.* General Results of the Revolutionary Movements, The Convulsions of France, The Two Great Convulsions of Modern Times, English Critics.
2. **EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS** (Continued).—*The French People.* The French Nation in the Eighteenth Century, Napoleon.
3. **EFFECTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS** (Continued).—Napoleon, Napoleon's Russian Campaign, The Faults and Crimes of this Remarkable Man, Napoleon's Return to Paris in 1797, Napoleon's Overthrow, Europe in 1815.
4. **WESTERN EUROPE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE.**—The Holy Alliance, Kotzebue, Louis XVIII.
5. **WESTERN EUROPE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE** (Continued).—Ferdinand VII., The Portuguese, Don Pedro, Italy, Congress of Troppau.
6. **EASTERN EUROPE AND GREEK INDEPENDENCE.**—The Infidel Turk, The Sultan Himself, The Outbreak of 1821, The Greeks, The Greek Revolution.

QUESTIONS.

1. *How did the French Revolution influence the Nineteenth Century? Give reasons for your answers? What, in your opinion, were its causes? What produced the reaction in the minds of the people? How did these convulsions influence English politics? Compare the Reformation and the French Revolution?*
2. *Give the substance of the statements in reference to the French people? What was the doctrine of the government during the reign of Louis XIV.? Compare the patriotism of the English and the French? Give a brief sketch of Napoleon Bonaparte?*
3. *What were the objects of the Congress of Vienna? What were the results of the compromise? What were the effects of Napoleon's return? How did his defeat affect France? Give Thalheimer's estimate of Napoleon? Give President Andrews' estimate of Napoleon's overthrow?*
4. *What was the alleged purpose of the Holy Alliance? What was its origin and real purpose? How did it influence European politics? How did the murder of Kotzebue affect the Holy Alliance? What was the feeling towards the press and the universities?*
5. *In Spain, how were the promises of Ferdinand VII. kept? What was now the condition and feeling of the Portuguese? Give an account of the acts of Don Miguel?*
6. *What was now the condition of the Turks? Who were the Greeks? Why did the people sympathize with them? Give an account of the efforts of the Greeks to free themselves? Give Lane-Poole's estimate of the Greek "War of Independence"? Give the substance of Sargeant's statement?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Carefully review the outlines so far studied with reference to determining the causes of the French Revolution. Give facts tending to sustain your conclusions.*
2. *Prepare a brief history of Robespierre, noting especially the features of his life most affecting the French people. What do you consider the commendable acts of his dictatorship?*
3. *Was Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo a benefit to future civilization? (Make this a subject for debate by assigning one or more persons on each side of the question.)*
4. *Which has exerted the greater influence on civilization, the Reformation or the French Revolution? Give reasons for your conclusions.*
5. *Look for historical illustrations sustaining this statement: "No people have the faculty of making ideas so popular as the French, who have propagated, if they have not originated, the leading religious, political and social ideas in modern Europe."*
6. *Estimating the personal life of Napoleon as a whole, what do you consider the most commendable features? His worst acts? Give reasons for your statements?*
7. *Determine what you consider the merits and demerits of the Greek War for Independence. Give your reasons.*

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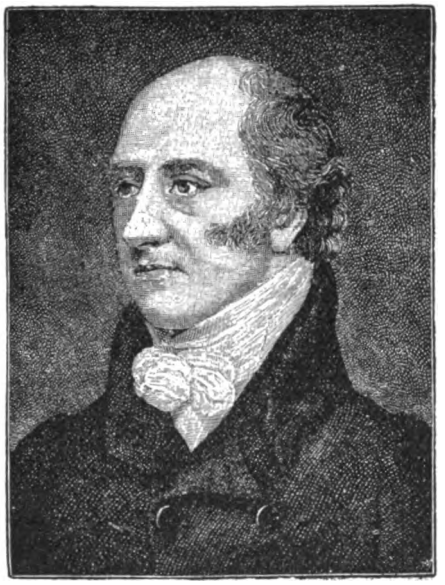
7.

But the death of Alexander and the accession of Nicolas, who was zealous for the old Russian institutions, and claimed the headship of the whole Greek church, had shattered the Holy Alliance, and in 1826 a secret convention between England and Russia arranged for the independence of Greece, except that she should pay tribute to Turkey. Soon afterwards occurred the wholesale massacre of the Janizaries, who had mutinied against Mahmoud's change in their constitution. This left Turkey weak, and she was compelled to make great concessions to Russia in the treaty of Ackermann. At a conference in London (1827) to consider the Greek question, Austria and Prussia refused to sanction rebellion, but England, Russia and France signed a treaty based on the secret convention of 1826. The admirals of the allied fleets bade Ibrahim cease hostilities and entered the harbor of Navarino, where the whole Egyptian fleet was annihilated in four hours. The Sultan complained bitterly, and the English ministry called the battle an "untoward event." They then abandoned the policy of Canning, and allowed Russia to attack Turkey and force her, in the treaty of Adrianople, after a successful war, to give Russia some islands at the mouth of the Danube and a strategically important strip of Asiatic territory; to grant independence to Moldavia and Wallachia; to make the navigation of the Danube free; to permit neutral vessels to pass through the Dardanelles, and to acknowledge Greece to be independent except as to paying tribute. Another London conference decided that Greece should be a constitutional monarchy, and when Leopold of Saxe-Coburg declined the crown, it was given to Otto, a Bavarian prince.



George Canning

7.

The Severance of Greece was a sore blow to Mahmoud's hopes; yet, even now, had he been allowed ten years of tranquillity, he might have been able to carry out the reforming policy upon which his heart was set. Such, however, was not to be his fortune. Shorn of his fleet by the Allies, weakened in arms and prestige by the Russian war, he became the natural prey of his powerful vassal, the Viceroy of Egypt. Mohammed Ali pushed his forces across Syria, and even threatened the Bosphorus; the timely interposition of Russia (duly recompensed in the treaty of Hunkiar Iskelesi, 1833) saved Constantinople. This treaty was a rude surprise to the Western Powers for it gave Russia the exclusive right of way through the Dardanelles, but they took time before they ventured to assert themselves. France was on the side of Mohammed Ali; and England, under the Whig administrations of Grey and Melbourne, was too much harassed at home to retain a free hand for foreign affairs. Palmerston admitted that he had delayed too long before supporting the Sultan, but at length the English fleet sailed for the Levant, Acre was taken, and Mohammed Ali, by the treaty of 1841, was confined to his Egyptian possessions, under the suzerainty of the Sultan, the integrity and independence of whose empire were now placed formally under the guarantee of the Great Powers.—*Lane-Poole.*

The First National Congress.—In January, 1822, the first national congress of new Hellas proclaimed at Epidaurus the national independence, and adopted a provisional constitution. Alexander Mavrocordatos was the first president. In the following spring Scio became the chief object of the vengeance of the Turks. To avenge an insurrection, men, women and children were subjected to indiscriminate massacre. More than 40,000 perished; thousands of the most accomplished were carried away to the slave markets of Smyrna and Constantinople. The grief and indignation of the Greeks soon found vent in action; in an encounter with their fire-ships the author of the massacre and 2,000 of his followers were slain. The next year was signalized by the gallant attack of Marco Bozzaris and his Suliote band upon a Turkish camp. Bozzaris fell, but the fame of his valor contributed greatly to awaken sympathy in Europe and America. Though governments were still indifferent, and those embraced in the Holy Alliance even expelled the wretched Greek fugitives from their borders, the people sent supplies of money, arms and men to aid in the combat for freedom.—*Thalheimer.*

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8. IV. CHARLES X. AND THE JULY REVOLUTION.

In 1824 Louis XVIII. died and was succeeded by Charles X. The reaction in France continued under the ministry of Villele. A hundred million francs were voted to the *emigres;* the Jesuits returned; the king himself took part in the religious processions; and a law punishing sacrilege with death was passed. The opposition became bitter, and the election of 1827 returned an immense Liberal majority. Villele was dismissed, and Martignac became the head of a moderate government; but the king soon dismissed him and dissolved the chambers. Polignac, a typical *emigre*, became prime minister. Bourmont, who had deserted Napoleon at Waterloo, was minister of war. The new Liberal chamber voted want of confidence in the ministry. Another dissolution followed, and Algiers was invaded in order to gain popularity by military glory. But the new chamber was still more hostile than the old. Whereupon Polignac issued, July 26, 1830, the famous ordinances of St. Cloud, shackling the press, suppressing certain Liberal journals, dissolving the chambers before they had met, and restricting the suffrage. The journalists and Liberal deputies protested. Paris seethed with excitement, and an obstinate street-battle was fought on the 29th with the royal troops. The king now dismissed Polignac, and revoked the ordinances. *Too late!* Louis Philippe was made lieutenant-general of the kingdom. The king confirmed the appointment, and abdicated in favor of the Duke of Bordeaux, asking Louis Philippe to act as regent. But a mob marched against the king, and he fled. The chambers then elected Louis Philippe "King of the French," placed all religions on an equal footing, freed the press, limited the royal prerogatives, and restored the tri-color.



Prince Talleyrand.

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8. IV. CHARLES X. AND THE JULY REVOLUTION.

On the Morning of the 27th July, 1830, in defiance of the royal ordinance suspending the liberty of the press, the conductors of the liberal journals in Paris printed and distributed their papers as usual; but their types were soon seized and their presses broken by the police. Marshal Marmount, who was placed in chief command of the government troops, endeavored to assist the police in preserving order; and the Ministry declared Paris in a state of siege. . . . On the morning of July 28, the streets of Paris were filled with armed citizens, who raised the glorious tri-colored flag in every direction. They carried with trifling loss the detached guard-houses, the arsenal and the powder magazine. At nine o'clock the tri-color was seen to wave from the spire of the Church of Notre Dame, and at eleven from the central tower of the Hotel de Ville. Carriages and omnibuses were thrown on the sides of the streets to obstruct the passage of the troops. The troops were exposed to a severe fire from the windows, barricades and street corners. . . . The king and his ministers and Marshal Marmount were greatly surprised when they discovered what they had at first considered merely a riot had assumed the formidable aspect of a revolution. The contest was renewed with terrible fury on the morning of July 29; and General Lafayette appeared among the insurgents, and assumed the command of the National Guard. At noon several regiments of the line deserted to the people. Thus reinforced, the mob stormed the Louvre and the Tuileries, from the windows of which they opened a tremendous fire upon the Swiss and Royal Guards. The brave defenders of the throne, unable to make any further resistance to the populace, succeeded only with great difficulty in effecting a retreat; and at three o'clock in the afternoon the Paris Revolution of July ended in the complete triumph of the people. The ministers now resigned their offices, and the king signed an order for the repeal of the obnoxious ordinances; but it was too late. The Parisians had already resolved that Charles X. should no longer reign The Deputies to the new Chambers in Paris organized a provisional government, and decreed that the National Guard should be reorganized and placed under the command of that consistent friend of national freedom, the Marquis de Lafayette.—*Clare.*

The July Government did not trouble itself about the Socialist movement until it threatened to interfere with public order. No effort was made to enlighten the people or to relieve the working classes of one at least of their principal grievances by admitting them to a fuller share of political life. It maintained a legally privileged class in the nation, above the nation itself. It fell in consequence.—*Ducoudray.*

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9. V. RESULTS OF THE JULY REVOLUTION IN OTHER COUNTRIES.

The artificial kingdom of the Netherlands, composed of Teutonic, Calvinistic, trading Holland, and Romanic, Catholic, manufacturing Belgium, was shattered by the news of the July Revolution. A coalition of Belgian Liberals and Clericals was formed, and an insurrection broke out. After failing to suppress it, William I. agreed too late to grant the Belgians legislative and administrative separation. They proclaimed themselves independent, and deposed the king. The Liberals desired union with France, which would have caused a general European war. But Louis Philippe hastened to say that he would not accept the crown, and a conference of the five great Powers at London acknowledged Belgian independence. The Belgian Congress drew up a constitution and elected Leopold, of Saxe-Coburg, for their king. But William still continued the war until 1833, when an English fleet and French army compelled him to desist.



William IV. of England.

The kingdom of Poland, too, was an artificial creation, containing only a part of old Poland, and being ruled by a Russian viceroy. Hence the news of the July Revolution was a spark thrown into the powder of discontent. Students, soldiers, nobles and populace rose in rebellion, and drove the viceroy from the country, which was declared independent. The Poles fought with heroic courage, but their old vice of factional strife and dissension, together with the overwhelming forces of Russia, brought defeat at last. Poland became a Russian province, and 82,000 Poles were sent to Siberia in 1832.

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9. V. RESULTS OF THE JULY REVOLUTION IN OTHER COUNTRIES.

The First Waves from the French Revolution broke over Belgium. For a decade abundant inflammable material had been heaped up there, and an explosion had long been predicted. The allies of 1814 had this blunder on their consciences as well as the restoration of the Bourbons. In order to have a stronger bulwark against the encroachments of France in the north, the Vienna congress ordained that Belgium should be united with Holland, as an "increase of territory," under the house of Orange. At the same time the hegemony of Holland was recognized, and Belgium was regarded and treated as a kind of subject province. And yet in these United Netherlands two-thirds of the population belonged to Belgium, and but one-third to Holland For more than two centuries each of the two countries had gone its own way. Since the separation of Holland from the Spain of Philip II., in 1579—with the exception of a few years under the Napoleonic rule—they had been separated from one another. Belgium had been first under Spanish, later under Austrian rule. Holland, as a young republic, had developed into a maritime power of the first rank, ruling an enormous colonial dominion. In the humanities and painting, the latter had rivaled Germany and Italy. —*Müller.*

Belgium and Holland.—To this difference of their past were added still deeper lying differences of religion and language. Belgium was Roman Catholic; and French was there the official language and the language of society, although two-thirds of the population—the inhabitants of the northern part of the country—spoke Flemish, a dialect akin to Dutch. In Holland, on the other hand, Calvinism had early become firmly established, and the language was Teutonic Out of hatred toward France, and everything French, King William constantly sought to limit the use of the French language more and more, and this made itself unpleasantly felt throughout the southern provinces, in the courts of justice, and in the army. The Belgian clergy, in any case dissatisfied under a Protestant government, felt their existence threatened when the king proposed to place the whole system of instruction, that domain of the hierarchy, under the control of the government. The course of instruction in the Belgian schools, gymnasiums, and universities was very much raised; and in 1825 a philosophical college was established at Louvain, which every one must attend who wished to enter an episcopal seminary. This institution, fairly abreast of the age, was to act as a dam against the excesses of ultramontanism. Ultramontanism accepted the challenge. Yet, great as ultramontane influence over the people was, the government had nothing to fear so long as it had the liberal elements on its side. But these it repelled by abolishing trial by jury, disciplining officers of justice for belonging to the opposition, limiting the freedom of the press, and definitely refusing to propose a law regarding the responsibility of ministers.—*Müller.*

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10.

The beginning of a customs-union—a step towards political unity—had been made in Germany before the July Revolution; but that event, by causing fears of a French invasion, hastened the formation of the *Zollverein*, which by 1834 embraced Prussia and the states of Central and Southern Germany. The July Revolution was also the signal for the extortion of constitutional rights from the rulers of Brunswick, Hanover, Saxony and other states. No risings took place in Prussia and Austria, although symptoms of future trouble were displayed in Hungary. Metternich became alarmed, and in 1833 Russia, Prussia and Austria formed a league to oppose the liberalism of England and France. Encroachments upon the royal prerogatives were to be resisted, while the universities and the press were to be carefully watched.

In Switzerland a democratic movement, already begun, was accelerated by the July Revolution, and the aristocracy in most of the cantons were compelled to give up their privileges. Attempts to reform the federal constitution led to the formation of a league of Liberal cantons, which was attacked by a counter-league of conservative ones—the latter being defeated.

In Italy, Bologna, Romagna, Umbria and the Marches rose against the Pope; and the rulers of Parma and Modena were expelled, but soon restored by Austrian troops. The rebels had relied upon French aid, but Louis Philippe was too cautious to do more than occupy Ancona with troops, after explaining to the Pope that he meant no harm.

The July Revolution led to a rising in Brazil, and Pedro abdicated in favor of his son, and sailed to Portugal to support the cause of his daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, against her usurping uncle, Don Miguel. With the aid of English volunteers Maria's cause triumphed, and Miguel left the country.

10.

Germany. — *Germanic Confederation.* — The Holy Roman Empire came to an end in 1806—1006 years after Pope Leo crowned Charlemagne at Rome. Upon Napoleon's downfall, it was hoped that the ancient empire would be restored. The patriotic struggle for liberty had welded the petty nationalities, and the people did not wish their restoration. But, instead, the Congress of Vienna formed a German Confederation of thirty-nine states. A permanent diet was to sit at Frankfort-on-the-Main, Austria having the presidency.

The Demand for Freedom and Unity.—The princes in the confederation promised to grant their people constitutions, but most of them forgot the agreement. They generally opposed union and sought to crush its rising spirit in the universities. The question of liberty and union were so blended, however, that in many minds the only thought was which should first be secured. Quite a step was taken by Prussia's gradually becoming, after 1828, the center of the *Zollverein*, a commercial union between the German states which agreed to levy customs at a common frontier.—*Steele.*

Italy: 1815 to 1848.—The history of Italy during this period is one of chronic insurrection. The Congress of Vienna left the people enslaved and divided. The dream of a restored nationality, nearly realized under Napoleon, was rudely dispelled; the old separations were renewed; the old tyrants were reseated. Once more, Austrian despotism hung like a millstone about the neck of the nation. The Carbonari (charcoal-burners), a secret society formed to resist Bourbon oppression, numbered in Italy over a half-million members, with branches in other countries. An organization, known as Young Italy, was formed by Mazzini, an Italian refugee, who first advanced the idea of a united, free Italy. Besides open revolts, there were secret plots, while assassinations were only too frequently perpetrated in the name of liberty.—*Steele.*

The European Powers Since 1815.—*Conflict between Modern Ideas and the Old Regime.*—The struggle between modern principles and the old regime was continued in Europe as well as in France after 1815. After the wars of the empire, the old monarchies imagined that they could return to their legislative traditions. A European, as well as a French Restoration took place But from 1830 disturbances recommenced; revolutions broke out in Naples, Turin, and Spain; they were suppressed by the armies of the Holy Alliance, and the sovereigns of Prussia, Austria, and Russia cemented their union at the Congresses of Troppau, 1820, Laybach, 1821, and Verona, 1822, entering into an agreement to regulate the policy of Europe. The Revolution in Spain hastened the emancipation of the Spanish colonies. America, between 1810 and 1826, became independent in the south as well as in the north, and was divided into republics. Brazil only, although free, remained a monarchy. The disorder which had reigned in Europe during the wars of the Revolution and of the empire had not affected those countries that were still under Turkish rule. But these nations had thrilled with sympathy, hoping for their own liberty. Greece, above all, proud of its glorious history, groaned beneath the yoke of Turkey. The Greeks rebelled in 1821, and the European powers found themselves obliged to resist them. —*Ducoudray.*

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11.

The Reign of Terror had created a strong feeling in England against the ideas of the French Revolution; but when the Napoleonic wars were over, the reaction subsided and a reforming spirit arose. The death penalty for about one hundred crimes was abolished in 1823; the political disabilities of dissenters were removed in 1828; and those of Catholics in 1829. The July Revolution aroused hearty sympathy in England, and so stimulated the Liberals that, after a fierce agitation, the House of Lords yielded and permitted the passage of the "Reform Bill" of 1832, by which many seats in Parliament were taken from the "rotten" boroughs and given to large towns and counties, while the suffrage was so extended that the middle classes acquired great political power. In 1833 slavery in the colonies was abolished, with compensation to the slave owners. A new "poor law" in 1834 checked pauperism, and an act of 1835 gave to the rate-payers of the towns the right to elect their local officials. But the introduction of machinery and other causes produced great suffering among the laborers, and they demanded a "People's Charter," granting universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments with pay for members, etc. A monster petition for the charter was sent to Parliament in 1839, but was not even considered. Riots arose and had to be put down by the military. In 1838 the Anti-Corn-Law League, led by Cobden and Bright, was formed, and, after a long agitation, the duties on corn were repealed in 1846. This was a triumph for free trade, and for the middle class over the landed aristocracy.



John Bright.

11.

The Reform Bill.—The immediate question which occupied all Great Britain and Ireland was parliamentary reform. The new premier, Earl Grey, kept his word; he caused the Reform Bill to be brought before the Lower House by Lord John Russell, March 1, 1831, and announced that he would stand or fall by that measure. In accordance with this, rotten boroughs were to be deprived of their representation, which was to be given to the cities, and the property qualification for election was to be diminished. There was no talk of radical measures here; the poorer classes would have the right to vote after the bill as little as before it; the aristocracy would still have the controlling influence, but the well-to-do middle class would no longer be excluded from the Lower House. The sittings of the House were very stormy. The famous historian, Macaulay, and the Irish agitator, O'Connell, spoke in favor of the measure; Robert Peel, the son of the cotton-spinner—with Wellington, a pillar of the aristocracy—spoke against it. The bill did not pass, and Parliament was dissolved. The new elections resulted overwhelmingly in favor of the reformers. September 21, 1831, the Reform Bill passed the House with a majority of 109. On the following day it came before the Lords, and was rejected. This raised a great excitement in London and other cities. Wellington, who had spoken very strongly against the bill, barely escaped personal violence. Men spoke of the abolition of the Lords, as in Cromwell's time, and recalled the fate of the Stuarts and of Charles X. of France. Parliament was prorogued, and met again in December. Again the Commons passed the Reform Bill, and again the Lords rejected it. Then Earl Grey desired of the king power to name new peers, in order thereby to give the ministry a majority in the Lords; but the king, under pressure of the high nobility, the foreign ambassadors, and the queen, a Meiningen princess, refused the request, accepted the resignations which the ministers thereupon tendered, and intrusted the Duke of Wellington with the formation of a new cabinet. He could not have made a worse choice. A Wellington ministry meant revolution—a "great week" in England—it meant the breaking of a terrible storm on the heads of the high nobility. All business came to a standstill. In Birmingham more than 100,000 men assembled, and swore to fight, if need be, for their good rights, and sent word to London that they would hasten thither, arms in hand, at the first call. Thousands of Scots declared themselves ready to march over the border. Angry Ireland awaited but the signal. The meetings had no other words for Wellington than, "To the gallows with him!" Men were provoked at the queen's interference, and said, "Petticoats aren't good for politics; she had better go back across the Channel." Such an open expression of the popular feeling had its effect. Wellington, it is true, did not hesitate even before civil war, but the most influential tories to whom he applied to accept seats in the cabinet refused. He had to signify to the king that he could not form a cabinet, and Lord Grey was once more summoned; but he consented to take office only on condition that he be allowed to create more peers. The Tories, who saw in this an annihilation of the independence of the Lords, would not push matters to that extreme. The most zealous withdrew their resistance, and so the Reform Bill passed the Upper House, June 4, 1832, and was confirmed by the king. This was a defeat of the aristocracy, and must be followed by other defeats, if a citizen of the nineteenth century was to find residence in England possible.—*Müller.*

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12. VI. REIGN OF LOUIS PHILIPPE AND THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION.

There were frequent changes of ministry under Louis Philippe—Guizot and Thiers being the leading statesmen—but political power was from first to last based upon the *bourgeoisie*, the mass of the people being excluded from the franchise. Hence neither Legitimists nor Republicans were satisfied. The former roused the Vendee to rebellion, while the latter showed their discontent by frequent insurrections. The introduction of machinery caused much distress; and the conflict between capital and labor lead to the rise of socialism and communism, both as theories and as political forces. Except the conquest of Algiers there was little in the foreign policy of the reign to flatter the vanity of the French. The English candidate mounted the Belgian throne; the Austrians suppressed the Italian risings; the Poles were not helped; and Mohammed Ali, who had conquered Syria, was forced by England, Prussia, Austria and Russia, against France's wish, to retire and leave his conquest in the Sultan's hands. Several attempts were made to assassinate the king, and Louis Napoleon twice tried to upset the throne.



Mohammed Ali.

When Ferdinand VII. of Spain died in 1833, his daughter Isabella became queen, with her mother Christina as regent. But Ferdinand's brother, Don Carlos, claimed the crown, and was supported by the partisans of absolute and priestly rule. Civil war was waged for several years, Isabella maintaining herself on the throne; and Louis Philippe, in order to secure Spain for his dynasty, negotiated a marriage for Isabella with a sexually impotent cousin, at the same time marrying her sister to his own son, contrary to a promise made to Queen Victoria. Thus England was alienated and public opinion shocked.

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12. VI. REIGN OF LOUIS PHILIPPE AND THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION.

1815 to 1848.—Louis XVIII. proclaims a liberal constitution, but presently laws are passed that restrict the freedom of the press and of elections. Parties arise, in favor of the "Old Regime," in favor of constitutional monarchy, in favor of the Bonapartes, in favor of a republic. Under his successor, Charles X., the national guard is disbanded—Algeria is conquered and occupied by the French (1830). New elections take place, which return a liberal majority to the parliamentary chambers; the government declares the elections illegal, restricts the right of suffrage to rich landowners, prohibits the publication of newspapers and pamphlets without the permission of the king. The Parisians revolt, and Thiers protests; a national guard is again formed, under Lafayette. Charles X. abdicates and Louis Philippe, of the younger line of the House of Bourbon (Orleans), comes to the throne; he proclaims liberal measures and better constitutional government. His life is attempted by means of an "infernal machine," and laws are once more passed restricting the liberty of the press.

Louis Napoleon, the nephew of Bonaparte, tries to get himself proclaimed as emperor; still further development of parties; demands for reforms in elections and in the civil service rejected by the government (1848). Revolution, largely conducted by members of secret socialistic societies. Louis Philippe abdicates, and a republic is proclaimed. Louis Blanc, a leading socialist, agitates for the organization of labor, and public workshops are established at the expense of the state, although not in accordance with the designs of Blanc; they are closed, and an insurrection of labor ensues, which is suppressed by the government troops and the national guard. Louis Napoleon is elected president of the republic.—*Sheldon.*

M. Guizot, who directed the policy of the French government from 1840 until the Revolution of February, 1848, continued the fortification of Paris, and coincided fully with Louis Philippe's wish to preserve the peace of Europe. By every means

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in his power he preserved France from European hostilities, brought about an exchange of visits between King Louis Philippe and Queen Victoria, and promoted the king's intrigues for the aggrandizement of the Orleans dynasty and for its establishment by intermarriages with other royal courts of Europe. M. Guizot's domestic policy was characterized by pride, tyranny, blindness and a constant succession of encroachments upon the liberties of the French people. During the entire term of his administration, M. Guizot continued the work of fortifying Paris, until the entire city was surrounded with a girdle of impregnable fortifications, the guns of which were expected to serve equally well in repelling a foreign foe and in crushing any revolt in Paris. Secure in the pride of his power, King Louis Philippe boasted that he held France in the hollow of his hand; and Guizot continued to rule, well satisfied with the apparent success of his policy, and convinced of the truth of his own saying that an unpopular government is the most successful.—*Clare.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **EASTERN EUROPE AND GREEK INDEPENDENCE.**—Death of Alexander and Accession of Nicholas, The Severance of Greece, The First National Congress.
8. **CHARLES X. AND THE JULY REVOLUTION.**—The Morning of July 27, 1830, The July Government, The Charter of 1814.
9. **RESULTS OF THE JULY REVOLUTION IN OTHER COUNTRIES.** — The Netherlands, Poland, Belgium, Belgium and Holland.
10. **RESULTS OF THE JULY REVOLUTION IN OTHER COUNTRIES** (Continued).—Germany, Switzerland, Italy, The European Powers since 1815.
11. **RESULTS OF THE JULY REVOLUTION IN OTHER COUNTRIES** (Continued).—England, Reform Bill, Poor Law, People's Charter, Anti-Corn-Law League, Slavery Abolished.
12. **REIGN OF LOUIS PHILIPPE AND THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION.** — Louis XVIII., Guizot and Thiers, Ferdinand VII. and Isabella, France from 1815 to 1848.

QUESTIONS.

7 *In what way was the Holy Alliance destroyed? What were the results of the secret treaty (1826) between England and Russia? Who were the Janizaries? Why were they massacred? Give the position of each of the leading nations with reference to the Greek question? What were the results of the treaty of Adrianople?*

8. *What events caused the election (French) of 1827 to give a liberal majority? Name some of the provisions and results of the ordinance of St. Cloud? Name the leading events of the July Revolution? Give Ducoudray's statement in reference to the July Government? What does Le Goff state in reference to the Revolution of 1830?*

9. *How did the July Revolution affect the Netherlands? Give the events leading up to the independence of Belgium? Give the events connected with the insurrection and defeat of Poland? How many Poles were sent to Siberia in 1832? Give the substance of Müller's comparison of Belgium and Holland?*

10. *How did the July Revolution affect Germany? Switzerland? Italy? Brazil? Give Ducoudray's summary of "The European Powers since 1815"?*

11. *What was the feeling in England in regard to the French Revolution? Why? In what ways did this Revolution affect England later? What were some of the features of the Reform Bill? Name later reforms enacted? Name the leading features of Müller's estimate of the Reform Bill?*

12. *Give a short sketch of Guizot? Thiers? What was now the condition of the French people? Name the results of the introduction of machinery? Of the conflict between capital and labor? What produced the civil wars of Spain at this time?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What is your estimate of the "War for Greek Independence"? Give reasons for your conclusions.*
2. *Tabulate or summarize the leading political changes traceable directly to the effect of the July Revolution.*
3. *What was the origin, history and conditions of the Anti-Corn-Law League?*
4. *What is your estimate of the so-called Reform Bill?*
5. *Give the origin and history of the Abolition of Slavery (1833). What was the method employed?*
6. *What were the general causes originating such acts as the Reform Bill, Poor Law, People's Charter, etc.? What was the condition of the people?*
7. *Review our study so far with reference to the following questions: Have the most noted and beneficial reforms been brought about by the people (revolution) or by the rulers? In the revolutions so far noted which class was in the right, the people or the rulers?*
8. *Prepare a brief history of the ministry of Thiers.*

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13.

The king had lost the respect of the people. Only the money-making *bourgeoisie* upheld the monarchy from self-interest, opposing all extension of the suffrage. Fiery speeches for reform were made at numerous political banquets in 1847. Such a banquet for one hundred thousand people was arranged for February 22, 1848, but was prohibited by the Guizot ministry. A mob was dispersed by troops, but clamors for reform arose, and the king dismissed Guizot. On February 23 the soldiers fired upon the mob, and furious crowds erected barricades. Thiers formed a ministry and promised electoral reform. Too late! The troops fraternized with the people, and Louis Philippe abdicated in favor of his grandson. But the deputies appointed a provisional government, and the king fled. A republic was proclaimed; the socialist leaders were admitted to a share in the government; and, on the theory that the state must provide work for all who wish it, public workshops were established. In a fortnight more than forty thousand laborers had assembled, and more were on their way from the provinces. A national assembly met on April 27, formally decreed the republic, and chose an executive commission of five. No socialists being chosen, a mob stormed the hall of the assembly (May 15), but was suppressed by the national guard. Meantime the public workshops had burdened the state with tremendous expense. More than one hundred thousand workmen were assembled, and when the government attempted to dismiss some of them, they threw up barricades and fought with desperate courage against the troops. At last, after four days of fearful slaughter, the cause of order triumphed. But the *bourgeoisie* were terribly alarmed, and ready to welcome even despotism to escape from anarchy.



Francois Champollion.

13.

The War Becomes a Crusade of Democracy. —Monarchy was abolished, and France was declared a Republic. Office continued in the hands of the Gironde; but the vehement, uncompromising spirit of their rivals, the so-called party of the Mountain, quickly made itself felt in all the relations of France to foreign powers. The intention of conquest might still be as sincerely disavowed as it had been five months before; but were the converts to liberty to be denied the right of uniting themselves to the French people by their own free will? When the armies of the Republic had swept its assailants from the border-provinces that gave them entrance into France, were those provinces themselves to be handed back to a government of priests and nobles? The scruples which had lately condemned all annexation of territory vanished in that orgy of patriotism which followed the expulsion of the invader and the discovery that the Revolution was already a power in other lands than France. The nation that had to fight the battle of European freedom must appeal to the spirit of freedom wherever it would answer the call; the conflict with sovereigns must be maintained by arming their subjects against them in every land. In this conception of the universal alliance of the nations, it was inevitable that the governments with which France was not yet at war should be dimly distinguished from those which had pronounced against her. The frontier lines traced by an obsolete diplomacy, the artificial guarantees of treaties, were of little account against the living and inalienable sovereignty of the people. To men inflamed with the enthusiasm of 1792 an argument of international law scarcely conveyed more meaning than to Peter the Hermit.—*Fyffe.*

The Revolution in France in 1848 was of the greatest importance for all Europe, especially for Germany. In a few days every German state was in commotion, and the people loudly and threateningly demanded four things: 1. Freedom to express their opinions by word or writing, on what was going on in the government of their country, freedom of speech and freedom of the press. 2. Universal military service, the right of every man to bear arms, and at the same time the right of all to assemble when and where they liked, for political or other purposes. 3. Trial by jury, and open courts. 4. The abolition of the Bund-Diet, and the constitutional reorganization of the state. Most of the princes gave way in terror, fearing expulsion like that of Louis Philippe; the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria only refused to yield. Then the people flew to arms, and in Vienna and Berlin bloody fights with the military ensued, which ended in the success of the latter. However, the Emperor Ferdinand had to fly his capital, and take refuge in Innsbruck, and thus to abdicate in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, who promised reforms. Also in Berlin, after much fighting, a constitution was granted.—*Baring-Gould.*

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14. VII. EUROPEAN RESULTS OF THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION.

The Swiss Liberals, who had crushed the attempt (1847) of seven Catholic cantons to form a separate confederacy, and had expelled the Jesuits, received a great impulse from the February Revolution. A new constitution was made, strengthening the central government by vesting power in a national council, a council of estate, and a federal executive council.

The rivalry of Prussia and Austria prevented the German *Bund*, or confederation, from being more than a shadow. But the news from Paris was an electric shock, forcing the rulers of the small states to grant freedom of the press, trial by jury, religious equality, abolition of feudalism, responsibility of ministers, etc. A gathering of Liberals at Heidelberg invited all the states to send deputies to a *Vorparlament* to arrange for a permanent national legislature. The Hungarians demanded an independent diet, and even the Viennese clamored for Metternich's dismissal. He fled, and Ferdinand was forced to make concessions. Frederick William of Prussia made liberal promises (March 17), but when he refused to withdraw the troops, a terrible conflict was waged in Berlin the next day. After fourteen hours the troops were withdrawn, and the king promised to be the "leader of a free and new-born nation." The rulers of Bavaria, Saxony and Hanover also gave way.

The *Vorparlament* met at Frankfort, and decreed that Germany should have a senate and house of representatives, with a single executive head—leaving details to a national assembly to be elected by popular vote. Radical republican uprisings were suppressed.

Schleswig and Holstein aroused enthusiasm by uniting together and trying to break their connection with Denmark, and be incorporated wholly with Germany. Prussian troops went to their assistance, but the hostile attitude of Russia and England led to their recall.

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14. VII. EUROPEAN RESULTS OF THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION.

In February, 1848, the people of Paris drove Louis Philippe from the throne, and declared a republic. This event greatly increased the ferment in Germany. In March began a general movement of the people, first in the smaller German states in the west, and then rapidly extending eastward, demanding, one after another, freer institutions, liberty of the press, the right to bear arms, and other popular reforms. The various governments yielded to the storm, appointing ministers from the liberal party (afterwards called "March cabinets"), and making large concessions to the people. . . Hanover and Saxony were thrown into disorder by the news from Paris; but the kings resisted obstinately until Berlin and Vienna were seized by the revolution, when they too yielded to the popular demand. The rapid success of the movement encouraged the patriotic party, and the cry spread throughout Germany for national unity, with a representation of the people in the Diet of the Confederation. Nor did this revolution stop, like that of 1830, at the frontiers of the great states. On the night of March 13, Metternich was overthrown by a popular insurrection, and he fled from Vienna, and afterwards to England. On March 18, after similar outbreaks at Berlin, the king yielded to the wishes of the radical party, and issued a proclamation, promising to strive for the union of Germany in one federal state, and for the freedom of the press throughout the nation.—*Lewis.*

First National Parliament of Germany.—There was great rejoicing in Germany over these measures. The people were full of hope and confidence; the men who were chosen as candidates and elected by suffrage, were almost without exception persons of character and intelligence, and when they came together, 600 in number, and opened the first National Parliament in Germany, in the church of St. Paul, in Frankfort, on May 18, 1848, there were few patriots who did not believe in a speedy and complete regeneration of their country. In the meantime, however, Hecker and Struve, who had organized a great number of republican clubs throughout Baden, arose in arms against the government. After maintaining themselves for two weeks in Freiburg and the Black Forest, they were defeated and forced to take refuge in Switzerland. Hecker went to America, and Struve, making a second attempt shortly afterwards, was taken prisoner. The lack of practical political experience among the members soon disturbed the Parliament. The most of them were governed by theories, and insisted on carrying out certain principles, instead of trying to adapt them to the existing circumstances. With all their honesty and genuine patriotism, they relied too much on the sudden enthusiasm of the people, and undervalued the actual strength of the governing classes, because the latter had so easily yielded to the first surprise. The republican party was in a decided minority; and the remainder soon became divided between the "Small-Germans," who favored the union of all the states, except Austria, under a constitutional monarchy, and the "Great-Germans," who insisted that Austria should be included. After a great deal of discussion, the former Diet was declared abolished on June 28; a Provisional Central Government was appointed, and the Archduke John of Austria, was elected "Vicar-General of the Empire."—*Bayard Taylor.*

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15.

Great hopes had been aroused in Italy by the liberal measures of Pius IX., who even appointed an advisory council (1846). He became the idol of the people, but aroused Metternich's wrath. Austrian troops occupied Ferrara, and Pius prepared for armed resistance. The rulers of Tuscany, Lucca, Sicily, Naples and Piedmont agreed, or were forced, to grant liberal constitutions; and upon the news of Metternich's flight, Lombardy and Venice rose in revolt. Piedmont and other states declared war on Austria. Ferdinand of Naples played a double game, and Sicily threw off her allegiance. Charles Albert succeeded at first, but was crushingly defeated by Radetsky in July, and signed an unfavorable armistice. Lombardy submitted. The Pope shrank into reaction, and when Count Rossi, his new minister, was murdered, fled to Gaeta. Rome became a Republic, and Florence also.



M. Jules Grévy.

Vienna, meantime, was in the hands of the students and populace, who demanded (May 15) the abolition of the aristocratic chamber and the summons of a national Constituent Assembly. Ferdinand yielded and retired to Innsbruck, among his faithful Tyrolese. At Prague the Bohemians revolted, but Windischgratz bombarded the city and compelled a surrender. In Hungary the movement for independence was hampered by race-hatred, and the Slavs rose against the Magyars.

Meantime, the Constituent Assembly met at Vienna, and Ferdinand, returning, declared war on Hungary. This led to a fearful outbreak, and Ferdinand again fled. But the imperial troops invested the city, and Vienna surrendered (October 31) after a desperate struggle. Ferdinand abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, the assembly was dissolved, and a constitution was granted by the "grace of the emperor."

15.

The Hope for Italian Unity and Liberty still blazed forth. Besides the radical party of Young Italy, there was a moderate party composed of the best men of Piedmont, who proposed to accomplish the same purpose by a peaceful revolution of public sentiment. This party looked to King Charles Albert, of Sardinia, to lead them to success. Although the Italian press was trammeled by state control, a number of able writers advocated their principles in political works, essays, novels and poems, and strove to rouse a determination in the Italians to become a free and united nation. The Pope and the Austrians were denounced as the foremost oppressors of Italy, the Pope being but the instrument of the Emperor of Austria, to whom he was indebted for his throne.—*Clare.*

In the Hands of Students and Laborers.—The German liberals entertained great hopes from the work of a National Parliament, or General Assembly, formed of representatives chosen by the people, which met at Frankfort on May 10. But the revolutionary spirit was too eager to await any peaceful action. Vienna was, for a time, controlled by a body of students and laborers. In the Austrian Diet the different nations quarreled bitterly; and the revolt of Italy and Hungary, and the agitation among the Slavonic peoples, threatened the empire with dissolution. In Berlin the power was held all summer by a bold but unintelligent body of revolutionists, who completely overshadowed the Prussian National Diet. In Frankfort there were terrible riots in September, under the very eyes of the National Parliament, which threatened scenes like those of the darkest days of terror in Paris.—*Lewis.*

Charles Albert Succeeded at First.—Still there were a few Italians who, with the energies of despair, resolved to persevere in the struggle against the overwhelming power of Austria. Mazzini, an illustrious leader of the patriots, issued a proclamation, saying, "The war of the kings has terminated; that of the people is about to commence." Garibaldi, another hero of indomitable courage, was gathering volunteers at Genoa The British *government* had not regarded with any sympathy this movement of the Italians to regain their independence. Alison expresses their views in saying that the British government, "which had from the outset disapproved of the treacherous advantage taken by the Piedmontese government of the revolution at Milan, and early dissuaded from the war, was now earnest in its endeavors to mediate between the contending parties." Italy was swept by the Austrians in all directions; Garibaldi was driven into the Alps, and Austrian sway was established. Still all Italy was in a ferment; and it was evident that there was a lull only in the storm; that it had not ceased. Charles Albert, in the pathetic proclamation he issued, said: "The throbs of my heart were ever for Italian independence; *but Italy has not yet shown to the world that she can conquer alone.*" The clamor in Rome for reform was so loud and threatening, that the Pope, in the disguise of a servant, on the box of the Bavarian minister's carriage, escaped from his capital, and threw himself on the protection of the King of Naples.—*Abbott.*

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16.

The campaign on the Theiss was favorable to the Hungarians, who recaptured the previously evacuated Buda-Pesth. Independence was declared, and the orator Kossuth put at the head of the provisional government. But Austria summoned Russia to the rescue, and the desperate resistance of the Hungarians, inspired by Kossuth's eloquence, was in vain. Kossuth resigned, and Görgey, appointed dictator, surrendered his army August 13, 1849. Hungary became for a time an Austrian province.

Charles Albert had again appealed to arms in March, but his army was again defeated by Radetsky, and he abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel, who purchased peace with 75,000,000 francs. The Austrians put down the revolution in the other Italian states, except at Rome, where the French overcame Garibaldi, and occupied the city, and in Naples and Sicily, where King "Bomba" re-established an atrocious despotism.

The fall of Vienna emboldened the Prussian king to evade the Berlin mob by moving the assembly to Brandenburg. When the democrats refused to go, troops occupied the city, the assembly was dissolved (December 5), and a new constitution was issued.

In May the German parliament had met at Frankfort, and chosen, after much debate, the Archduke John of Austria as provisional administrator. Instead of proceeding promptly to make a constitution, endless time was consumed in discussing "the fundamental rights of the German people," and such matters as the Schleswig-Holstein war. After interminable debates, it was decided that there should be two chambers and an hereditary emperor. The crown was offered to the King of Prussia, but he refused it because of the radical constitution, because it was not offered by the princess, and because he feared a war with Austria and the other Catholic states.

16.

The Revolt of Hungary. — During the early months of 1849 the Hungarians were successful, and



Victor Emmanuel.

on April 14, 1849, when Louis Kossuth, the chief manager of the plot, and the ablest statesman among them, was proclaimed president, the house of Hapsburg had been driven from the land, and the republican armies were 200,000 strong. But in May the young emperor, Francis Joseph, personally appealed to the Czar Nicholas at Warsaw; a vast Russian army was at once sent into Hungary to support the Austrians, and Görgey, the Magyar commander, after a feeble resistance, surrendered his army and the cause, August 13, 1849, only two days after accepting from Kossuth and the ministry the office of Dictator. Kossuth, Bem and other Hungarian leaders escaped into exile.—*Lewis.*

Charles Albert Abdicates in Favor of His Son.—On March 20, 1849, the war was renewed. The Austrians, 80,000 strong, crossed the Ticino, and entered Piedmont. The two hosts met at Novara. In a terrific battle the Piedmontese were vanquished, and there was witnessed one of war's wildest scenes of horror and woe. Charles Albert had refused to accede to those terms of subjection to Austria which the emperor demanded, and hence the renewal of the war. Like Napoleon at Waterloo, Charles Albert, at Novara, sought in vain for some ball to pierce his heart; but there was none for him. As he was led from the field of confusion, dismay, and death, he said to General Durando: "This is my last day. I have sacrificed myself to the Italian cause. For it I have exposed my life, that of my children, and my throne. I have failed in my object. I am aware that I am individually the sole obstacle to a peace, now become necessary to the state. I could not bring myself to sign it. Since I in vain sought death, I will give myself up as a last sacrifice to my country. I lay down the crown and abdicate in favor of my son, the Duke of Savoy."—*Abbott.*

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17.

The Parliament, however, did not despair, but decided that the various rulers should be called upon to accept the constitution, and that, if the Prussian king still refused the imperial crown, it should be conferred provisionally upon another. Insurrections in several states brought pressure upon their governments, but were suppressed by Prussian troops, and the Parliament became so weakened by the withdrawal of many members that it lost its influence. The radical Rump withdrew to Stuttgart, but was suppressed by the government of Würtemberg June 18, 1849.

In May the Prussian king had opened a conference of princes and proposed a plan of union, excluding Austria. Saxony and Hanover joined a league with Prussia, but afterwards withdrew. Prussia, however, issued a liberal constitution in 1850, and formed a "union" with some of the smaller states. But Austria now took the bold step of summoning the old *Bundestag*. War seemed imminent, but Prussia, under pressure from Russia, gave up the union and consented to the restoration of the *Bund*. Thus ended in failure the movement for German unity. The Schleswig-Holstein question was settled in favor of Denmark by the treaty of London, signed by England, Russia, Austria, France, Prussia and Sweden.

In England the February Revolution had comparatively little effect, although the "Chartists" created alarm by a great demonstration and petition for universal suffrage, etc. In Ireland disturbances also occurred, but were easily put down.

17.

The Radical Rump.—On September 1, Austria declared the old Diet opened at Frankfort, under her presidency, and twelve states hastened to obey her call. The hostilities between the two parties so increased that for a time war seemed to be inevitable. Austrian troops invaded Hesse-Cassel, an army was collected in Bohemia, while Prussia, relying on the help of Russia, was quite unprepared. Then Frederick William IV. yielded; Prussia submitted to Austria in all points, and on May 15, 1851, the Diet was restored to Frankfort, with a vague promise that its constitution should be amended.—*Bayard Taylor.*

Bismarck, 1847.—Among the members who formed the united Diet, on which the king had bestowed increased powers, was Otto von Bismarck. He was a younger son of a family whose estates had been seriously encumbered by the extravagance and faulty administration of many years. He was then a man of thirty-two, of vast stature, and physical strength such as few men possess. His youth had been wild, but the energies of a great nature now demanded worthier occupation, and he had chosen a political career. He was the uncompromising enemy of liberalism. The divine right of the Prussian monarchy was a fundamental article of his political creed. He regretted the concessions of the king; he condemned with vehemence the demands of the people. His voice was often raised in defense of absolute authority, and his commanding ability quickly gained for him a foremost place among the defenders of the endangered monarchy. There is no reason to believe that even then Bismarck was in his heart a lover of despotic government. . . . His first care was to establish the affairs of Prussia and Germany on a solid and permanent basis, and he did not believe that results could be gained by such parliamentary government as Prussia was then able to supply. The king bestowed favorable regard upon this formidable champion of an authority which men were threatening to reject. He employed him as his representative in the German Diet at Frankfurt. He sent him as ambassador to St. Petersburg; and when Frederick William died, and



Otto von Bismarck.

his brother became King William I., the influence of Bismarck was yet further increased. He was sent on a short mission to Paris, . . . and then he was summoned to Berlin to undertake the government of his country in the capacity of prime minister. It was a work of unwonted difficulty, for the policy which he had determined to pursue was in direct opposition to the wishes of a strong parliamentary majority.—*Mackenzie.*

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18. VIII. THE FRENCH REPUBLIC AND ITS OVERTHROW.

After the suppression of the socialist rising in June, 1848, the French Assembly made a constitution giving the legislative power to a single chamber elected by popular vote, and the executive to a president elected for four years. Louis Napoleon was elected president (December 10) by an immense majority, proving that the imperial idea had revived; and several republican leaders failed of election to the assembly in May. A year later the "party of order," headed by Thiers, succeeded in passing a bill depriving about 3,000,000 voters of the suffrage. The president's ministry proposed the repeal of the law, and he thus posed as champion of popular rights against the oligarchy. He was determined to make himself absolute, and on December 2, 1851, after arresting his leading opponents the night before, it was announced that the assembly was dissolved, and that universal suffrage was restored. The deputies who met were made prisoners by the troops, and an attempted insurrection was put down. The people were then requested to vote on a new constitution, under which the executive was to be elected for ten years with illusory checks on his power. An enormous majority voted for the constitution; and, less than a year later, a still more enormous majority voted to make Louis Napoleon hereditary emperor. Material prosperity revived, and the middle classes consoled themselves by money-making for the loss of liberty. Magnificent buildings and broad streets adorned Paris, while pomp and splendor of home and aggressive wars abroad gratified the vanity of *grande nation*. But at first peace was maintained, in spite of the belief that the emperor would attempt to avenge Waterloo on the English.



Alexander II., Late Czar of Russia.

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18. VIII. THE FRENCH REPUBLIC AND ITS OVERTHROW.

Napoleon III. Proclaimed Emperor.—Throughout the year it had been becoming more and more obvious that however blameworthy the execution of the *coup d'état* may have been, the principle involved in it had been accepted with joy by the great bulk of the French nation. It appealed to the selfish interests or sentimental desires of nearly every class. While the army looked for glory at the hands of a Napoleon, the mercantile class hoped for increase of material wealth under the strong government which was promised, the Church saw in the "savior of society," as they did not scruple to say, a man of God appointed to remove the evils of sixty years' revolution; and even the workmen were flattered by the fictitious importance which universal suffrage and the use of the *plebiscite* seemed to give them. Thus, when in the autumn the Prince undertook a progress to feel the national pulse, he was everywhere hailed with indications that the change from the present incongruous form of government to the better understood and more clearly defined character implied by the empire would be accepted with enthusiasm. In accordance with this experience he would obtain, as was necessary under the constitution he had established, a "senatus consultum" making him emperor, and entrusting to him the power of settling the succession in the House of Bonaparte, should his own direct descendants, legitimate or adopted, fail. The "senatus consultum" was referred to the people, and by them accepted by an enormous majority. Upwards of 7,000,000 supported the empire, less than 300,000 voted against it.—*Bright.*

The Character and Views of Louis Napoleon were not unknown to his supporters. He had always asserted his belief that he was one day to rule over his uncle's empire, and had proved the sincerity of his convictions by twice attempting to seize supreme power by tampering with the army. For the latter of these ill-starred attempts he had suffered imprisonment in the fortress of Ham, but, escaping, he fled to England. When he returned to Paris in 1848, it was virtually to accept at the hands of the people a recall from exile. The prestige of his name won the votes of lovers of domestic order, while the absurdity of his conduct at Strasburg and Boulogne gained him the support of a less patriotic element, who regarded him as

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clay to be moulded at will by unscrupulous potters. The state of affairs in France at the opening of 1850 was without parallel in Europe. The Revolution had overthrown Louis Philippe, crushed out a Revolution that conspired against itself, established the republic, and crowned its work by choosing an imperial Pretender for a republican president.—*Murdock.*

The Republic, based upon universal suffrage and so soon to be threatened by it, arose among a people poorly prepared for self-government, and greatly surprised by what had been forced upon them by the Parisians. This restless population of Paris, always ready for the fiery defense of an idea or of a man, without scrutinizing too closely the value and the seriousness of the idea or of the man had also been somewhat surprised by this easy victory.—*Remusat.*

The Republic of 1848: *Universal Suffrage; the Constitution of 1848.*—The nation which, on February 24, 1848, had been victorious without a struggle, at once returned to the republican form of government, and the first public measure introduced by its leaders was the proclamation of universal suffrage (decree of the Provisional Government, March 5, 1848). The rank of elector was conferred upon every Frenchman who had reached the age of twenty-one in the enjoyment of his civil rights. Without transition, a change was made from 3,000,000 to 8,000,000 of voters. It decreed the establishment of national workshops, where work was to be found for all. The failure of these brought on an insurrection, which broke out and inundated Paris with blood in the fatal days of June, 1848, alarmed the middle classes and the whole country. The constitution of 1848 was modified after this, and the executive power strengthened; it established a single assembly and a president, but it rendered them independent of each other, and thus prepared a source of perpetual conflict. A nephew of Napoleon I., Louis Napoleon, owed his election as president of the republic by more than 5,000,000 votes to the magic of his name. The task of carrying out the constitution was confided to him, but for three years he endeavored to throw discredit upon it, at last destroyed it by a *coup d'etat* on December 2, 1851, and a year later was proclaimed emperor. France once more swung violently from extreme liberty to extreme submission.—*Ducoudray.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **REIGN OF LOUIS PHILLIPPE AND THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION.**—The War Becomes a Crusade of Democracy, The Revolution in France, The Moralist System of Cabinet Government.
14. **EUROPEAN RESULTS OF THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION.**—The Swiss Liberals, The German Confederation, The Vorparlament, Schleswig and Holstein.
15. **EUROPEAN RESULTS OF THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Pius IX., Italian Unity, Charles Albert, The Students and the Populace, A National Constituent.
16. **EUROPEAN RESULTS OF THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION** (Continued).—The Hungarians, Charles Albert, Victor Emmanuel, The Fall of Vienna, The German Parliament.
17. **EUROPEAN RESULTS OF THE FEBRUARY REVOLUTION** (Continued).—The Radical Rump, The Restoration of the Bund, England and Ireland, Bismarck
18. **THE FRENCH REPUBLIC AND ITS OVERTHROW.**—Napoleon III. Proclaimed Emperor, The Character and Views of Louis Napoleon, The Republic of 1848.

QUESTIONS.

13. *Give a short sketch of the reign of Louis Philippe? What in your opinion were the direct causes of the February Revolution? Indirect causes? What can you say of the French cabinet system?*
14. *Who were the Swiss Liberals? How was Switzerland influenced by the Revolution? What was the character of the German Confederation? How were the smaller states benefited? Give an account of the Vorparlament? How did Schleswig and Holstein arouse enthusiasm?*
15. *What can you say of Pius IX.? What was the action of Austria? Who was Charles Albert? What was the ultimate change produced at Rome? What was the condition of Vienna?*
16. *Give an account of the struggle between Hungary and Austria? Who was Kossuth? What were the results of the Austro-Hungarian struggle? How did the fall of Vienna influence Prussia? Relate the accounts of the German Parliament? Give Lewis' statement of the Revolt of Hungary? Bayard Taylor's Statement?*
17. *How was the German Parliament weakened? Give Bayard Taylor's statement in reference to the "Radical Rump"? Give Mackenzie's statement in reference to Bismarck? What plan of union was proposed by the Prussian king? How was war avoided? How did the February Revolution influence English Politics?*
18. *Give a brief sketch of the organization of the French Republic? Who was Napoleon III.? What were Napoleon's views? What can you say of the Republic of 1848?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *In your opinion, what were the direct causes of the February Revolution? The indirect causes? Give reasons for your statements.*
2. *Make a careful selection from different authors showing a variety of opinions in reference to the French Revolution.*
3. *In what ways was the February Revolution a success? A failure? Give reasons for your statements.*
4. *Prepare a brief sketch of the history, origin and results of the Vorparlament?*
5. *What is the origin and history of the Swiss Republic?*
6. *Prepare a brief sketch of Victor Emmanuel. What were the leading acts of his life? How has he influenced civilization?*
7. *What do you consider the notable and commendable features of the life of Bismarck?*
8. *Make a careful resume of the leading nations (1) at the beginning of the Revolution; (2) at the close of the Revolution.*

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19. IX. THE EASTERN QUESTION AND THE CRIMEAN WAR.

The progress of Russia caused uneasiness and inclined the Powers to support Turkey as a counterpoise. In 1840 they had compelled Mohammed Ali to give up Syria and Candia, and had guaranteed the integrity of Turkey; Russia giving up the arrangement by which her war vessels alone were to pass through the Dardanelles. Russia was not affected by the February Revolution, but helped Austria to crush Hungary and frustrate German unity, and aided Denmark to maintain her hold on Schleswig-Holstein. The Czar imagined himself dictator of Europe. But the dispute about the guardianship of the Sepulchre at Jerusalem caused resistance to his claims. Napoleon secured from the Sultan the right of free entry to the Sepulchre for Latin Christians, and thus opposed Nicholas as head of the Greek church. In 1853 Nicholas proposed to Seymour, the English ambassador, that England and Russia should divide between them the dominions of the "Sick Man." England declined, and published Seymour's despatches. Nicholas then demanded a protectorate over the Greek Christians in Turkey; and when the Porte declined, a Russian army occupied Moldavia and Wallachia. Turkey declared war, and Napoleon seized the opportunity to win military fame. France and England made a treaty with the Porte, and declared war on Russia in 1854. The chief battle-ground was the Crimea, where the allies, after hard fighting and much suffering, took Sebastopol in September, 1855. The cost of the war had caused murmurs in Russia, and the baffled Czar made peace. He now emancipated the serfs, and thus struck a blow at the power of the nobles. The Poles revolted in 1863, but after two years of guerilla warfare, were crushed with barbarous severity.

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19. IX. THE EASTERN QUESTION AND THE CRIMEAN WAR.

Origin of the Crimean War.—Behind the seeming prosperity there lay a grave cause for anxiety in the quarrel which had arisen between the Czar of Russia and the Porte. The ostensible origin of this quarrel was a dispute between the Latin and Greek Churches for the custody of the sacred places in the Holy Land. From the days of Francis I. France had from time to time been in close friendship with the Turkish Empire, and had not unnaturally undertaken the duty of watching the interests of the Latin Church. In the sixteenth century the holy places had by treaty been placed in the hands of the Latins. But a considerable majority of the subjects of the Sultan belonged to the Greek Church, and as the habit of pilgrimage played a far more important part in their religious life than in that of the Latins, they were in fact more interested in the right of free access to the holy places. The possession of them was also a matter of deep interest to the whole vast population of Russia. The Czar undertook therefore the same duties with regard to the Greek Church as the French Government had undertaken with regard to the Latins, with this difference, that while to the one it was a matter rather of nominal and diplomatic honor, to the other it was a matter of real and vital importance. Almost necessarily, as Russia obtained influence in Turkey, the Greek Church had obtained privileges and immunities which were scarcely in accordance with the old treaty rights of the Latins. Disputes had constantly arisen between the rival churches in Jerusalem. But the Turks had contrived to keep the question in their own hands, and to produce some sort of concord, when in 1851 a French agent, Monsieur de Lavalette, was instructed to make good in their full extension the rights of the Latins. The instructions given him were in accordance with the position of Louis Napoleon, who was seeking to appear as the champion of order and eager for the support of the ecclesiastical party in France. Opposition from the Russians necessarily followed, and the Porte found itself in a difficult position between the claims of two powerful nations.—*Bright.*

Invasion of Crimea.—It was now that the plan for the invasion of the Crimea was promulgated. It originated among the statesmen in Paris and London and not among the soldiers in the field. On June 29 the Duke of Newcastle wrote to Lord Raglan advocating the reduction of Sebastopol with a vigor which rendered it tantamount to an order from the government. Lord Raglan, realizing the almost total ignorance that prevailed in regard to the Czar's strength and resources in the Crimea, was opposed to the plan. So were Omar Pasha and St. Arnaud. Lord Raglan's reply to the Duke of Newcastle was that of an honest soldier who disbelieved in the move he felt obliged to make.—*Murdock.*

The Burning of Sebastopol.—At midnight Sebastopol was literally in flames. The harbor, the ships, the heights, and ruined forts were all revealed as by day, while the French tri-color, on the Malakoff, as once at Moscow, tossed in the fierce glare of a Russian conflagration. The English outposts found the Redan unoccupied, and soon it became evident that the Russians had abandoned their defenses all along the line. Their retreating masses of bayonets, that flashed back the glare of the fire, could be traced passing over the bridge to the north, while the constantly recurring explosions in the ill-fated town effectually prevented any interruption with their movements. When morning dawned the Russians were gone, the ships burned or sunk, and the bridge destroyed. Sebastopol itself was a smoking waste, scarce a dozen buildings remaining.—*Murdock.*

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ADVANCE OF NAPOLEON'S GRAND ARMY INTO RUSSIA.

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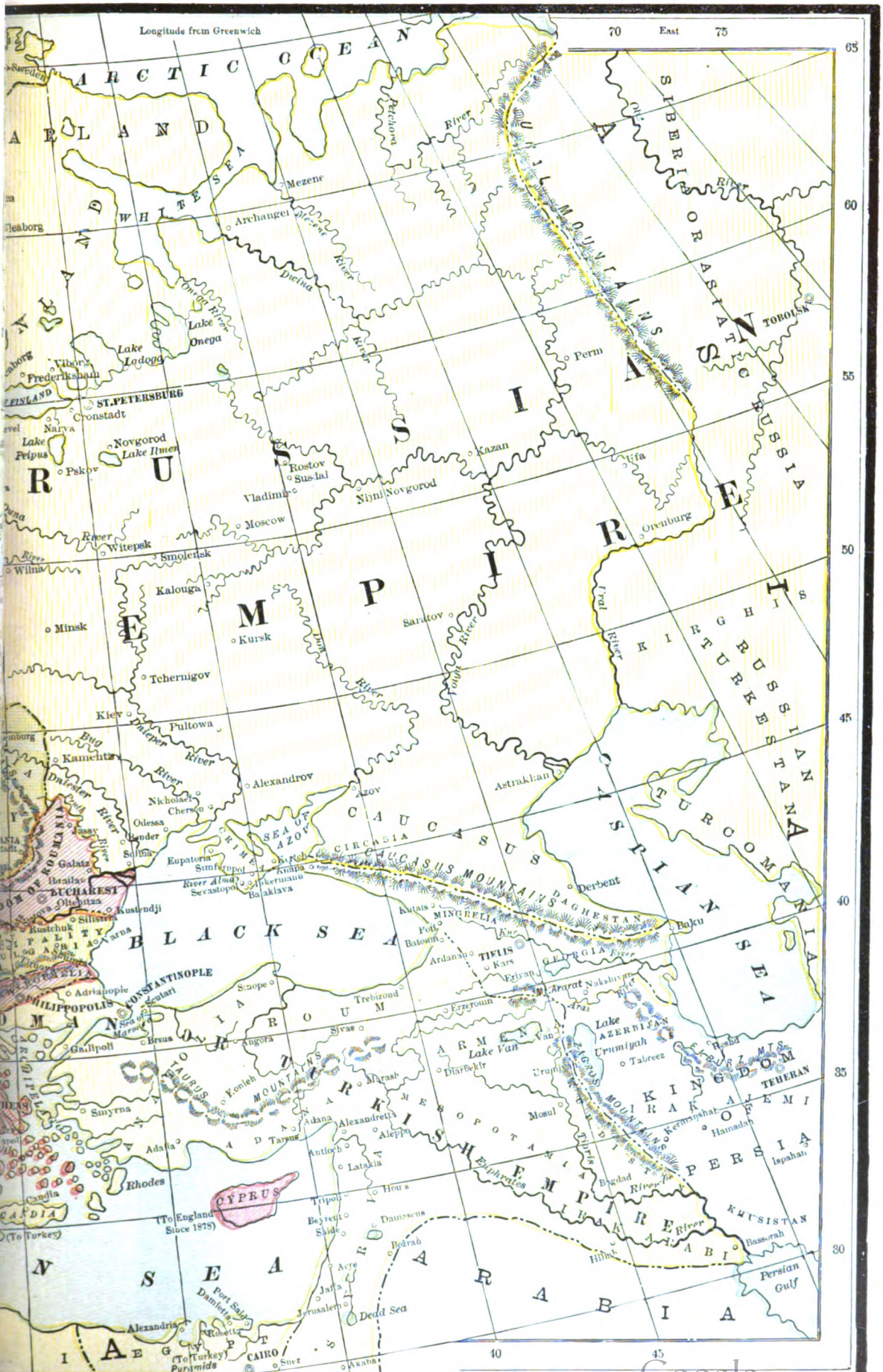

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BATTLE OF SADOWA, JULY 3, 1866.

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20. X. THE ATTAINMENT OF UNION IN ITALY AND GERMANY.

In Piedmont-Sardinia alone, among Italian states, was constitutional liberty preserved. In 1852 Cavour became prime minister; and, seeing that Italian freedom could be won only by foreign aid, he helped England and France in the Crimean war and thus acquired for Sardinia a prominent position. Subscriptions were raised all over Italy for the fortification of Alessandria; and Austria angrily recalled her ambassador from Turin. In January, 1858, the Italian Orsini tried to murder Napoleon for not having liberated Italy; and in July Napoleon and Cavour made a secret treaty binding Napoleon to aid Sardinia in case of war with Austria, and to give her Lombardy and Venetia, while France was to get Nice and Savoy. The neutral powers proposed that Italian grievances be submitted to a European congress; but Austria refused to let Sardinia be represented at such a congress, and threatened war unless Sardinia disarmed in three days. Cavour refused, and the war began. The Austrians were defeated by the French and Sardinians at Magenta and Solferino; the rulers of Tuscany, Parma, Modena and Bologna fled; and envoys from these states offered their allegiance to Victor Emmanuel. But suddenly Napoleon, fearing the establishment of too strong a state in Italy, made peace. Lombardy was to be ceded to Sardinia, but Austria was to retain Venetia and the Quadrilateral, while the old rulers in the other states were to be restored. In spite of his disappointment Victor Emmanuel accepted these terms; but in 1860 a *plebiscite* in Tuscany, Emilia and Romagna annexed these states to Piedmont, and Nice and Savoy were annexed to France in the same way.

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20. X. THE ATTAINMENT OF UNION IN ITALY AND GERMANY.

All Italy was now United.—The population of the new kingdom now numbered 11,000,000. It comprised within its area the most fertile, civilized, and prosperous provinces of the Peninsula Nor is it too much to say that nine-tenths of the intelligence, culture, and energy of Italy were to be found in the territory which henceforward acknowledged the sway of the House of Savoy. Indeed, the broad upshot of the war had been to make the kingdom of Victor Emmanuel not only the most powerful state in the Peninsula, but a state more powerful in itself than Venetia, the Papal States, and the Two Sicilies put together. The position of the Peninsula, now that the Italian kingdom lay between Austria on the north and the Neapolitan Monarchy on the south, was obviously one of unstable equilibrium. It was manifest that if the National kingdom which had been called into being by the war was to endure permanently, it must of necessity absorb its neighbors within its folds; and the stronger the vitality of this new State was shown to be, the more certain it became that Venetia, the provinces still left to the Holy See, and the Two Sicilies, must at no distant period become part and parcel of the Kingdom of Italy.—*Dicey.*

Cavour Refused and the War Began.—Two hundred thousand French troops were immediately on the march. They were received with unbounded enthusiasm in Sardinia. On May 10, 1859, Napoleon left Paris. He embarked at Marseilles and arrived at Genoa at two o'clock in the afternoon of the twelfth of May. On the twentieth the advance corps of the French and Austrians met at Montebello. The Austrians were routed and driven back again. Again on the thirtieth strong divisions of the two armies met at Palestro. Again, after a series of terrific conflicts, the French and Sardinians triumphed. The Austrians were repulsed with great slaughter, and were driven across the Ticino, out of the territory of Sardinia. The French and Sardinians pursued them. Again the Austrians made a stand upon the fields of Magenta. The Austrians had here collected all their resources upon a line of battle nearly thirty miles in extent. The battle which ensued on the fourth of June, was one of the most dreadful which has ever afflicted humanity. Forty thousand men were either killed or wounded during this long day of conflict, in which all the modern enginery of war were called into action. On the twenty-fourth of June, the French again overtook the Austrians on the field of Solferino. The Austrians were again beaten. Suddenly Francis Joseph retreated into the heart of the Venetian territory, and threw his army into the renowned fortresses, which for ages Austria had been rearing upon those subjugated plains. It was clear to every mind that France was now in military array sufficient to capture those fortresses, and thus drive the Austrians out of Italy. But instead of this, Louis Napoleon proposed terms of peace, and the war was closed by the treaty of Villa-franca.—*Abbott.*

A Plebiscite.—Cavour, ever fertile in resource, made a suggestion which he knew would find favor with Napoleon III.; it was that the Italians of Central Italy should express their wishes by a plebiscite or popular vote. His Imperial Majesty approved of the design. It was carried into effect early in March, 1860. The result was completely favorable to annexation. Deputations from each of the provinces then waited on King Victor Emmanuel, presented him with the official returns and offered him their allegiance, which he accepted. Austria protested, so did the princes of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany. The Pope launched an excommunication. Francis of Naples on this, as on all similar occasions, sided with them, refused all concessions to his own subjects and maintained absolutism throughout his dominions.—*Probyn.*

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21.

As Francis II. of the two Sicilies refused reform and clung to the Austrian alliance, the gallant adventurer, Garibaldi, at the head of his famous "Thousand," landed in Sicily in May, 1860, and secured the whole island in two months by taking Palermo and Messina. Francis now promised concessions too late, and Garibaldi entered Naples in triumph and assumed the dictatorship—Francis retiring to Gaeta and Caupa. Mazzini, the democratic agitator, urged Garibaldi to form a republic, but Cavour obtained from the parliament a decree annexing the two Sicilies and the territory just conquered from the Pope, whose army, sent to recover the legations, had been routed by Cialdini. Garibaldi now acknowledged Victor Emmanuel, and Francis soon surrendered Gaeta. All Italy was now united except Venetia, and what was left of the Papal states. Garibaldi marched on Rome, but Victor Emmanuel could not permit this, and Garibaldi was defeated and taken prisoner by Cialdini. Napoleon now agreed to gradually withdraw his troops from Rome if Victor Emmanuel would defend the Papal state.



Pope Leo XIII.

When Frederick VII. of Denmark died (1863), and was succeeded by Christian IX., Frederick of Augustenberg claimed Schleswig-Holstein, in spite of the treaty of London (1852). The German *Bund* supported his claim, and sent an army, in December, into Holstein (a member of the *Bund*) without opposition. But Prussia and Austria (parties to the London treaty) sent their combined armies into Schleswig, which the Danes defended until driven by superior force from the whole of Jutland. The treaty of Vienna ceded Schleswig-Holstein to Prussia and Austria, the *Bund* being ignored.

21.

Sicily.—It would require a volume to record the insurrections which have agitated the island of Sicily during the last half century. Four times within that period have the Sicilians made the most heroic efforts to throw off the yoke of the King of Naples In 1848, the populace rose in Palermo. Ten thousand peasants crowded into the city to join them. Even the priests and the capuchins from the convents blessed the banners of the patriots, distributing among them arms and ammunition. Messina and all the other large towns speedily united in the movement. The Neapolitan troops were driven from all the central points. A provisional government was formed, headed by Ruggiero Settimo, a distinguished military officer, and by the duke of Serra di Falco, an illustrious scholar and antiquary.—*Abbott.*

Jutland: The Inhabitants.—The peninsula through which the Baltic canal passes is only very sparsely populated, and the few inhabitants who live there have plenty of employment in tilling their land and tending their cattle. They are the descendants of the old Jutes and Angles, who many centuries ago came to this country on plundering expeditions, many of them remaining behind and populating a great part of East Anglia. The men from the Elbe marshes found a congenial home in the fens of Lincolnshire, a great resemblance in manners and appearance being said to exist at the present day between the marsh men of the Elbe and the inhabitants of the Fenland. Brusbuttel was the chief home of the pirates who in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries harried the Hamburg traders, and the people who now inhabit the Jutland peninsulas can claim as distinguished pirates and adventurers among their ancestors as any aristocratic German baron or count. The natives of these parts also used to bear an unenviable notoriety for looking upon the wrecks which were so numerously stranded on their coast as a legitimate means of adding to their resources. An old tradition exists that prayers at one time used to be offered up in the churches that their coasts might be blessed, the interpretation put upon which by a pastor who was remonstrated with for using such a prayer being, that he did not pray for wrecks, but that if in the divine wisdom of Providence wrecks must be, all he asked was that they might happen on the part of the coast inhabited by the parishioners.—*Edited.*

On the 27th of June, 1860, some three weeks after Garibaldi had taken possession of Palermo, Francis II. solemnly announced his intention to give a constitution to the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, adopt the Italian flag, and ally himself with Piedmont. These promises only provoked a cry of: "Too late!" They did but recall how often the Neapolitan Bourbons had promised in the hour of danger, and proved faithless to every promise when the danger was passed. Victor Emmanuel and his government were now both unable and unwilling to agree to any such terms with a sovereign who had rejected similar offers at the commencement of his reign when such a settlement was possible. Every friend of freedom felt that the time had gone by for any common action between the Houses of Savoy and Bourbon. Each had taken its own line of action, and each was now to abide by the result.—*Probyn.*

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22.

These events had taken place under the guidance of Bismarck, who believed that "blood and iron" would do more than oratory for German unity. It was agreed that Austria should administer Holstein, and Prussia Schleswig. But Austria, seeing her mistake, began to conciliate the *Bund*, and to permit popular meetings in Holstein in favor of Frederick of Augustenburg. Bismarck protested, made an alliance with Victor Emmanuel, and announced that the *Bund's* constitution must be changed. Austria demanded that the *Bundestag* should settle the Schleswig-Holstein affair; whereupon Prussian troops occupied Holstein. The *Bundestag*, under Austrian control, voted to mobilize its troops, and Prussia declared war on Saxony, Hanover and Hesse-Cassel, who had voted for mobilization. Hesse-Cassel and Saxony were occupied June 16; the Hanoverian army was beaten and captured June 29; and the Austrians were routed at Koniggratz July 3. Austrian victories over the Italian fleet and army did not avail. Venetia was surrendered to Italy; Prussia annexed Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Schleswig-Holstein, Nassau and Frankfort; and Austria was excluded from the *Bund*. The North German Confederation was formed, with the Prussian king as hereditary president, a federal council representing the states, and a diet, elected by popular vote. Alliances were concluded with Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden. Austria pacified Hungary with a separate ministry and diet for local affairs.



Ferdinand De Lesseps.

Italy annexed Venetia, and the French troops withdrew from Rome; but when Garibaldi prepared to attack it, a new French army defeated him and reoccupied Rome.

The astonishing victories of Prussia filled Napoleon, already humiliated by the collapse of his scheme to establish a Mexican empire under the influence of France, with chagrin. He tried to buy Luxemburg from Holland, but was foiled by Bismarck, and Luxemburg was declared neutral.

22.

Bismarck.—At last after so many humiliations, disappointments, sacrificed opportunities, Prussia found a man, a veritable *Fredericus redevivus*, whom Austria could not frighten or bend. Trained in the united diet of Prussia from 1847 to '50, member of the Erfurt Parliament in '50 and of the Bund-diet from '51 to '59, minister to St. Petersburg in '59, to Paris in '62, and then minister-president and foreign secretary at home, by the time of the events just narrated Bismarck was master of Prussian, German and European politics. First an enthusiast for Austria, he learned at Frankfort the wiles, corruption and hatred for Prussia of that power, and vowed to live for naught else till he had destroyed its arbitership of Germany's destiny. Not a republican nor yet a constitutional monarchist of full liberal stripe, Bismarck saw the necessity of winning to the side of his government the popular conscience and intelligence, and he hated Metternich's methods no less heartily than did Gagern himself. Zealot for German unity, he had no faith in seeking this by the Frankfort plan, which could succeed only in proportion as it denationalized constituent states, or any otherwise than by the "blood and iron" of some single power, with which the rest had in the main some common interests. He viewed Prussia as such a power, with him Prussian and German patriotism being identical. He was fortunate in the new king, William, politically timid like most Hohenzollerns, but a brave soldier, with a keen mind for military organization, and trustful of his minister. Opposed in the lower house of the Prussian diet and never liberal enough for the progressists, the resolute premier managed to carry with him the living forces of Prussia, and more and more to gain the confidence of Germany.—*Andrews.*

Italy Annexed Venetia.- On October 7, 1866, the Italian troops entered Venice amidst the greatest enthusiasm, which was, if possible, exceeded by that with which its inhabitants hailed the arrival of Victor Emmanuel on November 7. He was now in possession of the famous Quadrilateral and of the ancient iron crown of the old Lombard sovereigns; he was also acknowledged as king of Italy by all the governments of Europe. The French troops evacuated Rome on December 4, 1866, the Papal authorities having got together a little army composed of French, Germans and Belgians, under the command of General Kanzler. But the Pope refused to make any concessions, either by acknowledging accomplished facts or by swerving in the least degree from his "*non possumus*" policy. —*Probyn.*

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23.

In Spain the despotism of the licentious Isabella provoked a revolt in 1868, and Isabella fled. The crown was offered to Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, and accepted by him after communicating with his relative, William of Prussia; but when Napoleon declared the whole affair to be a scheme for the aggrandizement of Prussia, Leopold withdrew his acceptance. Even this did not satisfy Napoleon, whose waning popularity needed reviving by a successful war, and he demanded that William should promise never to give his consent to Leopold's acceptance of the crown. As William declined, Napoleon declared war (July 19, 1870), and Paris resounded with cries of *a Berlin!* and the fiery strains of the *Marseillaise.* Germany, too, was ablaze with patriotic fire; and under the leadership of von Moltke the German armies won victory after victory with astounding rapidity. At Sedan a great French army was overwhelmed and captured, with Napoleon himself. The Empress fled from Paris to England, and a republic was proclaimed (September 4). September 20 Paris was invested; Strasburg fell on September 28, and Metz, with an army of 150,000 men, surrendered October 28. Gambetta organized the "Army of the Loire," but its desperate courage was in vain. During the siege of Paris, which held out with astonishing fortitude, the states of Germany offered William the imperial title. He was proclaimed emperor January 18 in the palace of Versailles. At last Paris fell and peace was made, France ceding Alsace, except Belfort, and nearly all of Lorraine, and agreeing to pay 5,000,000,000 francs.



Emperor William I

After the first French defeats, Napoleon had recalled his troops from Rome. In the previous autumn the ecumenical council of the Vatican had declared the Pope, when speaking *ex cathedra* on questions of faith or morals, to be infallible. But this dogma did not save the Pope's temporal power, for Victor Emmanuel took Rome and annexed the Papal state after a *plebiscite* had declared therefor. The Eternal City became the capital of united Italy, the Pope retaining merely the Vatican and his ecclesiastical power.

23.

Beginning of the Franco-Prussian War.—On July 14, 1870, Count Benedettim, the French ambassador to Prussia, demanded an audience of King William, at Ems, for the purpose of securing the perpetual renunciation of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen as a candidate for the throne of Spain; but as the king refused to receive him he started for Paris, and on the following day, July 15, 1870, the French Corps Legislatif declared war against Prussia.

Both the French and the Prussian people were enthusiastic in support of their respective governments. All the German states rallied to the aid of Prussia, and the immediate mobilization of the whole Prussian army was ordered The Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia was placed in command of the South German armies; while his cousin, Prince Frederick Charles, was appointed to take command of the forces of North Germany. Although King William of Prussia was the nominal commander-in-chief of the German armies, the direction of the military operations of Germany was in the hands of the skillful general, Count von Moltke.

After concentrating in the vicinity of Nancy, Metz and Thionville, the French forces were moved forward to the German frontier. In the latter part of July the Emperor Napoleon III. left Paris for the seat of war, and took the chief command of the French armies. The principal French armies were the Army of the Moselle, under Marshal Bazaine, in the neighborhood of Metz and Thionville, aud the Army of the Rhine under Marshal MacMahon, in the vicinity of Strasburg. There was also a large army of reserves, under Marshal Canrobert, at Chalons-sur-Marne.

Toward the end of July the German troops, seven hundred thousand in number, occupied a

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line along the French frontier, extending from the Moselle to the Rhine. The French troops, three hundred and fifty thousand in number, were assembled at various points along the frontier, directly opposite the Prussian line. . . . On the 4th of August the frontier town of Weissembourg was captured by a part of the Prussian army under the Crown Prince, Frederick William, after a spirited engagement, in which the French General Douay was killed, and eight hundred French troops were made prisoners by the Prussians.

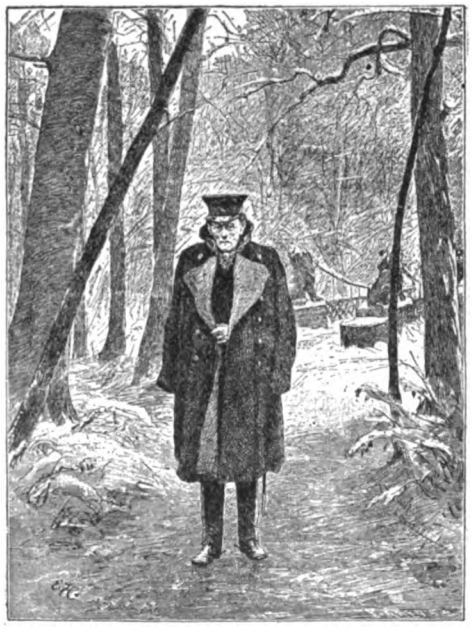
The Battle of Sedan.—At daylight, on September 1, 1870, McMahon's army, which was now reinforced, occupied a strong elevated position around the fortified town of Sedan, near the Belgian frontier. About 5 o'clock in the morning the Prussians commenced the great battle of Sedan by simultaneous attacks on the French front and left flank. During a great part of the forenoon the fighting was confined mainly to the artillery of both armies, but at length the firing of musketry became quite lively. About noon the Prussian infantry made a furious attempt to break the French center, but after the most desperate fighting they were repulsed. Afterward a simultaneous movement was made along the whole line of the Prussians, their infantry charging the French guns. After the French cuirassiers had failed in a charge on the Prussian skirmishers at the La Givonne hills, the French infantry made a desperate assault, but they also met with a disastrous repulse. At three o'clock the French line, which had thus far gallantly withstood the Prussian assaults, wavered, and soon afterward broke. The battle now became a rout The victorious Prussians hotly pursued the French troops, who, leaving everything behind them, were fleeing in dismay from the field, and throwing away their arms. The pursuing Prussians used the bayonet with terrible effect, as they were determined to cut off the French retreat toward Belgium. Night put an end to the rout and pursuit, and the broken hosts of the French army took refuge in the fortress of Sedan. The Prussians had won a brilliant victory, but at the cost of 30,000 men in killed and wounded. The defeated French army had lost 20,000 men. On August 31 and September 1, 1870, Marshal Bazaine made another desperate effort to escape from Metz; but he was again defeated by Prince Frederick Charles in the battle of Noisseville and driven back into the fortress.

On September 2, 1870, the French army under Marshal MacMahon, then numbering 108,000 men, and being entirely surrounded at Sedan, without any hope of escape whatever, was surrendered prisoners of war to King William of Prussia, by General Wimpffen, instead of Marshal MacMahon, who was severely wounded. The Emperor Napoleon III., who had been with MacMahon at Sedan, but who then held no command in the army, surrendered himself prisoner to King William. In his letter to the King of Prussia, proposing surrender, the French Emperor said: "As I cannot die at the head of my army, I come to lay my sword at the feet of your majesty."

Thus, five weeks after the commencement of hostilities at Saarbrücken, the military power of France was thoroughly broken. The imperial career of Napoleon III. had now ended, and the Second French Empire had received its death-blow.—*Clare.*

Toward the Close of January, General Bourbaki was driven into Switzerland, and at last the inevitable capitulation of Paris came, when negotiations were discussed by Count Bismarck (henceforth Prince Bismarck) and M. Thiers. These resulted in the preliminaries of peace at Versailles (February 26), when France ceded to the German Empire Alsace and part of Lorraine, including Metz and Thionville, and agreed to pay in three years five milliards of francs (£200,000,000) for indemnification. Meanwhile, with the concurrence of Prussia, the French nation proceeded by a general election to provide for its government, and the first National Assembly met at Bordeaux (February 12). M. Thiers was nominated chief of the executive, with the title of President.—*Patton.*

William I. Proclaimed Emperor of Germany.—For several months, negotiations had been in progress for a union of the South German states—Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden and Hesse Darmstadt—with the North German Confederation. These



Von Moltke Taking his Daily Walk Before his Death.

negotiations were successfully completed in the early part of December, 1870; and, on the 9th of that month, the King of Prussia, with the desire of the German princes and people, accepted the title of Emperor of Germany. On January 18, 1871, in the presence of all the German princes, in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, in France, King William of Prussia was formally proclaimed Emperor of Germany. Thus the long aspirations and dreams of the German people for the unity of their fatherland were finally realized in the creation of a new German empire, under the House of Hohenzollern. —*Clare.*

The Reign of William I. marked an era of vast importance in the history of Germany. In his time Prussia became the first power in Germany and Germany the first power in Europe. These momentous changes were due in a less degree to him than to Bismarck and Von Moltke; but to him belongs the credit of having recognized the genius of these men, and of having trusted them absolutely.—*Britannica.*

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24. XI. EUROPE SINCE 1871.

Although history is a continuous stream and its division into centuries or other periods is to some extent arbitrary and artificial, yet the interval between the fall of Napoleon and the years 1870 and 1871 has a character of its own. In the Middle Ages German blood and treasure was dissipated in the attempt to control Italy. The German kingdom was crushed beneath the weight of the Holy Roman Empire; while Italian unity was frustrated by the conflict between Empire and Church. It is surely striking that after many centuries Germany and Italy should have simultaneously achieved national union, while the Pope, declared absolute in spiritual affairs, was hurled from his temporal throne. Striking, too, it is that France, after so often bullying her neighbors, should have been taught that arrogance may be carried too far.



King Humbert of Italy.

The year 1871, then, marks the close of a distinct epoch; and we need merely indicate the leading tendencies of subsequent years.

In spite of national unity, the millenium in Italy and Germany has not come. The particular interests of the separate German states, the antagonism of the ultramontane clericals, and the socialism of the masses, have all given trouble to the government at Berlin. Italy, too, attempting to maintain the army and navy of a great power, has suffered much from financial distress. In France, smarting from defeat and thirsting for revenge, the republic has thus far managed to survive; but who can say that it may not be overthrown? The questions of Alsace-Lorraine and of the Balkan peninsula, have more than once threatened European peace; and in 1877–78 the Russo-Turkish war led to gains for Russia and still greater losses for Turkey. England has extended her influence in various parts of the globe, and has approached nearer to democracy at home. Ireland has been a thorn in her side.

All European nations are armed to the teeth, and the hosts of capital and labor are at feud. Yet steam is binding nations together more firmly every year, and the interests of commerce plead powerfully for peace.

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24. XI. EUROPE SINCE 1871.

The National Assembly, 1871; the Third Republic; the Constitution of 1875.—In 1871, after the capitulation of Paris, and during an armistice, France found herself free, under the most painful circumstances, to choose a government. A National Assembly met at Bordeaux on February 13, 1871, and afterwards at Versailles. Peace was made, February 26, with Germany by the cession of Lorraine and Alsace, and the payment of £200,000,000. The Government had to contend against an insurrection, which obliged the army to take Paris from the Commune after a two months' siege. When the Assembly had succeeded in pacifying and liberating the country, it occupied itself in once more forming a Constitution. Now, so many different governments following in rapid succession had necessarily left as marks of their passage many waifs and strays; and many partizans. The Assembly of 1871 might have been taken as a summary of the internal history of France since 1789. Some members demanded the Constitution of 1791 or that of 1848; others even recalled souvenirs of the Convention of the Mountain; others, again, would have been delighted with a Council of Five Hundred and a Council of Ancients: and, lastly, the partisans of imperial traditions remained faithful to them, whilst the friends of the Restoration or of the Government of July were still more numerous. The Assembly of 1871 was obliged to trace its own path in the midst of all these ephemeral constitutions, to choose between these experiments which had all failed, and to struggle in the midst of all these parties, each embittered against the other. After many conflicts, the details of which we have no space to dwell upon here, it at last succeeded in formulating the Constitution of February 25, 1875.—*Ducoudray.*

Financial Power.—These unsolved conditions of modern warfare, both on land and sea, weigh

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heavily on the budgets of European nations. The first place belongs to the nations which can support the largest armaments. In this respect England, which has not been exposed to any invasion for many centuries, and which, by its commerce, attracts the money of the whole universe, is certainly the greatest financial power. . . . England supports the weight of a debt of nearly £600,000,000 without flinching, and its credit is perhaps the highest in Europe. France, in spite of the crises through which it has passed, has given startling proofs of its resources. It also bears a heavy debt of over £1,000,000,000, and faces a budget of £120,000,000, whilst its credit is firmly based and universal. On May 10, 1866, when a loan of £20,000,000 was required (an l met twenty-one times), the 247,000 subscribers supplied the sum of £80,000,000 as deposit money, in a single day. The Empire of Germany, in spite of the immense ransom exacted from France in 1871, is far from possessing the same resources; it has, however, a budget of over £61,000,000. Austria-Hungary pays one of £80,000,000; Italy of £64,000,000 In Russia the wealth is unequal to the area and population, and its budget only amounts to £90.000,000.—*Ducoudray.*

1876 to 1880.—The Christian subjects of the Turkish Porte revolt against him in behalf of religious toleration and just taxation. The revolt is suppressed with great violence and cruelty; Russia once more declares herself protector of the Greek Christians, and threatens war. The Powers hold a conference at Constantinople, in which they unsuccessfully attempt to compose the existing difficulties. The Porte being unwilling to submit to their dictation, they leave Constahtinople, and Russia makes war on Turkey (*Turco-Russian war*, 1877-78). The war ends in the Peace of San Stefano, which makes Servia and Montenegro independent, and enlarges their boundaries at Turkey's expense; Roumania becomes independent, while Bulgaria remains tributary to the Porte, but with a Christian-Prince and independent administration and troops; the Porte promises reform within his European lands, and agrees to give Russia large parts of Armenia, and some new European territory. England and Austria, being dissatisfied with this treaty, threaten to make war on Russia; Germany mediates for peace, and the Congress of Berlin is called, under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, prime minister of Prussia; the Peace of San Stefano is somewhat modified in favor of Turkey; Southern Bulgaria is restored to the immediate rule of the Sultan, under the name of East Roumelia; Russian troops are to leave the Christian provinces within a year; Turkey is advised to cede a part of Epirus and Thessaly to Greece; in all the states of the Turkish peninsula political equality is to exist for men of all creeds.

Russia threatening Germany by an alliance with France, Bismarck negotiates a defensive alliance of Prussia and Austria.—*Sheldon.*

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. THE EASTERN QUESTION AND THE CRIMEAN WAR.—Origin of the Crimean war, Invasion of Crimea, The Burning of Sebastopol.

20. THE ATTAINMENT OF UNION IN ITALY AND GERMANY.—Cavour, Napoleon, War with Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel, A Plebiscite.

21. THE ATTAINMENT OF UNION IN ITALY AND GERMANY (Continued).—The two Sicilies, Garibaldi, The Treaty of Vienna.

22. THE ATTAINMENT OF UNION IN ITALY AND GERMANY (Continued).—Bismarck, Austria, Prussia, The North German Confederation, Napoleon.

23. THE ATTAINMENT OF UNION IN ITALY AND GERMANY (Continued).—The Franco-Prussian War, Battle of Sedan, Emperor William.

24. EUROPE SINCE 1871.—The National Assembly, Financial Power, Europe from 1876 to 1880.

QUESTIONS.

19. *Why was the Crimean war so-called? What was its origin? Give the events leading up to the declaration of war? What were the results?*

20. *Who was Cavour? What was his policy? What was the feeling against Napoleon? Why? Upon what grounds was war declared? Why was peace so soon declared? What is a plebiscite?*

21. *What was now accomplished by Garibaldi? How was Italy united? Upon what conditions were Napoleon's troops withdrawn from Rome? What were the conditions of the treaty of Vienna?*

22. *Give a brief sketch of the life of Bismarck? What was his policy in reference to Germany? What were the conditions of the formation of the North German Confederation? How did these successes of Germany influence other nations?*

23. *What was now the action of the Assembly? What was the cause of the Franco-Prussian war? The result?*

24. *What is now the condition of Germany? Austria? Hungary? Italy? England? France? Russia? Spain? Turkey?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Review the history of France, Germany, England, Italy, Austria, Russia, Spain, etc., and select, from each, ten of the most important personages. Note: (1) In what ways they most influenced their native country; (2) what was the cause of their prominence; (3) in what respects do they illustrate their national characteristics?*

2. *Make a comparative study of (1) France and Germany; (2) France and England; (3) England and Germany.*

3. *Which of the modern European nations do you consider most promising for the future? Why?*

4. *Look up the history of the foreign policy of England? By what means has this power been acquired?*

5. *Prepare a series of maps or diagrams showing the territory possessed by each of the modern nations?*

6. *Prepare a brief sketch of either Gladstone or Bismarck.*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Acre (ā'ker).—One of the chief ports for the Palestine coast.

Adriano'ple (see p. 140).—Also a treaty between Russia and Turkey (1829.)

Æschylus (es'ki-lus). (B.C. 525–456).—The greatest of the Greek tragic poets.

Agrarian Law (see p. 140).

Ajaccio (ä-yä'chō).—A seaport, the capital of the department of Corsica, France.

Alba'nia.—A region in the western part of European Turkey.

Albert, Charles (1819–1861).—Prince Consort of England, second son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-



Emperor William II.

Gotha. He married Queen Victoria February 10, 1840, and was made prince consort June 25, 1857.

Alessan'dria, Armistice of.—An armistice agreed upon between Napoleon and the Austrian general, Melas (1800), after the battle of Marengo.

Algiers (al-jērz').—A seaport, the capital of Algeria.

Anco'na.—A province of Italy, having Ancona for its capital.

Arndt (ärnt) **Ernst Moritz** (1769–1860).—A German poet and general writer.

Balkan' Peninsula.—The southeasternmost peninsula of Europe, including the region south of the Save and Danube.

Belfort (bel-for') —The capital of the territory of Belfort, France, being the meeting place of the various routes between France, Germany and Switzerland.

Bismarck (see pages 441 and 451).

Bluch'er (1742–1819).—A famous field marshal in the Prussian service.

Bologna (see p. 246).

Bordeaux, Duke of (bor-dō') (1820–1883).—A French Legitimist prince, son of the Duke of Berry and grandson of Charles X

Bordeaux (bor-dō').—The capital of Gironde, France.

Bosnia (boz'ni-ä).—A territory in southeastern Europe.

Bos'phorus.—A strait which connects the Black Sea and Sea of Marmora.

Boulogne (bö-lōn').—A seaport of France situated on the English channel.

Bourbaki (bör-bä'kē) (1816——).—A French general.

Bourmont (bör-mon') (1773–1846.—A French soldier and politician.

Bucharest, or Bukharest (bö-ka-rest').—The capital of Rumania.

Budapest (bö'dä-pest).—The capital of Hungary.

Burschenschaft.—A secret society of Germany established by the students for the defense of the country.

Cam'po-For'mio. — A village of northeastern Italy. Here a treaty was concluded (1797) between France and Austria.

Can'dia.—The capital of Crete.

Carbona'ri. — A secret society formed in the kingdom of Naples by those opposed to French rule.

Cavour (kä-vör') (1810-1861).—A celebrated Italian statesman.

Church, Sir Richard (1784-1873).—A British soldier, long a military commander and officer in the Greek service.

Cialdini (chäl-dē'nē), Duke of Gaeta (1811-1892), —An Italian general, politician and diplomatist.

Clairvaux (klār-vō').—A village in the department of Aube, France.

Cluny (klü-nē').—A town in the department of Saône-et-Loire, France.

Cob'den (1804-1865) **Richard.** — An English statesman and political economist, and the chief supporter of the Anti-Corn Law League (1838-46).

Cor'sica. — An island of the Mediterranean, forming a department of France.

Cor'tes.—The national assembly or legislature of Spain.

Crime'a —A peninsula of southern Russia.

Dardanelles (där-da-nelz').—A strait connecting the sea of Marmora with the Ægean sea; the ancient Hellespont.

Descartes (see p. 246).

Don Car'los (1788-1855).—Second son of Charles IV. and brother of Frederick VII.

Don Miguel (mē-gel') (1802-1866).—Third son of John VI. of Portugal.

Donna Maria (1819-1853).—Queen of Portugal, daughter of Pedro I. of Brazil.

Don Pe'dro I. (1798-1834). — First emperor of Brazil.

El'ba.—An island belonging to the province of Leghorn, Italy, and situated in the Mediterranean east of Corsica.

Emigres (ā-mē-grā'). — In French history, the royalists who left France in 1789 and succeeding years, and took refuge in Germany, Switzerland, Great Britain and other countries.

Emilia (ā-mēl'ē-ä). — A division of northern Italy lying south of the Po and north of Tuscany.

Epidaurus (ep-i-dâ'rus).—A maritime town of Illyricum. It was a Roman colony.

Ferra'ra. — A province of Emiliá, Italy (see Emiliá).

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Fich'te (1796-1879).—A German philosopher.
Folle'nius. The Latinized form of Follen, the name of a German poet (1794-1855).
Gaeta (gä-ā'tä).—A seaport of Italy, situated in the Gulf of Gaeta.
Gambetta (1838-1882).—A noted French statesman of Jewish extraction. President of Chamber of Deputies, 1879-81; premier, 1881-82.
Gap.—The capital of the department of Hautes-Alpes, France.
Garibaldi (gä-rē-bäl'dē) (1807-1882. — A celebrated Italian patriot.
Genna'dius, Georgios.—Lived in 15th century. A Greek scholar and prelate.
Gene'va.—A canton in Switzerland,
Gironde (jī-rond') — A river — the Garonne. Also a department of southwestern France.
Gneisenau (gnī'ze-nau). (1760-1831).—The Prussian general who conducted the retreat from Ligny in 1815.
Gorgey (gėr'gī) (1818-——).—A Hungarian general in the war of 1848-49.
Gorres (gėr'res) (1776-1848).—A German author.
Gortchakoff (gor-chä-kof') (1798-1883).—A noted Russian statesman.
Guizot (gē-zō').—A distinguished French historian and statesman.
Hartington, Marquis of (1833- —). Spencer Compton Cavendish, eighth Duke of Devonshire
Hellsbroun (hīls-bron').—A small town in Middle Franconia, Bavaria.
Hellenes (see p, 56).
Herzegovina (hert-se gō-vē'nä).—A province of Bosnia, Turkey, but since 1878 administered by Austria-Hungary.
Hesse-Cassel (see p. 399).
Holstein (hol'stīn).—The southern part of the province of Schleswig-Holstein, Prussia.
Hy'dra.—An island in the Greek Archipelago. It contains the seaport of Hydra.
Ibrahim (ib-rä-hēm') (1789-1848).—An Egyptian viceroy, son of Mehemet Ali
Inn.—One of the chief tributaries of the Danube.
Ipsara.—A small island in the Ægean Sea.
Innspruck (ins'brök) or Innsbruck. The capital of Tyrol, Austria.
Jut'land.—The continental portion of Denmark (see pp. 162 and 191).
King Bom'ba.—A nick name given in Italy to Ferdinand II , from his bombardment of Messina and other cities.
Klephts (klefts).—Greek or Albanian brigands.
Koniggratz (ke'nig-grets).—A cathedral city in Bohemia.
Korner (kėr'ner) (1791-1813).—A German lyric poet.
Kossuth (kosh'öt) (1802-1894).—A celebrated Hungarian patriot and leader of the Hungarian insurrection of 1848-49.
Kru'dener (1764-1824).—A Russian pietist and authoress, friend of the Czar Alexander I.
Layback or **Laiback** (lī'bäch).—The capital of Carniola, Austria-Hungary. The Congress of Layback was held Jan., 1821.
Leipzig (līp'sig) or Leipsic.—A city in the Kingdom of Saxony.
Lettres de Cachet.—A sealed letter, in virtue of which the obnoxious person named therein might be arrested and sent either to prison or into exile, without trial.
Levant'.—The region east of Italy, lying on and near the Mediterranean.
Ligny (lēn-yē').—A village in the province of Namur, Belgium.
Lombardy (see p. 160).
Louvain (lö-van').—A city in the province of Brabant, Belgium.
Louvre (lövr).—A castle in Paris of the kings of France.
Lucca (lök'kä).—A province of Tuscany, Italy, having a capital of the same name.
Luxembourg, Palace of.—A palace in Paris, built for Maria de Medici (1815-20).
Luxemburg (luk'sem-berg).—Capital of Luxembourg, a grand duchy of Europe.
Majen'ta.—A small place in Lombardy, Italy.
Magyars (see p. 192).
Mal'akoff.—A fortification which formed one of the chief defenses of Sebastopol, Crimea.
Mann'heim.—A city of Baden.
Marathon (see p. 92).
March'es.—A department of Italy, lying along the Adriatic sea, east of Umbria



Emperor William II. and His Staff.

Marlazell (mä-rē-ä tsel').—A village in Styria, Austria-Hungary.
Marmont (mär-món') (1774-1852.)—A French marshal.
Marseillaise (mär-se-yāz').—A popular French patriotic song.
Mavrocorda'tos (1639-1709).—A Greek physician and attendant to the Sultan of Turkey.
Mazzini (mät-sē' nē) (1805-1872).—An Italian patriot and revolutionist.
Mehemet Ali (mā'he-met ä'lē) (1827-1878.—A Turkish general.
Meiningen (mī'ning-en).—The capital of Saxe-Meiningen, Germany.
Melbourne (mel'bern), **Viscount** (1779-1848).—William Lamb, an English Whig statesman
Messina (mes-sē'na).—A province in Sicily.
Met'ternich (1773-1859) -- An Austrian statesman and diplomatist.
Metz.—The capital of Lorraine, Germany
Missolonghi (mis-sō-long'gē) —A town in the nomarchy of Acarnania and Ætolia, Greece.
Modena (mō-dā'nä). — A province of Emiliá, Italy, having for its capital Modena.

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Molda'via.—A former principality, now a part of Roumania.

Molt'ke (1800-1991).—A celebrated Prussian field-marshal.

Montenegro (mŏn-tā-nā'grō).—A principality of Europe.

Morea (see p. 54).

Murat (mü-ra') 1771-1815).—A French marshal, and king of Naples, brother-in-law of Napoleon I.

Nassau (nas'â).—A former duchy and state of Germany.

Navarino (nä-vä-rē'nō).—A small seaport in the nomarchy of Messinia, Greece.

Neufchatel (ne-shà-tel').—A canton of Switzerland.

Notre Dame (nō'trdäm).—A church at Paris, one of the most imposing and famous of cathedrals.

O'mar Pash'a (1806-1871).—A Turkish general.

Opor'to.—A district of Portugal. Also a city of same name in Oporto.

Orsini (or-sē'nē). (1819-1858).—An Italian patriot and revolutionist.

Palermo.—The capital of the province Palermo in Sicily.

Palmerston, Viscount (1784-1865). — Henry John Temple, a British statesman.

Par'ma.—A former duchy in northern Italy, comprising the modern provinces of Parma and Piacenza.

Peel, Sir Robert (1788-1850).—A noted English statesman, and former prime minister and first lord of the treasury of England.

Pied'mont.—A district in the northwestermost part of Italy.

Piedmont-Sardinia.—The most important part of the former kingdom of Sardinia.

Pius IX. (1792-1878). — Pope from 1846-1878. Through his influence the doctrine of papal infallibility was adopted by the Vatican Council.

Plebiscite (pleb'i-sit).—An expression of the popular will by means of a vote by the whole people.

Poitiers (pwä-tyā').—The capital of the department of Vienna, France.

Polignac (pō-lēen-yäk') (1780-1847).—A French politician and diplomatist.

Pomerania (see p. 350).

Po'sen.—A province of Prussia.

Quad'rilat'eral.—The four fortresses of Legnago, Mantua, Peschiera and Verona, Italy.

Quatre-Bras (kätr-br'').—A place in Belgium, southeast of Brussels.

Radetzky (rä-det'skē) (1820-1890).—A Russian general.

Raglan, Lord (1788-1855). — Fitzroy James Henry Somerset, a British general.

Redan'.—A fortification defending Sebastopol in the Crimean war.

Robespierre (rōbs-pyār').—A celebrated French revolutionist.

Romagna (rō-man'yä). —A territorial division of Italy.

Rossi (ros'sē) (1787-1948).—An Italian politician, jurist and economist.

Roumania (rö-mā'ni-ä) or **Rumania.**—A kingdom in southeastern Europe.

Ruck'ert (1788-1866).—A German poet.

Rump.—The fag-end of the Long Parliament.

Russell (1792-1878),—Lord John Russell. An English statesman, orator and author.

Schwalbach (shvāl'bäch).—A small town in the province of Hesse-Nassau, Prussia.

Sebas'topol.—A seaport in the government of Taurida, Russia.

Sens (sons).—A city in the department of Yonne, France.

Ser'via.—A kingdom in the Balkan peninsula, southeastern Europe.

Sesos'tris.—An ancient Greek legend, a king of Egypt, said to have conquered the world.

Spezzia or **Spetzia** (spet'sē-ä).—A seaport in the province of Genoa, Italy.

Stein (stīn) (1757-1831).—A noted Prussian statesman.

Stuttgart (stöt'gärt).—The capital of Wurtemburg.

St. Arnaud (san-tär-nō') (1796-1854).—A French general.

St. Cloud (san-klö').—A town in the department of Seine-et-Oise, France.

Salzburg (sälts'börg).—A crownland of Austria-Hungary.

San Stefano (sän stef'ä-nō).—A small port on the sea of Marmora, west of Constantinople. Here a treaty was concluded between Russia and Turkey, March 3, 1878, which put an end to the Turco-Russian war.

Sardin'ia.—A former kingdom, constituted in 1720 out of the duchy of Savoy, to which the island of Sardinia had just been ceded.

Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (saks-kō'berg-gō'tä). — A duchy in Thuringia, one of the states of the German Empire.

Scaevola (sev'ō-lä).—A Roman hero.

Schleswig (shles'vig).—The nothern of the province of Schleswig-Holstein. Schleswig is its capital.

Theiss (tīs).—The largest tributary of the Danube.

Thiers (tyār) (1797-1877). — A distingushed French statesman and historian.

Thionville (ty ôn-vēl').—The French name of Diedonhofen, a fortified town in Lorraine, Germany.

Thorn (torn).—A town and province in west Prussia.

Tripolitza (trē-pō-lit'sä). — The capital of the monarchy of Arcadia, Greece.

Trop'pau.—The capital of Austrian Silesia.

Tuileries (twē'le-riz).—A royal residence formerly existing in Paris.

Tu'rin.—The capital of the province of Turin, Italy.

Tyrol (tir'ol).—A county of Austria-Hungary.

Ultramont'ane— Party. In German politics, the Center party, which opposes legislation supposed to be inimical to the Church of Rome.

Uto'pia.—A political romance by Sir Thomas Moore; so called from an imaginary island, the seat of an ideal commonwealth.

Vendee (von-dā').—A department of France.

Vendemiaire (von-dā-myār'). — The name adopted by the National Convention of the French Republic.

Villele (vē-lāl') (1773-1854).—A French statesman and financier.

Vorparlament (fōr' pär-lä-ment).—A provisional assembly (1848) which met to prepare the way for a German parliament.

Walla'chia.—A division of Roumania.

Wallis (väl'lēs).—The German name of Valais, a canton of Switzerland.

Windischgratz (vin'dish-grāts) (1787-1862).—An Austrian field marshal.

Zollverein (tsōl' fer-īn') —A union of German states for the maintenance of a common tariff on imports from other countries.

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SIDE LIGHTS—ENGLAND UNDER QUEEN VICTORIA.

Queen Victoria.—William IV., third son of George III., died June 20, 1837, and with him ended the reign of personal government in England. He left no children who could have succeeded to the throne, and the crown passed, therefore, to the daughter of his brother, the Duke of Kent and fourth son of George III. This was the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, who was born May 24, 1819, and was, therefore, but little more than eighteen years of age. The Duke of Kent died a few months after the birth of his daughter, and the child was brought up under the care of his widow. It can not be doubted that the Princess Victoria was trained for intelligence and goodness. The Duchess felt that it was proper that her daughter, in view of the position she would hereafter occupy, should see as much as possible of the places of interest and importance in the kingdom she would be destined in time to reign over. Accordingly she took the young Princess about to the chief manufacturing centers, as well as to places of historic interest and localities where the rural beauty of England was to be seen in its greatest perfection.

"On January 16, 1840, the Queen, opening parliament in person, announced her intention to marry her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha—a step which she trusted would be 'conducive to the interests of my people as well as to my own domestic happiness.' No marriage contracted in the humblest class could have been more entirely a union of love, and more free from what might be called selfish and wordly considerations."—*McCarthy.*

Francis Charles Augustus Albert Emmanuel was the full name of the young Prince. He was born August 26, 1819.

In the seventeen years from 1840 to 1857 the Queen had nine children, all but one of good physical constitution, and all without exception of sound mind.

The Princess Royal, now the Empress Frederick of Germany, was born November 21, 1840. The birth of the eldest son, the Prince of Wales, followed on November 9, 1841. Princess Alice was born April 25, 1843, and Prince Alfred, now Duke of Coburg, in 1844.

Between the births of her second and third sons, the Queen had two more daughters, the Princesses Helena and Louise, now Princess Christian of Schleswig-Holstein and Marchioness of Lorne, born respectively on May 25, 1846, and March 18, 1848. The birth of Prince Arthur occurred in 1850. The two youngest of the Queen's nine children, Prince Leopold and Princess Beatrice, were born respectively April 7, 1853, and April 14, 1857.

Prince Albert died December 14, 1861, twenty-two years after his marriage. Queen Victoria, broken-hearted as she was, did not forget the duty she owed to her country and family. It will be more interesting to consider the leading public events of her reign by administrations.

Melbourne's Administration. — Lord Melbourne (William Lamb, 1779-1848), was the first minister of the Crown after Queen Victoria succeeded to the throne, and advocated a moderate Whig policy. His ministry lasted six years.

Peel's Administration.—Sir Robert Peel displayed the greatest proof of statesmanship by recognizing that the time had come to put into practical legislation the principles which Cobden, Villiers, and Bright had been advocating in the House of Commons. The test by which the Jews were excluded from certain municipal offices was removed. The corn-laws imposed a duty on the importation of foreign grain which amounted to prohibition. In 1846 these laws were repealed. Peel adopted the policy of gradually removing all duties, and the struggle was now between Protection and Free Trade.

Palmerston's Administration.—Lord Palmerston (Henry John Temple), was prime minister from 1855 to 1865. Among the leading events of Palmerston's administration was the Opium War growing out of the protection given by the government to the opium trade in China. It was now



Queen Victoria.

that the unfortunate affair of the Trent occurred. The confederate government had resolved to send envoys to Europe to arrange, if possible, for the recognition of the southern states. They took passage in the English mail steamer *Trent*, but were intercepted at Havana and taken prisoners by the United States sloop-of-war *San Jacinto*, under command of Captain Wilkes. After much unfortunate correspondence between the two countries the prisoners were released but not without giving rise to much ill feeling, which exists even to the present.

Disraeli (Lord Beaconsfield) was prime minister from 1874 to 1880. In his earlier life, Disraeli had favored protection, but at the time of his accession as prime minister he had abandoned the principle of protection. "The spirit of the age," he said, "tends to free intercourse, and no statesman can disregard with impunity the genius of the epoch in which he lives." This change neither pleased the Protectionists nor the Peelites, the Free Traders. Under Disraeli's second administration, India was placed directly under domin-

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ion of the British Crown. The House of Commons was opened to the Jews, and the first Jew admitted to Parliament was introduced by Disraeli, himself a Jew.

Gladstone's Administration. — From 1868 to 1894 William E. Gladstone served during four periods as prime minister. As early as 1864 the eyes of all Radical Reformers were turned to Mr. Gladstone as the future Minister of Reform in Church and State. The Reformers now had at their head Bright and Gladstone, the latter the greatest philosophical writer and thinker of the day, if not of the age. The Reform bill (1867) was strongly advocated by Mr. Gladstone. "It enfranchised in boroughs all male householders rated for the relief of the poor, and all lodgers resident for one year, and paying not less than ten pounds a year rent; and in counties, persons of property of the clear annual value of five pounds, and occupiers of lands or tenements paying twelve pounds a year. It disfranchised certain small boroughs, and reduced the representation of other constituencies. It created several new constituencies; among others, the borough of Chelsea and the borough of Hackney. It gave a third member



Prince of Wales.

to Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham and Leeds; it gave a representative to the University of London. It enacted that where there were to be three representatives, each elector should vote for only two candidates, and that in the city of London, which has four members, each elector should only vote for three "

In 1869 the Dominion of Canada was enlarged by the acquisition of the Hudson Bay Territory. On the expiration of the charter of the Hudson Bay Company, their territory was transferred to the Dominion for £"00,000. The charter of this ancient Hudson Bay Company had been obtained from King Charles II. in 1670, on condition of paying annually "two elks and two black beavers, whensoever and as often as we, our heirs and successors shall happen to enter into the said countries, territories and regions." Hence, the Dominion of Canada now stretches from ocean to ocean.

On January 1, 1871, occurred the disestablishment of the Irish church. This bill had been advocated by Gladstone and strongly opposed by Disraeli, and in public discussions had created intense interest and much bitter feeling. The bill provided that the Irish church should cease to exist as a state establishment. The union between the churches of England and Ireland were to be dissolved, and the Irish ecclesiastical courts were to be abolished.

Mr. Gladstone had declared that "the Irish upas-tree had three great branches—the State Church, the Land Tenure System, and the System of Education." Hence, he now introduced his Irish Land bill, "which," says McCarthy, "overthrew, once for all, the doctrine of the landlord's absolute and unlimited right. It recognized a certain property or partnership of the tenant in the land which he tilled. . . . It threw upon the landlord the burden of proof as regarded the right of eviction The tenant disturbed in the possession of his land could claim compensation for improvements, and the bill reserved the existing assumption of the law by presuming all improvements to be the property of the tenant, and leaving it to the landlord, if he could, to prove the contrary."

In point of the general education of the masses England was far behind other civilized countries. McCarthy tells us "that more than two-thirds of the children of the country were absolutely without instruction." Mr. Gladstone undertook to reform these conditions and now provided, after a prolonged discussion, for England, and for the first time in her history, a system of national education. What was known as the University Test Bill, admitting on equal terms all students, of whatever faith, to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, was enacted. The government passed a Trades-union Bill, favoring the workmen; repealed the Ecclesiastical Titles Bill, and regulated other evils too numerous to mention.

Mr. Gladstone's second Home Rule measure was defeated in the House of Lords, and in March, 1894, the "Grand Old Man" resigned the British Premiership, and, owing to infirmities, retired from public life. Aanis well says: "Mr. Gladstone is without a peer among the statesmen and politicians of his day. Indeed, were it possible to unite the combined talents of a score of the more prominent public men, whom he has left on the parliamentary stage, you would not make a Gladstone. . . . Not to speak of the glamour of his name and his phenomenal hold upon the masses, only the bitterest enemy would refuse to admit that, in the higher qualifications of an orator and debater, as well as in those gifts of lucid exposition of which he is master, Mr. Gladstone stands unrivalled by the men of his time, while he is the best representative of the nation's political conscience and an exalted type of its ethical morality."

Salisbury's Administration.—Lord Salisbury was prime minister in 1885; from 1886 to 1892, and from 1894 to the present. He was always opposed to the measures advocated by Gladstone. The nature of his more recent administration in connection with Africa, Turkey and more particularly Venezuela, is well known.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

A.D.

1800 Death of Willliam Cowper, English poet, aged 69 years, April 25. The Alps are crossed by Napoleon Bonaparte, and Italy entered, May 31. The Austrians defeated at the battle of Hohenlinden. Russia, Denmark and Sweden revive the armed neutrality of 1780. Prussia signed fifteen days afterwards, December 16. Battle of Mincio fought December 26. Death of Rev. Hugh Blair, D.D., eminent Scotch divine, aged 82 years.

1801 Great Britain and Ireland united in the Legislative Union, January 1. The United Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, first held January 22. Germany and France form the Treaty of Luneville. The Rhine is made the boundary line between France and Germany, February 9. Famous Battle of Alexandria fought March 21. Assassination of Paul I. of Russia, March 24. Alexander succeeds to the throne, March 24. France and Naples conclude peace by the Treaty of Florence, March 28. Great naval battle of Copenhagen, Denmark, which ends the Armed Neutrality. The negroes of Hayti, West Indies, overthrow the French dominion in the West Indies.

1802 The Italian republic takes the place of the Cis-Alpine republic, January 25. Conclusion of the Treaty of Amiens, between France, Holland and Spain on one side, and Britain on the other, March 25. Toussaint l'Ouverture surrenders to the French at Hayti, West Indies, and is taken prisoner to France, May 3.

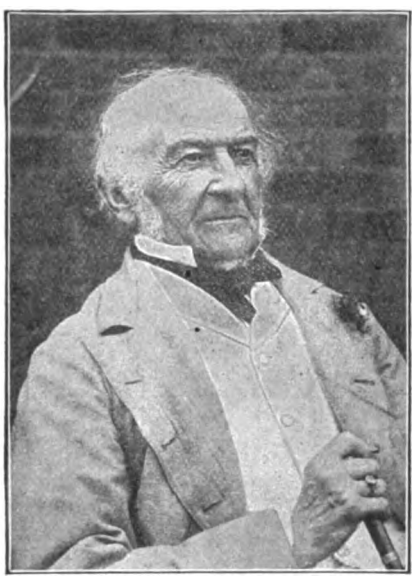
1803 England and France at war through Napoleon, May 16. The famous insurrection of Robert Emmett in Ireland, July 23.

1804 Second voyage of Mungo Park to Africa from which he never returns, January 30. Death of Joseph Priestly, English divine and natural philosopher, aged 71 years, February 6. Conventssuppressed in Prussia, March 8. The Duke D'Enghien executed, March 21. Napoleon proclaimed emperor of the French, May 18. The Americans bombard Tripoli in August. Under the title of James I. the negro Dessaline is crowned Emperor of Hayti, October 8. The Pope crowns Napoleon, first emperor, at Notre Dame, Paris, December 12. Spain and England at war, December 12.

1805 The coalition against France again joined by Russia, April 11. A form of government changed in Holland by France, April. Death of Johann Christoph Friedrich von Schiller, German poet, dramatist and writer, aged 46 years. Death of the English divine, William Paley, aged 62 years, May 25. Napoleon I. crowned at Milan as King of Italy. Peace concluded by the Americans with Tripoli, June. France annexes Genoa, June 4 20,000 lives lost in the terrible earthquake at Naples, July 26. The French victorious. French and Spanish fleets destroyed at Trafalgar by Admiral Nelson, October 21. The French defeat the Austrians at the Battle of Austerlitz, December 2.

A D.

1806 Death of William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, June 23. The French enter Naples, February 8. Napoleon declares himself Emperor of Rome, with the Pope as viceroy, February 13. Joseph Bonaparte crowned King of Naples, February 15. King of Hanover seized by the Prussians and Frederick William III. proclaimed king. War declared in consequence by England, April 1. Charles James Fox, great English statesman and orator, dies September 13, aged 57 years. England Russia and Saxony form the fourth coalition against France. Prussia at war with Napoleon I., October 8. The battle of Jena. The Prussians defeated by the French. James I , Emperor of Hayti, assassinated by his subjects.



William E. Gladstone.
(From latest photograph.)

1807 Turkey at war with Russia, January 7. Battle of Mohrengen, January 25. Streets of London first lighted by gas, January 28. Battle of Eylau, February 8. English slave trade abolished, March 23. Battle of Friedland, June 14. France and Russia conclude peace, July 7. and France and Prussia conclude peace, July 9; called the Treaty of Tilsit.

1808 Congress prohibits importation of African slaves into the United States. Madrid captured by the French under Murat, March 23. Insurrection of the Spaniards at Madrid ended by Murat with great slaughter, May

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2. The crown of Spain renounced by Charles IV. in favor of Napoleon I. Ferdinand VII. of Spain abdicates, May 6. Napoleon enters and captures Madrid December 4. Prussia abolishes serfdom.

1809 Treaty of Great Britain and Spain, January 14. Battle of Corunna, January 16. England and Austria form the fifth coalition between France, April 6. Spain entered by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, May 12. Battles of Asperm and Essling, May 21-22. Warsaw evacuated by the Austrians, June 1. Battle of Wagram, July 5-6 Battle of Talavera, July 28. Divorce of Napoleon from his wife Josephine, December 15.

1810 Napoleon I. publishes the Rambouillet Decree by which French vessels are prohibited from entering ports of the United States, March 23. Napoleon marries Maria Louisa of Austria, April 1.

1811. Destruction of the Mamelukes by Mohammed Ali in Cairo Eypt. Only one Mameluke survived by leaping his horse over the breastworks, March 1. Battle of Barossa, March 5.

1812 Prussia concludes an alliance with France and Austria, March 14. Coalition formed against France by Russia and Sweden, April 5. United States declares war against Great Britain, June 18. Russia invaded by the French under Napoleon I., June 24. Great Britain, Sweden and Russia form the Treaty of Orebro, July 18. Battle of Salamanca, Spain, July 22. Madrid captured by the British army, August 12. The French defeated at the battle of Smolensko, Russia, August 16-17. Burning of Moscow by the inhabitants on the entrance of the French, September 14. Awful retreat of the French from Russia. The great army of Napoleon wasted by famine and cold, October 19. Great loss of the French at the battle of Beresina, Russia, November 26.

1813 Russia and Prussia form the sixth coalition against France, March 16. The French evacuate Berlin, March 4. Napoleon invades Silesia, May 31. French defeated by Wellington at the battle of Vittoria, Spain. Battle of Pyrenees, July 28. The allies defeated at the battle of Katzbach and Dresden, August 26.

1814 Pope Pius VII. returns to Rome. Battle of Brienne, January 29. Battles of Fontainebleau and Montereau, February 17 and 18. Battle of Craonne, France, March 7. Napoleon defeated at the battle of Leon, March 9 and 10. The French defeated by Wellington at the battle of Tarbes, March 20. The allied armies enter Paris with the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia at the head of over 30,000 men, March 30. The Kingdom of Italy dissolved, April 4. Napoleon abdicates in favor of his son, April 4. Battle of Toulouse, France, April 10. Louis XVIII. of the Bourbon dynasty ascends the throne, May 3. Napoleon arrives at Elba, May 4. The important Congress of Vienna, Oct. 2.

1815 Napoleon returns from Elba, and, with 1,000 men, lands at Cannes March 1. England, Austria, Prussia and Russia form an alliance against Napoleon March 15. Prince

A.D.

of Orange becomes King of Holland March 16. French Empire restored, with the departure of Louis XVIII. from Paris March 19. Congress of Vienna acknowledges the independence of Switzerland March 20. The important Treaty of Vienna March 25. Battles of Ligny and Quatre Bras, Belgium, June 16. The great Battle of Waterloo, Belgium, Napoleon defeated with great loss by Wellington and Blucher, June 18. The Czar Alexander is declared King of Poland at Warsaw June 20. Napoleon abdicates the second time June 22. Louis XVIII. returns to Paris July 6. Napoleon surrenders to Captain Maitland, of the British vessel Bellerophon July 15. Napoleon sent to St. Helena Aug. 8. Death of John Singleton Copley, American historical painter, aged 87 years Sept. 9. Formation of the Holy Alliance between Russia, Austria and Prussia Sept. 26. Execution of Murat, ex-King of Naples Oct. 13. Napoleon arrives at St. Helena Oct. 16. Second Peace of Paris made between the French and the Allies. The expenses of the war, about 140,000,000 of dollars, to be paid to the Allies. Execution of Michael Ney, Marshal of France, aged 46 years Dec. 7. Brazil becomes a Kingdom under John, Prince Regent of Portugal, Dec. 16.

1816 The Allied sovereigns by decree exclude the Napoleon family from the throne of France Jan. 12.

1817 Great Britain and Spain make a treaty for the suppression of the slave trade Sept. 23. Death of Thaddeus Kosciusko, the famous Polish general and patriot, aged 71 years Oct. 15. Princess Charlotte of Great Britain dies Nov. 6.

1818 Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle. Independence of Chili.

1819 Queen Victoria born May 24. Sailing of the first steamship, "The Savannah," for Europe in May. Great Reform Meeting held in Manchester, England, Aug. 16. Death of Commodore Perry Aug. 23 Death of the Prussian Field Marshal, Lebrecht von Blucher, aged 77 years, Sept. 12. New Granada and Venezuela form the Republic of Colombia under the Presidency of Bolivar.

1820 Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III., dies Jan. 23. King George III. dies. George IV. ascends the throne Jan. 29. Revolution of Spain against Ferdinand VII. Jan. and Feb. Jesuits expelled from Russia March 25.

1821 Death of John Keats, English poet, aged 24 years, Feb. 24. New Constitution adopted by Portugal March 9. Victor Emmanuel I., King of Sardinia, abdicates March 13. Austrians evade Naples March 20. Cash payments resumed by the Bank of England May 1. Napoleon Bonaparte dies at St. Helena May 5. Don Pedro becomes Regent of Brazil, afterwards Emperor, Aug. 21

1822 The Greeks declare their independence of Turkish rule Jan. 1. Portugal acknowledges the independence of Chili Jan. 25. United States government acknowledges the independence of the South American governments March 19. The Turks wrest

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Scio from the Greeks, a fearful massacre of the inhabitants occurs, April 11. Athens taken by the Greeks June 22. Death of Percy Bysshe Shelley, English poet, aged 30 years, July 8. The Turks recapture Corinth from the Greeks. Another Battle of Thermopylæ July 13. The Turks defeated by the Greeks at Thermopylæ, etc., Aug. 6. Brazil ruled by Don Pedro as Emperor, having declared its entire independence of Portugal, Sept. 21. The Greeks take Corinth from the Turks Oct. 2. Great famine in Ireland.

1823 Iturbide, Emperor of Mexico, abdicates March 8. French invade Spain to maintain Ferdinand VII. April 6. Ferdinand VII. of Spain deposed by the Spanish Cortes June 11. The Peninsula conquered entirely by the French Aug. 31. The Spanish Cortes dissolved Sept. 28. Ferdinand VII. of Spain restored Oct. 1.

1824 Victor Emmanuel I., ex-King of Sardinia, dies Jan. 10. Death of Lord Byron at Missolonghi April 19. Charles X. of France succeeds Louis XVIII. Sept. 16. Establishment of a Federal Constitution of Mexico Oct. 4. Establishment of the Greek Provisional government Oct. 12. Great Britain recognizes the independence of Colombia, South America, Jan. 21. France recognizes the independence of the Brazilian Empire May 13. Alexander I. of Russia dies, and is succeeded by his brother, Nicholas I., Dec. 1.

1826 Don Pedro announced King of Portugal on the death of John VI. Feb. 18. Greece surrenders Missolonghi to the Turks April 11. A constitutional charter given to Portugal by Dom Pedro April 26. The Portuguese throne resigned by Dom Pedro, who retains the Empire of Brazil May 2. Fearful massacre of the Janizaries by the Turks June 15. Russia declares war against Persia Sept. 28.

1827 Death of Ludwig von Beethoven, German musical composer, aged 57 years, March 26. Canning becomes Prime Minister of England April 30. Great naval battle of Navarino by which the independence of Greece was secured and the naval power of Turkey destroyed Oct. 20. Dissolution of the French Chamber of Deputies and the creation of 76 new Peers Nov. 5.

1828 Duke of Wellington becomes Prime Minister of England Jan. 26. Great Council of State in Greece, called the Panhelion, formed Feb. 2. Russia and Prussia conclude the Treaty of Turkmanshai Feb. 22. Russia declares war against Turkey, because the latter does not carry out the obligations she had assumed, April 26. Ranavolana Manjaca, wife of the great King of Madagascar, Radama, becomes a fierce persecutor of the Christians on the death of the King July 27.

1829 The Colombians defeated the Peruvians at the Battle of Tarqui, February 27. Nicholas I. of Russia, crowned King of Poland at Warsaw, May 24. Death of Sir Humphrey Davy, English natural philosopher, aged 51 years, May 30. The beginning of the sitting of the Great National Assembly at Argus, July 23. Russians capture Adrianople, August 20. Sutteeism, or burning

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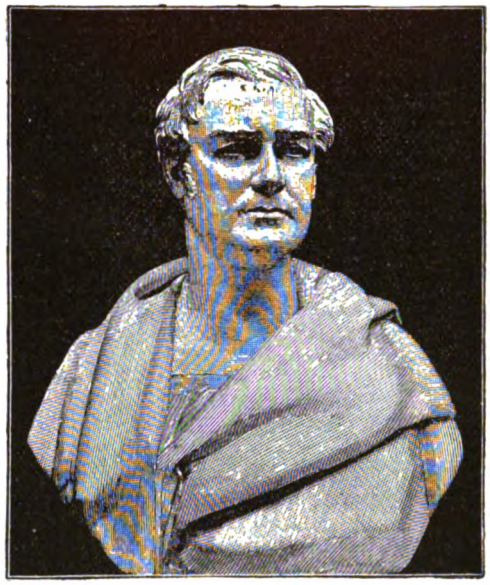
of widows in India forbidden by the English Government, December 14.

1830 Disuse of the pillory in London, June 22. King George IV. dies, William IV. succeeded to the throne, June 26. The French acquire Algiers, July 25. Beginning of the French Revolution of 1830, July 27. Charles X. of Franch abdicates the throne, August 2. The Duke of Orleans ascends the French throne as Louis Philippe I., August 7. The independence of Belgium proclaimed by the National Congress at Brussels, November 10. Earl Gray becomes Prime Minister of England, November 24. Death of Simon



Bust of Sir Robert Peel.

Bolivar, famous liberator of Bolivia from Spain, aged 47 years, December 17. Great meeting in London recognizing the independence of Belgium, December 20.

1831 Poland declared independent by the Polish Diet, January 25. Poland invaded by a Russian army of nearly 114,000 men under Diebitsch, February 6. Russians defeated at the Battle of Grochow, February 20. Pedro I., Emperor of Brazil, abdicates in favor of his infant son, Don Pedro, April 4. Constantine, Grand Duke of Russia, dies, June 27.

1832 Death of Johann Wolfgang Goethe, greatest modern German poet, aged 83 years, March 22. Passage of the Irish Reform Bill in England, August 7. Prince Otho of Bavaria becomes King of Greece with the approval of the Greeks, August 8. Attempt to assassinate Louis Philippe of France, November 19. Turks lose heavily at the Battle of Konieh, Syria, December 21. The French take Antwerp, December 23. Texas revolts from Mexico.

1833 The government of Spain reassumed by Ferdinand VII., January 7. War between the Pasha of Egypt and Turkey ended by

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the Convention of Kutayah, May 4. General Santa Anna declared elected President of Mexico, May 11. Naval battle at St. Vincent by Admiral Napier of England in command of Don Pedro's fleet, July 5. William IV. declares slavery abolished throughout the British Empire to take effect August 1, 1834; $20,000,000 given as compensation to the slave owners, August 28.

1834 Russia concludes a treaty with Austria and Prussia for the surrender of Polish refugees to Russian authorities, January 29. Quadruple alliance between Great Britain, France, Portugal and Spain for the seating of Isabella II on the throne. Alliance with Great Britain, France and Spain by Don Pedro of Portugal, April 21. The East Indies Company's trade with China ended April 22. Duke of Wellington becomes once more Prime Minister of England, November 22 Death of Charles Lamb, great English writer and poet, aged 59 years, December 27. Sir Robert Peel becomes Prime Minister of England, December 31.

1835 Francis I. of Austria dies, and is succeeded by Ferdinand I., March 2. Lord Melbourne again becomes Prime Minister of England, April 20.

1836 Spanish loyalists defeated the Carlists at Lodosa, August 21. Attempted insurrection of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte at Strasbourg, Spain. Charles X., ex-King of France dies, November 6 The independence of Mexico recognized by Spain, December 28.

1837 The so-called "Sons of Liberty" rebel at Montreal, Canada, under Patineau. Political offenders are granted amnesty, France, May 9. King William IV. of Great Britain dies and is succeeded by Queen Victoria. Hanover is separated from Great Britain, June 20. Death of the Queen of Holland, aged 54 years, October 5. Constantine captured by the French, October 13. Battle of St. Eustace, fought December 14.

1838 The English Parliament passes the first Irish Poor Law Bill. The English Government abolishes slavery in East Indies, August. England and France conclude a commercial treaty with Turkey August 16. England crushes out the Canadian rebellion at the Battle of Prescott, November 17. War declared against France by Mexico, November 30.

1839 Death of Rev. Archibald Alison, celebrated Scottish divine and writer, aged 82 years. France and Mexico conclude a peace at Vera Cruz March 9. Egypt and Turkey again at war May. Naval battle between the British and Chinese in the Bay of Coalloon, China, September 5.

1840 The Emperor of China interdicts all trade and intercourse with Great Britain January 5. Great Britain adopts the penny postage January 10. Death of Blumenbach, Germany physicist, aged 87 years, January 27. Queen Victoria and Prince Albert of Saxe-Gotha married February 10. Louis Napoleon condemned to imprisonment for life at Ham October 6. October 29 M. Guizot becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in France. Princess Royal

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of Great Britain born November 21. Egyptians driven out of Syria by England, Russia, Prussia and Austria The body of Napoleon brought from St. Helena and placed in the Hotel des Invalides, Paris, December 15.

1841 Union of Upper and Lower Canada in one province. The protection of Jerusalem placed under the Turkish government April 6. The independence of New Zealand as a colony recognized in April. Canton attacked by the British, but abandoned on payment of 6,000,000 of dollars by China to England May 30. Death of Sir David Wilkie, R.A., at sea near Gibraltar, aged 55 years. Egypt and Turkey conclude a peace July 11. Sir Robert Peel again becomes Prime Minister of England September 8. Great Britain and Prussia erect the first Protestant bishopric of Jerusalem, with the Rt. Rev. S. M. Alexander, D.D., as its first bishop November 7. Prince of Wales, England, is born November 9

1842 Terrible massacre of nearly 30,000 men, women and children at Akbar Khan, at Cabul, Afghanistan, on its evacuation by the British, January 6-13 China and Great Britain conclude the Treaty of Nankin August 29. The Afghan war ended October 11. Death of Grace Darling, celebrated English heroine, aged 27 years. Allan Cunningham, Scotch novelist, poet, dies October 29. Croton water introduced into New York.

1843 Death of Robert Southey, poet laureate of England, aged 69 years, March 21. England appoints Sir Charles Napier governor of India March 24. Establishment of the Free Church of Scotland after the famous disruption of the Church of Scotland May 18. England and France recognize the independence of the Sandwich Islands November 28. In this year Hyderabad and Gwalior taken by the British army.

1844 Daniel O'Connell convicted in Dublin of sedition and sentenced to pay a fine of £2 000 and to a year's imprisonment, January 15-February 12. An independent republic established by St. Domingo, February. Charles John XIV., King of Swden, dies, and his son Oscar succeeds to the throne, March 8.

1845 Renunciation of his claim to the Spanish throne by Don Carlos in favor of son May 18. Departure of Sir John Franklin with Captains Fitzjames and Crozier in the vessels, "Terror and Erebus," on the Arctic expedition, from which none of them return, May 24. The Sikh war in India, Battle of Ferozeshah, December 21 and 22.

1846 The Poles drive out the Austrians from Cracow February 22. The Sikh war ended by the Treaty of Lahore March 9. Louis Napoleon escapes from the fortress of Ham May 25. Pius IX. becomes Pope, formerly Cardinal Mastai Ferreti, June 16. Benamin Robert Haydon, English historical painter, dies June 22 Corn Laws of England repealed by Sir Robert Peel June 26. Lord John Russell becomes Prime Minister of England July 6.

1847 Daniel O'Connell, the great Irish leader, dies at Genoa, Italy, aged 71 years. The

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English Parliament votes 50,000,000 of dollars for the relief of the Irish people, suffering from famine. The Jesuits expelled from Switzerland November 24. Surrender of Abdel Kader this year.

1848 Death of Isaac Disraeli, English author, aged 82 years, January 18. Beginning of the French Revolution of 1848, February 22. Louis Philippe abdicates in favor of his grandson, Count of Paris, February 24. The Republic of France proclaimed with a provision of government, consisting of Lamartine, Arago, Ledru Rollin and others, February 26. Insurrection breaks out at Vienna, March 13. Insurrection at Berlin against the government, March 14. Lombardy in revolt against the Austrians, March 18. Insurrection at Venice against the Austrians, March 22. War against Austria by the Pope, April 22. The Danes defeated by the Prussians, who take possession of Schleswig, April 23. National Assembly of France condemn Louis Philippe to perpetual banishment. Breaking out of the Hungarian Revolution at Pesth, September 11. Condemnation of Smith O'Brien and others at Dublin to death for rebellion. Sentence commuted to transportation, October 9. Under disguise, Pope Pius IX. leaves Rome, November 24. New constitution granted to his subjects by the King of Prussia, December 5. Louis Napoleon is pronounced president elect of the French Republic. Sikhs defeated before Mooltan; and gold discovered in California this year.

1849 Capture of Moultan, India, by the British army, January 4. Austrians capture Pesth, January 5. Sardinians defeated by the Austrians at the battle of Novara. Kossuth proclaimed Governor of Hungary. Austria supported by Russia against the Hungarians, April 27. Maria Edgeworth, Irish novelist, dies, aged 82 years, May 21. Rome besieged by the French, followed by its surrender, June 3—July 3. The papal Authority restored in Rome, July 4. Austrians conclude a peace at Milan, August 6. General Lopez heads an insurrectionary expedition against Cuba.

1850 Death of Sir William Allan, distinguished Scotch painter, aged 68 years, February 23. Austria, Bavaria and Wurtemberg sign treaty at Munich, to maintain the German union. February 27. Pope Pius XI. returns to Rome, April 12. Death of William Wordsworth, distinguished poet, aged 80 years, April 23. Another insurrectionary expedition against Cuba, for the purpose of annexing the island to the United States, under Gen. Lopez, May 17. Sir Robert Peel, English statesman, dies, aged 62 years, July 2. Louis Philippe, ex-King of France, dies, August 26. The Roman Catholic hierarchy established in England, September 30. Taeping rebellion begun in China, October 3. Chinese Piratical fleet destroyed in the Bay of Tonquin, October 20. Death of Lord Francis Jeffrey, renowned Scotch judge and man of letters, aged 77 years.

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1851 Death of John James Audubon, aged 71 years, January 27. Rome signs a concordat with Tuscany, April 25. The great exhibition in Hyde Park, England, opened by Queen Victoria and Prince Albert, May 1. France and England establish telegraphic communication between them, September 27. Gen. Lopez executed in his third expedition against Cuba, August—September. Louis Napoleon brings about the "coup d'état," in France. Paris in a state of siege. Bloody conflicts in Paris, December 4 and 5. Death of Joseph William Mallord Turner, the great English painter, aged 76 years, December 19.

1852 Louis Napoleon becomes President of France, January 1. Title of nobility restored in France, January 25 France and Turkey form a treaty regarding the holy places of Palestine, February 14. Thomas Moore,



Sir John Franklin.

the great Irish national poet, dies February 25. Lord Derby becomes Prime Minister of England, February 28. The British storm and take Rangoon, Burmah, under Gen. Godwin, April 14. The Industrial Exhibition at Berlin, opened May 28. England and Ireland connected by the sub-marine telegraph, June 1. Death of the Duke of Wellington, in England, aged 82 years, September 14. Louis Napoleon, president of the French, declared Emperor of France, under the title of Napoleon III.

1853 Napoleon III. marries Eugenie de Montijo, Countess of Teba, in Paris, January 29. End of the Caffre War in Africa, March 9. Dr. Kane sails on his Arctic expedition in the ship "Advance," May 30. The Burmese war ended, June 30. War against Russia declared by Turkey, October 5. The Bosphorus entered by the British fleet, October 30. Election of Gen. Santa Anna as Dictator of Mexico for life, December 16.

1854 Death of Silvio Pellico, Italian patriot and scholar, aged 65 years, January 2. England and France declare war against Russia, March 28. English and French fleet bombard Odessa, April 22. Death of James Montgomery, a Scottish religious poet, aged 83 years, April 30. Greece declared

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to be in a state of blockade by the Allied Powers, May 18. Opening of the Crystal Palace in London, June 10. Spanish rebellion begins in Spain, July 17, and ends July 19. Landing of the allies at Old Point in the Crimea, composed of 25,000 English soldiers, 25,000 French soldiers and 8,000 Turks, September 14. The Allies victorious at the battle of Alma, Crimea, September 20. The British occupy Balaklava, September 26. Beginning of the siege of Sebastopol, October 27. The Russians lose over 9,000 men at the battle of Inkermann, November 5. Death of John Kitto, English biblical scholar, aged 50 years, November 25. Alliance formed by Austria with Great Britain and France; December 2. The Roman Catholic Church makes the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary an article of faith, December 8. The Portuguese abolish slavery, December 30.

1855 Emperor Nicholas of Russia dies and is succeeded by Alexander II., March 2. The four great powers held, and conference of the Eastern question at Vienna, March 15. England proclaims a general fast day on account of the Russian war, March 21. Death of Charlotte Brontë, English novelist, aged 39 years, March 31. Bombardment of Sebastopol, June 6 and 17. Russians repulse the allies at the Malakhoff and the Redan, June 18. Russians defeated at the battle of Tchernaya, Crimea, August 16. The Malakhoff taken by the French, September. Kars capitulates, November 25. Santa Anna, dictator of Mexico, abdicates, December 8. Samuel Rogers, English poet, dies December 18.

1856 The powers agree to a suspension of hostilities in the Crimea, February 29. Treaty of Paris, by which the war in the Crimea was ended, March 30. Property held by ecclesiastics in Mexico confiscated by the government, March 31. Alexander II. of Russia grants political amnesty to the Poles, May 27. Evacuation of the Crimea, July 9. Alexander II. of Russia crowned at Moscow, September 7. Beginning of the war between England and Persia, November 1. Death of Hugh Miller, Scottish geologist, December 24.

1857 Gift of Geo. Peabody of $300,000 for a free literary and scientific institution in Baltimore, Md. The British surrender at Cawnpore, India, and are nearly all massacred by Nana Sahib, June 25. Death of Sir Henry Lawrence, British general in India, July 4. Gen. Havelock recaptures Cawnpore, June 17. Death of Eugene Sue, great French novelist, aged 53 years, August 3. The British capture Delhi, India, September 14 to 20. England suffers a great commercial panic, November 12. Lucknow rescued by Sir Colin Campbell, Sir Henry Havelock, and Sir James Outram, November 17. Death of Sir Henry Havelock, November 25. Battle of Cawnpore, in which the Indian rebels were completely subdued, December 6. Death of Theobald Matthew, known as Father Matthew, the Apostle of Temperance, aged 67 years, December 8.

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Great earthquake in Naples; nearly 40,000 lives lost.

1858 Death of Bishop Wilson at Calcutta, India, aged 80 years, January 2. England and France bombard and take Canton, China, January 5. Benito Juarez announced as constitutional president of Mexico at Vera Cruz. Beginning of the Civil War, February. Lucknow captured by Sir Colin Campbell, March 21. The Atlantic telegraph completed, August 5. Ottawa becomes the capital of Canada, August 7. The East India Company ceases its government of India, September 1. Queen Victoria proclaimed sovereign of India, November 1. Great eruption of Mount Vesuvius.

1859 The revolutionary junta elects Gen. Miguel Miramon President of Mexico. War between Austria and Sardinia. France takes part with Sardinia, April 23 to May 3. Death of Charles Robert Leslie, English painter, May 5. Death of Friedrich Heinrich Alexander Von Humboldt, the great Prussian natural philosopher, aged 90 years, May 6. Austria defeated at the battle of Montebello, Piedmont, May 30 and 31. The Austrians defeated by the French and Sardinian army at the battle of Magenta, June 4. Prince Metternich, Austrian statesman, dies June 5. Milan entered by Louis Napoleon III. and Victor Emmanuel, June 8. Austrians defeated at the battle of Solferino, Lombardy, June 24. Juarez proclaimed constitutional President of Mexico, July 13.

1860 Count Cavour takes charge of Sardinian affairs, January 15 and 16. Tuscany annexed to Sardinia, March 22. Prussia admits Jews to judicial appointments, April 25. Spain and Morocco conclude a peace, April 26. May 14 and 15, exploits of Garibaldi, the Italian patriot. Palermo captured by Garibaldi, May 27. Garibaldi wins the battle of Melazzo, June 14. Beginning of the second Chinese war, August 12. Garibaldi proclaimed dictator of the two Sicilies, August 27. Victor Emmanuel announced to be King of Italy at Naples, September 9.

1861 Victor Emanuel proclaimed King of Italy by the Italians, February. The government of Italy recognized by France, June 24. War declared between the Argentine Confederation and Buenos Ayres, August 29. The Belgian government recognizes the kingdom of Italy, November 6. Pedro V., King of Portugal, dies, and is succeeded by his brother, Louis Philippe, Duke of Oporto. Prince Albert, called Albert the Good, dies in England, December 14.

1862 War declared against President Juarez by the French in Mexico, April 16. The Mexicans defeated by the French, April 28. The French defeated by the Mexicans near Pueblo, May 5. Prussia recognizes the kingdom of Italy, July 10. The Sardinians defeated by Garibaldi at the battle of Reggio. Garibaldi taken prisoner at the battle of Aspromonte, August 29.

1863 Pueblo, Mexico, is surrendered to the French after a siege of two months, May 18. Death of Richard Whateley, archbishop of Dublin, a distinguished theologian and

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scholar, aged 76 years, October 8. The allied French and Mexican imperial forces advance successfully in Mexico. Juarez gives way. Wm. M. Thackeray, English novelist, dies, December 1864.

1864 Terrible accident at Santiago, through the burning of the church of La Compania. Over 2,000 perished in the flames, January 28. Schleswig-Holstein war begun, February 10. Jacob Meyerbeer, celebrated German musical composer dies, May 1. Death of John Leach, famous artist of "Punch," aged 47 years, October 29. The Ionian Islands ceded to Greece this year.

1865 The people of Mexico called upon by President Juarez in a proclamation to resist foreign invasion, Jan. 1. Leopold I., King of the Belgians, dies, December 9. Unsuccessful attempt to lay the Atlantic telegraphic cable occurs this year.

1866 General Prim heads a military insurrection in Spain, January 4. Habeas Corpus Act suspended in Ireland, February 17. The Imperialists surrender Matamoras, Mexico, to the Juarists, June 23. The Prussians repulsed in Galicia, June 24. The Austrians defeated at Nachod, and the Prusslans again at Galicia, and the Hanoverians at Langensalza, June 27. The Prussians victors at the battle of Sadowa or Königsgratz Garibaldi defeated at the battle of Montesuello, July 3. Austria and Prussia sign a preliminary treaty of peace at Nicholsburg. Battle of Wurzburg fought July 26. Successful laying of the Atlantic cable, between Great Britain and America, July 13-27. Candia breaks out in revolt against Turkey, August 9. Prussia and Austria sign a treaty of peace at Prague, August 23. The Atlantic cable, laid in 1865, recovered from the ocean's depths and completed. Manchester, England, witnesses a great Reform Demonstration, September 24. Prussia and Austria resume diplomatic relations, September 26.

1867 Kingdom of Prussia formally incorporates Schleswig-Holstein, January 24. The treaty of the New North German Confederation between the several states signed at Berlin, February 8. The House of Lords, England, passes the British North American Confederation Bill, February 26. The French evacuate Mexico, March 16. English government issues Royal proclamation, announcing the British North American provinces to be one country under the name of the Dominion of Canada, May 21. Coronation of the Emperor of Austria at Pesth as King of Hungary, June 8. Execution of the Emperor Maximilian and Gens. Miramon and Mejia at Queretaro, Mexico, June 19. Forces of Juarez captured the city of Mexico after a 69 days' siege, June 20. The forces of Juarez capture Vera Cruz, June 27. The Sultan of Turkey enters London, July 12, and is received by the Queen at Windsor, July 13. Berezowski sentenced to transportation for life for his attempt to assassinate the Czar of Russia. City of Mexico entered in triumph by Juarez, July 15. Tremendous demonstration in Hyde Park, London, against the action of the House

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of Lords on the Reform Bill, August 5, August 25. Lord Monck opens the first session of the Canadian United Parliament, November 7. End of the Garibaldi war against the Papal States, and annesty issued by the King of Italy to all engaged in it, December 5. The Fenians cause the death of six persons, injuring more than 40 by the explosion of the wall of the Clerkenwell House of Detention, December 13.

1868 Japan opens the ports of Ozaka and Hiogo to foreign commerce, January 1. Island of Cuba placed under military government by the Captain-General, January 4. Revolution at Lima, Peru, January 6-8. Anson Burlingame, at one United States Minister to China, appointed by the Chinese government its special envoy to all treaty powers, with a salary of $40,000 January 11. Rebellion in the Argentine Republic, January 27. War with King Theodorus of Abyssinia, March 30. Theodorus killed at the storming of the fortress of Magdalia, April 13. Opening of the Mount Cenis railway under the Alps, June 9. Great revolution in Venezuela, June 26. The action of the Mikado in prosecuting the native Christians condemned by the foreign ministers in a united protest, June 30. The Argentine Republic elects Sarmiento, president, June. Christians and Turks fight a great battle at Scutari, Turkey, July 5. Atlantic cable of 1866 a failure, August 1. Tremendous earthquake in South America; over 30,000 lives lost August 13. New revolution in Panama, August 29. Revolution in Hayti still progressing, December 30. Civil war in Japan ended.

1869 Lamartine dies, February 28. Irish church disestablished. Sainte-Beuve dies, October 13. Opening of the Suez Canal, November 17. Pacific Railway completed this year.

1870 Charles Dickens dies, June 9. Abdication of Isabella II. of Spain, June 25. Infallibility of the Pope declared by Vatican Council, July 18. France and Prussia at war, July 19. Battle of Sedan, September 1. Napoleon surrenders to Prussia, September 2. Fall of Metz, October 28. Fearful revolt of the Commune at Paris, October 31. German Empire announced, December 10. Mont Cenis tunnel completed.

1871 William I. proclaimed Emperor of Germany, January 18. Paris captured, January 28. Commune proclaimed in Paris, March 28. Commune insurrection ended, May 28. M. Thiers proclaimed President of France, August 31.

1872 British Columbia united with Dominion of Canada, February 8. Jesuits expelled by German Reichstag, June 19. President Juarez, Mexico, dies, July 18.

1873 Napoleon III. dies, January 9. Lord Lytton dies, January 18. McMahon proclaimed President of the French Republic, May 24. French territory evacuated by Germans, September 16. Sir Edwin Landseer, England, dies, October 1.

1874 Disraeli made Prime Minister England, February 18. Marshal Bazaine sentenced,

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December 10. Guizot, France, dies, September 12.

1875 Prince of Wales visits India, October. Territory ceded by Japan to Russia.

1876 Khiva conquered by Russia. The new French Chambers meet. Purchase of the Suez Canal by England. Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India, May 1. Disraeli made a Peer and invested with the Order of the Garter. German made the official language in Prussian Poland. Catholic bishops deposed in Prussia. The Russo-Turkish war 1877 to 1878. Neutrality of England in the Russo-Turkish war. Death of M. Thiers.

1877 Meeting of first Turkish Parliament, March 19. Russian Nihilists tried October 31.

1878 Marquis of Lorne, Governor General of Canada. Treaty of Stefano and Berlin. Great commercial depression felt in England. Afganistan war. International Exposition opens in Paris, May 1. Death of Victor Emmanuel of Italy. Death of Pope Pius XIV. Election of Leo XIII., as Pope. Bosnia occupied by Austria.

1879 English forces defeated by Zulus, South Africa, January 12. Woman's Suffrage Bill rejected by Prussian House of Commons, February 27. The bill to legalize marriage with deceased wife's sister defeated by British House of Lords, May 5. Great railroad bridge over Frith-of-Tay blown down with loss of ninety lives.

1880 Jules Faure, France, dies January 20. Mont. St. Gothard tunnel completed, February 29. International Exposition opened, Brussels, June 1. Jesuits expelled by French Republic, June 20. Cologne Cathedral begun 1228, completed August 14.

1881 Assassination of Alexander II. of Russia, March 13. Irish Land League proclaimed illegal, October 20.

1882 Gambetta ministry resigns in France, January 27. Charles Darwin dies, April 19.

1883 Dore, the eminent French painter, dies, January 23.

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1886 Great riot in Chicago, May 4. Ex. Gov. Horatio Seymour, United States, dies, February 12.

1887 Statue of Liberty unveiled, New York, September 27.

1888 Death of Matthew Arnold, England, April 15.

1890 Pan-American Conference ended, Paris. McKinley Bill passed, May 25. Capt. R. F. Burton dies. First execution by electricity.

1891 George Bancroft, United States, dies, January 17. James Russell Lowell dies, August 12. Owen Meredith dies, November 24. King Kalakaua dies, January 20. Von Moltke, Germany, dies, April 24. General Boulanger, France, shoots himself, September 30.

1892 Cardinal Manning, England, dies, January 14. Noah Porter, ex-President Yale University, dies, March 4. Prof. Edward A. Freeman, England, dies, March 16. Rev. C. H. Spurgeon, England, dies, January 31. Great Riot at Homestead, Pa., July 6. Cyrus W. Field, United States, dies, July 12.

1893 James G. Blaine, United States, dies, January 27. The Victoria sunk by the Camperdown, June 23.

1894 Geo. W. Childs, United States, dies, February 3.

1895 Korea formally declares its independence, January 8. Imporation of American cattle forbidden in Hamburg, Germany, January 18. Mercury seventeen degrees below zero, London, Eng., February 10. Importation of American cattle into France forbidden, February 24. Dispute between Great Britain and Nicaragua settled, May 2. Marquis of Santa Lucia proclaimed President of the Republic of Cuba, September 3. Massacre of Armenians by the Turks, October 28-November 22. Eugene Field, United States, dies, November 4. Cuban insurrection this year with varying success.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

For those who wish to read extensively, the following works, used in the preparation of this number, are especially commended:

AUTHOR.	TITLE OF WORK.
Abbott, J. S. C.	Italy.
Alison	The History of Modern Europe.
Andrews	Institutes of General History.
Baring-Gould	The History of Germany.
Bright	History of England.
Carlyle	The French Revolution.
Century	Cyclopædia of Names.
Dicey, Edward	Victor Emmanuel.
Ducoudray	Verschoyle's History of Civilization.
Hale	The Story of Spain.
Hamerton	French and English.
Jervis	History of France.
Lane-Poole	The History of Turkey.
Le Goff	Louis Adolphe Thiers.
Lewis	History of Germany.
Mackenzie	The Nineteenth Century.
Müller	Political History of Recent Times.
Murdock	The Reconstruction of Europe.
Patton	Modern History.
Probyn	Italy from the Fall of Napoleon to the Death of Victor Emmanuel.
Remusat	Thiers.
Sergeant	Greece.
Taylor, Bayard	History of Germany.
Thalheimer	Manual of Medieval History.
Washburne	Recollections of a Minister to France.
White	History of France.
Winchester	The Swiss Republic.

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ARCHIBALD HENRY SAYCE, D.D., LL.D.

THIS distinguished scholar was born at Shirehamton, near Bristol, September 25, 1846. He was educated partially at home and largely at Grosvenor College at Bath. His degree of LL.D., however, comes from Dublin, and D.D. from Edinburg. For a long time he was the deputy Professor of Philology at Oxford University, where he also filled other offices; but in 1890 he resigned his positions in the university for the purpose of spending his winters in Egypt in the practical work of exploration. He retained only his fellowship at Queen's College.

His work in Egypt has been of untold value to the world of scholars, for the early history of Egypt was shrouded in genuine "Egyptian darkness" until the last few years, when it has been rolled away by the magic wand of expioration.

Among the faithful workers in this field we find many illustrious names, some of whom have already found a place on the pages of PROGRESS.

The discovery made at Tel-el-Amarna is one of the most remarkable that has been made in Egypt during the present century. Egypt has



Archibald Henry Sayce.

always been the land of archæological surprises, but few of them can compare in importance with the discovery of these tablets.

Amenophis IV., or Khu-en-Aten, is called "the heretic king" in the histories of monumental Egypt. He alone of all the Pharaohs, deserted the traditions of his fathers, and attempted to impose upon his unwilling subjects the worship of the solar disk, which may have been originally of Babylonian invention. After a time the hostility between the king and the powerful priesthood of Thebes became so violent that Amenophis found it difficult, if not impossible, to remain in the capital of his fathers. Therefore he left Thebes with as many followers as he could command, and they built a new capital on the edge of the desert to the north. Here he assumed the name of Khu-en-Aten, "the glory of the solar disk," while his architects and sculptors consecrated a new and peculiar style of art to the new religion, and even the potters decorated the vases they modeled, with new colors and patterns.

The archives of the empire were transferred from Thebes to the new residence of the king, and there stored in the royal palace at the northern extremity of the city. But the existence and prosperity of this capital were of short duration, and after the death of the king it was not long before the rulers of his domain and their subjects returned together to the old traditions of their people. The faith which Khu-en-Aten had endeavored to introduce was left without worshipers, the Asiatic strangers whom he and his father had exalted to power were driven from their position, and the new capital was deserted, never again to be inhabited. The great temple of the Solar Disk fell into decay, like the royal palace, and the archives of the king were buried under the ruins of the chamber wherein they had been concealed. Here they remained, concealed by the friendly sand, until the *fellahin*, searching for nitrous earth with which to manure their fields, at last brought them to light.

Professor Sayce happened to arrive in Cairo shortly after the discovery was made, and, as no cuneiform scholar had as yet seen them, he was most anxious to examine them. A few of them had already been secured by the Boulaq Museum, and at present the whole of them are practically in European hands. After a vast amount of hard work, Professor Sayce found that the story found upon these clay records was indeed a wonderful one. He learned that in the century preceding the Exodus, active literary intercourse was going on throughout the civilized world of Western Asia. There was a diplomatic correspondence between Babylonia and Egypt and the smaller states of Palestine, of Syria, of Mesopotamia, and even of Eastern Capadocia. This intercourse was carried on by means of the Babylonian language and the complicated Babylonian script. It implies that all over the civilized East there were libraries and schools where the Babylonian language and literature were taught and learned.

"We can now understand," says Professor Sayce, "the meaning of the name of the Canaanitish city which stood near Hebron, and which seems to have been one of the most important of the towns of Southern Palestine. Kirjath-Sepher, or Book-town, must have been the seat of a famous library, consisting mainly, if not altogether, as the Tel-el-Amarna tablets inform us, of clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform characters. . . . But apart from such side-lights as these upon ancient history, apart also from the more important facts which have already resulted from an examination of the texts, the discovery of the tablets of Tel-el-Amarna has a lesson for us of momentous interest.

"*The collection cannot be the only one of the kind.* Elsewhere in Palestine and Syria, as well as in Egypt, similar collections must be lying under the soil. Burnt clay is not injured by rain and moisture, and even the climate of Palestine will have preserved uninjured its libraries of clay. Such libraries must still be awaiting the spade of the

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excavator on the sites of places like Gaza, or Kirjath-Sepher, or others, whose remains are buried under the lofty mounds of Southern Judea. Why should Palestine, the sacred land of our faith, remain unexcavated, while all over the rest of the ancient Oriental world the disinterrers of the past have been vying with one another with feverish activity? Why should workmen and funds be found for exhuming the buried history of ancient Greece, while the religious public is content with surveying the surface of the soil of Palestine?

"There is not much to be discovered upon that surface which has survived the wreck of centuries; it is only within the kindly bosom of the earth that we shall find hidden and preserved the precious relics of the past."*

The life of this patient and enthusiastic worker has been preserved almost by a miracle. He landed one morning from his boat on the Nile, and went ashore, where he was bitten by the deadly asp. He hurried into his boat and with his own hand, burned out the bitten part down to the bone. He then turned to his table and wrote out his will, preparing for speedy death. His people waited to see what would happen; but when no severe consequences were the result, they said he was under the protection of Allah.

Among the numerous and valuable works of Professor Sayce, we may note the following: "An Assyrian Grammar," "The Principles of Comparative Philology," "The Astronomy and Astrology of the Babylonians," "An Assyrian Reading Book," "Lectures on the Assyrian Syllabary and Grammar," "Babylonian Literature," "Introduction to the Science of Language" (two volumes), "The Monuments of the Hittites," "The Vannic Inscriptions Deciphered and Translated," "Ancient Empires of the East," "Fresh Lights from the Ancient Monuments," "Introduction to Ezra, Nehemiah, and Esther," "Inscriptions of Mal-Amir," "Life and Times of Isaiah," "Assyria: Its Princes and People," "The Races of the Old Testament," etc.

Besides many valuable papers, he has also edited some of the most valuable editions of other works, such as George Smith's "History of Babylonia," "Sennacherib," "Chaldean Genesis," and the invaluable series of the "Records of the Past," in six volumes; also the "Ancient History from the Monuments," by Vaux, and other works.

BABYLONIAN AND ASSYRIAN LIBRARIES.†

By A. H. Sayce, D.D., LL.D.

IT is only the older ones among us who are able to realize the profound change which the Oriental discoveries of the last half century have effected in our conceptions of the past history of civilized man. It is not so very long ago since culture in the modern sense of the word was regarded as taking its origin in the age which saw the rise of the literature of classical Greece.

The Oriental civilizations of an earlier date were hardly recognized as civilizations at all—they were rather incarnations of brute force which was concentrated in the hands of a few.

A knowledge of the art of writing was grudgingly granted to the Egyptian and the Assyrian, but the possession of a literature was denied them, and still more a literary culture of an extended character. The possession of a literature had indeed to be allowed to the Hebrews, but it was looked upon as a unique and extraordinary fact, which it was necessary to minimize as much as possible. Today all is changed, the East is yielding up its dead, and we are beginning to learn that the ancient Oriental world, was, after all, not so very unlike our own.

We know now that Egypt and Babylonia and Assyria possessed a culture and civilization of a high order, before the first Greek writer committed his thoughts to papyrus or parchment, or even before any people in Europe had risen above the level of barbarism.

We can never return to the complacent belief that Europe was the cradle of civilization, and that culture is the monopoly of the nations of the West. Such a belief was the last echoes of those mediæval doctrines which placed the earth in the centre of the universe, and made man the sole object for which it had been created.

Astronomy and geology have not been more fatal to these doctrines than Oriental archæology has been to the equally unfounded and equally vainglorious theory that culture and civilization have been confined to Greece and Rome, and above all to ourselves of the modern world.

The Art of Writing.—The art of writing is in the East, immensely old, and it was an art which in Egypt and Babylonia was not restricted to a special class. On the contrary, a knowledge of reading and writing was widely spread, and when we bear in mind the complicated nature of the system of writing, employed in Egypt and Babylonia, and the enormous number of separate characters used in them, it is evident that education was far advanced.

In Egypt the rocks are covered with scribbles by ordinary passengers up and down the Nile, by the captains and sailors of boats, by merchants and traders, and even by quarrymen and laborers.

The cuneiform tablets found at Tel-el-Amarna prove that in the century before the Exodus, not only was the Babylonian language, and the Babylonian script, studied and known throughout Western Asia, but that correspondence, sometimes upon the most trivial subjects, was constantly being carried on from one extremity of the civilized East to the other. The epoch of Moses was as much a literary age in Egypt and Western Asia as the epoch of the Renaissance was in Europe.

Libraries.—A literary age implies the existence of libraries, and libraries, indeed there were. In Babylonia the institution of public libraries went back to a remote period, and we know of private libraries in Egypt at a period almost equally remote.

One of the most famous of the Babylonian libraries had been established by Sargon of Accad, the founder of the first Semitic empire, who flourished as early as 3800 B.C.

It was for the library of Sargon that the standard works on astronomy, astrology, and terrestrial omens had been compiled, which remained a sort

* See Sayce, Transactions of the Victoria Institute, Vol. XXIV., No. 93.

† This valuable paper was contributed to the Department of Philology in the World's Congress Auxiliary. Edited by Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M., Chairman.

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of text-book to the astrologers and diviners of Babylon and Assyria down to the very last.

The astronomical treatises show that the phenomena of the heavens had been long observed and noted; eclipses of the moon, and within certain limits, of the sun also, could be calculated and foretold.

The annual path of the sun through the sky had been mapped out among twelve constellations—the twelve signs of the Zodiac which are still familiar to the almanac-makers.

The library of Sargon was but one out of many Babylonian public libraries, and a large part of the latest and largest of them—the library of Nineveh—is now in the British Museum.

Its last and most generous benefactor was Assurbani-pal, the Sardonapollos of the Greeks, who seems to have had a passion for literature. The cities of Babylonia were ransacked for books which related to the favorite studies of the Assyrian king, and a considerable body of scribes was kept busily at work, in copying and so re-editing the older literature of the country. Assur-bani-pal is never weary of telling us that the literary treasures which he collected were for the benefit of the people—that the ancient books of Babylonia had been collected and re-edited "for the inspection of the reader." The contents of a Babylonian or Assyrian library were sufficiently varied. All the branches of the knowledge of the day were represented in it. History and chronology, grammar and lexicography, religion and the sciences, as they were then understood and pursued, all alike found a place there.

The earliest philologists, so far as we know, were the scribes of Chaldea and Nineveh. The original language of literary Babylonia had been agglutinative, and differed *in toto* from the Semitic language of the later rulers of the country, therefore, when the latter adopted the culture, the script, and the literary productions of their predecessors, it became necessary to translate the literary products of the older Chaldea into Semitic Babylonian. For many centuries, Babylonia possessed a bilingual population and the educated classes were required to know, not only inflectional Semitic, but also agglutinative Sumerian.

Two Languages.—As late as the reign of Khammurabi, with whom the history of united Babylonia begins, in the twenty-fourth century B.C., the public inscriptions of the king were written in the two leading languages of the country, and there are numerous legal documents of the same age, the language of which is still Sumerian. The two languages necessarily borrowed words and idioms, one from the other, so that a knowledge of Sumerian was as important to the student of Semitic Babylonian, as a knowledge of Latin is to a student of English. The cuneiform syllabary itself could not be properly learned without some knowledge of the ancient language of Chaldea.

It had been a Sumerian invention, but it was an invention which, like all others of the same kind, had been of slow growth; when the Semites became dominant in Babylonia, it was still growing, and it was finally completed under Semitic supervision. The interlacing of Sumerian and Semitic elements which was the consequence of this double growth, has been the cause of hasty and unfounded theories in regard to the Sumerian language. But it had much to do with making the old Babylonians a nation of philologists, for as soon as they began to learn, as it were, their alphabet, they were brought face to face with two languages utterly unlike one another, and a study of the ancient literature of their country brought the fact still further before them; hence originated the grammar and vocabularies, the reading books, and interlinear or parallel translations which formed so large a portion of the contents of a Babylonian or Assyrian library. A considerable part of the sacred literature of Chaldea was written in Sumerian—so also was a great deal of the legal literature, and in order to understand it, comparative grammars and lexicons were necessary. It is not astonishing that when once the fact of the diversity of languages had been impressed upon the mind of the cultivated Babylonian, a philological interest should have been awakened in him. Babylonia was surrounded by populations of diversified speech, and some of these populations established themselves in Babylonia itself. Not long after the line of Khammurabi, for instance, the country was conquered and governed for several centuries by Kassites from the mountains of Elam, who spoke an agglutinative language, and the name of Khammurabi himself shows that although his native language was Semitic, it was not Semitic Babylonian.

Explanatory lists of the words and names of these foreign populations were drawn up by the Babylonian scribes, and a table has been discovered which contains a list of common Kassite terms with their Babylonian equivalents.

Philology of the Babylonians.—The Babylonians were consequently as regards philology, and the recognition of the fact that other languages beside their own were worthy of study, *far in advance* of either Greeks or Romans; what would we not give, for example, for a list of Etruscan words with their Latin renderings, like the list of Kassite words of which I have just spoken? Doubtless the philology of the Babylonians was still immature, and their ideas of etymology exceedingly imperfect, but so also was the philology of European scholars only a hundred years ago. We can easily match the shortcomings of the Babylonian lexicographers by the similar shortcomings of the English lexicographers of the last century. Sumerian words were confounded with antiquated Semitic Babylonian words, or words belonging to the languages by which Chaldea was surrounded, and Semitic words were provided with Sumerian etymologies, just as Anglo-Saxon words were provided with Greek or Latin etymologies by our dictionary makers. The Semitic *Sabbatu* "a Sabbath" is a curious example of this. A Babylonian scribe derives it from the Sumerian *sa* "heart," and *bat* "to end" and accordingly explains it as "a day of rest for the heart" However, the perverseness of the derivation is not greater than that of some modern Assyriologists. who have traced Sumerian words to Semitic roots.

I have dwelt thus particularly on the philological labors of the Babylonian scholars, because they are the best indications we can have of the antiquity and extent of Bayblonian literature.

People do not begin to compile grammars and dictionaries, or to speculate on the origin of words, until books and libraries abound, and a literary education is widespread. The daily necessities of life may originate works on law or astronomy; the vanity of princes may lead to the compilation of annals, and the composition of history, while religious and poetical literature belong to the earliest days of national culture, but the philologist is a late product of civilization and bears in-

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controvertible evidence of a long and familiar acquaintance with the art of writing.

It is just this fact which makes the philological works of the Babylonian scribes of such especial value. A considerable amount of the criticism which has been passed upon the Old Testament records has been based on the assumption that the civilized nations of the ancient East were as illiterate as the nations of northern Europe during the middle ages. But the revelations which have been made to us by the buried libraries of Babylonia and Assyria, and the discovery of the cuneiform tablets of Tel-el-Amarna—testifying as they do, to an active literary correspondence throughout western Asia, in the fifteenth century B.C. have finally and decisively proved that such an assumption is false.

The art of writing was generally known and practiced in the ancient East, and the natives of western Asia and Egypt, were quite as fond of indulging in it, as we moderns are today. So far as literary facilities were concerned, there was no reason why the contemporaries of Abraham or Moses should not have recorded on clay and papyrus, the events which were passing before them. If in future we are to question the historical accuracy of the narratives which have been handed down to us, it must be upon other grounds than a want of literary knowledge and skill.

The Historic Sense.—Of course it does not follow that because a people is literary and fond of reading and writing, it should therefore be possessed of what has been called a historical sense. The Egyptians, for instance, were singularly deficient in this respect; the inscriptions which cover the walls of their temples and tombs seldom record a single historical fact. We find interminable lists of bombastic titles, wearisome invocations to the gods, and long accounts of the piety of the king or the dead man, but we look almost in vain for references to historical events. Even the papyri of Egyptian history contain historical romances rather than history in the true sense of the word. The Babylonians again, though their contempt for history was not so marked as that of the Egyptians, preferred to cover their clay tablets with religious texts rather than with the annals of their country.

The inscriptions of their kings tell us of the building of temples, and of offerings made to the gods, but of very little more.

Their neglect of history was doubtless due in some measure to the fact that the Babylonian monarchy was a species of theocracy. The king was the high priest and vicegerent of Bel, the supreme deity of Babylon; he derived his power from the god, and it was only as the adopted son of Bel that he possessed a valid title to the throne.

It was far otherwise in Assyria. There we find a people eminently practical and matter of fact, who valued history and historical accuracy. The great ruins which Assyria has bequeathed to us are those of palaces, and not of temples like those of Babylonia. And the walls of the palaces were adorned with accounts of the campaigns and victories of their royal builders. The dates which are attached to each portion of the record, and the care with which the names of petty princes and towns were written down, give us a high idea of the historical precision at which the Assyrians aimed. The Assyrian monuments are alone sufficient to show that the historical sense was not altogether unknown to the ancient peoples of the East, and when we remember how closely related the Assyrians were to the Hebrews in both race and language the fact becomes important to the Biblical student. But whatever may be the conclusions which we draw from the facts already acquired by archæological science, we must not forget that these facts are but a tithe of those we may hereafter hope to obtain.

Future Discoveries.—We are still at the beginning of discoveries; those that have been already made are only an earnest of others that shall follow. No libraries, either of Babylonia or of Assyria have as yet been thoroughly explored—at most but two thirds of the library of Nineveh has been brought to the British Museum, and the library of the ancient Babylonian city of Nipur, which American enterprise has brought to light, has not yet yielded up the whole of its treasures.

It will take time to examine, to edit, and translate all cuneiform literature which is at present in Europe and America. How much more time will be needed before the last of the old clay documents of Babylonia and Assyria has been rescued from the soil and we know exactly what has been saved for us out of the libraries of the past!



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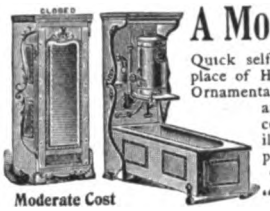

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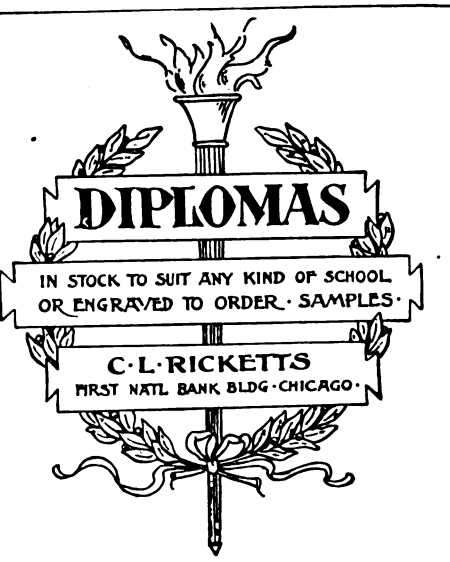

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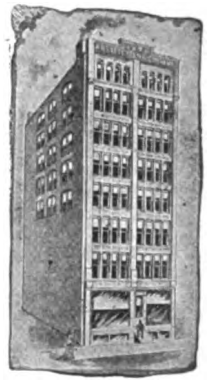
CHICAGO  CHICAGO

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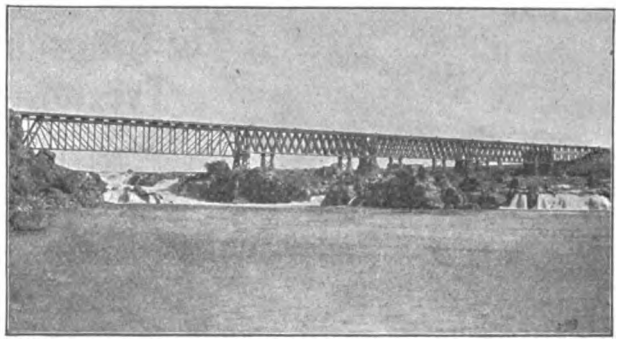

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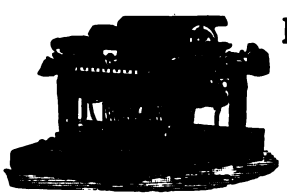

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Note also how the spirit of free investigation into science was carried into religion, and produced the Reformation.

1. DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

SEE THE RENAISSANCE, "PROGRESS," pp. 247, 303; THE RENAISSANCE EUROPEAN, p. 244; INFLUENCE OF THE NEW LIGHT, p. 261; THE NEW LEARNING, p. 291; THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE NEW AND OLD ORDER OF THINGS, p. 262; PRINTING, p. 302; THE CRUSADES, p. 212; RELIGIOUS OPINIONS, p. 222; THE CLOSE OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY; p. 295; THE SUBJECT OF EMIGRATION, p. 346.

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2.

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Men before Columbus knew that the earth was round. His greatness consisted in his daring to sail with his little vessels over unknown seas westward, searching for India.

Neither Columbus nor Amerigo Vespucci visited North America. Amerigo did not steal the name from his predecessor. It was given by Waldseemüller, a professor of St. Dié, in Lorraine.

John Cabot was searching for India by a northwest route when he stumbled on Cape Breton. This voyage, followed by another by his son, Sebastian, were the foundation of the English claim.

Portugal sought for and reached India by sailing around Africa, going east instead of west.

It seems fortunate that Columbus underestimated the size of the earth. Even his lofty courage might have quailed if he had known that India was 12,000 miles off, instead of 3,000, as he supposed.

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2. THE OLD NORSE SAGAS.

Until recently it has generally been supposed that America was wholly unknown to European nations previous to the time of Columbus, but investigation by learned men have made it certain, beyond the shadow of a doubt, that the Europeans did have knowledge of this country long before the time of Columbus, and it has even been claimed, on quite plausible grounds, that some of the nations living here at the time of Columbus' discovery of this continent were descendants of Europeans.—*Anderson.*

But Europe did not set bounds to the voyages and enterprises of the Norsemen. In the year 860 they discovered Iceland, and soon afterwards established upon this island a republic, which flourished four hundred years.—*Anderson.*

NORTHMEN, LEIF AND ICELAND (see SIDELIGHTS), JOHN CABOT (see ENGLAND'S NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES, in SIDE LIGHTS), COLUMBUS, p. 297.

Waldseemüller's Cosmographiæ Introductio.—The most significant quality of the little book, however, was the proposition which Waldseemüller, with his anonymous views on cosmography, advanced in the introductory parts. It is assumed by writers on the subject that it was not Waldseemüller alone who was responsible for the plan there given to name that part of the New World which Americus Vespucius had described after the voyager who had so graphically told his experiences on its shores. The plan, it is supposed, met with the approval of, or was the outcome of the councils of, this little band of St. Die scholars collectively. It is not the belief of students generally that this coterie, any more than Vespucius himself, ever imagined that the new regions were really disjoined from the Asiatic main, though Varnhagen contends that Vespucius knew they were. One thing is certainly true: That there was no intention to apply the name which was now proposed to anything more than the continental mass of the Brazilian shore which Vespucius had coasted, and which was looked upon as a distinct region from the islands which Columbus had traversed. It had come to be believed that the archipelago of Columbus was far from the paradise of luxury and wealth that his extravagant terms called for, and which the descriptions of Marco Polo had led the world to suspect, supposing the regions of the overland and oceanic discoveries to be the same. Further than this, a new expectation had been aroused by the reports which had come to Europe of the vaster proportions and of the brilliant paroquets—for such trivial aspects gave emphasis—of the more southern regions. It was an instance of the eagerness with which deluded minds, to atone for their first disappointment, grasp at the chances of a newer satisfaction.—*Winsor.*

Columbus had been dead five and thirty years when a natural result grew out of those circumstances which conspired to name the largest part of the new discoveries after a secondary pathfinder. We have seen that there seemed at first no injustice in the name of America being applied to a region in the main external to the range of Columbus' own explorations, and how it took nearly a half century before public opinion, as expressed in the protest of Schöner in 1533, recognized the injustice of using another's name. Whether that protest was prompted by a tendency, already shown, to give the name to the whole western hemisphere is not clear; but certainly within eight years such a general application was publicly made, when Mercator, in drafting in 1541 some gores for a globe, divided the name Ame-rica, so that it covered both North and South America, and qualified its application by a legend which says that the continent is "called today by many, New India." Thus a name that in the beginning was given to a part in distinction merely and without any reference to the entire field of the new explorations, was now become, by implication, an injustice to the first great discoverer of all. The mischief, aided by accident and by a not unaccountable evolution was not to be undone, and, in the singular mutations of fate, a people inhabiting a region of which neither Columbus nor Vespucius had any conception are now distinctively known in the world's history as Americans.—*Winsor.*

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3.

The enslaving of the natives was prosecuted ostensibly as a means of converting their souls.

The claims of Verrazani are disputed by some.

De Soto's expedition occupied four years. Old tools found in the mines of the Allegheny mountains in North Carolina seem to show that he sent miners into that region.

The scientific study of the ruins left by the Toltecs and Aztecs is still being carried on. Some think that they were akin to the ancient Egyptians.

The wonderful success of Cortez shows the helplessness of badly armed and undisciplined troops against small bodies perfectly disciplined and armed with superior weapons. Compare Cortez against the Aztecs and Pizarro against the Peruvians with a modern army of regulars armed with magazine rifles against new levies of militia armed with the old smooth bore.



Christopher Columbus.

Compare also the domination of the Spartans over the Helots and other natives, of the British over India, the conquest of the Persian Empire by Alexander, of Gaul by Cæsar, and of the recent defeat of China by Japan.

3.

The French competed without delay for the New World. Within seven years of the discovery of the continent, the fisheries of Newfoundland were known to the hardy mariners of Brittany and Normandy, and they continued to be frequented. The Island of Cape Breton took its name from their remembrance of home; and in France it was usual to esteem them the discoverers of the country. A map of the Gulf of St. Lawrence was drawn in 1506 by Denys, a citizen of Honfleur.—*Bancroft.*

The Central Regions.—These concurrent testimonies leave no doubt that, like portions of the Old World similarly favored in regard to climate, soil, and situation, the central regions of America were occupied from a very remote period by nations which made distinct advances in civilization, and passed through a cycle of revolutions comparable to that of which the Valley of the Euphrates and other parts of Asia were anciently the scene. The useful arts were known and practiced, wealth was accumulated, social systems exhibiting a certain refinement and a peculiar complexity were organized, states were established which flourished, decayed—either from the effects of isolation or an inherent incapacity for continuance—and were finally overthrown by invaders, by whom the experiment was repeated, though not always with equal success. Some of these nations passed away, leaving no trace but their names; others, whose very names are unknown, left mysterious monuments imbedded in the soil or records that are indecipherable. Of those that still remain, comprising about a dozen distinct races, speaking a hundred and twenty different dialects, we have the traditions preserved either in their own records or in those of the Spanish discoverers.—*Kirk.*

Towards the Close of the Fifteenth Century, Spain (see SIDE LIGHTS).

Toltecs (see SIDE-LIGHTS).

The Laws of the Aztecs were registered, and exhibited to the people, in their hieroglyphical paintings. Much the larger part of them, as in every nation imperfectly civilized, relates rather to the security of persons rather than of property. The great crimes against society were all made capital. Even the murder of a slave was punished with death. Adulterers, as among the Jews, were stoned to death. Thieving, according to the degree of the offence, was punished by slavery or death. Yet the Mexicans could have been under no great apprehension of this crime, since the entrances to their dwellings were not secured by bolts or fastenings of any kind. It was a capital offence to remove the boundaries of another's lands; to alter the established measures; and for a guardian not to be able to give a good account of his ward's property. These regulations evince a regard for equity in dealings, and for private rights, which argues a considerable progress in civilization. Prodigals, who squandered their patrimony, were punished in like manner; a severe sentence, since the crime brought its adequate punishment along with it. Intemperance, which was the burden, moreover, of their religious homilies, was visited with the severest penalties, as if they had foreseen in it the consuming canker of their own as well as of the other Indian races in later times. It was punished in the young with death, and in older persons with loss of rank and confiscation of property. Yet a decent conviviality was not meant to be proscribed at their festivals, and they possessed the means of indulging it, in a mild, fermented liquor, called *pulque*, which is still popular, not only with the Indian, but the European population of the country.—*Prescott.*

See **Dr. Le Plongeon's Discoveries in Yucatan,** p. 49.

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4.

Note the similarity of the warfare between the Spanish and the Peruvians to that between the Spanish and Aztecs.

Note also the claim of Pope Alexander VI. (Borgia) to dispose of the new world. This pretension was one of the reasons for the growth of Protestantism in England.



Statue of Columbus, Genoa, Italy.

Observe how religion was used as a cloak to cover murder, robbery and other crimes.

The great additions to the money of the world from the new world caused general rise of prices in the old. The exclusiveness of the Spaniards in regard to these mines led to the hostility of the English towards Spain, and to many expeditions by their mariners for the capture of treasure.

The Mexicans and Peruvians were the most civilized of the aborigines. Next to these were probably the Pueblos and Cliff-Dwellers.

Of the Red Indians, classed according to language, the following seemed to have been the divisions:

1. The Iroquois, along the head-waters of the Susquehannah, the Ohio, the Delaware, and south of Lakes Erie and Ontario, embracing "the Six Nations." The Tuscaroras of North Carolina were once separated from these, but rejoined them.

2. The Algonquins, from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from Kentucky northward.

3. The Southern Indians, such as the Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Creeks, Seminoles, south of the Algonquins.

4. The Dakotah, or Sioux, mostly beyond the Mississippi.

4.

The Territory Occupied by the Spaniards.—In Mexico and Peru the Spaniards found great quantities of gold and silver. They settled in these countries in small numbers as conquerors ruling over a large native population. They converted the Indians to Christianity and introduced Spanish laws and customs to some extent. The chief interest of the Spanish government in its American possessions was their gold and silver. Some of the richest mines were at Potosi, in the Bolivian Andes. To prevent other nations from approaching these mines from the Atlantic coast by way of the river La Plata, the Spaniards founded colonies upon that river and near its mouth, which afterwards developed into the states of Paraguay, Uruguay and Buenos Ayres. They also made settlements upon the coast of Venezuela because it abounds in rich pearl-fisheries. Except for these places, and the West India Island where they made their first settlements, and except for Florida about to be mentioned, the territory occupied by the Spaniards in the New World was exactly the territory occupied by the half-civilized Indians. The Spaniards simply took possession of those Indian countries and turned over a large part of their revenues to the government at Madrid. The Spanish colonies were, therefore, very different from the English colonies, which introduced a purely European society into the New World.—*Fiske.*

The Exclusiveness of the Spaniards.—The commercial regulations adopted exhibit a narrow policy in some of their features, for which a justification may be found in the spirit of the age, and in the practice of the Portuguese particularly, but which entered still more largely into the colonial legislation of Spain under later princes. The new territories, far from being permitted free intercourse with foreign nations, were opened only under strict limitations to Spanish subjects, and were reserved, as forming, in some sort, part of the exclusive revenue of the crown. All persons of whatever description were interdicted, under the severest penalties, from trading with, or even visiting the Indies, without license from the constituted authorities. It was impossible to evade this, as a minute specification of the ships, cargoes, crews, with the property appertaining to each individual, was required to be taken at the office in Cadiz, and a corresponding registration in a similar office established at Hispaniola. A more sagacious spirit was manifested in the ample provision made of whatever could contribute to the support or permanent prosperity of the infant colony. Grain, plants, the seeds of numerous vegetable products, which in the genial climate of the Indies might be made valuable articles for domestic consumption or export, were liberally furnished. Commodities of every description for the supply of the fleet were exempted from duty. The owners of all vessels throughout the ports of Andalusia were required, by an ordinance somewhat arbitrary, to hold them in readiness for the expedition.—*Prescott.*

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5.

Portugal, as has been said, sought India and far Cathay (China) by the eastern route. Prince Henry, the navigator, one of the most intelligent men of his age, was the moving spirit.

Note how Portuguese enterprise of this era has given to that little nation so many fair colonies in Africa, America and Asia, some of which it lost in consequence of its union with Spain from 1580 to 1640.



Indian Mounds at Marietta, Ohio.

As other nations, especially France, England and Holland, refused to recognize the division of the new world between Spain and Portugal, the doctrine was finally settled that discovery, followed by settlement, gave title to new found lands. The wars between Francis I. of France, Charles V. of Germany (Charles I. of Spain), Henry VIII. of England, Pope Julius II. and other potentates retarded the settlement of the New World. The Reformation and the wars consequent thereon for many years hindered, but afterward promoted, emigration from the Old World.

The student of American history must keep in mind the contemporaneous progress of Europe, especially of the nations fronting the Atlantic ocean.

5.

Portuguese Enterprise of this Era.—The Portuguese under Prince Henry, son of King John the Bastard (1385-1433), took the lead in maritime discovery. This enlightened prince established an observatory near Cape St. Vincent, and gathered around him eminent astronomers and navigators from all quarters, and discussed with them his favorite project of finding a passage to India by sailing around Africa. Under Prince Henry's patronage, the bold Portuguese navigators discovered and explored the western coast of Africa as far south as Cape de Verde, while the Madeira, the Azores and the Cape de Verde Islands were discovered and taken possession of by the Portuguese. Under the patronage of King John the Perfect (1481-1495), the Portuguese crossed the equator for the first time, and the coast of Guinea was discovered and settled by the enterprising Portuguese. In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz, a daring Portuguese navigator, discovered the southern point of Africa, which was named the *Cape of Good Hope*, because there was now good hope of finding a sea passage to India. In 1497—during the reign of King Emanuel the Great (1495-1521)—Vasco da Gama, another bold Portuguese navigator, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope to India; thus discovering the sea passage to the East Indies—a discovery which revolutionized the world's commerce, by diverting the trade of the east from the Venetians to the Portuguese. Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut, where was planted a Portuguese colony—the first European settlement in the East Indies. In 1500 Cabral, another Portuguese navigator, discovered Brazil, which was occupied and settled by the Portuguese.—*Clare.*

Third Voyage of Vespucius.—On May 14, 1501, Vespucius, who was evidently principal pilot and guiding spirit in this voyage under unknown skies, set sail from Lisbon, with three caravels. . . . After 67 days of "the vilest weather ever seen by man" they reached the coast of Brazil in latitude about 5° S., on the evening of August 16, the Festival-day of San Roque, whose name was accordingly given to the cape before which they dropped anchor. From this point they slowly followed the coast to the southward, stopping now and then to examine the country. . . . It was not until All Saints day, November 1, that they reached the bay in latitude 13° S., which is still known by the name they gave it, Bahia de Todos Santos. On New Year's day, 1502, they arrived at the noble bay, where 54 years later the chief city of Brazil was founded. They would seem to have mistaken it for the mouth of another huge river, like some that had already been seen in this strange world; for they called it Rio de Janeiro (River of January).—*Fiske.*

Jealousy of the Court of Lisbon.—The court of Lisbon viewed with secret disquietude the increasing maritime enterprise of its neighbors. While the Portuguese were timidly creeping along the barren shores of Africa, the Spaniards had boldly launched into the deep, and rescued unknown realms from its embraces, which teemed in their fancies with treasures of inestimable wealth. Their mortification was greatly enhanced by the reflection, that all this might have been achieved for themselves, had they but known how to profit by the proposals of Columbus. From the first moment in which the success of the admiral's enterprise was established, John the Second, a politic and ambitious prince, had sought some pretense to check the career of discovery, or at least to share in the spoils of it.—*Prescott.*

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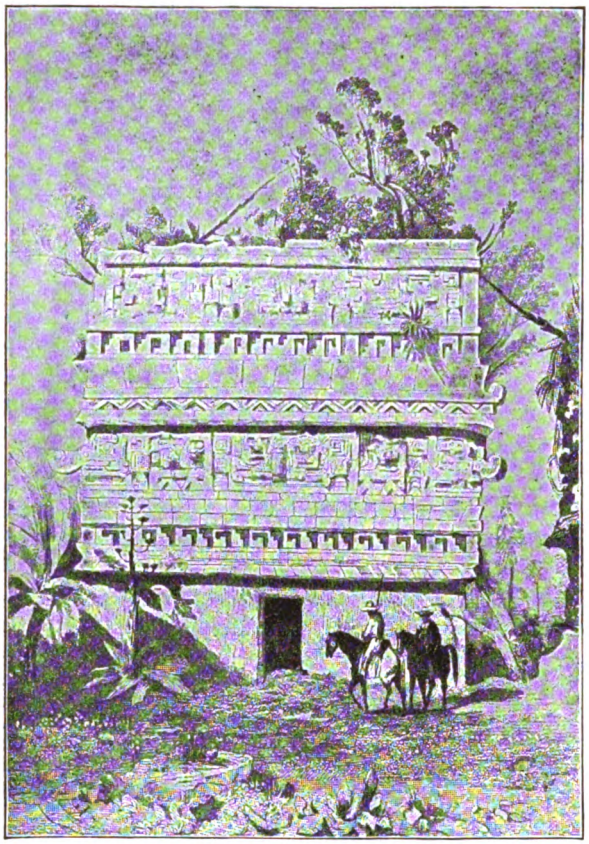
6.

The accomplished Sir Walter Raleigh is the central figure in the earliest attempts to colonize America.



Ruins at Chichen Itza, Yucatan.

Note the voyage of Amadas and Barlow in 1584. The professed object of Raleigh was not only to extend English power and acquire wealth and fame, but, in appearance at least, to convert "the savages." The name Virginia was given then, and there is no evidence, as some have alleged, that this country had ever been previously called "Carolina." The Huguenot colonists, who failed under Ribault, called their fort at Port Royal, built in 1562, Ary Carolina, but did not give the name to the territory.

Note the failures on Roanoke Island: 1st. The Grenville colony in 1585, carried home by Drake. 2d. The disappearance and probable slaughter, of the fifteen left by Grenville in 1586. 3d. The disappearance of the colony of 117 under White in 1587, including White's grand-daughter, Virginia Dare, the first white child born in America. Some think that these were amalgamated with the Croatan Indians and that their descendants are the peculiar colored people in Robeson County, North Carolina.

The Separatists, or Independents, emigrated first to the new Republic of Holland in search of religious liberty and then to New England.

Note the different objects aimed at by the Virginia and New England settlements.

6.

Sir Walter Raleigh.—These great English cruisers were also explorers. Drake and Cavendish carried Queen Elizabeth's flag into the Pacific, visited the coast of California, and circumnavigated the earth. Frobisher, in quest of a northwestern passage to India, entered the Arctic Ocean and explored a part of it. But the thoughts of Sir Walter Raleigh were busy with grander schemes than these. Raleigh was one of the most accomplished men of his time; he was something of a philosopher, poet, historian and statesman, as well as a brilliant captain. In 1569, when he was seventeen years old, he served in the religious wars in France under the great Coligny, who was probably the first person to conceive the idea of planting in America a state that should be entirely Protestant. We have seen how the colony in Florida, which Coligny tried to found, was destroyed by the Spaniards; but the idea lived on in the mind of Raleigh, who aspired to "plant an English nation in America." In 1584, he obtained from the queen permission to make a settlement upon any territory not already occupied by any Christian power; and forthwith he devoted himself to the work of starting such a settlement upon the coast of North America. He sent several expeditions under able captains, though arduous duties at home prevented his going in person. A little colony was begun upon Roanoke Island, on the coast of what we now call North Carolina; but in those days the general name in English for all that coast was Virginia, a name given to it by the virgin Queen Elizabeth in honor of herself. The name was also given in baptism to the first American child of English parents, Virginia Dare, born on Roanoke Island, August 18, 1587. For a moment Raleigh seemed likely to succeed with his little colony; but the Invincible Armada absorbed too much attention. The colony was inadequately supported, and perished miserably.—*Fiske.*

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Sir Humphrey Gilbert.—In 1583 Walter Raleigh, one of the remarkable men of his time, took a warm interest in one of these expeditions. Humphrey Gilbert, who had won great honor in the conquest of Ireland, and as a soldier elsewhere, was put in command of a squadron of five ships. They sailed from England for a voyage really in quest of gold. But, in very rough weather on the dangerous coast of Nova Scotia, they lost their largest vessel and were obliged to return to England. Gilbert himself was lost in the *Golden Hind*, a vessel of only ten tons burden.—*Hale.*

Sir Humphrey Gilbert was perhaps the first to conceive a rational plan of colonization in America. His idea was to form somewhere on the shores of the new continent an agricultural and commercial state. With this purpose he sought aid from the queen, and received a liberal patent authorizing him to take possession of any six hundred square miles of unoccupied territory in America, and to plant thereon a colony of which he himself should be proprietor and governor. With this commission, Gilbert, assisted by his illustrious stepbrother, Walter Raleigh, prepared a fleet of five vessels, and in June of 1583 sailed for the west. Only two days after their departure the best vessel in the fleet treacherously abandoned the rest and returned to Plymouth. Early in August, Gilbert reached Newfoundland, and going ashore, took formal possession of the country in the name of his queen. Unfortunately, some of the sailors discovered in the side of a hill scales of mica, and a judge of metals, whom Gilbert had been foolish enough to bring with him, declared that the glittering mineral was silver ore The crews became insubordinate. Some went to digging the supposed silver and carrying it on board the vessels, while others gratified their piratical propensities by attacking the Spanish and Portuguese ships that were fishing in the neighboring harbors.—*Ridpath.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.**—The Renaissance, Influence of the New Light, The New Learning, The Struggle between the New and the Old Order of Things, Printing, The Crusades, Religious Opinions, The Close of the Sixteenth Century, Subject of Emigration.
2. **THE EARLIER DISCOVERERS.**—Old Norse Sagas, Eric the Red, Leif, Columbus, Amerigo, Waldseemüller, John Cabot.
3. **THE EARLIER DISCOVERERS** (Continued).—De Soto's Expedition, Toltecs, Aztecs, Cortez.
4. **THE EARLIER DISCOVERERS** (Continued).—The Spanish and the Aztecs, The Mexicans and Peruvians, The Red Indians, Spain at the Close of the Fifteenth Century, The Territory Occupied by the Spaniards, The Exclusiveness of the Spaniards.
5. **PORTUGAL.**—India and the Far Cathay, Portuguese Enterprise, Spain, Portugal and Other Nations, Jealousy of the Court of Lisbon.
6. **COLONIZATION OF AMERICA.**—Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Virginia, The Huguenot Colonists, Failures of Roanoke Island, The Separatists, Virginia and New England.

QUESTIONS.

1. *Give the leading characteristics of the Renaissance? Name some of the influences of this new light? What agencies brought about these changes? To what extent did the Crusades influence the Renaissance? What was the condition of Europe at the close of the fifteenth century? What were the causes producing the desire for discovery? Emigration?*

2. *Who were the Northmen? Where was their home? What were their characteristics? Give Anderson's statement in reference to the discovery of America by the Norsemen? Bryant's? Bancroft's? Hale's? What can you say of Leif? Give a sketch of Columbus? What was his doctrine? Was he the first to hold to this belief? Give the history of the naming of America? Did either Columbus or Amerigo Vespucci visit North America? Give a sketch of the work of Cabot? Portugal?*

3. *What may be said of De Soto's expedition? What can you say of the Toltecs? Aztecs? State what you can of Cortez? Give Bancroft's statement in reference to the French?*

4. *What can you say of the territory occupied by the Spaniards? Why were the Spaniards interested in America? What can you say of the exclusiveness of the Spaniards? What was the condition of Spain at the close of the fifteenth century? Name the leading tribes of the "Red Indians?"*

5. *What can you say of Portuguese enterprise? In what ways may this enterprise be shown? What was the doctrine of title to new lands? How was the settlement of the New World retarded?*

6. *Give a brief sketch of Sir Walter Raleigh? What was the professed object of Raleigh? What can you say of the Huguenot colonists? What can you say of the settlement of Roanoke Island? Who were the Croatan Indians? Who were the Separatists? Compare New England and Virginia with reference to objects and aims?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What were the agencies leading up to the discovery of America? To what extent did each share?*
2. *Was Columbus the original discoverer of America?*
3. *Read and give a review of Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico."*
4. *After reading give the leading points in Anderson's "America Not Discovered by Columbus."*
5. *As above read and report on either of the following: (1) Prescott's Conquest of Peru, (2) Life of Columbus by Irving, Winsor or others, (3) "Westward, Ho!" by Kingsley.*
6. *Prepare a brief sketch of the "Ancient Mexicans."*
7. *To what extent are Americans indebted to the Spanish for discoveries? Settlements? Civilization?*
8. *Prepare a history of the "Red Indians." (Vol. XI. of the last U. S. Census contains the best resume of this topic.)*

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7.

English emigration was largely promoted by the desire to escape from the tyrannical rule of James I. and Charles I. It was especially large during the eleven years (1629-40) when Charles determined not to call parliament together. Some say that Cromwell, Hampden and other leaders started, but were turned back by order of the king. There was little if any emigration during the civil war.



Captain John Smith.

The patent of Raleigh became void by his attainder for treason. James I. issued a patent dividing Virginia into two parts. The southern part from 34° N. to 38° N. was granted to the London Company. To the northern company, called the Plymouth Company, was granted the territory between 41° N. and 45° N.

The London Company moved first. Jamestown was settled May 13, 1607. Although the climate and soil were both favorable, there was much suffering because the settlers would not work.

The story of Pocahontas saving Captain John Smith has been assailed because he did not mention it in his first history of his captivity, but this objection seems not conclusive. Bacon's rebellion started in his leading a company against hostile Indians, in defiance of Berkeley's orders.

7.

The London Company, p. 349; **The Plymouth Company**, p. 350.

Captain John Smith.—He had been through many surprising adventures, if we are to take his own word for them. He had been captured by Barbary pirates, left for dead on a battlefield in Hungary, and sold into slavery in Turkey, before he had made his way home to England in time to come out to Virginia. Here his strange fortunes seemed to follow him. He was captured by the Indians, and they were on the point of knocking him on the head, when a young squaw named Pocahontas, daughter of the head war chief, rushed up to him, threw her arms about him, and saved his life. Such, at least, is his own story. It is quite in accordance with Indian usage, and there is nothing at all improbable in it; but it is doubted by some people. There is no doubt, however, that Smith was a very energetic, quick-witted, and shifty sort of a man. He explored the nooks and corners of the coast, sailed up the rivers, and coaxed or bullied the Indians into giving him food for the colony. Under his direction a few rude houses were put up, and a few bits of ground were scratched with a hoe and planted with corn. In this way two years dragged along, until a new set of 500 colonists arrived. These newcomers did not improve matters. They were a wretched set, for the most part the refuse of English jails, or ruffians picked up about the streets. They came in a small fleet commanded by Sir Thomas Gates and George Somers; but the ship which carried these two commanders had been "caught in the tail of a hurricane" and cast ashore upon one of the Bermuda islands. There were no provisions of food at Jamestown fit for supplying so many people. The old tale of mutiny, hunger and disease was repeated. Smith was disabled by an accidental gunshot, and returned to England soon afterward. At length, Gates and Somers, having built a boat with their own hands and escaped from the Bermudas, arrived upon the scene, and found of all their men scarcely sixty left alive. They decided to abandon the enterprise and take these few survivors back to England. On June 8, 1610, they had actually embarked and sailed a few miles down the James river, when they were met by three well-manned ships bringing an abundance of supplies. This was the squadron of Lord Delaware, the newly appointed governor, who, when he landed at Jamestown, fell upon his knees upon the sandy beach, and, with uplifted hands, thanked God that he had come in time to save Virginia.—*Fiske.*

The Story of Pocahontas.—The authority for this romantic story is Smith's "General History." With other things, it has come to be considered an established historical fact because that work was long accepted as the best, as it is the fullest, of the contemporary narratives of the adventures of the Jamestown colonists for the first two years. Obscurer authors were either not consulted or were unknown to those who gave currency to these relations. But Wingfield, who records with such accuracy all the essential facts of Smith's capture, and his return to the fort by Powhatan, says nothing of Pocahontas; Strachey, to whom this young girl was evidently an object of interest, and who speaks in terms of praise of Smith's services and hazards on behalf of the colony, and of his great experience among the Indians, makes no allusion to this romance in the life of both; Hamor, who was also at one time secretary of the colony, and whose tract is largely a biography of Pocahontas and of her interesting relations to the English, is silent on this first important service rendered by her to one of the principal men of the colony.—*Bryant.*

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8.

Note the name Plymouth, *i. e.*, the mouth of the river Ply, in England. The company had this name because one of its chief members was Sir Ferdinand Gorges, governor of that port.

The Pilgrims had that name in Holland. They were Independents or Separatists, believing that each congregation should be self-governing in religious matters. Brownists was another name for them. They were more persecuted than the Presbyterians. Some say that the date of landing is December 22d, 1620.



Stone Idol, Yucatan.

The large emigration from England was caused by the intolerant ecclesiastical measures of Charles I. and Archbishop Laud. Many of these emigrants were higher in social rank, wealth and education than the Plymouth Rock Pilgrims. Among them were Sir Harry Vane, Hugh Peters and others, who returned to England to help the parliament in the civil war.

As church and state were united in the government, the banishment of Roger Williams and others was as much for state as for ecclesiastical reasons. Similarly it was charged that the Quakers were an alien element in the government.

The confederation of 1643 was the first attempt at union among the colonies.

King Philip and his brother, Alexander, were baptized at Plymouth. Alexander, who was charged with plotting with the Narragansetts against the settlers, died during the investigation, and Philip believed that he was poisoned. The losses of lives and property during the Indian wars were a most severe blow to the colonists.

The Dutch were slow in settling New York for fear of the Spanish, who had a shadowy claim to all the continent. It is said that they paid the Indians about $24 for the island of Manhattan.

The object of Lord Baltimore in granting religious liberty in Maryland was to attract immigrants.

8.

The Massachusetts Charter.—The concession of the Massachusetts charter seemed to the Puritans like a summons from Heaven, inviting them to America. There they might profess the gospel in its spotless simplicity, and the solitudes of nature would protect their devotions. England, by her persecutions, proved herself weary of her inhabitants, who were now esteemed more vile than the earth on which they trod. Habits of expense degraded men of moderate fortune; and the schools, which should be fountains of living waters, had been corrupt. The New World shared in the providence of God; it had claims, therefore, to the benevolence and exertions of man. What nobler work than to abandon the comforts of England, and plant a church without a blemish where it might spread over a continent?—*Bancroft.*

Roger Williams.—Among the settlers who came to Massachusetts, there were some who did not like the way in which things were managed there. Of these dissenters the most famous was Roger Williams, who became pastor of a church at Salem, in 1633. He was one of the noblest men of his time. Some of his opinions were such as very few people then held. He advocated the entire separation of church from state, declared that no man should be obliged to pay taxes to support a minister, that magistrates had no right to punish Sabbath-breaking or blasphemy, and that a man is responsible for his opinions only to God and his own conscience. He also declared that the king of England could not rightfully give land in America to English settlers, because this land belonged not to the king of England but to the Indians. The magistrates and clergy of Massachusetts could not endure such opinions, and Williams was ordered to return to England. But he escaped into the wilderness, and made his way to the Narragansett Indians, whose language he learned to speak fluently. He entered into very friendly relations with that tribe of red men, and procured from them a tract of land upon which, in 1636, he began to build a town. Thus far had God's mercy provided for him; so he called the town Providence. He also named his next born son Providence and his next daughter Mercy.—*Fiske.*

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9.

The constitution of Connecticut owes much of its excellence to Rev. Thomas Hooker. Bryce calls it "the oldest truly political constitution in America."

The peculiarity of the settlement of Connecticut led to its having for so many years two capitals—Hartford and New Haven.

The name of Edenton in North Carolina was not given until the time of Governor Charles Eden in 1720.

The charter of Charles II. to the territory from 31° N. to 36° N. in 1663 adopts the name given to the same land in 1628 in the Heath charter, viz., Carolina.



Gov. John Winthrop.

In 1665 the grant was enlarged from 36° 31′ N. to 29° N. It included all the territory to the Pacific Ocean, but was never operative further than the Mississippi River.

North Carolina was known as Albemarle until 1689.

The legislature of Pennsylvania was unicameral, *i.e.*, had only one chamber.

Delaware was first settled in 1631 by the Dutch, near Lewes. The Swedes followed in 1638, at Fort Christina, now Wilmington, but the Dutch, under Stuyvesant, conquered them in 1655. These were superseded in 1664 by the English, under the Duke of York, who sold to Penn.

There were two Jerseys, East and West. Carteret had the Eastern and the Quakers, who bought of Sir John Berkeley, had the Western. Carteret sold to Penn and associates in 1682. Both colonies were sold to the crown in 1702.

Georgia was a part of Carolina until 1729.

The conquest of Acadia by the English in 1755 and the cruel expulsion of the inhabitants led to Longfellow's beautiful poem of Evangeline.

9.

The Constitution of Connecticut.—The instrument framed by them has been called "the first example in history of a written constitution, a distinct organic law, constituting a government, and defining its powers." Containing no recognition whatever of any external authority on either side of the ocean, it provided, that all persons should be freemen who should be admitted as such by the freemen of the towns, and take an oath of allegiance to the commonwealth; that there should be two general meetings of the freemen in a year, at one of which, to be holden in April, should be elected by ballot a Governor (who must be a member of some church), and as many Magistrates (not, however, fewer than six), and other public officers, as should be found requisite;" that at the same time there should be meetings of Deputies, four to be sent from each of the existing towns, and as many as the General Court should determine from towns subsequently constituted; and that the General Court, consisting of the Governor and at least four Magistrates and a majority of the Deputies, should have power to make laws for the whole jurisdiction, "to grant levies, to admit freemen, dispose of lands undisposed of to several towns or persons, to call either Court or Magistrate or any other person whatsoever into question for any misdemeanor," and to "deal in any other matter that concerned the good of the commonwealth, except election of Magistrates," which was to "be done by the whole body of freemen." . . . The whole constitution was that of an independent state. It continued in force, with very little alteration, a hundred and eighty years, securing, throughout that period, a degree of social order and happiness such as is rarely the fruit of civil institutions.—*Palfrey*.

Rev. Thomas Hooker (see SIDE LIGHTS).

The United Colonies of New England.—In 1643, the New England colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Haven united in a confederacy for mutual protection against the French, the Dutch and the Indians. This union, called *The United Colonies of New England*, lasted more than forty years, when mutual jealousies caused its dissolution.—*Editor*.

King Philip's War.—In 1675 the Wampanoag prince, Metacomet, commonly known as King Philip, the son and successor of the Massasoit, commenced a war of extermination against the white people of New England. Philip's first attack was made at Swanzey, on Sunday, July 4, 1675, and many of the whites were massacred. The whites were soon aroused, and seized their arms, while the savages desolated the English settlements on the Connecticut river. King Philip was repulsed in an attack upon Hatfield, in October, 1675, after which he was sheltered by the Narragansetts of Rhode Island. A force of 1,500 New Englanders resented the hostile conduct of the Narragansetts, by applying the torch to their wigwams; and hundreds of Indian men, women and children perished in the flames, and a thousand of their warriors were killed or captured. The following year, 1676, the Indians were subjugated, and their great leader, King Philip, was shot by an Indian, who was friendly to the whites. Thus ended King Philip's War.—*Clare*.

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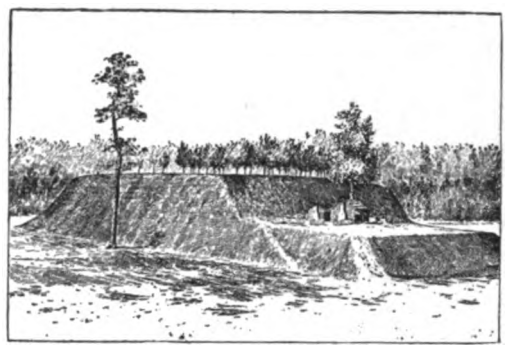
10.

Quakers had much influence in parts of America.

The Mississippi scheme and South Sea scheme should be carefully pondered as warnings against financial follies.

Read also the story of the colonial and maritime war between Spain and England.

The battle of Culloden led to a large emigration of adherents of the Pretender to America. Among them was Flora Macdonald, who settled for awhile in North Carolina, but returned after the breaking out of the Revolutionary war.



De Soto Indian Mound, Jefferson County, Ark.

10.

Quakers.—As we have seen, the extreme Puritan sect of *Friends*, or *Quakers*, was founded in England by George Fox during the civil wars. George Fox early bewailed the wickedness of the world, and when asked into a booth at a fair by some professors of religion, who then began to drink health, he left them and went home in great affliction; and, being unable to sleep that night, he walked up and down and prayed to the Lord. In 1643 he left his home and relatives, and traveled from place to place, his mind being in great distress. He sought comfort from priests and professors of religion, but found none. Only the "inward light" comforted him. He traveled about in leather costume, fasted, walked abroad in solitary places, many days took his Bible and sat in hollow trees and lonely places until the approach of night, and frequently walked mournfully by himself all night. He began to preach in 1648, and suffered much persecution, his meetings being broken up, himself stoned and frequently imprisoned. . . . The Quakers were a peculiar sect in their dress, and in all their social habits and customs. Their zeal was tried by cruel persecution. They were cast into prison and mad-houses; they were pilloried; they were whipped; they were burned in the face, and their tongues were bored with red-hot irons, but nothing could overcome their fortitude and constancy, or quench their enthusiasm. Those who were driven out of England vainly sought an asylum among their former brethren in affliction, the Puritans of New England, by whom they were also persecuted, but under William Penn they found a refuge in the wilds of Pennsylvania.—*Clare.*

Quakers.—In July of 1656, the Quakers began to arrive at Boston. The first who came were Ann Austin and Mary Fisher. The introduction of the plague would have occasioned less alarm. The two women were caught and searched for marks of witchcraft, their trunks were broken open, their books were burned by the hangman, and they themselves thrown into prison. After several weeks' confinement they were brought forth and banished from the colony. Before the end of the year eight others had been arrested and sent back to England. The delegates of the union were immediately convened, and a rigorous law was passed, excluding all Quakers from the country. Whipping, the loss of one ear and banishment were the penalties for the first offense; after a second conviction the other ear should be cut off, and should the criminal again return, his tongue should be bored through with a red-hot iron.—*Ridpath.*

The Mississippi Scheme.—At this very moment France greatly needed some triumph and some tranquility, for she was now rudely waking from new dreams of gambler-wealth at home. The financial difficulties inherited from the late reign had baffled all the skill of the Duke of Noailles, who presided over the council of finance. His "chambre ardente," with which he had hoped to cure the evils of the time by punishing and frightening financiers, brought no relief; and the regent, whose active mind and indolent disposition led him to adopt new and brilliant schemes, was carried away by the clever suggestion of John Law, of Lauriston, an adventurer, in whose ready brain new ideas as to finance and banking teemed. He had told of some half-truths respecting the real objects and character of money and commercial circulation. Paper money was a new thing: and Law believed that notes, based on the permanent wealth of the country, the soil, might be made to double the nation's capital, and relieve it of all its embarrassments. He was allowed to establish a bank of his own in 1716. This answered so well that in 1718 Government undertook the whole mystery of banking, with Law as director of the new Royal Bank. In connection with this institution he intended to set afloat paper supported by the property of the state; he started his famous Joint-Stock Mississippi Company, with its grant of Louisiana, and all the unknown, and therefore marvellous, wealth and resources of the interior of North America. The shares were greedily taken up; the new bank notes seemed to afford an easy and inexhaustible supply of wealth, which would extinguish the debt, and set the country forward in lucrative enterprise. For a few months the fever was amazing; the wildest excesses of stock-jobbing and gambling were committed: on the wings of this paper-wealth the state should escape out of its difficulties, and private persons fly up to splendor. Law himself bought a handful of titled estates, and seemed to become one of the greatest men in France. Early in 1720, however, confidence was shaken, and then the bubble burst. Law stood his ground awhile, but at the end of the year he was obliged to take flight, as poor as when he began. The embarrassments of France were not got rid of in this way; the royal bankruptcy which was impending would in the end pull down the monarchy.—*Kitchin.*

SEE p. 395.

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11.

The American colonies were, of course, directly or indirectly affected by European wars, especially by those between England and France. The French for many years had ambitious designs for the possession of the best parts of North America. The plan of uniting the Mississippi Valley and that of the St. Lawrence was brilliant, and, if executed, would have checked the onward march of the English.



Interior of House of Virginia Indians. From Smith's History.

Port Royal was settled in 1604; Quebec in 1608.

The French had much courage and enterprise, and were skilled in making friends with the savages. Their failure was due to the unwillingness of the French sovereigns to concede home rule, to religious exclusiveness, neglect of agriculture and the ambition of kings of France, leading to costly wars.

The aggressive march of the English, reaching ever westward, necessarily came into collision with the French. The conflict could only end in one nation or the other controlling the continent.

The successes of the English colonies were so much due to the eminent abilities of William Pitt, the elder, that the reader should study his career.

11.

Two Leading Motives, the most powerful, doubtless, of all motives in operation on men in masses, impelled the people of the Old World to pour themselves upon the New—the love of wealth and the desire of religious freedom. The former gave existence to the colonies of Virginia, the Carolinas, New York and New Hampshire; the latter to those of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. In their progress during infancy, both motives aided to swell the population of all; but probably more, on the whole, came over impelled by religious than by worldly motives. But few were induced to emigrate by the love of political, disconnected with religious, freedom. That passion had its growth, if not its birth, in the New World. To whatever rank the emigrants might have belonged at home, here they could not remain long together without perceiving the folly of hereditary distinctions, nor without discovering that all, who were equal in mind and muscle, were equally useful in their young communities. Insensibly freedom became to them like the air they breathed.—*Hale.*

The French and English.—An association of English merchants and Virginia land speculators, known as the "Ohio Company," obtained in England, shortly after the peace, a grant of five hundred thousand acres of land on the east bank of that river, with exclusive privileges of Indian traffic—a grant esteemed an encroachment by the French, who claimed as theirs, by right of discovery and occupation, the whole region watered by the tributaries of the Mississippi. A counter claim, in virtue of the British protectorate, recognized by the treaties of Utrecht and Aix-la-Chapelle, was indeed set up by the English, in the name of the Six Nations, whose empire, it was alleged, had been carried by conquest over the whole Ohio Valley, and the basin, also, of Lakes Ontario and Erie—a view mentioned by Colden in his "History of the Five Nations," first published some twenty years before, and lately revived in a new edition. The French, in reply, pointed to their posts along the great lakes and the waters of the Mississippi, more than sixty in number, many of them of considerable antiquity, and the principal ones held by regular garrisons, relieved once in six years. The missions had declined, but the Indian trade continued to flourish.—*Hildreth.*

Pitt's Circular to the Colonies.—Determined on a vigorous campaign in America, he addressed a circular to the colonies, in which he called for twenty thousand men, and as many more as could be furnished. The crown would provide arms, ammunition, tents, and provisions; the colonies were to raise, clothe and pay the levies; but for all these expenses Pitt promised a Parliamentary reimbursement—a promise which acted like magic. Massachusetts voted seven thousand men, besides six hundred maintained for frontier defense. To fill up this quota, soldiers were drafted from the militia and obliged to serve. The advances of Massachusetts during the year were not less than a million of dollars. Individual Boston merchants paid taxes to the amount of $2,000. The tax on real estate amounted to two-thirds the income. The insolvencies occasioned by the pressure of the war gave rise to a bankrupt act, but this was disallowed in England. Connecticut voted five thousand men. New Hampshire and Rhode Island furnished each a regiment of five hundred men. The New York quota of one thousand seven hundred men was raised to two thousand six hundred and eighty. The New Jersey regiment was enlarged to a thousand. The Assembly of Pennsylvania appropriated £100,000 toward bringing two thousand seven hundred men into the field. Virginia raised two thousand men.—*Hildreth.*

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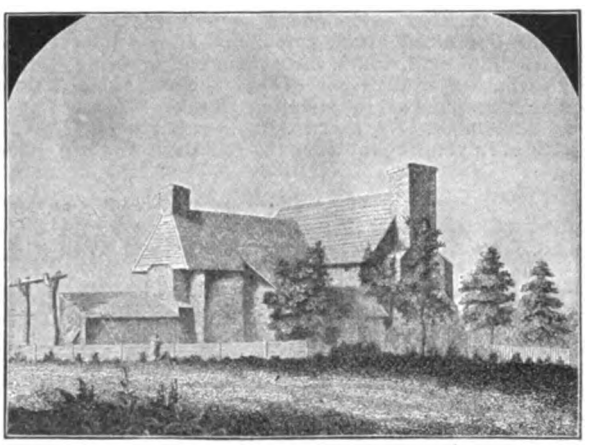
12.

As a rule, the colonial legislatures consisted of Governor, who represented the King, his Council, which was the Upper House, and the Assembly, elected by the people. The colonists claimed that their internal matters, such as taxation, were under the control of this legislature and not of the English Parliament, King, Lords and Commons. They conceded that matters affecting the British Empire generally were under control of Parliament, hence they did not deny the legality of the navigation laws, howbeit they often evaded them.



The Old Stone House, Guilford, Conn. Built 1639.
The Oldest House in the United States.

The British claimed that they sent troops to protect the colonies from invasion, and these expenses should be paid by the latter. The colonists insisted, on the other hand, that they were helping to crush their national enemy and their grants to this end were voluntary gifts; that their legislatures were the exclusive judges of what money and troops they should furnish.

The Governors, except in Connecticut and Rhode Island, were appointed from England, and considered themselves as agents of the crown and proprietors. This produced much friction.

12.

The Colonial Legislatures.—At the time of the Declaration of Independence there were three kinds of government in the colonies. Connecticut and Rhode Island had always been true republics, with governors and legislative assemblies elected by the people. Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland presented the appearance of limited hereditary monarchies. Their assemblies were chosen by the people, but the lords proprietary appointed their governors, or in some instances acted as governors themselves: In Maryland the office of lord proprietary was hereditary in the Calvert family; in Delaware and Pennsylvania, which, though distinct commonwealths with separate legislatures, had the same executive head, it was hereditary in the Penn family. The other colonies were vice-royalties, with governors appointed by the king, while in all alike the people elected the legislatures. Accordingly in Connecticut and Rhode Island no change was made necessary by the Revolution, beyond the mere omission of the king's name from legal documents; and their charters, which dated from the middle of the seventeenth century, continued to do duty as state constitutions till far into the nineteenth. During the Revolutionary War all the other states framed new constitutions, but in most essential respects they took the old colonial charters for their model. The popular legislative body remained unchanged even in its name. In North Carolina its supreme dignity was vindicated in its title of the House of Commons; in Virginia it was called the House of Burgesses; in most of the states the House of Representatives. The members were chosen each year, except in South Carolina, where they served for two years. In the New England States they represented the townships, in other states the counties. In all the states except Pennsylvania a property qualification was required of them.—*Fiske.*

Franklin's Letter to Lord Howe.—"Long did I endeavor, with unfeigned and unwearied zeal, to preserve from breaking that fine and noble China vase, the British Empire; for I knew that, being once broken, the separate parts could not retain even their share of the strength or value that existed in the whole, and that a perfect reunion of these parts could scarce ever be hoped for. Your Lordship may possibly remember the tears of joy that wet my cheek, when, at your good sister's in London, you once gave me expectations that a reconciliation might soon take place. I had the misfortune to find those expectations disappointed, and to be treated as the cause of the mischief I was laboring to prevent."—*Bigelow.*

As Agents of the Crown. —The narrow and ungenerous conduct which parliament observed towards the colonies in every respect, brought about the decisive crisis long before the natural course of things and the diversity of interests growing out of this had made the breach an inevitable necessity. To this circumstance it is to be ascribed that the colonists were satisfied that an amicable solution would be found to the questions between them and the mother country, long after England had given the most unambiguous

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proof that she would not, on any consideration, yield the principle in issue. A few zealots like John Adams, harbored, during the English-French war, a transitory wish that the guardianship of England should cease forever. But, shortly after the conclusion of peace, there was not one to be found who would not have "rejoiced in the name of Great Britain."—*Von Holst.*

This Produced Much Friction.—It was long before the ill-will, which the systematic ignoring by parliament of the rights of the colonists had excited, triumphed over this feeling. Even in August and September, 1775, that is, half a year after the battle of Lexington, so strong was the Anglo-Saxon spirit of conservatism and loyalty among the colonists, that the few extremists who dared to speak of a violent disruption of all bonds entailed chastisement upon themselves and were universally censured. But the eyes of the colonists had been for some time so far opened that they hoped to make an impression on parliament and the king only by the most energetic measures. They considered the situation serious enough to warrant the demand that they should be prepared for any contingency. Both of these things could evidently be accomplished in the right way and with the requisite energy, only on condition that they should act with their united strength.—*Von Holst.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **COLONIZATION OF AMERICA.**—English Emigration, The London Company, The Plymouth Company, Captain John Smith, The Story of Pocahontas, Bacon's Rebellion.
8. **COLONIZATION OF AMERICA** (Continued).—The Name Plymouth, The Pilgrims, Roger Williams, The Quakers, The Confederation of 1643, King Philip and Alexander, The Dutch, The Landing of the Mayflower, The Concession of the Massachusetts Charter.
9. **COLONIZATION OF AMERICA** (Continued).—The Constitution of Connecticut, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Jersey, Georgia, The Conquest of Acadia, Rev. Thomas Hooker.
10. **COLONIZATION OF AMERICA** (Continued).—The Quakers, The Mississippi Scheme, The South Sea Scheme, Flora McDonald, John Law, the Financier.
11. **COLONIZATION OF AMERICA** (Continued).—The French Plan of Settlement, The English Plan of Settlement, The Leading Motives of Discovery, The French and English, William Pitt.
12. **COLONIZATION OF AMERICA** (Continued).—Colonial Legislatures, Colonial Concessions, British Claims, The Governors.

QUESTIONS.

7. *What motives encouraged English emigration? What noted persons started for America but returned? How did the patent to Raleigh become void? Give a sketch of the London Company? The Plymouth Company? What can you say of Captain John Smith? The story of Pocahontas? What was the origin of Bacon's Rebellion?*

8. *What was the origin of the name Plymouth? Who were the Pilgrims? What caused the large emigration from England? Give an account of the banishment of Roger Williams? The Confederation of 1643? Relate the story of King Philip and his brother Alexander? What can you say of the settlement of New York? Of the concession of the Massachusetts Charter?*

9. *Give the statement of Palfrey in reference to the Constitution of Connecticut? Dwight's statement? Give a sketch of Rev. Thomas Hooker? State what you can of the settlement of North Carolina? Of settlements by the Dutch? The Quakers? Carteret? What can you say of the conquest of Acadia?*

10. *Give a sketch of the Quakers? In what settlements did they exercise greatest influence? State what you can of the Mississippi Scheme? The South Sea Scheme?*

11. *What can you say of the French plan of uniting the Mississippi Valley and that of the St. Lawrence? What is said of French courage and enterprise? What was the English plan? Why was the latter a success? The French plan a failure? What does Hildreth say of the French and English? What was the nature of Pitt's circular to the colonies?*



Bunker Hill Monument.

12. *What constituted the colonial legislature? What were the claims of the Colonists? The British? Give a resume of the disputes between the British and the colonists? Give the substance of Von Holst's statement?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Briefly compare the English and the French plan of settlement in America. Why was one a success and the other a failure?*
2. *The influence of the Quakers on American colonization.*
3. *The Mississippi Scheme and the South Sea Bubble as felt in America.*
4. *The constitution of Connecticut, "the oldest political constitution in America."*
5. *The history of the conquest of Acadia taken in connection with Longfellow's Evangeline.*
6. *The history of the Pilgrims, with special reference to their influence in America.*
7. *The influence of Roger Williams on our political history.*
8. *What was the history of the London Company? The Plymouth Company?*
9. *Take any one colony and prepare a brief on its local government. (Howard's Local Constitutional History will render material aid on this subject.)*

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13.

There was an effort to form a union of the colonies in 1754 at Albany, preparatory to the French war. Franklin drew up a scheme, but neither the colonies nor the British government approved it, but the habit of co-operation during the war taught the value of union.

When the stamp act was passed the colonists showed their disapproval by protests, by riots and by non-importation agreements. There was no thought of independence. The Stamp Act Congress of 1765 in their "Declaration of Rights and Grievances of the Colonists in America," stood upon their rights as Englishmen, insisting that Magna Charta, the Petition of Rights, the Habeas Corpus Act, the Bill of Rights, etc., belonged to them as much as to the inhabitants of England.

Their love for the statesmen who opposed the arbitrary action of the party in power induced them to affix their names to counties and cities and towns of America —such as Pitt and Chatham, Wentworth and Rockingham, Wilkes, Barre, Camden, Richmond, Surrey, Conway, Burke and others. The name of their party, Whigs, was transferred to America, and the adherents of Great Britain naturally were called Tories.

13.

Franklin's Plan of Union.—In 1754, when the war with France was breaking out, several colonies sent delegates to a congress at Albany, to insure the friendly aid of the Six Nations. Franklin was present at this congress, and proposed a plan of union for the colonies. According to this plan, the colonies were to elect a grand council which was to meet every year at Philadelphia, the most centrally situated large town. This council would have had powers similar to those of our National House of Representatives; it could levy taxes, enlist soldiers, build forts, and was to be supreme over matters which concerned all the colonies alike. Then there was to be a president appointed and paid by the Crown, and with authority to veto the acts of the grand council. This plan of union has ever since been called the Albany Plan. If the Revolution had not occurred, we should very likely have been living under some such kind of constitution today. On the other hand, if the Albany plan had been adopted in 1754, it is quite possible that there would have been no Revolution. Franklin strongly felt the need of such a federal union, and for awhile his Pennsylvania *Gazette* appeared with a union device and the motto "Unite or Die." But not one of the colonies accepted the plan. The people cared little or nothing for union. A native of Massachusetts regarded himself as a Massachusetts man, or a New Englander, or an Englishman; not as an American, with Pennsylvanians and Virginians for countrymen.—*Fiske.*

The Provisions of the Stamp Act were briefly these:—Every note, bond, deed, mortgage, lease, license and legal document of whatever sort, required in the colonies, should, after the first day of the following November, be executed on paper bearing an English stamp. This stamped paper was to be furnished by the British government; and for each sheet the colonists were required to pay a sum varying, according to the nature of the document, from three pence to six pounds sterling. Every colonial pamphlet, almanac and newspaper was required to be printed on paper of the same sort, the value of the stamps in this case ranging from a half-pence to four pence; every advertisement was taxed two shillings.—*Ridpath.*

A Boycott.—The Stamp Act had now become a law. As none but stamped paper was legal, and as the people were determined not to use it, business was suspended. The courts were closed, marriages ceased, vessels were delayed in the harbors, and the social and commercial operations of America were suddenly paralyzed. Few dared to think of positive rebellion; the strong arm of government held the sword of power above them, and a general gloom overspread the colonies. Yet hope was not extinct, and it pointed out a peaceable, but powerful, plan for effecting the repeal of the noxious act. The commerce between Great Britain and the colonies had become very important, and any measure that might interrupt its course would be felt by a large and powerful class in England, whose influence was felt in Parliament. The expediency of striking a blow at the trade occurred to some New York merchants, and, accordingly, on the 31st of October, the day before the act went into operation, a meeting was held, and an agreement entered into not to import from England certain enumerated articles after the first day of January ensuing. The merchants of Philadelphia readily responded to the measure, and on the 9th of December those of Boston entered into a similar agreement. Nor were the pledges confined to merchants alone; but the people in general ceased using foreign luxuries; articles of domestic manufacture came into general use, and the trade with Great Britain was almost entirely suspended.—*Lossing.*

The stamps were to be prepared in Great Britain, and sent to officers in the colonies appointed to sell them. Anxious to make this unpopular measure as palatable as possible, the colonial agents were consulted as to the persons to be appointed. So little did even Franklin see the result, that he procured that office at Philadelphia for one of his particular friends. He also advised Ingersoll, the Connecticut agent, to accept that appointment for his own colony. Governor Fitch and a majority of the Connecticut assistants inclined to submit to the Stamp Act; but Trumbull and others loudly protested, and the popular feeling was all on their side.—*Hildreth.*

Magna Charta (see p. 226, p. 252); **Bill of Rights and Declaration of Rights** (see pp. 343-344); **Petition of Rights** (see p 350).

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14.

In estimating the character of the Whigs of the Revolution we must remember that the punishment for treason had been terrible throughout English history. The numerous executions and destruction of property after the battle of Culloden only thirty years before were fresh in their minds.



Benjamin Franklin.

That there should have been adherents to the crown (Tories) was to have been expected. Some few of the old settlers were loyal from temperament. Many had not been in the country long enough to lose attachment to their homes.

The invasion of Canada was founded on the belief that the people of that country would be willing to join the thirteen colonies if relieved of British military force.

Before the battle of Bunker Hill it was generally believed that Americans would not stand against British regulars. Although the latter won the field, this illusion was effectually dispelled. Still the Americans fought behind breastworks, and it was yet to be demonstrated whether they would submit to such discipline as would enable them to face veterans on equal terms.

14.

The Invasion of Canada.—Arnold, placing himself at the head of his little band of heroes, scaled the heights where Wolfe had ascended sixteen years before, and at dawn they stood upon the lofty plains of Abraham. That goal where glory was to be won and freedom vindicated, which had lured them from the camp at Cambridge, and haunted them in their disturbed dreams amid the perils of the wilderness, was now before the zealous patriots; but their hearts sank, and the whisperings of hope were like the breathings of despair, when they saw the dark castle and the massive walls that inclosed the garrison of the enemy. They numbered only seven hundred and fifty men. They had no artillery, and nearly half their muskets were rendered useless during their march through the wilderness. They learned, too, that troops from Sorel and Newfoundland had been added to the garrison, making an attack upon the town a hopeless waste of effort. But Arnold relied upon the friendly disposition of the Canadian militia and the people of the city, and, to ascertain their feelings, he drew up his men within eight hundred yards of the walls and gave three cheers, hoping that the regulars would sally out to attack them, and that then, the gates being unclosed, he might rush in, and, by the aid of friends within, secure the city. The parapets of the walls were lined by hundreds of the people, and many of them huzzaed in return. Several guns were fired by the Americans, but without effect. The British at length brought a thirty-two pounder to bear upon the patriots, but not a shot injured them. Lieutenant-Governor Cramah and McLean were too wary to be lured into such a snare as making a sortie, for they knew well the disloyalty of the French citizens and most of the leading men of Quebec. The English citizens were much dissatisfied with the French laws that had governed them since the passage of the "Quebec Bill" the previous year. The French, on the other hand, though petted, so as to be won, could not forget their ancient national animosities, and were willing to see the English discomfited. The unruly conduct of the soldiers had also disgusted the people, and some were loud in their complaints against Carleton and his deputy for exposing Quebec, by withdrawing its garrison when Montreal was threatened. The Royal Scotch under McLean were all that could be certainly relied upon. These elements of disaffection combined, made the force in the city, securely sheltered, quite inactive, for McLean well knew that Arnold's little army was too weak to attempt an assault, and he felt sure that the fierce winter winds and driving snow would soon force them from their bleak encampment.—*Lossing.*

Culloden (see p. 398).

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15.

In our sympathy for the brutal treatment of Nathan Hale we should not forget that death is the usual punishment for spies.

The object of the British commander was to separate New England from the other states. This accounts for Burgoyne's expedition from Canada. Washington's strategy was to prevent this. Hence his encampment in the hill and mountain country of Pennsylvania and New York—at Valley Forge, Morristown, West Point, etc.



General La Fayette.

Washington, while he was so often defeated, yet never lost his army. His men were brave enough, but neither officers nor privates were trained.

The capture of Burgoyne's army decided France to make an alliance with the struggling colonies, and thus enter on a war with England. La Fayette and others had joined the American army without any sanction of their government. Spain soon followed France, Holland later. Even if the United States had been willing to make peace, it would have been base to have abandoned their allies.

15.

Hale and Andre.—Six months after he had been so mildly reprimanded by Washington, Arnold made overtures to the British, and obtained command of West Point, one of the most important posts of the Americans, in order to betray it to them. His plot was defeated by the capture of Major John Andre, who had been the medium of communication between Clinton and Arnold, as he was about to enter the British lines with plans of West Point concealed in his stockings. Within half a mile of Tarrytown, he was met by three of the alert Westchester farmers who had been put upon their guard by the fact that the British made frequent raids through the "Neutral Ground" in search of plunder. They were astonished to find that they had intercepted a spy, and took Andre to the nearest post, North Castle, whence information was dispatched to Arnold and Washington, who were to have met on the 25th of September, at the house of Beverly Robinson, opposite West Point, then headquarters of Arnold. Washington did not receive the dispatch until he had reached Robinson House, and then Arnold had effected his escape. It was in season, however, to prevent the escape of Andre who, after a patient trial, was hanged at Tappan, on the 2d of October. The care with which he was tried was in marked contrast to the action of the British in a similar case, that of Nathan Hale, a graduate of Yale College, who was executed by Lord Howe, at New York, on the 22d of September, 1776. Both Hale and Andre were young, intelligent, and handsome in personal appearance. Both entered the enemy's lines to get information, but Andre was treated with courtesy, while Hale had received but brutal and inhuman roughness. He was refused the use of a Bible, and a letter which he had written to his mother was destroyed, in order, as his custodian said, "that the rebels should never know that they had a man who could die with such firmness" as he displayed.—*Gilman.*

Burgoyne's Invasion.—General Burgoyne set out with a large army from Canada, intending to capture Albany and join the British forces in New York. Had he succeeded, the American colonies would have been cut in twain. It looked for a time as if nothing could avert this calamity.

Ticonderoga was evacuated, the artillery and all the stores falling into the hands of the enemy, The same fate overtook Forts Crown Point and Edward, and the enemy secured full control of Lakes Champlain and George.—*Ellis.*

The Capture of Burgoyne.—On the 19th of September, 1777, a bloody but indecisive engagement was fought at Bemis' Heights, near Saratoga, between the armies of Gates and Burgoyne. On the 7th of October (1777), another sanguinary battle took place between the same armies, at Saratoga. Ten days afterward (October, 17, 1777), Burgoyne surrendered his whole army of six thousand men to the American general. This great victory produced the liveliest joy in America, and fell like a bomb-shell into the midst of the war party in the British Parliament. It strengthened the peace party in England, and greatly influenced the French court in favor of the struggling Americans. After returning to England, Burgoyne became a member of Parliament and opposed the war.—*Clare.*

The Surrender of Burgoyne.—The British army left their camp upon the hills, and marched sorrowfully down upon the "green" or level plain in front of old Fort Hardy, where the different companies were drawn up in parallel lines, and by order of their several commanders, ground their arms and emptied their cartridge boxes. They were not subject to the mortification of thus submitting under the gaze of an exulting foe, for General Gates, with a delicacy and magnanimity of feeling which drew forth the expressed admiration of Burgoyne and his officers, had ordered all his army within his camp, out of sight of the vanquished Britons. Colonel Wilkinson, who had been sent to the British camp, and in company with Burgoyne, selected the place where the troops were to lay down their arms, was the only American officer present at the scene —*Lossing.*

La Fayette (see page 396).

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16.

Washington's army was now entrenched until 1781 in the mountainous country around Morristown, in New Jersey, ready to attack the British whenever they should move. Hence the danger of Arnold's treason. If the impregnable position of West Point had been in the enemy's hands, New England would have been isolated, the confederation cut in two fragments by the line of the Hudson.



Continental Money.

The chief difficulty in the way of the Americans was the want of a strong government. The Continental Congress was a temporary expedient whose mandates were enforced within a state at its pleasure only. There was no executive head. The Articles of Confederation, submitted by the Congress November 15, 1777, were not ratified by all the states until Maryland acted March 1, 1781.

It is the fashion to criticise harshly the issuing of "Continental money" by Congress, and "Bills of Credit" by the states. But these critics should show how it was possible to support the army in any other way. Until the recognition of France, where could money have been borrowed? Even then the loans by foreign nations were by no means on a large scale. Only enough was doled out to prevent the collapse of the Revolution. The people could not possibly have paid sufficient taxes.

Gen. Lincoln's allowing his army to be shut up in Charleston and captured was one of the most disastrous errors of the war. Gen. Greene's adopting Washington's policy of never risking the ruin of his army saved the country.

16.

The Articles of Confederation.—On July 4, the Declaration of Independence was adopted, the import of which, as has been already remarked, was in accordance with a resolution of June 10. Eight days later, on July 12, the last-named committee submitted to Congress the draft of the articles of confederation. On November 15, 1777, the articles, after they had undergone several amendments, were accepted by Congress, and it was resolved to recommend them to the legislatures of the states for adoption. The united colonies had, therefore, existed over a year by virtue of the sovereign will of the people as an independent, political commonwealth, when Congress submitted a plan to the state legislatures, which placed this commonwealth on a basis essentially different from that on which it had hitherto reposed.—*Von Holst*

Impossible to Support the Army in any Other Way.—Congress was destitute of even the necessary pecuniary means of meeting its most urgent obligations The English forces were still in New York, when Congress was compelled, by a handful of mutinous recruits, to remove from Philadelphia to Princeton, because it was not able to keep the repeated promises it had made to the troops. It was due to Washington's influence alone that the whole army did not refuse to lay down their arms and dissolve, until justice was done them. The distress grew greater every year, and threatened daily to induce more serious complications. The foreign debt was maturing, and Congress was unable to meet the interest upon it, to say nothing of the payment of the principal. All efforts to prevail on the states to guarantee the general government a secure and adequate source of income were without effect. They held fast to the policy of requisitions, and even considered it a favor when they paid the least attention to such as were made upon them. The evidences of indebtedness of the home loan sank, in consequence, to about one-tenth of their nominal value. The pecuniary condition of the individual states was still worse, for here there was not only no possibility of payment, but the disposition to pay became weaker every day. And even when existing legislatures could be reproached with nothing on this score, it was so uncertain what might be expected from future ones that the state scrip could be negotiated only at an oppressive premium. All this became continually worse, for the number of those who aimed at liquidating their debts by a dishonorable exercise of the legislative power constantly increased, and in many of the states it became more uncertain every day whether they would not find a majority in the legislature.—*Von Holst.*

American Finances.—The American finances were now in a most wretched condition, as the $200,000,000 of *Continental Money* issued by the Continental Congress since 1776 had rapidly depreciated, and had become almost worthless by the close of 1778.—*Clare.*

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17.

Gen. Nathaniel Greene was, next to Washington, the ablest American officer of the war. It was his fortune never to win the glory of a brilliant victory, but always to gain the object for which he was struggling. He lost the field at Guilford Court-House, but crippled Cornwallis so that he retreated to Wilmington, then transferred the theatre of the war to Virginia. Yorktown was caused by Guilford Court-House.



Gen. Nathaniel Greene.

Note that Great Britain had not, in those days, won her supremacy over the seas. The French fleet was a necessary factor in the capture of Cornwallis, which led to the recognition of our independence.

The pluck of our English cousins, fighting with France, Spain, Holland and the United States, with Ireland almost threatening rebellion, should make us proud of the strong qualities of our race. Old animosities should die away. The great historian, Prescott, is descended from ancestors who were on opposite sides at Bunker Hill, and their swords are hung up, crossed, on the walls of the Massachusetts Historical Society. It is a noble object lesson to inculcate peace between the two greatest nations of the world.

17.

Washington, Gates and Greene.—Washington is the first name that occurs to us in connection with our military history, as it is the first in our civil history; and wherever our history comes in as a chapter in that of the world, it will, for the period to which it belongs, be almost the only one. Next, for the importance of the events with which they are associated, though with very different degrees of merit, come Gates and Greene. Thus, whenever we see the main army, we find Washington directing all its movements. The great historical importance of the Northern army was derived from the defeat of Burgoyne; and with this, Gates has succeeded in connecting his name, almost to the exclusion of Schuyler and Arnold, by whom most of the real work was done. The reconquest of the South in the brilliant campaign of 1780-81 belongs exclusively to Greene.—*Greene.*

Washington.—In thus mentioning the American indebtedness to the French, it must not be permitted to detract from the praise that should be awarded to Washington, whose calm perseverance and skillful direction of the campaign was the real cause of the success. He ordered that Divine services should be performed in all the brigades the next day, and that the soldiers should "universally attend, with that seriousness of deportment and gratitude of heart which the recognition of such reiterated and astonishing interpositions of Providence demand of us."—*Gilman.*

After an affectionate parting with his officers in New York City, on the 4th of December, Washington proceeded to Annapolis, in Maryland, where the Congress was in session; and on the 23d of December (1783) he resigned into the hands of that body his commission of commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, in a simple and touching address, to which an equally affecting response was made by the President of the Congress, General Thomas Mifflin, of Pennsylvania. Washington then returned to his farm at Mount Vernon, on the banks of the Potomac, carrying with him the esteem and gratitude of his countrymen, and the admiration of the world.—*Clare.*

The Navy.—The men of New England were famous for seamanship, and better and cheaper ships could be built in the seaports of Massachusetts than anywhere in Great Britain. An oak vessel could be built at Gloucester or Salem for twenty-four dollars per ton; a ship of live oak or American cedar cost not more than thirty-eight dollars per ton. On the other hand, fir vessels built on the Baltic cost thirty-five dollars per ton, and nowhere in England, France, or Holland could a ship be made of oak for less than fifty dollars per ton. Often the cost was as high as sixty dollars. It was not strange, therefore, that before the war more than one third of the tonnage afloat under the British flag was launched from American dock-yards.—*Fiske.*

The French Influence in bringing about the surrender of Cornwallis can never be forgotten. Leaving out of the account La Fayette, who was of the greatest assistance by his bravery and enthusiasm for the cause, and Steuben, who was led to enter the American army through French influence, the entire naval force, without which the effect could hardly have been produced, was French, and of the sixteen thousand troops, seven thousand were of that nation.—*Gilman.*

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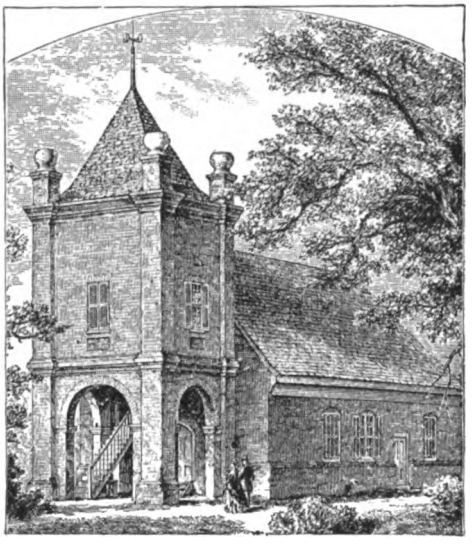
18.

It is not true that any one man was necessary to the success of the American Revolution. Forces too mighty to be resisted were forcing the two nations apart. But intelligent men of all countries concede that it is due to the extraordinary military and civil talents and the potent weight of the strong, virtuous character of Washington that the United States emerged from the great conflict with unimpaired hatred of despotism and love of liberty. By his example in returning to his farm and proving himself to be one of the most enlightened agriculturists of Virginia, he stimulated his impoverished officers and soldiers to address themselves to developing the resources of their country. At the same time he corresponded with the leading statesmen of his own and other states with the view of obtaining a better government than that of the confederation, which, without an efficient executive, without a judiciary, without power to raise money for its support, with a legislature that could only recommend obedience to its laws, had become an object of ridicule and contempt, at home and abroad. It took a year and a half to gather in one-fifth only of the taxes which the states in 1783 were asked to pay. Two years later Congress requested the states to build five ships to fight Algiers for preying on our commerce, and the recommendation was not heeded. Great Britain refused to carry out certain provisions of the treaty of peace because some of the states refused to carry out other stipulations.



St. Peter's Church, Where Washington was Married.

18.

Washington.—No man has ever appeared upon the theatre of public action, whose integrity was more incorruptible, or whose principles were more perfectly free from the contamination of those selfish and unworthy passions, which find their nourishment in the conflicts of party. Having no views which required concealment, his real and avowed motives were the same; and his whole correspondence does not furnish a single case from which even an enemy would infer that he was capable, under any circumstances, of stooping to the employment of duplicity. No truth can be uttered with more confidence than that his ends were always upright, and his means always pure. He exhibits the rare example of a politician to whom wiles were absolutely unknown, and whose professions to foreign governments, and to his own countrymen, were always sincere. In him was fully exemplified the real distinction, which forever exists, between wisdom and cunning, and the importance as well as truth of the maxim that "honesty is the best policy."—*Marshall.*

By his Example.—It is not easy to conceive of difficulties surpassing those encountered by Washington, from the beginning of his administration. No man had ever before been trusted with higher duties. He had to mark out paths for a new and untried government, to reconcile conflicting opinions, to pour balm upon bleeding wounds, to quench factional and sectional fires, and to steer the union safely by the whirlpools that had engulfed the Confederation. Upon none of these had any light been thrown by the past experience of the country. Hence, it must have been manifest to him, and to all others, that if these ends were to be reached, it must be done by untried but affirmative measures of national policy which should operate alike upon all the sections of the Union—neither permitting the large states to impair the just rights of the small, nor both combined to impair those of the Union. As the north star guides the mariner through the trackless seas, so was the "general welfare" of the united body of the people to be recognized by him as the chief object to be attained.—*Thompson.*

Algiers.—For a long time Algerine pirates had infested the Mediterranean, preying upon the commerce of civilized nations; and those nations, in order to purchase exemption from such ravages, had adopted the ruinous policy of paying the Dey of Algiers an annual tribute. In consideration of the tribute the Dey agreed that his pirate ships should confine themselves to the Mediterranean, and should not attack the vessels of such nations as made the payment. Now, however, with the purpose of injuring France, Great Britain winked at an agreement with the Dey by which the Algerine sea-robbers were turned loose on the Atlantic. By their depredations American commerce

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suffered greatly; and the government of the United States was obliged to purchase safety by paying the shameful tribute.—*Ridpath.*

The first treaty of 1795, with Algiers, which was negotiated during Washington's administration, cost the United States for ransom of American captives, and the Dey's forbearance, a round $1,000,000, in addition to which an annuity was promised. Treaties with other Barbary States followed, one of which purchased peace from Tripoli by the payment of a gross sum. Nearly $2,000,000 had been squandered thus far in bribing these powers to respect our flag, and President Adams complained in 1800 that the United States had to pay three times the tribute imposed upon Sweden and Denmark. —*Schouler.*

Algiers Brought to Terms.—During the conflict with Great Britain the Algerine pirates renewed their depredations on American commerce. As soon as the treaty of Ghent was concluded the government of the United States ordered Commodore Decatur, commanding a fleet of nine vessels, to proceed to the Mediterranean and chastise the Barbary sea-robbers into submission. On June 17, Decatur, cruising near Gibraltar, fell in with the principal frigate of the Algerine squadron, and after a severe fight of twenty minutes compelled the Moorish ship to surrender. Thirty of the piratical crew, including the admiral, were killed, and more than four hundred taken prisoners. On the 19th, Decatur captured another frigate, bearing twenty guns and a hundred and eight men. A few days afterwards he sailed into the Bay of Algiers, and dictated to the humbled and terrified Dey the terms of a treaty. The Moorish emperor was obliged to release his American prisoners without ransom, to relinquish all claims to tribute, and to give a pledge that his ships should trouble American merchantmen no more. Decatur next sailed against Tunis and Tripoli, compelling both of these states to give pledges of good conduct, and to pay large sums for former violations of international law. From that day until the present the Barbary powers have had a wholesome dread of the American flag.—*Ridpath.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **FRANKLIN'S PLAN OF UNION.**—Effort to form a Union of the Colonies, The Stamp Act, A Boycott, The Stamps Prepared in Great Britain.
14. **THE REVOLUTION.**—The Whigs of the Revolution, The Tories, Invasion of Canada, Arnold, General Feeling in regard to the Americans.
15. **THE REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Nathan Hale, Burgoyne's Expedition, Washington's Strategy, The Surrender of Burgoyne, La Fayette, Spain, France and Holland.
16. **THE REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Washington's Army, The Articles of Confederation, American finances, Gen. Lincoln.
17. **THE REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Gen. Nathaniel Greene, Washington, Gates, The English, The French, The Pluck of our English Cousins.
18. **THE REVOLUTION** (Continued).—Washington, War with Algiers.

QUESTIONS.

13. *What can you say of Franklin's plan of union? Why was it not successful? Name the provisions of the Stamp Act? How did the colonists show their disapproval? At this period did the colonists desire independence? What did they claim as their rights? Name some of the English statesmen of the period? What ones favored the colonies?*

14. *What was the political doctrine of the Whigs of the Revolution? The Tories? Give Lossing's statement in reference to the invasion of Canada? What was the English notion in regard to Americans?*

15. *Give Gilman's account of Hale and Andre? What was the plan and aim of the English commander? What was Washington's strategy? What can you say of Washington and his army? How was France influenced to make an alliance with the colonies? Give a sketch of the life of La Fayette.*

16. *What was the great danger in Arnold's treason? What was the chief difficulty in the way of Americans? Give a sketch of the Continental Congress? What can you say of the Articles of Confederation? Give Von Holst's statement as to the financial status of the colonies?*

17. *Give a sketch of the life of Greene? Washington? Gates? At this time what was the general maritime condition of England? Why was the aid of the French fleet necessary in the capture of Cornwallis?*

18. *What can you say of the position occupied by Washington? How did he seek to obtain a better government? What depredations were now being committed by the Algerine pirates? How were they brought to terms?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Prepare a brief sketch showing the strategic points and excellent features of Washington's plan of campaign.*
2. *As under Question 1, prepare an outline of the plan of the British commanders.*
3. *Prepare a brief history of the Continental Congress.*
4. *Outline the general financial status of the colonies at this period.*
5. *What was the Continental money? How issued?*
6. *What was the history of the alliance of France with the colonies?*
7. *Prepare an outline of Franklin's plan of union.*
8. *Look up and prepare a brief of the arguments of William Pitt in reference to the colonies.*

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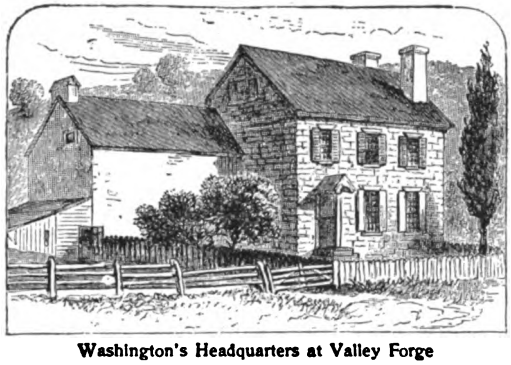
19.

In order to understand the difficulties of forming "a more perfect union," we must recall that the colonies, prior to the Revolution, traded more with the mother country than with one another. Rich planters shipped their produce to England and there bought their supplies. Washington usually had his clothes made to order in London. Roads were bad, bridges few, traveling slow, often dangerous. It required a month for a citizen of North Carolina to reach New York, a month to return. It required time and experience to make the inhabitants of inland communities willing to entrust their property, their liberties, the happiness of themselves, their wives and children to legislators from distant points, who were total strangers.



Washington's Headquarters at Valley Forge

Some of the ablest men, whose reputation was widely extended, were either monarchists or in favor of a central government so strong as to dwarf the states into counties. The people had shed their blood and undergone terrible privations to escape the threatened exactions of an aristocracy, and they hesitated long before voluntarily submitting themselves to what might become another. But for their confidence in Washington, who headed the movement and who was sure to be President, the adoption of the Federal Union would have been retarded indefinitely.

19.

A More Perfect Union.—From his quiet retreat at Mount Vernon, Washington, though ostensibly withdrawn from public affairs, was watching with intense solicitude the working together of the several parts in the great political confederacy; anxious to know whether the thirteen distinct states, under the present organization, could form a sufficiently efficient general government. He was daily becoming more and more doubtful of the solidity of the fabric he had assisted to raise. The form of confederation which had bound the states and met the public exigencies during the Revolution, when there was a pressure of external danger, was daily proving more and more incompetent to the purposes of a national government. Congress had devised a system of credit to provide for the national expenditure and the extinction of national debts, which amounted to something more than forty millions of dollars. The system experienced neglect from some states and opposition from others; each consulting its local interest and prejudices, instead of the interests and obligations of the whole. In like manner treaty stipulations, which bound the good faith of the whole, were slighted, if not violated, by individual states, apparently unconscious that they must each share in the discredit thus brought upon the national name. —*Irving and Fiske.*

The soldiers urged Washington to become king. That true patriot spurned the offer. He calmed the violent, and by his lofty bearing soothed the malcontents, and in a short time the trouble ended. —*Edited.*

Traveling Slow, often Dangerous.—At the time of our Revolution the difficulties of traveling formed an important social obstacle of the union of the states. In our time the persons who pass in a single day between New York and Boston by six or seven distinct lines of railroad and steamboat are numbered by thousands. In 1783 two stage-coaches were enough for all the travelers, and nearly all the freight besides, that went between these two cities, except such large freight as went by sea around Cape Cod. The journey began at 3 o'clock in the morning. Horses were changed every twenty miles, and if the roads were in good condition some forty miles would be made by 10 o'clock in the evening. In bad weather, when the passengers had to get down and lift the clumsy wheels out of deep ruts, the progress was much slower. The loss of life from accidents, in proportion to the number of travelers, was much greater than it has ever been on the railway. Broad rivers, like the Connecticut and Housatonic, had no bridges. To drive across them in winter, when they were solidly frozen over, was easy; and in pleasant summer weather to cross in a row-boat was not a dangerous undertaking. But squalls at some seasons and floating ice at others were things to be feared. More than one instance is recorded where boats were crushed and passengers drowned, or saved only by scrambling upon ice floes. After a week or ten days of discomfort and danger the jolted and jaded traveler reached New York. Such was a journey in the most highly civilized part of the United States. The case was still worse in the South, and it was not so very much better in England and France. In one respect the traveler in the United States fared better than the traveler in Europe; the danger from highwaymen was but slight.—*Fiske.*

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20.

Maryland's long delay in adopting the Constitution of the Confederation was owing to her dissatisfaction at the enormous claims of western territory by some of the other states.

The very important ordinance of the northwest territory was the work of Nathan Dane, in whose honor a professorship of law in Harvard University is established. The prohibition of slavery made the territory more attractive to settlers, just as at an earlier date the guaranty of religious liberty in Pennsylvania, the Carolinas, Georgia, etc., led to a large influx of a valuable population.

The convention of 1787 had undoubtedly as high an average of intellectual power, political experience and integrity of purpose as any assembly of the English-speaking race ever held.

Gladstone said of the result of their deliberations: "It is the greatest work ever struck off at one time by the mind and purpose of man." But this work was not originated by them. They merely selected such principles as the experience of the states had evolved from the institutions of England, with changes suitable to their environments.



The Liberty Bell.

20.

The Accession of Maryland to the new union by a vote of nearly six to one brought to the constitution the majority of the thirteen United States, and a great majority of their free inhabitants. The state which was cradled in religious liberty gained the undisputed victory over the first velleity of the slave-holding states to form a separate confederacy. "It is a thorn in the sides of the leaders of opposition in this state!" wrote Washington to Madison. "Seven affirmative without a negative would almost convert the unerring sister." "The fiat of your convention will most assuredly raise the edifice," were his words to Jenifer, of Maryland.—*Bancroft.*

The Convention of 1787.—"The American constitution is the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man;" but it had its forerunners England had suffered the thirteen colonies, as free states, to make laws each for itself and never for one of the others, and had established their union in a tempered subordination to the British crown. Among the many guides of America, there had been Winthrop and Cotton, Hooker and Haynes, George Fox and William Penn, Roger Williams and John Clarke, scholars of Oxford and many more of Cambridge; Gustavus Adolphus and Oxenstiern, the merchants of the united Netherlands, Southampton and Baltimore, with the kindliest influences of the British aristocracy; Shaftesbury with Locke, for evil as well as for good; all the great slave-traders that sat on thrones or were fostered by parliament; and the philanthropist Oglethorpe, who founded a colony exclusively of the free on a territory twice as large as France, and though he had to mourn at the overthrow of his plans for liberty, lived to see his plantation independent. There were other precursors of the federal government, but the men who framed it followed the lead of no theoretical writer of their own or preceding times. They harbored no desire of revolution, no craving after untried experiments. They wrought from the elements which were at hand, and shaped them to meet the new exigencies which had arisen. The least possible reference was made by them to abstract doctrines; they moulded their design by a creative power of their own, but nothing was introduced that did not already exist, or was not a natural development of a well-known principle. The materials for building the American constitution were the gifts of the ages.—*Bancroft.*

Average of Intellectual Power.—The contemplation of weakness, vacillation and lukewarmness displayed at one time or another in every district and by all classes except the one which was composed of a few steadfast leaders with their devoted followers, should overthrow that view of our history which refers everything good to the forefathers and everything bad to their successors. Estimating the men of that day in the light of their times we may well be proud of them, but we should also remember that what they began in imperfection has been preserved by at least equal wisdom and equal fortitude both in war and peace; that the stability of the small beginning has been secured in a structure large beyond their visions, built by architects at least as capable as they and perhaps as creative, for the federal state as we have it was probably not in their minds at all. The Constitution even was in part the work of a generation which did not begin the Revolution, and has by the interpretation of still later ones been steadily adapted to conditions not foreseen.—*Sloane.*

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21.

The number made by adding to the white people three-fifths of the slaves was called "Federal population." When the slaves became free this term became obsolete.

Note that the small are not only equal to the large states in the Senate, but this privilege cannot be taken away without their consent. Moreover, in voting for the President and Vice-President, they have a vote larger than the number of their population could claim. This privilege could be taken away by a constitutional amendment passed by two-thirds of Congress or two-thirds of the states and then ratified by three-fourths of the states.



Patrick Henry.

North Carolina did not reject the constitution, but postponed the question, at the same time recommending certain amendments. When it was ascertained that the most important of these would be adopted, she ratified the constitution by a large majority. Rhode Island held out until May 19, 1790.

It seems that these two are the only states which have ever been theoretically independent. All the others, having entered the Confederation before having won their independence of Great Britain, passed from the Confederation into the Union.

21.

North Carolina.—The friends of the constitution had the advantage of spreading their arguments before the people; on the other side Willie Jones, who held in his hand the majority of the convention, citing the wish of Jefferson that nine states might ratify the constitution, and the rest hold aloof for amendments, answered in this wise: "We do not determine on the constitution; we neither reject nor adopt it; we leave ourselves at liberty; there is no doubt we shall obtain our amendments and come into the union." At his word the convention deferred the ratification of the constitution, and proposed amendments by one hundred and eighty-four votes against eighty-four. But harmony between the state and the new federal government was pre-established by a rule that any impost which congress might ordain for the union should be collected in North Carolina by the state "for the use of congress."—*Bancroft.*

Rhode Island.—The scales were ready to drop from the eyes of Rhode Island. That state, although it had taken no part in the federal convention and for a year and more had neglected to attend in congress, watched without disapprobation the great revolution that was taking place. Neither of the two states which lingered behind remonstrated against the establishment of a new government before their consent; nor did they ask the United States to wait for them. The worst that can be said of them is, that they were late in arriving.—*Bancroft.*

From the Confederation into the Union.—When we consider the situation of the thirteen colonies and their relations to one another; when we follow the development which, in consequence of this situation and these relations, their political affairs and political theories received during the Revolutionary War and the following years; and endeavor to express the result in a few words, we are compelled to say, with Justice Story, that we ought to wonder, not at the obstinacy of the struggle of 1787 and 1788, but at the fact that, despite everything, the constitution was finally adopted. The simple explanation of this is that it was a struggle for existence, a struggle for the existence of the United States; and that after the dissolution of the Philadelphia convention it could be saved only by the adoption of the proposed constitution; no matter how well grounded the objections that might be made to it. The masses of the American people in their vanity and too great self-appreciation are fond of forgetting the dreadful struggle of 1787 and 1788, or of employing it only as a name for the "divine inspiration" which guided and enlightened the "fathers" at Philadelphia. In Europe this view of the case has been generally accepted as correct. Much eloquence has been lavished in laudation of the "isolated fact in history," that thirteen states, loosely bound together as one confederate body, did not see in the sword the only engine to weld together their political machinery, which was falling to pieces, but met in peaceful consultation and agreed to transform a confederacy of states into a federal state of masterly construction. In America this is an inexhaustible theme for Fourth-of-July orations, and in Europe it is only too frequently used as a text for doctrinarian politico-moral discussions. With history, however, it has nothing to do. The historical fact is that "the constitution had been extorted from the grinding necessity of a reluctant people."—*Von Holst.*

Thus the Confederation ended, and the "Union" took its place. The States had become a nation that we believe must endure forever. It remained to choose a President, and all eyes naturally turned toward one man, the Father of his Country.—*Ellis.*

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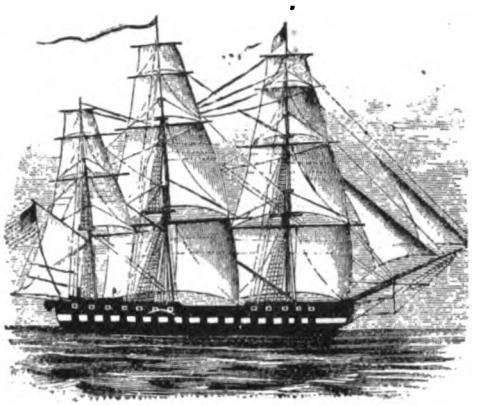
22.

The sagacious Washington, while endeavoring to propitiate the Anti-Federalists by appointing Jefferson as Secretary of State, and as such having charge of foreign affairs, and Edmund Randolph as Attorney General, yet was careful to have strong advocates of the new government in the departments which had most weight in molding our institutions. The treasury was given to Hamilton, the military to Knox, the judiciary to Jay and his associates.



The Constitution.

Under Hamilton's plans the public credit advanced rapidly.

The student should always pause to satisfy his mind on the question what caused one territory to be ready for admission before others. For example, why was Kentucky ready before Tennessee? Because its lands could be reached by wagons through the mountains from Virginia, and also by flatboats down the Ohio. Why was Kentucky ready before Ohio? Because the Indians were more numerous in Ohio and nearer the British posts, from which they could get arms, etc.

22.

Washington's Cabinet.—Between the extreme anti-Federalists, who considered the Constitution a long step towards a despotism, and the extreme Federalists, who desired a monarchy modeled on that of England, there were all varieties of political opinions. . . . The extreme importance of Washington lay in his ability through the universal confidence in his integrity and good judgment, to hold together this alliance of moderate men for a time, and to present party contests upon the interpretation of federal powers until the Constitution should show its merits, and be assured of existence. The president selected his cabinet with a careful regard to the opposite opinions of his supporters. The Treasury Department was given to Alexander Hamilton, of New York, a Federalist. . . . The War Department was given to General Henry Knox, of Massachusetts, also a Federalist. The State Department was given to Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, an anti-Federalist. Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, also an anti-Federalist, was appointed Attorney-General, and John Jay, of New York, a Federalist, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Twelve amendments were adopted by this session of Congress, in order to meet the conscientious objections of many moderate anti-Federalists, and to take the place of a Bill of Rights. Ten of these having received the assent of the necessary number of states, became a part of the Constitution, and now stand the first ten of the amendments. They were intended to guarantee freedom of religion, speech, person and property.—*Johnston.*

Thomas Jefferson had just returned from France and taken his place at the head of Washington's cabinet. He came back with both body and brain dressed in the French fashion. His subtle, ingenious mind was full of the ideas of the French revolution, then beginning in Paris. But except for his belief in liberty and humanity, which was born with him and which he did not go to Paris to learn, the wild ravings of the Jacobin clubs, and the doctrines of Marat and Robespierre, were as little a part of the real man as his French clothes. He would use the ideas of French democracy so long as they were useful and a fit covering for his real purposes, and then he would lay them aside as he did his French coat when it was worn out. With his mind thus occupied Jefferson had come home to an America very different from the one he had left.—*Lodge.*

The French Theory of Occupation.—It is interesting to note that the French colonists never made the least effort to explore, much less to possess, Kentucky. They occupied, and in a way controlled, much of Indiana, Illinois, and a part of Ohio, but it is doubtful if they ever sent an explorer into the interior of Kentucky. This was due to the fact that the French theory of occupation in America was utterly different from the English. The French endeavored to bend the Indians to their purpose, and made no distinct effort to colonize the Ohio Valley either from the Canadas or from Louisiana. As Kentucky was unoccupied by Indians, it was neglected by the French.—*Shaler.*

The history of Virginia shows us that there were several reasons which led its people to desire western possessions long before the more northern colonies began to look to the Mississippi Valley for new homes. In the first place, the Virginian people came from the more rural population of England and Scotland, and from the beginning were ever in their mode of living a less urban people than the more northern colonists of America. Within the tobacco belt agriculture was a much more profitable occupation than it ever became within the northern colonies during the colonial times. This and the other crops produced by slave labor were won by a careless tillage that rapidly reduced the fertility of the land, and made it desirable to seek fresh fields for the devastating plows.—*Shaler.*

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23.

Why was France so bitter against the United States? Why were those who sympathized with the French so furious against Washington as to call him hard names, such as "step-father of his country," and to accuse him of embezzlement?

It was because the French King, Louis XVI., had, in behalf of France, made a treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, and aided the United States to gain their independence. The French and their advocates in this country contended that this treaty, as well as common gratitude, bound the administration not only to aid France, but to be hostile to England. Hence Jay's treaty was bitterly denounced on the ground that it favored the British. Washington's administration thought that neutrality was not only the duty, but the policy of this country. When a statesman, Napoleon, assumed the chief authority in France, he at once recognized the reasonableness of the position taken by the United States and war was averted.

If the war with France had been prosecuted the very able Alexander Hamilton, second in command to Washington, would have had an opportunity to show whether he was a great warrior, as well as civilian.

23.

Jay's Treaty.—The French government was very angry with the United States for making the Jay treaty with Great Britain. The election of Adams to the presidency also enraged the French. They ordered our minister to leave the country, and their cruisers began capturing American merchant vessels. For the United States, in that period of weakness, war was extremely undesirable. President Adams sent commissioners to Paris to arrange matters amicably, but the government refused to receive them. It was base enough, however, to approach them secretly with a most impudent and infamous proposal. Emissaries from Prince Talleyrand caused it to be understood that if the United States were to bribe several members of the French government with liberal sums of money, the attacks upon our shipping would be stopped. The American envoys got this proposal in writing, and sent it to President Adams, who laid the papers before Congress. In April, 1798, the Senate had the whole thing printed and published. The letters of Talleyrand's emissaries were signed X. Y. Z., and the dispatches of the envoys have always been known as the "X. Y. Z. dispatches." There was a fierce outburst of wrath from one end of the United States to the other. The popular war cry was, "Millions for defense; not one cent for tribute!" An army was raised, and Washington, though in his sixty-seventh year, was made commander-in-chief. A few very fine war ships were built, and one of them soon showed her mettle. In February, 1799, the gallant Thomas Truxton, in the 38-gun frigate Constellation, captured the French 38-gun frigate L'Insurgente in the Caribbean Sea. The French government, astonished at the blow, became more courteous, and signified its wish to avoid a war. The Federalist party was eager for war, and Adams knew well that if he were to deal peaceably with France, it would be likely to prevent his re-election to the presidency; but he sacrificed his own ambition to the good of the country, and sent envoys to France, who settled everything satisfactorily. Meanwhile, Captain Truxton, in an obstinate fight, had defeated and captured the 54-gun frigate L'Vengeance—a useful lesson for maritime powers disposed to insult the United States.—*Fiske.*

Hamilton perceived, too, that, apart from the outward manifestations, there was a profound interest in the result of Jay's mission, and that there would be a party conflict over its ratification. At the same time he certainly did not anticipate that such a shock would be produced as that which actually occurred when the contents of the treaty became known. But then Hamilton did not expect such a result from the special mission. Rumor, speaking to us in the person of Jefferson, says that Hamilton called it an "old woman's treaty," when he first read it. To his penetrating mind and bold, dashing temperament, it may well have seemed that such an epithet was just. The treaty was certainly not such a one as he himself would have made.—*Lodge.*

Camillus.—In the midst of all the hurly-burly stood the great figure of Washington, calm, watchful, unterrified, making up his mind silently, and with "truth only for his guide." Here and there a few of the coolest and wisest among the Federalists saw the necessity of ratification and of standing by the president, and with their accustomed boldness and ability they faced the apparently hopeless odds arrayed against them. Foremost among them was Hamilton, ever present where the fray was thickest, and always first to come forward when a fight, especially if it was a desperate one, was in progress. He appeared at a great public meeting in New York to endeavor to check the raging opposition by fair discussion. Debate then and there was out of the question. Persuasive eloquence had for the moment lost its charm, and when Hamilton began to speak he was howled down and assailed with a volley of stones, one of which struck him on the forehead. With perfect coolness he said, "If you use such striking arguments, I must retire," and withdrew from a contest which at the moment was hopeless. But he retreated only to enter another field. Four days after he had been stoned appeared the first number of a series of essays signed "Camillus," in defence of the treaty, in favor of the neutrality and peace policy, and in support of the administration. These essays continued to appear for a year, and until the weight of public opinion was once more on the side of the author. "Camillus" was singularly effective, and the best proof of his power came from his adversaries.—*Lodge.*

Louis XVI. (see p. 396).

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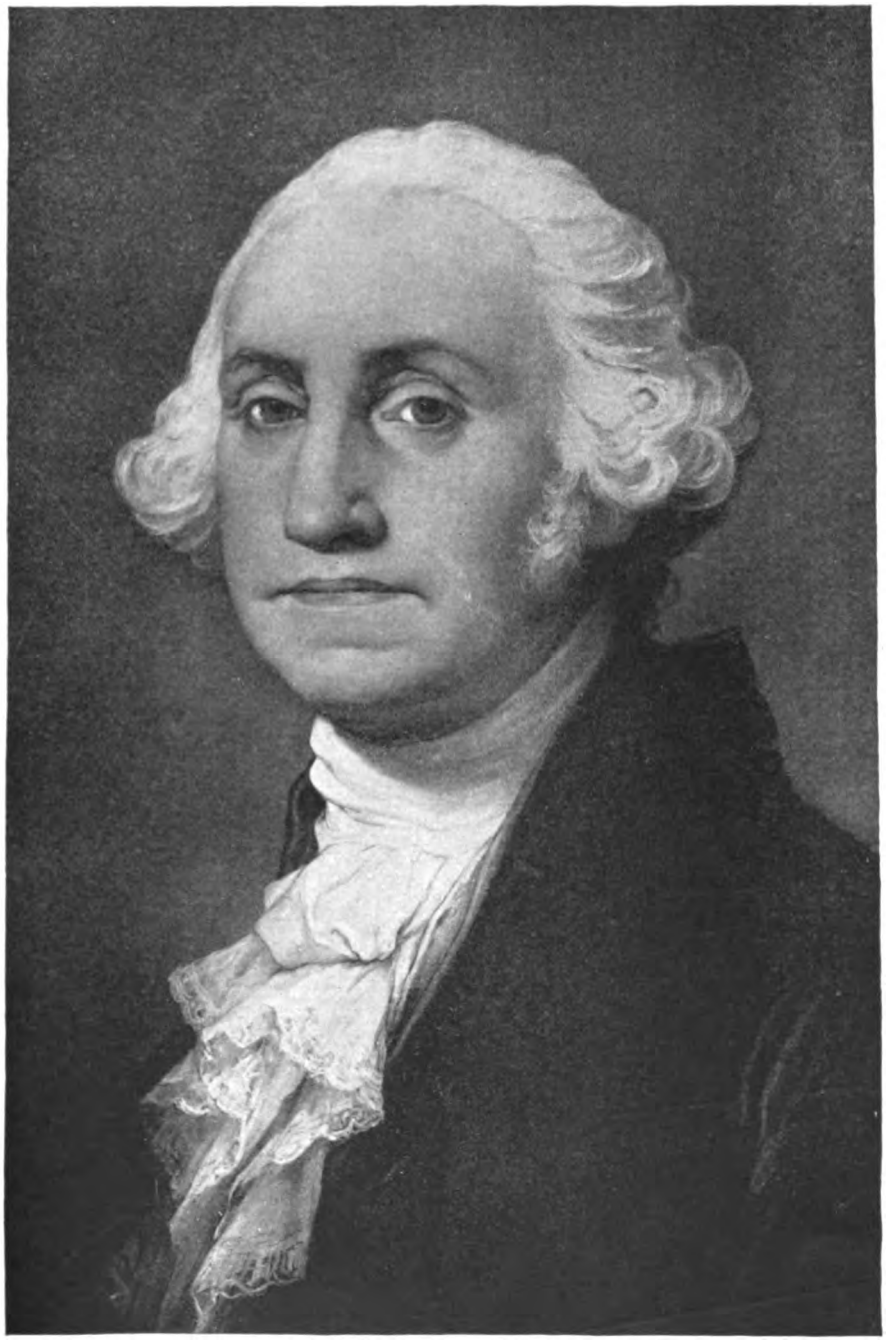

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

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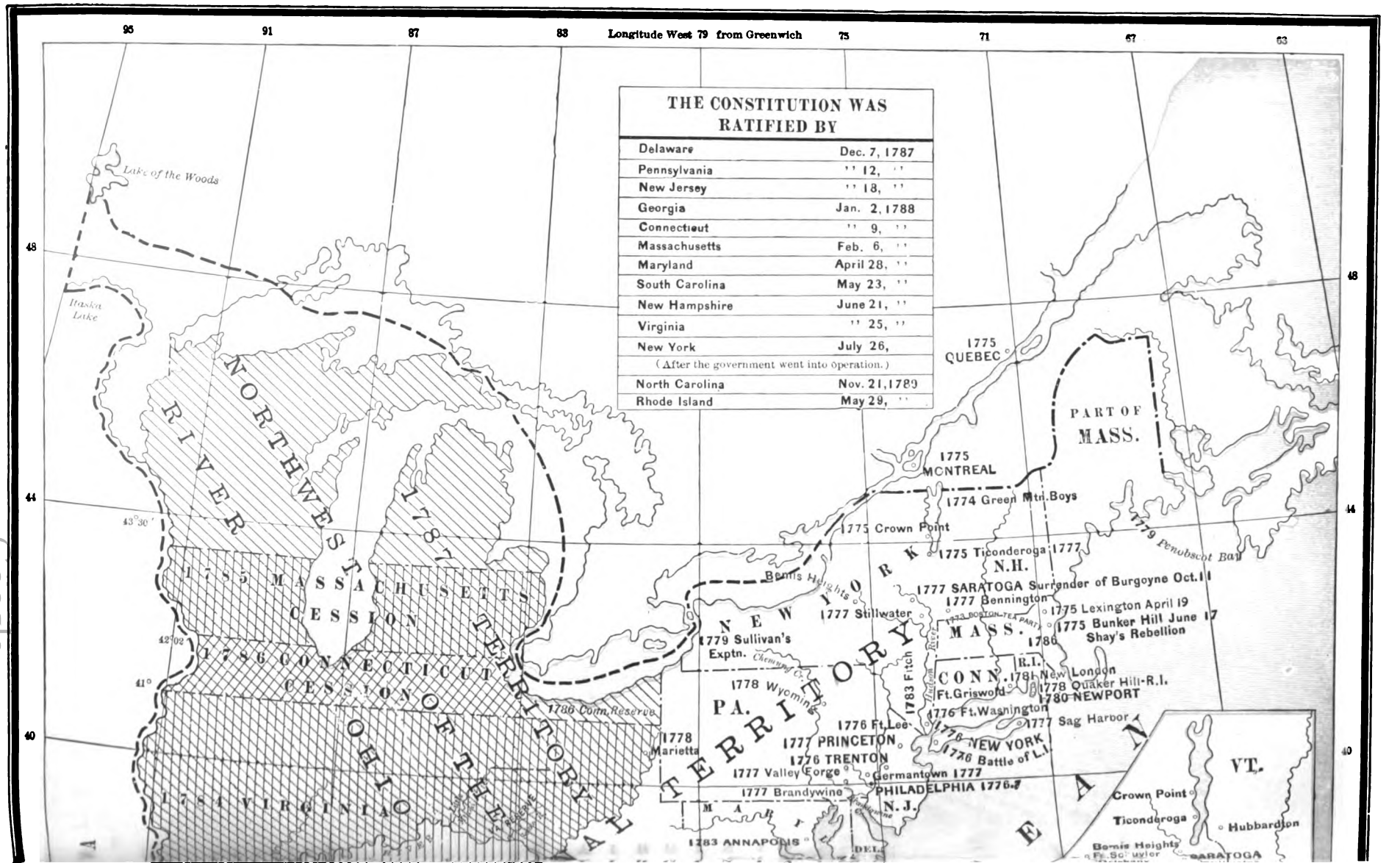

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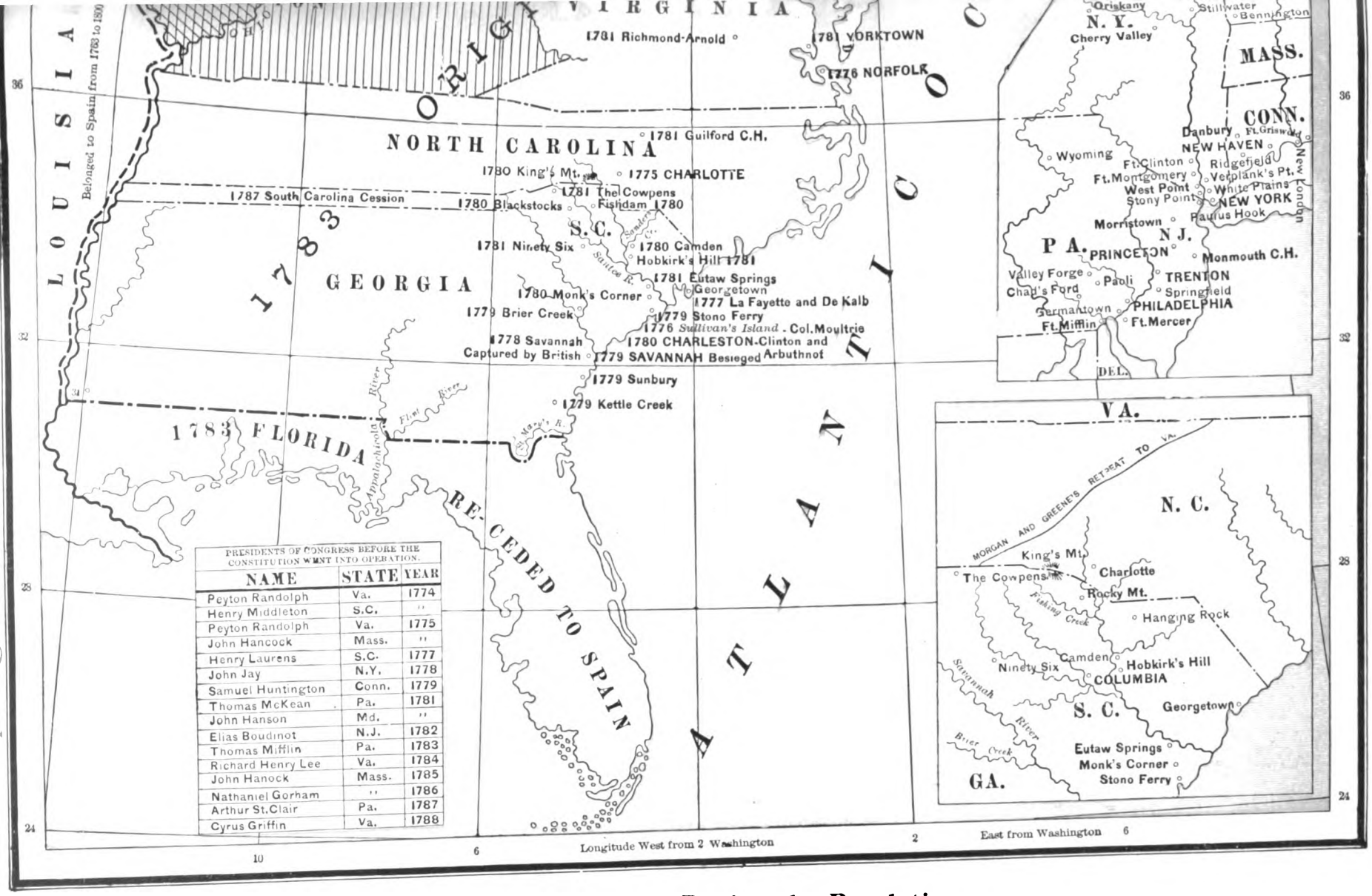

PRESIDENTS OF CONGRESS BEFORE THE CONSTITUTION WENT INTO OPERATION.

NAME	STATE	YEAR
Peyton Randolph	Va.	1774
Henry Middleton	S.C.	"
Peyton Randolph	Va.	1775
John Hancock	Mass.	"
Henry Laurens	S.C.	1777
John Jay	N.Y.	1778
Samuel Huntington	Conn.	1779
Thomas McKean	Pa.	1781
John Hanson	Md.	"
Elias Boudinot	N.J.	1782
Thomas Mifflin	Pa.	1783
Richard Henry Lee	Va.	1784
John Hanock	Mass.	1785
Nathaniel Gorham	"	1786
Arthur St. Clair	Pa.	1787
Cyrus Griffin	Va.	1788

The United States During the Revolution.

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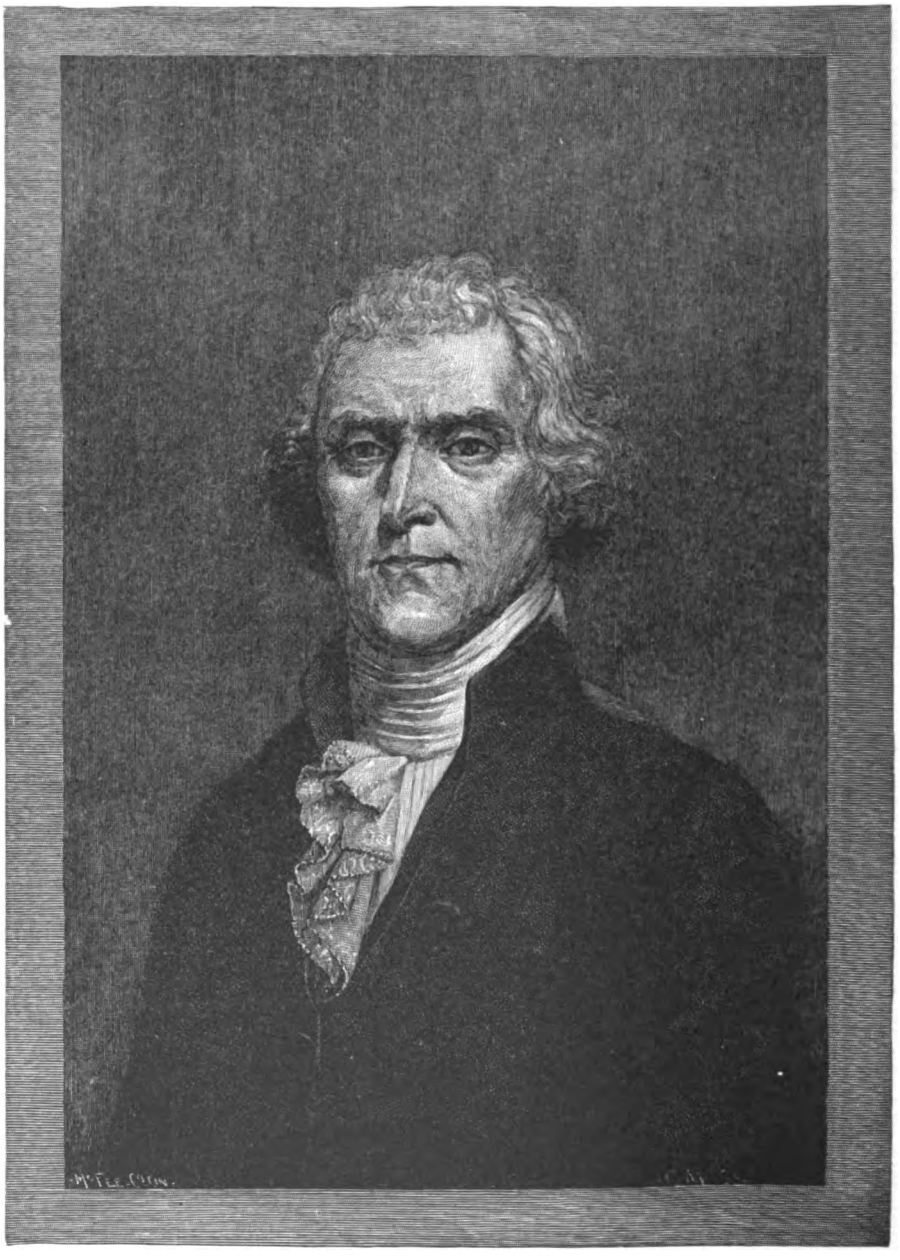

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

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24.

Great Britain seized neutral vessels for trading with France. France seized them for trading with Great Britain. The English navy was ordered to search neutral vessels for French goods. The French navy was ordered to seize neutral vessels which submitted to the search. Both sides plundered the United States. Jefferson called England "a den of pirates" and France "a den of thieves."

The English were ordered to search neutral vessels for Englishmen serving on them, in order to recruit the number of their seamen. This was not only vexatious, but often led to the wrongful impressment of American citizens.



John Adams.

The United States, on the whole, made rather a feeble fight in the War of 1812. The successes on the sea, brilliant but on a small scale, and the victory of Jackson at New Orleans, after peace had been declared, somewhat redeemed our reputation.

The reason of the want of energy in carrying on the war is that the leaders of the party in power had always advocated economy, low taxes and diminution of the public debt. President Madison seems to have been reluctantly forced into the adoption of the war policy.

While the treaty of peace of December 24, 1814, at Ghent, did not settle the questions of the orders in Council, or the impressment of American seamen, the rapid advancement of the United States in wealth and population has made it certain that these questions will never again be troublesome.

In 1861 an American commodore stopped the Trent, an English mail-boat, and captured Mason and Slidell, confederate envoys to England and France respectively. Great Britain threatened war and the United States surrendered them, in accordance with the principles contended for in the War of 1812.

24.

Both Sides Plundered the United States.—It was time for America to be known abroad as a nation. The statesmen of France reproached her unsparingly for failing in her pecuniary engagements. Boatmen who bore the flag of the United States on the father of rivers were fearlessly arrested by Spain, while Don Gardoqui, its agent, in private conversation tempted the men of Kentucky "to declare themselves independent" by the assurance that he was authorized to treat with them as a separate power respecting commerce and the navigation of the Mississippi. The colonists in Nova Scotia were already absorbing a part of southeastern Maine, and inventing false excuses for doing so. Great Britain declined to meet her own obligations with regard to the slaves whom she had carried away, and who finally formed the seed of a British colony at Sierra Leone. She did not give up her negotiations with the men of Vermont. She withheld the interior posts, belonging to the United States; in the commission for the government of Upper Canada she kept out of sight the line of boundary, in order that the commanding officer might not scruple to crowd the Americans away from access to their inland water line, and thus debar them from their rightful share in the fur trade. She was all the while encouraging the Indian tribes within the bounds of New York and to the south of the western lakes to assert their independence. Hearing of the discontent of the Kentuckians and the men of west North Carolina, she sought to foment the passions which might hurry them out of the union, as far as it could be done without promising them protection.—*Bancroft.*

The Treaty of Ghent.—It is proper to state here, parenthetically, that this treaty of Ghent did not settle definitely the questions in dispute between the two countries, but left them to be disposed of as future exigencies should demand. Madison had the satisfaction of knowing, even before the close of his administration, that the rights of the United States were recognized by the leading nations of the world. And he lived long enough to realize, as the legitimate fruits of the war, that the commerce of this country was no longer shackled by oppressive royal orders and decrees, and that our seamen were no longer impressed into the service of foreign and rival powers. The successful development of our commerce from that time up till the present has vindicated, not alone the necessity of the war, but the wisdom of its administrative policy.—*Thompson.*

Treaty of Ghent.—News traveled so slowly in

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those days that the victory of New Orleans, like the three last naval victories, occurred after peace had been made. From the first the war had been unpopular in England. Our victories on the sea made little difference in the vast naval force of Great Britain, which was able to blockade our whole Atlantic coast. Now that Napoleon was out of the way, it would be necessary for the United States to fight single-handed with Great Britain. In view of these things, and provoked by the invasion of Maine, the Federalists of New England held a convention at Hartford, in December, 1814, to discuss the situation of affairs and decide upon the proper course to be pursued. As there was much secrecy in the proceedings, a suspicion was aroused that the purpose of the convention was to break up the Union and form a separate New England confederacy. This suspicion completed the political ruin of the Federalist party. What might have come from the Hartford convention we do not know, for on the 24th of December the treaty of peace was signed at Ghent. The treaty left things apparently just as they had been before the war, for England did not explicitly renounce the right of search and impressment. But in spite of this it had been made evident that European nations could no longer regard the United States as a weak nation which might be insulted with impunity. Partly for this reason, and partly because of the long European peace which followed, the British claim to the right of search and impressment was no longer exercised, and at length in 1856 was expressly renounced.—*Irving and Fiske.*

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **THE CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD.**—The Trade of the Colonies, Traveling Slow, often Dangerous, The Influence of Washington.
20. **THE CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD** (Continued).—Accession of Maryland, The Convention of 1787, Nathan Dane, Gladstone's Statement.
21. **THE CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD** (Continued).—The Federal Population, The Senate, North Carolina, Rhode Island, From the Confederation into the Union.
22. **THE ADMINISTRATION OF WASHINGTON.**—The Sagacious Washington, The Anti-Federalist, Thomas Jefferson, The French Theory of Occupation, The History of Virginia.
23. **THE ADMINISTRATION OF WASHINGTON** (Continued).—The French King Louis XVI., Jay's Treaty, Napoleon, Hamilton.
24. **WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.**—France and Great Britain, The United States, The Treaty of Ghent.

QUESTIONS.

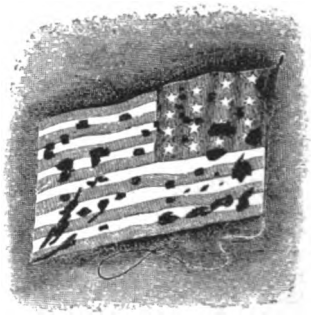
19. *Enumerate the principal difficulties in the way of forming a more perfect union? With what country was most of the trading done? What was the general condition of the country? Why were the people slow in forming a new government? Who exerted most influence?*

20. *Why did Maryland delay adopting the constitution of the Confederation? What is meant by the Ordinance of the Northwest Territory? What can you say of the convention of 1787? Give Gladstone's statement.*

21. *What was meant by "Federal Population"? How was the senatorial representation of the small states secured? How may it be taken away? Why did North Carolina and Rhode Island postpone ratifying the constitution?*

22. *How was Washington's cabinet constituted? Why? Give a brief sketch of the political life of each member? Give Lodge's statement in reference to Thomas Jefferson? Shaler's statement of the French theory of occupation?*

23. *Why was France now so bitter against the United States? What do you think of the justness of their feelings? Give the substance of Jay's Treaty? What was Hamilton's position in regard to it?*



The Stonington Flag.

24. *How was the United States treated by Great Britain? By France? How was our reputation sustained? What were the conditions of the Treaty of Ghent? In what way did the condition contended for in 1812 again arise?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Prepare a brief history of the trade and commerce of the colonies.*
2. *What was the history of the Northwest Territory?*
3. *Compare the Confederation with the Union.*
4. *What were the educational theories of Washington? Jefferson?*
5. *Compare Washington and Greene.*
6. *Compare Hamilton and Jefferson.*
7. *What was the history of Jay's treaty?*
8. *What was the history and results of the War of 1812?*
9. *Prepare sketches of prominent characters of the time.*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Aca'dia.—A former French colony of America.

Algiers (al-jērz').—The middle province of Algieria, a country in northern Africa. The population consists of Berbers, Arabs, Jews, Moors, and Europeans.

Algon'quins.—A collective term for a group of tribes of North American Indians.

Amer'igo Vespucci (ves-pö'chē) (1451-1512).—An Italian navigator.

Am'idas, Philip (1550-1618.—An English navigator, who, with Barlow, explored the North Carolina coast in 1584.

Andalusia.—An extensive region in the south of Spain.

Andre (än'drā or an'dri) (1751-1780).—A British officer in the Revolutionary War.

Azores (a-zōrz').—A group of islands situated in the Atlantic, 800 miles west of Portugal.

Aztecs'.—The surname of the Mexican branch of a tribe of Indians of Central Mexico.

Bar'bary Powers.—A general name for the region along or near the northern coast of Africa, west of Egypt, comprising Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, Tripoli, Barca and Fezzan.

Bermudas (bér-mū'däz).—A group of islands in the North Atlantic.

Cabral'.—A watering place of France.

Cab'ot, John.—An Italian navigator in the English service. Discovered North America 1497.

Ca'diz.—The capital of the province of Cadiz, Spain.

Cape Bret'on.—An island belonging to Nova Scotia.

Cape Verde (verd).—The western-most point of Africa.

Car'teret, Sir George (1609(?)-1680.) — An English sailor and royalist politician.

Cathay (ka-thā').—A name given by Marco Polo to a region in eastern Asia supposed to be China.

Clarke, John (1609-1876) —An English physician, one of the founders of Rhode Island.

Coper'nicus (1473-1543).—An astronomer and a native of Prussia. The *Copernican Theory* explains the general features of planetary motion.

Cor'tez (1485-1547).—Spanish conqueror, captured Montezuma, conquered Mexico and discovered California.

Cotton (1570-1631).—English antiquary and collector of the Cottonian Library in the British Museum.

Da Gama, Vasco (gä-mä) (1735-1802).— A Mexican scientist.

Deca'tur (1779-1820).—An American commodore.

De So'to (1496-1542).—Spanish explorer and discoverer of the Mississipi.

Dî'az (—— 1500).—Portuguese navigator and discoverer of the Cape of Good Hope.

E'ric the Red.—Scandinavian navigator and reputed discoverer of North America.

Fisher, John (1459-1535).—English cardinal and bishop of Rochester.

Fox, George (1624-1690).—The founder of the Society of Friends.

Frŏb'isher, Sir Martin (1535(?)-1594).—English navigator and commander of three expeditions to discover northwest passage to India.

Gates, Horatio (1728-1806).—An American general of Revolutionary fame.

Ghent (gent).—A city of East Flanders, province of Belgium.

Gor'ges, Ferdinando (1566-1647).—An English colonial proprietor.

Greene, Nathaniel (1737-1781).—An American military officer.

Gustavus Adolphus (see p. 271).

Hamilton, Alexander (1757-1804).—The well known American statesman and chief author of the "Federalist."

Haynes, John (—— 1654).—English statesman and first governor of Connecticut.

Ir'oquois.—The name of a tribe of American Indians.

Jackson, Andrew (1767-1845).—Seventh president of the United States.

Jay, John (1745-1829).—The first chief justice of the United States.

Jefferson, Thomas (1743-1826).—The third president of the United States.

Knox, Henry (nox) (1720-1806).—American general and Secretary of War.

Lincoln, Benjamin (1733-1810).—American general and Secretary of War.

Macdon'ald, Flora (1722-1790.—Scottish heroine; aided Charles Edward to escape after the battle of Culloden.

Madison, James (1751-1836.)—The fourth president of the United States.

Mar'co Po'lo (1254-1324).—A Venetian traveler and author.

Merca'tor (1512-1594).—Florentine geographer, mathematician and publisher of charts.

Norsemen (see pp. 161, 192, 197).

O'glethorpe (1689-1785).—British general and planter of a colony in Georgia.

Penn, William (1644-1718).—English Quaker and founder of Pennsylvania.

Peters, Hugh (1599-1660).—English Puritan and minister of Salem, Mass.

Pizar'ro (1475-1541).—Spanish conqueror.

Pocahon'tas.—The daughter of the Indian chief Powhatan. Died in England in 1617.

Pŏtosi'.—The southwestern-most department of Bolivia.

Raleigh, (rā'li) **Sir Walter** (1552-1618).—An English courtier, officer, colonizer, historian and poet.

Ran'dolph, Edmund (1753-1813).—An American statesman and attorney-general 1789-94; Secretary of State 1794-95.

Ribault (rē-bō) **Jean** (1520-1565).—A French navigator.

St. Dié (saṅ'dyā).—A town in the department of Vosges, France.

Sorel'.—The capital of Richelieu county, Quebec, Canada.

Tol'tecs.—A traditional or perhaps mythical race of Indians, said to have occupied the Mexican plateau during several centuries previous to the advent of the Aztecs.

Vane, Henry (1612-1662).—An English Puritan statesman and patriot.

Vin'land.—The supposed location of the Norse settlement of 1006. Somewhere on the coast from Labrador to New Jersey.

Verrazano (ver-rät-sā'nō) (1480-1527). — An Italian navigator.

Washington, George (1732-1799).—The first president of the United States.

Williams, Roger (1600-1684).—The founder of Rhode Island. Born in Wales.

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SIDE LIGHTS.

The Northmen.— But there was one ancient people whose warriors were the dread of all Europe, from the North Sea to the Mediterranean, and whose long experience as pirates made them fearless and successful sailors, who, there seems no good reason for doubting, did cross the Atlantic from coast to coast, almost five hundred years before Columbus stepped upon and knelt down to kiss the sands of the beach of San Salvador. The Northmen had a genius for discovering new countries by accident, and having approached and settled within a few hundred miles of the coast of the Western Continent, it would have been strange rather than otherwise if such bold rovers had not found their way thither. They made, indeed, no permanent settlement, and if it may be held as an argument against the probability of their having made the discovery at all that it is hard to find a continent, it may, with quite as much force, be urged that it is still harder to lose, when found.



James Madison.

But here again the Northmen are not without a parallel in their own experience, for it is certain that they discovered and held Greenland for more than four hundred years, and lost it again for more than two centuries.—*Bryant.*

Leif, a native of that country, having heard of Biarne's voyage, bought his ship, and, in the year 1000, sailed toward the point from which Biarne returned. He soon discovered land, and went on shore, somewhere, it is supposed, on the coast of Labrador or Nova Scotia. Sailing thence, and passing between an island, probably Nantucket, and a promontory, he landed at a place supposed to be in Massachusetts or Rhode Island. Here he erected huts or booths, and passed the winter; and, finding an abundance of grapes in the vicinity, he called the country Vinland, or Weinland.—*Hale.*

Leif reversed the order of Biarne's voyage, and sought first for the land which the other saw last —Newfoundland. When they reached it they went ashore and found it a country without grass; snow and ice covered it, and from the sea to the mountains it was a plain of flat stones. Said Leif, "We have not done like Biarne about this land, that we have not been upon it; now will I give the land a name, and call it Helluland (Hella, a flat stone). Again, they put to sea, and sought the next land that Biarne had seen — Nova Scotia. Here also they went on shore, and found a country covered with woods, with low and flat beaches of white sand. "This land," said Leif, "shall be named after its qualities, and called Markland;" that is, woodland. They set sail again with a northeast wind, and in two days once more made the land, as Biarne had done, sailing in the opposite direction with a southwest wind; and the land now before them was that which Biarne had first seen when driven in from the sea. There can be little doubt they were now on the coast of New England, but precisely where is a disputed question, for there are certain incongruities in the original narratives which it is difficult, if not impossible, to reconcile.—*Bryant.*

The national pride of an Icelandic historian has indeed claimed for his ancestors the glory of having discovered the western hemisphere. It is said that they passed from their own island to Greenland, and were driven by adverse winds from Greenland to the shores of Labrador; that the voyage was often repeated; that the coasts of America were extensively explored, and colonies established on the shores of Nova Scotia or Newfoundland. It is even suggested that these early adventurers anchored near the harbor of Boston, or in the bays of New Jersey. and Danish antiquaries believe that Northmen entered the waters of Rhode Island, inscribed their adventures on the rocks of Taunton river, gave the name of Vinland to the southeast coasts of New England, and explored the inlets of our country as far as Carolina. But the story of the colonization of America by Northmen rests on narratives, mythological in form, and obscure in meaning; ancient, yet not contemporary. The chief document is an interpolation in the history of Sturleson, whose zealous curiosity could hardly have neglected the discovery of a continent. The geographical details are too vague to sustain a conjecture; the accounts of the mild winter and fertile soil are, on any modern hypothesis, fictitious or exaggerated; the description of the natives applies only to the Esquimaux, inhabitants of hyperborean regions; the remark which should define the length of the shortest winter's day, has received interpretations adapted to every latitude from New York to Cape Farewell; and Vinland has been sought in all directions, from Greenland and the St. Lawrence to Africa. The intrepid mariners who colonized Greenland could easily have extended their voyages to Labrador; no clear historic evidence establishes the natural probability that they accomplished the passage.—*Bancroft.*

The Discovery of America.—The subject is not without special interest to the *Germans*, as it will appear in the course of this sketch that a German, who accompanied the Norsemen on their first expedition to this Western World, is intimately connected with the first name of this country; and there is no doubt that a German, through his writings about the Norsemen, was the means of bringing to Columbus valuable information about America.—*Anderson.*

Towards the close of the fifteenth century, Spain achieved her final triumph over the infidels of Granada, and made her name glorious through all generations by the discovery of America. The religious zeal and romantic daring which a long

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course of Moorish wars had called forth, were now exalted to redoubled fervor. Every ship from the New World came freighted with marvels which put the fictions of chivalry to shame; and to the Spaniard of that day America was a reign of wonder and mystery, of vague and magnificent promise. Thither adventurers hastened, thirsting for glory and for gold, and often mingling the enthusiasm of the crusader and the valor of the knight errant with the bigotry of inquisitors and the rapacity of pirates. They roamed over land and sea; they climbed unknown mountains, surveyed unknown oceans, pierced the sultry intricacies of tropical forests; while from year to year and from day to day the wonders were unfolded, new islands and archipelagoes, new regions of gold and pearl, and barbaric empires of more than Oriental wealth. The extravagance of hope and the fervor of adventure knew no bounds Nor is it surprising that amid such waking marvels the imagination should run wild in romantic dreams; that between the possible and the impossible the line of distinction should be but faintly drawn, and that men should be found ready to stake life and honor in pursuit of the most insane fantasies. —*Parkman.*

The River Mississipi was discovered by the French; at first, in 1673, near its source, by travelers from Quebec; afterwards, by La Salle, at its mouth Upon this discovery they founded their claim to the fertile and delightful valley through which it runs, from its mouth to the sources of its tributary streams. As some of these approach near to the great lakes, they formed the project of connecting their northern and southern settlements by a chain of posts extending from Lake Ontario to the Ohio, and down that river and the Mississippi to New Orleans, thus placing a barrier to the extension of the English settlements beyond the Alleghany mountains.—*Hale.*

England's North American Colonies.—The English founded all their claims to North America upon Cabot's discoveries. As we have already stated, during Queen Elizabeth's reign, the distinguished Sir Walter Raleigh made several unsuccessful efforts to colonize North America; and Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory Virginia. In 1606 King James I. of England granted the territory between the Potomac and Cape Fear rivers, under the name of South Virginia, to an association in London, known as the London Company. At the same time the king granted the territory now known as New England, under the name of North Virginia, to a company in the West of England, called the Plymouth Company. In 1607 one hundred and five English emigrants, under Captain Christopher Newport, sailed up the beautiful river which they named James, in honor of their king; and on the bank of that stream they began a settlement which they named Jamestown. This was the first permanent English settlement in America, The settlers suffered greatly from cold, hunger, and the hostilities of the natives, until the famous Captain John Smith assumed the direction of affairs, and, by his skillful management, restored confidence.—*Clare*

The Toltecs were well instructed in agriculture and many of the most useful mechanic arts; were nice workers of metals; invented the complex arrangement of time adopted by the Aztecs; and, in short, were the true fountains of the civilization which distinguished this part of the continent in later times. They established their capital at Tula, north of the Mexican Valley, and the remains of extensive buildings were to be discerned there at the time of the Conquest. The noble ruins of religious and other edifices, still to be seen in various parts of New Spain. are referred to this people, whose name, *Toltec*, has passed into a synonym for *architect*. Their shadowy history reminds us of those primitive races who preceded the ancient Egyptians in the march of civilization; fragments of whose monuments, as they are seen at this day, incorporated with the buildings of the Egyptians themselves, give to these latter the appearance of almost modern constructions.—*Prescott.*

The Rev. Thomas Hooker, a celebrated Puritan preacher in Chelmsford, England, had been silenced in 1630, and fled to Holland to avoid the fines and imprisonment with which he was threatened. Forty-seven conforming ministers near



Independence Hall.

Chelmford signed a petition in his favor to the Bishop of London, but without effect, notwithstanding that they declared him "to be for doctrine orthodox, for life and conversation honest, for disposition peaceable, and no wise turbulent or fractious.". The Earl of Warwick, president of the Plymouth Company, had often attended his preaching. In 1632, a large number of the people of Mr. Hooker emigrated to Massachusetts, hoping to induce him to follow them. They settled at Newtown (now Cambridge); and, having sent him an invitation to join them, in the following year he sailed from Holland in the ship Griffin, and landed at Boston on the 4th of September. He was accompanied by Mr. Samuel Stone, a lecturer of Torcester, in Northamptonshire, as his assistant; and in the same vessel came out the celebrated John Coton, also John Haynes, Mr. Goffe, and two hundred others. He was elected by the people of Newtown to be again their pastor, with Mr. Stone for his assistant; and the first churches in Connecticut were, in the same manner, generally supplied with two ministers. The church at Newtown was organized on the 11th of October.—*Dwight.*

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NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES—AMERICAN ARCHÆOLOGY.

By Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

WHILE the course of study was confined to the so-called "Old World," the notes necessarily pertained to the discoveries in the countries under discussion. With the present number, however, we approach American shores, and turn toward our own historic problems.

The American continent is not newly born. The snow-capped peaks of our mountains were kissed

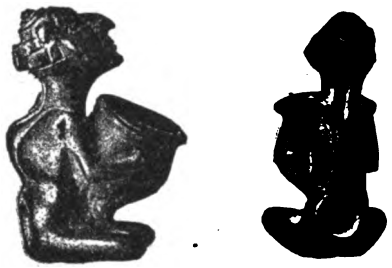


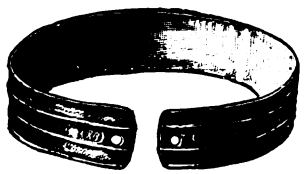
Image Pipes from Hollywood Mound, Georgia.

by the rising sun, as early as the white crowns of the Himalayas. Our rivers were flowing to the sea, while the Euphrates was wending its way through the unbroken valleys of Babylonia.

The virgin forests were teeming with life, and the gigantic mastodon roamed at will, from the valley of the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, while the great musk-ox went as far south as the confluence of the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers. The reindeer is also found in a fossil state in New Jersey and Kentucky, as well as upon the frozen cliffs of Alaska.

The Great Irish elk was the monarch of his tribe, but a specimen which rivaled him in height of stature, and spread of horn, was disinterred at Waukegan, Illinois, and at last destroyed in the Chicago fire. There was also a large horse on the Pacific Coast and in the southern states, while a smaller animal of the same species roamed the wide plains, and yet when this country was discovered the horse had so long disappeared, that the Indians had no tradition of his existence.

The cave-lion appears to have been of the age of the mammoth, and to have disappeared at about the



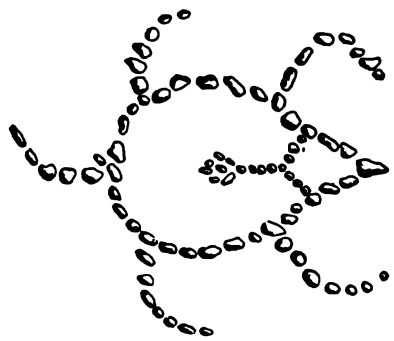
Bracelet of Silver from Mound at Prairie du Chien, Wis.

same time, while in this country, the *Felis Atrox Leidy*, larger than the existing lions, roamed along the Gulf Coast, and another feline animal frequented the coast of Texas which rivaled in size the Bengal tiger.

An Early Race.—There were men as well as animals before the beginning of authentic American history, and man, the marauder, has probably been an active agent in the destruction of many forms of life.

Whether these people were the ancestors of the Indians of today as Prof. Powell claims, or whether they belonged to another race, as some suppose, it is not within the province of this department to inquire. Certain it is, that they were the builders of earth works, of stone works, and were the occupants of cave dwellings. They had implements and ornaments, and other minor vestiges of art. There were different tribes also of these early peoples, and these tribes bore about the same relation to each other as did the Indian tribes inhabiting this country, when first visited by Europeans.

Each tribe adopted different methods of burial, and it is possible that cremation was sometimes practiced. In some of the southern districts, it appears to have been the custom to erect dwellings on low mounds constructed for the purpose, and when deaths occurred, to bury the remains in the floor, burn the houses, and heap mounds over them before they were entirely consumed. The houses appear to have been constructed of upright posts, set in the ground, lathed with cane or twigs, and plastered with clay, having the roofs thatched like those described by the early French explorers.



Turtle Figure Mound, Hughes County, South Dakota.

Some of the mounds were elongated, some were constructed in circles or squares.

There were octagons, gateways and parallel roads, sometimes extending over an area of several square miles These mounds were after constructed in the form of animals, men and birds, beasts and fishes, being represented in the outlines. Sometimes a single mound would be thus shaped, and sometimes the outline would be formed by a succession of mounds like the turtle figure in Hughes County, South Dakota.

Agriculturists.—That some of these tribes cultivated the soil is evident, for the prints of corn cobs are found upon their clay vessels, and there are lumps of clay bearing the impress of the ears. It is also true that charred cobs, ears and grains have been repeatedly found, and that, too, in the mounds and pits, which appear to have been the work of the "veritable mound builders."

They must have raised tobacco also, as well as maize, for the supply of "prehistoric pipes" is very large and varied. Some of these are quite modern in appearance, and others are in the form of animals.

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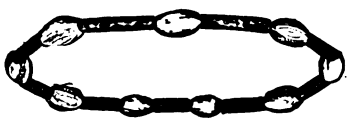
Minerals.—They must have mined copper to a certain extent, many copper articles having been found. Bracelets were sometimes made of copper roughly hammered, while those of another class are made of sheet copper, by first forming a cylinder of required size, and then bending it to proper shape.

Sometimes they were made as in the illustration, of copper beads alternated with shells.

Articles of silver have also been found, although their age is quite uncertain, and they may belong



Bracelet of Shell and Copper Beads from Nelson Triangle.

to the class of intrusive burials. In a large mound at Prairie du Chien, Wisconsin, there were found fragments of blankets and clothing, various articles of copper, and ten silver bracelets similar to the one shown in the illustration.

A Gigantic Indian.—Egypt, with her careful art of preservation, has a rival in the natural resources of California, and near San Diego has been found a veritable mummy.

This is the wonderfully preserved body of a gigantic Indian, who must have been about nine feet tall. This calculation makes allowance for the shrinkage, which may be pretty closely calculated.

There can be no mistake about the accuracy of the measurements as they were taken by Professor Thomas Wilson, curator of the department of Prehistoric Anthropology in the Smithsonian Institution, and also by other scientists. The tape line, even now, shows the length from the heel to the top ot the head, to be eight feet and four inches.

The mummy is evidently that of an Indian, and is probably prehistoric, although its age cannot be determined with any degree of accuracy. The historical records of California go back about two hundred and fifty years, but they make no mention of any man, or race of men, of gigantic stature.

Its preservation, in that arid region, is scarcely a matter of surprise, the atmospheric conditions be-



Prehistoric Pipes.

ing such that a body buried in the dry season may become perfectly dessicated before the arrival of the rains, and thus be rendered permanently proof against decay.

The body was found in a cave by a party of prospectors. Over the head are the remnants of a leather hood, and the man was evidently well advanced in years.

A Prehistoric Battle Field.—An interesting field for the archæologist has been found in the Indian Territory, a little south of the Arkansas river, and near Redland station. At this point the Kansas City, Pittsburg and Gulf Railroad enters and passes through a deep cut about sixty rods in length. In the process of excavation here the graders uncovered tons of human bones and barrels of pottery. It is estimated that not less than one hundred thousand human bodies have here been laid within an area of about fifty acres.

Were They of the Egyptian Type? — The skulls found here are unusually long and narrow, the forehead retreating, the top and back head be-



Gigantic Indian, Found in California.

ing proportionally large. The cranial sutures are fine, sometimes almost imperceptible. The measurements indicate a people of small stature. Although they were all adults, they could not have measured more than five feet, or five feet and some inches in height.

They Were Warriors.—Only fighting men were buried here, and the skeletons, many of them are fragmentary, and sometimes the fragments of several different individuals are found in the same grave. Many show intentional mutilation, the limbs being bent back upon the trunk, so as to bring the feet and head together. Arrow points and spear heads are frequently found in the skeletons. One skull contained thirteen arrow points, and a fine agate spear head, four inches long, was taken from the spine of another skeleton. They were buried in great confusion, the heads being placed towards every point of compass.

Who Were They?—It can only be conjectured who they were, and conjectures would be out of place in this department. It has been supposed that they belonged to the Egypto-Maya race, which originated in Yucatan and Central America. The material of the arrow points and spear heads indicate that the battle was not fought by the typical mound builders, for they are formed of agate, obsidian and other materials belonging to the far west.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

A.D.

432 Buddhist monks from China explore the coast of Fu-Sang, supposed to be America.
464 Hoei-schin (Universal Compassion) supposed to have made a second exploration, reaching perhaps as far as Blas, Mexico.
725 Iceland settled on the east and south by Irish monks.
860 The Norsemen discover Iceland, and name it Snowland.
865 Colony taken to Iceland by Flokko, and all the cattle perished in the winter.
866 Return of the colony to Norway. Name is changed to Iceland.
876 Gunnibiorn discovers Greenland.
983 Colony planted in Greenland at Ericsford, by Eric the Red.
995 The coasts of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and Labrador viewed by Biarne, the Norwegian.
1000 Permanent camp made at Mt. Hope Bay in Rhode Island, country being named by Leif the Lucky, son of Eric.
1003 Second expedition to Vinland by Thorwald, Eric's brother.
1004 The New England coast explored by Thorwald. Burial of Thorwald on the shore of Massachusetts Bay.
1007 Thorfinn, of Iceland, and Thorvard, Leif's brother-in-law, winter at Buzzard's Bay.



John Endicott.

Birth of the first European child, Snorri, to Thorfinn and his wife Gudrid.
1008 Mt. Hope settled by Norwegian colonists.
1010-12 Death of the Norwegian colonists and return of the survivors.
1170 Madoc, a Prince of Wales, probably reaches America.
1380 Nicolo Zeno visits Greenland and other portions of America.
1467 Iceland visited by Columbus on a trading voyage.
1484 Reported that Alonzo Sanchez was driven by a storm across the Atlantic to land, and on his return to have found a refuge with Columbus.

A.D.

1492 Columbus discovers one of the Bahama Islands, Oct. 12 (O.S.).
1493-4 Columbus discovers Porto Rico and Jamaica.
1497 John and Sebastian Cabot explore the Coast of North America.
1498 Sebastian Cabot explores from Labrador to 38° N. and calls the country Baccallaos.
1500 Columbus sent in chains to Spain by Bobadilla. Negro slavery authorized in Spanish America.
1500-1 Gaspar Cortereal explores the American coast.
1502 First mainland settlement. Columbus arrives at San Domingo June 29, but is refused admission to the harbor. Brazil visited by Americus Vespucius.
1504 Fisheries established off Newfoundland and Cape Breton by French mariners.
1506 John Denys, of Honfleur, visits Newfoundland. Death of Columbus at Valladolid, May 20, aged 70 years.
1507 America named this year in honor of Americus Vespucius.
1508 Yucatan discovered by Vincente Yanez Pinzor and Juan Diaz de Solis. Cuba found to be an island by Sebastian de Campo.
1509 Porto Rico, Jamaica, Nombre de Dios, and San Sebastian colonized.
1510 Spanish settlement made at Santa Maria on the isthmus of Darien.
1511 Cuba conquered by Don Diego Velasquez.
1512-13 Ponce de Leon discovers the east coast of Florida. Balboa discovers the Pacific ocean.
1517 Yucatan discovered by Francisco Fernandez de Cordova. Sebastian Cabot discovers Hudson Bay.
1519 Hernando Cortez with 800 men sails from Cuba and conquers Mexico.
1520 Magellan discovers Patagonia. Death of Montezuma June 30. July 8 great battle between the Spaniards and native Mexicans.
1534 Discovery of Labrador by Jacques Cartier.
1535 California discovered by Grijalva.
1539-43 Departure of Fernando de Soto from Havana. Discovery of the Mississippi, Hot Springs, Arkansas and Red rivers. Death of De Soto and return of the survivors
1547 Rise of Puritanism in England in the reign of Edward VI.
1568 French Huguenots under Jean Ribault make a settlement at Port Royal, S. C.
1579 Drake sails along the Pacific coast as far as Oregon.
1580 The Independents take their rise in England under Robert Brown.
1585 April 9, landing of the Roanoke colony sent by Sir Walter Raleigh.
1586 Tobacco and the potato introduced into England by colonists from Virginia.
1587 Colonists sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh, reach Roanoke Island and find the former colony destroyed. Birth of Virginia Dare, first American child of English parentage born in this country.

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A.D.

1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, an Englishman, discovers Massachusetts Bay.

1603 Samuel de Champlain made general-lieutenant of Canada by Henry IV. Martin Pring explores the coast of Maine and Massachusetts.

1605 George Weymouth, an Englishman, explores the coast of Maine.

1607 Jamestown founded by the first prominent English colony in the United States May 14.

1608 Puritans or Pilgrims under Robinson and Brewster leave England to escape persecution and settle at Leyden in Holland.

1609 Champlain discovers and explores Lake Champlain. Henry Hudson with an Anglo-Dutch expedition explores the American coast and the Hudson river as far as Albany.

1610 Dutch erect a few rude buildings on Manhattan Island as a temporary summer shelter for the sailors, the beginning of New York city.

1612 De Biencourt and Father Biart explore the coast of Maine.

1613 Pocahontas captured by Captain Samuel Argall, and is baptized and marries John Rolfe, April 5. Afterwards known as Rebecca Rolfe.

1614 Captain Gibbons seeks the northwest passage. John Smith explores the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, and names the country New England.

1616 Baffin's Bay discovered by Wm. Baffin.

1617 Death of Pocahontas in England, March, aged 22 years, leaving one son, Thomas Rolfe.

1620 Champlain begins Fort St. Louis. Pilgrim fathers land at Provincetown, Plymouth Rock, December 21. March 16, first Indian, named Samoset, appeared at Plymouth.

1621 Death of John Carver, governor of Plymouth. First wedding in Plymouth between Edward Winslow and Mrs. Susanna White, May 14. Courtship of Miles Standish, June 18.

1622 March 22. Indian massacre at Jamestown.

1623 Wm. Blackstone, first white man, settles on the present site of Boston.

1624 John Lyford and John Oldham, two Episcopalians, expelled from Plymouth. Danes settle in New Jersey.

1625 Jesuit priests go from France to Canada.

1627 Dutch of New Netherlands form friendly relations with the Pilgrims.

1628 Rev. Jonas Michaelis, first minister of the Reformed Dutch Church in America, came to New Amsterdam. John Endicott settles at Salem, Mass., September 14.

1629 First Massachusetts charter granted, and John Endicott appointed local governor, March 20. Bahama Islands settled by the English in New Providence.

1630 Arrival of John Winthrop with about a thousand Puritans in Massachusetts. The organization of the town of Boston completed September 16. The first General Court, or Legislature, held in Boston, October 19.

1631 Arrival of Roger Williams in Boston and departure from Plymouth. New Hampshire named from Hampshire county, England.

A.D.

1632 Erection of the first church building in Boston.

1633 Erection of first frame house in Connecticut, near Windsor.

1634 General Court of Massachusetts passes a law to regulate dress, prohibiting short sleeves, etc.

1635 Massachusetts promulgates Bill of Rights. Roger Williams sentenced to exile. English colonists exiled by the French from the Penobscot region, Maine.

1636 Roger Williams founds Providence. General Court of Massachusetts votes a year's revenue to found a college. First assembly in Connecticut held at Newtown.



James Lawrence.

1638 Puritans found New Haven. John Harvard founds Harvard College.

1639 Constitution framed by the New Haven colonists, June 4. Roger Williams organizes the first Baptist church in America.

1640 Long Island claimed by the people of Connecticut under a grant from Lord Stirling.

1641 Colonies placed under the control of the Earl of Warwick, by the English Parliament. New Hampshire annexes itself to Massachusetts, and the union continues until 1679.

1642 Sir William Berkeley arrives in Virginia as governor.

1943 Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven form a federation, called "The United Colonies of New England."

1644 Parliament grants to Roger Williams and others a charter for Rhode Island, with full power "to rule themselves."

1645 A ship leaves Salem, Mass., for Guinea, Africa, to bring a cargo of slaves, the first direct slave-trade between New England and Africa.

1646 The General Court of Massachusetts repudiates the paramount authority of the English Parliament, November.

1647 Peter Stuyvesant arrives in New Netherlands as governor, May.

1648 Margaret Jones is executed for witchcraft.

1649 Bigotry and persecution reign in the colony of Massachusetts.

1650 The Connecticut Assembly prohibits the use of tobacco to persons under 20, and to others not used to it, without a physician's certificate and a license.

1651 Mr. and Mrs. Carrington executed at Stratford, Conn., for witchcraft.

1652 Massachusetts annexes Maine as far as Casco Bay.

1653 Goody Knapp executed at Fairfield, Conn., for witchcraft.

1654 Imprisonment for debt instituted in Massachusetts. Peace between the French in Canada and the five nations.

1656 Persecution of Quakers in Massachusetts and expulsion from the colony.

1658 The General Court of Massachusetts claims the right to silence any person not ordained.

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A.D.

1659 Two Quakers are hanged in Massachusetts for returning to the colony after being banished.

1660 Mary Dyer is hanged at Boston as a Quaker, June 1.

1662 Charles II. grants a charter for Connecticut. The Virginia Assembly establishes the Church of England.

1663 John Eliot publishes at Cambridge, Mass., his translation of the Old Testament into the Massachusetts-Indian dialect.

1664 Rhode Island Assembly affirms the principle of intellectual liberty to men of every creed.

1669 La Salle ascends Lake Ontario and the Niagara river, reaches Lake Erie, and descends the Ohio as far as Louisville



Isaac Hull.

1671 George Fox, founder of the Quakers, visits the American colonies.

1673 Marquette and Louis Joliet descend the Wisconsin and discover the northern Mississippi.

1675 Marquette goes to Kaskaskia to preach to the Indians. On his way back to Mackinaw he dies at the river "Marquette," Mich., May 18.

1676 End of King Philip's war in New England, by the defeat of the Indians.

1678 La Salle returns from France to Canada with Tonti as his lieutenant.

1681 Charles II. grants to William Penn a patent for the territory north of Maryland and west of the Delaware, which the king calls Pennsylvania.

1682 Penn publishes a frame of government for Pennsylvania, subject to the approval of the colonists.

1685 Large Scotch emigration to East New Jersey.

1686 English traders penetrate from New York as far as Mackinaw.

1687 La Salle and his men murdered by mutineers. March 30. James II. still seeks to levy a tax on the commerce of both New Jerseys.

1688 Both New Jerseys added to New York.

1689 Mason sells New Hampshire to Samuel Allen, of London.

1691 Delaware secedes from Pennsylvania.

1692 A new charter granted in Massachusetts by William III.

1693 The founding of the College of William and Mary near Williamsburg, Va , the second in the United States.

1695 Establishment of the public post between Philadelphia and the Potomac to send letters eight times a year.

1696 Emigration of the New England settlers to Southern Carolina.

1697 The assembly of Southern Carolina enfranchises the Huguenots and tolerates all Christians except Roman Catholics.

1699 Bienville explores the forks of the Mississippi.

1700 The French and the Five Nations, except Mohawks, accept a peace at Montreal.

A.D.

Yale College founded at Saybrook, Conn., November 11. Chartered October 9, 1701.

1701 Detroit founded by La Motte Cadillac, June. Boston instructs its representatives to end negro slavery.

1704 The High Church Party in Southern Carolina disfranchises dissenters.

1705 First church erected in Northern Carolina.

1706 A French squadron unsuccessfully attacks Charleston (S. C.)

1709 The French and Algonquins, under Des Chaillons and Hertel de Rouville, destroy Haverhill, Mass., Aug. 30.

1711 Yale College removal from Saybrook to New Haven, Conn.

1716 Public bank established in Massachusetts.

1719 First newspaper in Philadelphia started

1721 Virginia, on account of the increase of negroes, imposes a tax on their importation.

1725 New York *Gazette*, a weekly, first newspaper published in New York.

1727 Population of the American colonies about 600,000.

1732 George Washington born, February 22.

1733 Landing of Gov. Oglethorpe of Charleston, S. C.

1736 Oglethorpe lands in Georgia with 300 emigrants, including Chas. Wesley as his secretary and John Wesley as apostle to the Indians. The Wesleys remain two years.

1737 George Whitefield visits Georgia, December.

1741 Massachusetts and New Hampshire divided. Vermont considered a part of New Hampshire until after 1763. Behring discovers Alaska and gives Russia her title to Russian America. He perishes on Behring's Islands.

1746 Sir Charles Knowles, the British naval commander, impresses seamen at Boston.

1748 The College of New Jersey (now Princeton) is chartered.

1749 Theatrical representations prohibited in Massachusetts and Connecticut.

1754 King's College, now Columbia University, opened in New York city. First printing press erected in North Carolina.

1755 The Connecticut *Gazette*, the first newspaper in Connecticut, published at Newbern.

1758 Church of England established in Georgia. War with France carried on.

1760 The French governor gives up all the other posts in western Canada.

1761 The Wilmington *Gazette*, the first newspaper in Delaware, published at Wilmington.

1763-67 The famous "Mason and Dixon's Line" run between Pennsylvania and Maryland.

1765 Colonial Stamp Act passed in the House of Commons. Meeting of the Colonial Congress at New York, which passes a "Declaration of Rights and Grievances," October 7.

1766 Founding of a Methodist Society in N. Y.

1767 Passage in the House of Commons of the revenue bill to raise revenues in America.

1768 Dartmouth College, N. H., is chartered, December 13.

1769 Refusal of the Massachusetts House of Representatives to vote supplies for the support of a standing army. Exploration of Kentucky by John Finley, Daniel Boone and others.

1770 John Murray, the father of Universalism in America, arrives from England.

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A.D.
1771 Dispute between New York and settlers regarding titles to land in what is now Vermont.
1772 Mrs. Ann Lee, called "Mother Ann," founder of the Shakers, comes to America.
1773 Emptying of the tea chests in the Boston Harbor by Bostonians, disguised as Mohawks, called the Boston Tea Party, December 16. The first steam engine constructed in America at Philadelphia.
1774 Meeting of the first Continental Congress, Georgia alone being unrepresented at Philadelphia, September 5.
1775 First anti-slavery society in the United States formed by the Quakers at Philadelphia, April 14 Meeting of the second Continental Congress in Philadelphia, May 10.
1776 Washington unfurls the first Union flag, January 1.
1780 Continued disasters to the cause of the colonies. Capture of Major André at Tarrytown, September 23.
1781 Great success of the American armies, for which Congress appoints December 13 asa day of public thanksgiving and prayer.
1783 Evacuation of New York by the British, November 25.
1784 Meeting of the Continental Congress, November 1. Formation of the Methodist Episcopal Church.
1787 Manufacture of cotton first attempted in the United States at Beverly, Mass.
1789 George Washington declared President of the United States April 6.
1790 The first patent-right-law passed April 15. First copyright law passed May 31.
1791 Vermont formed from territory formerly belonging to New York, and was admitted as a state into the Union March 4.

A.D.
1793 The 11th amendment to the Constitution adopted. Invention of the cotton-gin by Eli Whitney of Connecticut.
1796 Valedictory address to the American people by President Washington who declines to be elected the third time.
1800 Removal of the capital to Washington.
1801 Reorganization of the Judiciary of the United States. Naval war against Tripoli.
1802 West Point Military Academy established.
1804. Alexander Hamilton killed in a duel by Aaron Burr.
1805 Tripoli makes a treaty of peace with the United States June 3.
1806 First cargo of anthracite coal shipped to Philadelphia, but it cannot be burned on account of the open stoves in use at that time.
1807 First trip of Robert Fulton's steamboat, the Clermont, from New York to Albany. August. Trial of Aaron Burr for treason, and acquital.
1808 First settlement of Oregon by a fur company.
1809 Cotton duck, from which sails are made, first manufactured in the United States.
1810 France issues the so-called Rambouillet Decree, ordering the sale of American vessels confiscated by it.
1811 Naval battle between the U. S. frigate *President*, and the British sloop-of-war, *Little Belt*, off Cape Charles.
1812 Constitution captures Guerrierre. War declared against Great Britain, June 18.
1813 Continuation of the war with Great Britain. Boston issues its first daily paper, the *Daily Advertiser*.
1814 Insurrection of the Creek Indians. Naval war with Great Britain continues.
1815 Defeat of the British at New Orleans by Gen. Jackson, January 8.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

For those who wish to read extensively, the following works, used in the preparation of this number, are especially commended:

AUTHOR.	TITLE OF WORK.
Andrews	History of the United States.
Anderson	America Not Discovered by Columbus.
Bancroft	History of the United States.
Bigelow	Life of Franklin Written by Himself.
Bryant	History of the United States.
Bryant and Howard	History of the United States.
Dwight	The History of Connecticut.
Doyle	English Colonies in America.
Fisher	Colonial Era.
Fiske	History of the United States.
Gilman	History of the American People.
Greene	History of the American Revolution.
Hale, E. E	History of the United States.
Hale, Selma	History of the United States.
Hart	Historical Maps.
Hildreth	History of the United States.
Irving	Life of Columbus.
Irving	History of New York.
Irving and Fiske	Washington and His Country.
Kingsley's Novel	Westward, Ho!
Lodge	Alexander Hamilton.
Lodge	English Colonies.
Longfellow	Evangeline.
Lossing	Pictorial Field Book of the Revolution.
Palfrey	New England.
Parkman	France and England in America.
Prescott	Conquest of Mexico.
Prescott	Conquest of Peru.
Prescott	Ferdinand and Isabella.
Roosevelt	Winning of the West.
Shaler	History of Kentucky.
Shea	Mississippi Valley.
Sloane	French War and the Revolution.
Thackeray	Virginians.
Thompson	Personal Recollections—Washington to Lincoln.
Thwaite	Colonies.
Von Holst	The Constitutional and Political History of the United States.
Winsor	Christopher Columbus.
Winsor	Narrative and Critical History of America.

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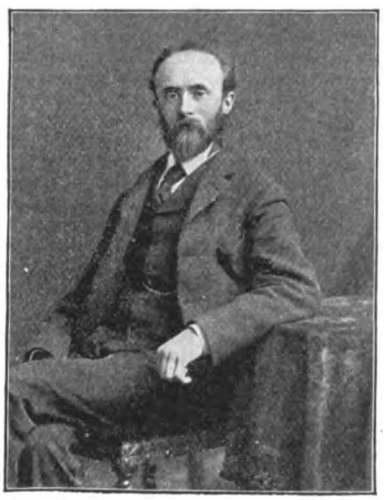
SKETCH OF THEOPHILUS G. PINCHES, M.R.A.S.

THIS accomplished scholar was born in London, in 1856, and received an average national school education. He also attained considerable skill as a die and seal engraver, by working with his father, who followed that business.

While still working as a skilled artisan, his evenings were devoted to the study of Latin, Hebrew and French, the two former languages being pursued under the direction of the Rev. H. T. Kingdon, who is now the Bishop of Fredricton, in Canada. He studied Assyrian without help, except the valuable aid which was derived from attending the lectures of Prof. A. H. Sayce.



Theophilus G. Pinches, M.R.A.S.

Nearly eighteen years ago, he was appointed to a position in the British Museum, where he still pursues his careful work, in the department of Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities.

Mr. Pinches was married about two years ago to the accomplished Miss Bertin, the younger sister of the late George Bertin, the well-known Assyriologist. The lady enters cordially into the spirit of her husband's work, and assists him in many ways, even reading and correcting the proof sheets of Assyrian inscriptions.

Personally, this quiet and scholarly man is a great acquisition to any cultivated circle, and he made very warm friends in America during his visit to the World's Fair and the World's Congresses, where a notable audience listened to his own presentation of his valuable paper. We are glad to be able to give our readers a fine likeness of him.

True greatness is always modest, and Mr. Pinches is the most unassuming of men. His great scholarship is never paraded in any way, but if a friend is in deep water, with a problem in French, Latin, Hebrew or Assyrian history, his wonderful knowledge of language and philology is ever at the disposal of the student.

He is also considered the highest authority in Europe, and indeed in the world, on the ancient Akkadian language, and has made many translations of these early and obscure inscriptions.

"It was all very well," says Mr. Pinches, "for the anti-Akkadists of the continent to say that there was no such thing as an Akkadian language—that the inscriptions said to be written in that language are mere cryptographs—puzzles, which the ancient scribes set their successors and themselves. Facts, hard, stony facts, do not bear them out. If there were Sumerians, and Akkadians,—and this no one denies,—it is only reasonable to suppose that they had languages, and they certainly had no use for cryptography.

"What king wishing the renown of his name to be spread abroad, and handed down to posterity, would write his records in a language or script which was bound to become so troublesome to read, as to practically make them sealed books to the greater part of his people, even though they might know the character in which they were written? The Babylonian kings wrote inscriptions for their own glory, and they were not the people to hide their light under a bushel.

"Now all the inscriptions from Tell-Loh are written in this so-called cryptography, known among the more reasonable Assyriologists as Akkadian, and the pictures, which we now exhibit, show what they were like, and with what painstaking care they have been carved. What trouble—what enormous trouble to take with a useless puzzle."

Besides the royal houses and rulers of that early period, Mr. Pinches has illustrated many other things by the light obtained from these long and obscure inscriptions.

He has given us glimpses of the religion, civilization, art, occupations, language, manners and customs of the people of that early age. We see, with his help, the beginning of their art and writing, both of them rough and crude, the art being stiff and labored, while the writing is in a sketchy and inartistic hieroglyphic form.

Although he has chosen for his especial field of labor, the delving into obscure and difficult subjects, he is nevertheless a prolific author. Among the more important of his books, we may note the following:

"The Fourth Volume of the Cuneiform Inscriptions of Western Asia" (new edition).

"The Fifth Volume of the Cuneiform Inscriptions of Western Asia."

"The Guide to the Nimroud Central Saloon."

"Part of the Guide to the Konyunjik Gallery."

"Texts in the Babylonian Wedge-Writing."

"Inscribed Babylonian Tablets in the possession of Sir H. Peek, Bart."

"Cylinder Seals and Signets in the possession of Sir H. Peek, Bart."

"The Ornaments and Bronze Gates of Balawat."

He has also contributed important portions of the series of the "Records of the Past." Some of these are:

"The Bavian Inscription of Sennacherib."

"The Oracle of Istar of Arbela."

"Assyrian Report Tablets."

"The Egibi Tablets."

"Sin-Gashid's Endowment of the Temple E-ana."

"An Erechite's Lament."

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"Babylonion Contracts with Historical References."

"A Text of King Ammi-satana."

"A New Fragment of the Babylonian Oracle."

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UNPUBLISHED MS. TREASURES (IN THE DEPT. OF EGYPTIAN AND ASSYRIAN ANTIQUITIES) OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

BY THEO. G. PINCHES, M.R.A.S., OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

Being excerpts from the valuable lecture delivered by the author before the World's Congress Auxiliary, August, 3, 1893. And revised by him with later notes for PROGRESS.

I HAVE been asked to write a paper upon the unpublished MS. treasures of the British Museum, and this task I have very readily undertaken, because it is one that I hoped would place at least a few new facts before the learned world—facts which, during my career as an Assyriologist, I had noted down, but had not been able to put into shape.

Though I was glad to seize this opportunity to speak of the treasures of the department in which I work, I found that the task I had taken upon me was not altogether an easy one. I saw at once that it would be useless to try to go through any portion of the 60,000 to 100,000 tablets and fragments in the British Museum (mostly obtained by Mr. Hormuzd Rassam) for this would be impossible in the time. I decided, therefore, to make use of such material as I had in the form of copies made during my leisure time

Among the "unpublished treasures" all the classes of texts hitherto known, are, of course, represented, with a few other classes of which no specimens have been published. Historical texts are, however, but few in number, and what generally constitutes literature proper—tales or legends, songs, hymns, poems, etc.—is exceedingly meagre.

Among the mythological texts are some of interest, though few that I have copied give any important information. The principal of them refer to Merodach, the chief god of the Babylonians, often referred to under the name of Bel, "the lord." He and his consort, Zir-panitum, are described very poetically in the text D.T. 109, which was bought by the late G. Smith in Babylonia. This text belongs to the class of ritual-tablets, and contains the hymns which were said by the priest known as the *Urugala* "great brother," or "protector," before the images of the gods. The most perfect portion of the text runs as follows (the "poet" is describing the god Merodach):

"He who crosseth the heavens, weigheth the earth
Measureth the waters of the sea, planteth the furrow,
He who dwelleth in E-bara-ul, the lord of Babylon, Merodach the supreme.
He who decideth the fates of all the gods,
Who giveth a glorious sceptre to the king who worshippeth him.
I am the *Urugala* of *E-kua;* a gracious word
To thy city Babylon is revealed;
Grant favor unto E-saggil, thy temple:
By thy supreme command, O lord of the great gods,
Before the sons of Babylon let there be light (?) "*

The affection with which the Babylonians looked upon the great city which gave their country its name, is well indicated by the above. The Babylonian was patriotic, with that same kind of patriotism Nebuchadnezzar shows, and which prompted him to beautify the capital of his country beyond all the other cities of his wide realm.

Another tablet (K. 2854) refers to Merodach under the name of Asari, which has been compared by the Rev. C. J. Ball and Prof. Hommel with the Egyptian Osiris. In this text he is called maker of grain and seed (*seam u kê*). director of the mind of Anu and Bel, whose nourisher he was (*su-ma zanin-sunu*). The words "Angrily may he advance," in line 12, recall the statement as to Merodach being an angry god, which occurs in the Babylonian creation story. K. 2854 contains also other interesting phrases, but they are unfortunately incomplete.

Kindred subjects to these are the tablets of prayers. They are addressed to various gods and goddesses, Istar being a great favorite, though Samas and Addu, or Rammānu (Hadad or Rimmon), as "gods of judgment" (or justice), were often the objects of petitions. The following text (81-4-28, 340) is a type of a large class of these documents (the translation is not very certain in some places):

"O Samas, lord of judgment, Addu, lord of intelligence,
I ascend to you, I approach [you].
Glorious Nisaba (goddess of sowing), she who assembles the [great gods],
She who speaks to the gods (who are) judges:
Let the great gods assemble, let the gods, the judges, declare judgment (*likrâ*).
Samas and Addu thus.

"O Samas, lord of judgment, Addu, lord of intelligence,
There is set for you the domain (?) of the ocean, the vast sea.
The offering of the people is placed before you.
Decree ye to the judge faithful judgment—ye shall decree whatever is right.
Judge ye—ye shall judge heaven and earth
Decree ye—ye shall decree (that) the king shall grow old, active and devout.
Samas and Addu shall speak; by judgment they shall act.
* * * I will do homage—let righteousness be."

"Prayer (when) water as an offering is poured out."

S. 802 is a similar text from Kouyunjik. The following is an interesting paragraph:

"O Samas, lord of judgment, Addu, lord [of intelligence]—
Enter, Samas, lord of judgment; enter, Addu, lord [of intelligence];
Enter, Sin, lord of the crown; enter, Nergal, lord of the [weapon ?];
Enter, Istar, lady of battle;
Enter, Iskhara, lady of judgment and . . .
Enter, Ni-serua, favorite (?) of the great gods,
Beloved of Anu; enter, O great gods.
In my speech in the work (?) of my hand, in whatever I do,
And . . . I will do homage—let righteousness be."

[Prayer] when the cedar in the *kukur-ga* is planted.

The Babylonians were not selfish, either, in their prayers; they knew how to wish others well. One of the most interesting texts is K. 2279, S. 675, and S. 2152. According to Bezold, it is not published. As will be seen, it is, literally, a "Tablet of Good Wishes." Where the lines become perfect, it reads:

"May thy servant be industrious;
May thy cattle be . . . ;
May the resting-place of thine oxen be broad;
May the fold of thy sheep be wide;

* This text has since been published by Prof. Craig, of Michigan, in his *Assyrian and Babylonian Religious Texts*, Vol. I., pl. 1.

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May the bearing of thine oxen be constant;
May the bearing of thy sheep be continuous."

* * * * * * * * *

"In the day of pestilence may he (God) protect thee;
By the word of the incantation may he save thee;
By the word of god and king may he preserve thee;
In thy mouth may there be perfection of speech (*lû asim dababu*);
In thine eye may there be brightness of sight (*lû namir nitlu*);
In thine ear may there be a spirit of hearing (*lû kirub nismû*);
In thine arms may there be strength (?);
In thy feet may there be power.
The moon-god the king may he be thy [pro]tector;
May thy preserver be Ninip the warrior;
May Merodach be the lover of thy life (*murîm napisti-ka*);
The strengthener of thy house, may it be Bau."

Several more lines, most of them imperfect, follow. It is to be noted that the "spirit of hearing," *kirub nismû*, quoted above, is in reality the "CHERUB of hearing," and is an important passage for that word, showing that it is of Babylonian origin, and implying that it was not applied, as has been thought, to the great winged lions and bulls which adorned the gateways of the Assyrian palaces.

Of the texts giving incantations I choose Rm. 2, 149, which treats of scorpions and their stings. It contains a fair description of one of these creatures. "Her horns are set like those of a mountain bull (*kima rêmi sadê*), her tail curves like that of a mighty lion (*kima nêsi gasri*)." Directions are given in the next paragraph to ease the sting of a scorpion (*zikit zukakipi pussuhi*). These seem to have required that a man should put 7 grains of silver and a mountain plant to his mouth, and that he should go down to the river (*ana nâri urad*) and bathe (*?rikumbu*) 7 times (*sibit su*). The text is imperfect, however, and therefore uncertain, but it is of great interest on account of the subject-matter.

So much for the superstition of the Babylonians, of which we shall probably have, later on, to speak again. We now come to those tablets which reveal to us the practical side of their religion. These texts, which are to be numbered by thousands, are too numerous to speak of individually, and as many specimens of them have been published, they only technically fall under the category of "unpublished" documents. We learn from them how religious the Babylonian was, how he constantly was under the necessity of paying dues, customs, and tithes to the great temples of the land. These customs and tithes were generally paid in kind, and consisted of the natural produce of the land (farm-produce and live stock) and manufactured articles, of which last woven stuffs, one of the specialties of Sippara, the great center of the Babylonian weaving-industry, formed a principal proportion.* In Sippara the god most honored was, naturally, the Sun-god, but his consort Aa, and the goddess Anunitum, also came in for a good share of the reverence of the inhabitants. Besides Samas (the sun-god), Aa, his consort, and Anunitum, however, sacrifices were constantly being made to Rammanu or Addu (Rimmon or Hadad), Sala, Innanagistug and Innana-sattiki (forms of Istar or Venus), together with Anu (the god of the heavens) and the "divine daughters of E-para," the great temple at Sippara. In addition to the above deities, however, sacrifices were also made to the chariot of the sun-god and to *Bit-zikkuratu*, the great temple-tower in the city, built in the likeness of the renowned Tower of Babel. Many interesting details concerning the worship in the various great centers of religion in ancient Babylonia will undoubtedly be gleaned from the many tablets upon which the financial accounts of the great temples of the land were written.

Of all the noteworthy things pertaining to Assyriology probably the indications as to the religion of the Assyrians and Babylonians at various periods are among the most interesting, and a mass of material from as early as 2300 B.C. to about 400 B.C. is given by the numerous personal names to be found in the thousands of texts existing.

It has long been my opinion, and in this I am supported by the inscriptions, that the gross polytheism of the Semitic Babylonians and Assyrians is due almost entirely to Akkadian influence. By far the greater number of the names of divinities found in the inscriptions—and they are very numerous indeed—are of Akkadian origin. The purely Semitic names of gods are Nabium (Nabû) or Nebo, Tasmêtum, Bêl, Bêltu or Beltis, Addu or Hadad, Rammânu or Rimmon (another name of Addu or Hadad) Samas, and, last, but not of least importance, Ya or Yau (Jah). Now the name of Ya or Yau, which is undoubtedly the same as the Hebrew Jah, is not found in the mythological texts as the name of a divinity, but it occurs in a syllabary, together with its feminine *yâti*, as a synonym of *ilu* and *iltu*, "god" and "goddess." We may therefore conclude that this word Yau, used by the Hebrews as the name of their national god, had existed from a very early age in Babylonia, first, probably, as the name of a god, later as the word for "god" in general, to be afterwards completely displaced by *ilu*, pointing to the existence of an original supreme deity Yâ, and, also, by the fact that other gods might be identified with him, to a certain monotheistic idea, existing, doubtless, in early times, among certain sections of the early inhabitants of Babylonia, and held firmest, probably, by Abraham and his kindred, who came, as we know, from Ur of the Chaldees.

How it was that it was so, however, is explained by the unpublished text 81-11-3, 111*, in which text no less than thirteen of the principal deities of the Babylonian pantheon are identified with Merodach. One god was "Merodach of planting," another was "Merodach of water-channels" (="irrigation"). Ninip was "Merodach of *allit*," Nergal was "Merodach of battle," Zagaga was "Merodach of war," Bel was "Merodach of dominion and lordship," Nebo was "Merodach of profit in trade." Sin, the moongod, was "Merodach the illuminator of the night," Samas, the sun-god, was "Merodach of faithfulness" or "everlastingness," Addu or Rammânu (Hadad or Rimmon) was "Merodach of rain," Tishu (or Tispak) was "Merodach of the artizan," *Sig* was "Merodach of *kirzizi*," and Sukamunu was "Merodach of *pisannu*" (according to Prof. Fried. Delitzsch, this word means "irrigating-channel" = Pishon).

We see from this (and the tablet is not by any means complete) that a number of gods of the Babylonian pantheon were identified with Merodach, and it is therefore only reasonable to suppose that they could all be identified with him. A kind of monotheism constantly existed, therefore, in the country, and this fact explains the more uncompromising one-God worship of Abraham and his descendants, throws light upon the origin of

*I need hardly refer to the "goodly Babylonish garment," in connection with this.

* Now published in my *Religious Ideas* of the Babylonians. pp. 8, 9.

† According to Fried. Delitzsch, Dictionary, sub. v., this word means "strength."

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the name Jah, and enables us to see how it was that a Jew could be called Mordecai, the Babylonian Marduka, "He of Merodach."

I now mention a few of the tablets of a private nature which are often very interesting for such as regard the inner life of people—their manners and customs—as the most important thing to be studied—as, indeed, from the point of view of the true history of a nation, it is.

First, we have private letters, some of them of very great interest. These are long, narrow clay tablets with short lines of writing, enabling the reader to gather the sense very quickly.

In one of these documents (82-5-22, 882) a man writes to his brother (or, rather, friend) about certain property. He tells him that he had decided concerning it: "I have given judgment against thy brother, I have made your decision (=I have decided between you), and have written a tablet of judgment between you. Your property which remains, give a third to Nabû-zēr-ibni, and take thou two parts." There is more of the text, but the remainder is not very clear.

In another text of the same kind we find again a reference to property wrongly appropriated by those who, apparently, had had no right to it, and the owner writes, partly in a reproachful and partly in a remonstrating tone to his brother about it. He says:

"Letter of Marduk-zēr-ibni to Sulâ, his brother. May Bêl and Nebo bespeak the peace of my brother. Why destroyest thou my house?—thou goest before the destruction of thine own house. When thou hadst taken the responsibility of holding the field, my field was sold and the date palms which were growing (there) were cut down. And thou art happy in thine house! Lo, the grain which was sown in the midst, all is taken! Lo, I send to my lord: Come, hold my field and give me the harvest! Behold, the grain which was set apart (for me) is delivered (to others). Ikîsâ and Nabû-âha-êres, when they had acquired it, they took (it) away. Do speak to the judges about (it).*"

"Letter from Marduk to Dur-galzu, his brother. May Bêl and Nebo pray for the peace of my brother. Why do I not see thy messenger before I go down to Borsippa? When I see thy messenger, the *libbû*† shall drink wine. Let my brother cause one jar to be brought to me."‡

Apparently Marduk wished to hear from his brother because the latter was accustomed to send him wine. Not having heard from him he boldly writes to him asking him to send a jar. Who the *libbû* was is uncertain.

A great deal has been said about the "firm of bankers," descendants of a man named Egibi. This, however, as Oppert has all along contended, is entirely a myth. There were no bankers in those days. They were simply tradesmen in a large way of business and money-lenders.

The nearest approach to banking is probably contained in the following (S. +, 1072):

"Five mana of silver which Bukâ, daughter of Nadin, son of the Kaldu, had taken from Bêl-sunu, son of Addu-ibnî, son of Addu-êpus, and had entrusted (*tapkidu*) unto (*ina pan*) Nabû-âhê-iddina, son of Sulâ, son of Egibi, this silver, 5 mana, Bukâ receives from the hands of Nabû-âhê-iddina."

(The names of witnesses follow, but the date is lost.)

In other words, Bukâ receives some money from Bêl-sunu, and delivers it, or "entrusts" it to Nabû-âhê-iddina, from whom she receives it back again.

The question naturally arises, however: Is it really a banking transaction, or is it only the record of a loan recorded in politer terms than usual?

89-10-14,201 shows an interesting use of the word *korban*, which was taken and employed again apparently as a quadriliteral verb (*ukarbunnu* "they have given as an offering"). The text refers to bricks for building given by workmen, and is dated in the 34th year of Nebuchadnezzar. The adjective *kurbannu*, fem. *kurbannitu*, frequently occurs on tablet referring to the temple-offerings. The wants of the temples of Babylonia were, indeed, very great, and the people were constantly obliged to give things—gold, silver, cattle, produce, and manufactured articles—for their support. The following short inscription will give an idea of the majority of the texts referring to the temple revenues:

(1.) "8 shekels of white silver, 1½ shekels of standard silver
(2.) for the price of a sheep to Sumiddina has been given.
(3.) 1 shekel of standard silver for
(4.) the oil of the light of the house of Anunitum
(5.) to Bel-ittannu has been given.
(6.) 1 shekel ¼ of white silver,
(7.) the due of the *kîpu*,
(8.) which he gave for a sheep,
(9.) has been given to the *kîpu*,
(10.) Month Tebet, day 15th
(11.) year 22d, Darius."

We do not find, in the ruins of Babylonian cities, much of the furniture of the ordinary houses of the Babylonians, and in this Babylonia compares badly with Egypt. Lists of furniture, however, sometime occur and are very interesting in their way. On the tablet 81-8-30,350 there is apparently a list of the things which were to be found in a Babylonian house of the better class during the later empire. Among them are mentioned a couch, 2 chairs, a table or large dish, various articles of clothing, one of which seems to have been of Indian stuff (*ku-kura sasundu*), three objects made of stone, various pot herbs, etc, and two kinds of grain. An ox or cow seems to have been kept, hence the extra kinds of green stuff.

One of the customs of the Babylonians seems to have been the hanging up of inscribed balls of clay as charms in their houses. The inscriptions on these objects are generally mutilated and difficult to translate, but one or two good ones are to be found.

Of more than common interest are the tablets which show us the curriculum of the education of a Babylonian boy. A large number of tablets inscribed with roughly-written lists of characters testify to a study of the syllabary and long exercise in the art of writing. Having mastered the characters and their values, the student was set to study the Akkadian language by constantly copying out certain portions of the bi-lingual lists—generally those referring to the terms used in trade. He was set also to write long lists of personal names, so as to become familiar with the ideographic style of writing them, which made this portion of the Babylonian art of writing practically a kind of shorthand. Many of these lists of names are of importance, and give readings of ideographs not found elsewhere. In one case a woman's name, written in two styles (phonetically

* 81-11-3, 275.
† Or *narbû*, "greatness," referring to the messenger—"when I see thy messenger, (his) greatness shall drink wine. Let me have a jar."
‡ 83-1-18, 39, from Kouyunjik.

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and ideographically), is of importance for the last component part of the name of Sennacherib, about which there is considerable difference of opinion.

In addition to the above, lists of names of countries had also to be written by the students; after which he copied out extracts from legends, that of Sargon of Agadé being a favorite one. This latter sometimes gives us interesting variants to the received text. The ends of the tablets of the more advanced students generally give long colophons containing the date, and other details. Unfortunately, not one of these interesting tablets seems to have been preserved in a complete state, and the fragments that have been obtained are often much mutilated and exceedingly difficult to read. The mistakes which they generally contain are also, at times, embarrasing.

Among the contract-tablets dated in the reign of Pillipsu or Philip is one, dated in his 3d year. It refers to fruit, to be delivered in the 4th year of the same king at Borsippa. The names are all Babylonian, and the seals (which are not cylinders) show a "scorpion-man," and a winged horse, this last being the only indication of Greek influence. Nevertheless, we know from other documents that Greeks did settle in the country, and that they had intercourse with the natives. It is doubtful, however, whether, during the period of the Greek rulers, the Babylonians intermarried much with the invading race.

TUDKHULA, ERI-EAKU, AND KUDUR-LAKH (?) GUMAL.

By Theophilus G. Pinches, M.R.A.S.

HAVING been requested to say something about the above names, which so closely resemble the Tidal, Arioch, and Chedorlaomer of Gen. xiv. (notwithstanding a certain amount of doubt in the reading of one character of the last of the three), I give here a short account of the tablets upon which they were found.

The first fragment which came to my notice (Sp. iii., 2) is very mutilated, and it is with great difficulty that the text, as far as it is preserved, can be read. Eri-Eaku is mentioned first, but simply as father of Dur-makh-ilāni, and there is then a reference to the spoiling of some place, and to waters having come over Babylon (or Babylonia) and the great temple Saggil (a E-saggil). Afterwards we read that "the old man and the child [were slain] with the sword," and executions seem to have taken place. Then comes the mention of "Tudkhula, son of Gazza" (possible completion: *Gazzani*), and two lines farther on we read that "his (qy., whose?) son fell upon him with the weapon of his hand," in consequence whereof, perhaps "his (qy., the son's?) dominion(?) [was proclaimed?] before the temple (of the goddess) Annunit."

The King of Elam.—This is followed by a reference to [the king of?] Elam, who seems to have spoiled the city Akhkhēlal(?) and the land of Rabbāt, making them "like heaps of ruins," and taking, seemingly, "the fortress of Akkad and the whole of Borsippa(?)." We then have a phrase which seems to say that Kudur-lakhmal, his son (possibly the son of the ruler of Elam), pierced(?) his heart with the steel sword of his girdle, and it may be conjectured that he thereupon (as many another had done before, and would do afterwards) mounted the throne, and "captured his enemy." There is afterwards a reference to "those kings, lords of si[n]," i.e., "sinful men," but the text is, too mutilated to make a good connected sense.

The second tablet found referring to this period was Sp. ii., 987. It reads that the gods (apparently) "in their faithful counsel had favor for Kudur-lakhgumal,* king of Elam," who descended, and did, in Babylon, that which was good unto them (i. e., in their eyes) so the text seems to say. Dur-makh-ilāni, here called "son of Eri-Eku," is referred to, lower down, in connection with some correspondence which seems to have passed concerning their respective rights to the throne.

The Third Tablet.—The third tablet is a large fragment numbered Sp. 158 and Sp. ii., 926, and contains about 80 lines of writing, in many places in a rather defective condition. It begins by a reference to the spoiling of the temple of Du-makh ("the supreme seat")—apparently by the personage who forms the subject of the inscription—and the miraculous divine manifestations which took place on that occasion, when the gods were clothed with light, and flashed like lightning before him. After a gap, there is a series of paragraphs referring to the wickedness of the Elamite, who plundered the temples, and whose depredations were attributed to the anger and displeasure of the gods. In the fifth paragraph, and only then, do we learn who this wicked Elamite was—it was Kudur-lakhgu[mal],* "the doer of the evils." The next paragraph refers to Ide-Tutu, apparently a prince of Tiamtu (the shores of the Persian Gulf), where either he or the Elamite invader founded a pseudo-capital. After this the Elamite is said to have directed his yoke to go down to Borsippa, and then traversed "the road of darkness," which is further explained as *Kharran meskis*, probably "the road to Messch," destroying the land, subduing the princes, spoiling the temples, and plundering the people, whose goods he carried off to Elam. At this point the text becomes more defective, and then breaks off altogether.

The Three Names.—The Greek forms show us that Tidal is for Tidghal, and Chedor-laomer for Chedor-laghomer. The likeness between Tidal, Arioch, and Chedorlaomer and Tudkhula, Eri-Eaku, and Kudur-lakhgumal (notwithstanding the slight doubt in the value *lakh*) will probably be admitted as incontestable. Is it merely a coincidence that these names all occur together on the same tablet, or are they really, name for name, the same as the Biblical names which resemble them so closely? The doctrine of chances will probably indicate the correct answer.

*Thus, with the extra syllable. It is to be noted that Prof. Sayce reads Kudur-lagamar.

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THE WORLD'S CONGRESSES

OF THE

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

By Hon C. C. Bonney, LL.D.

CHAPTER II.

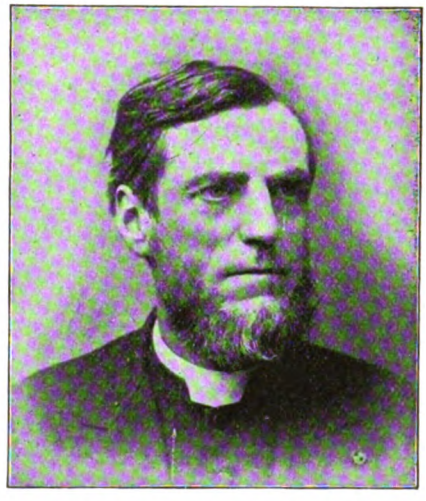
Introductory Outline of the Plan to Secure the Perpetuity and Extension of the World's Congress Work.

Original Idea of Extension.

THE inspiration which brought the idea of the World's Congresses of the Columbian Exposition, brought also with it a well-defined and definite purpose to secure the perpetuity of the work and its benign influences. It was accordingly announced, in some of the earlier documents issued by the World's Congress Auxiliary, that efforts would be made to organize a series of world-wide fraternities, through whose efforts and influence the moral and intellectual forces of mankind might be made dominant throughout the world.

The Congresses a World's Summer University.

In an address delivered before the National Educational Association, at Saratoga, July 14, 1892, the President of the World's Congress Organization said:



Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows, D.D., LL.D.

"These Congresses are planned to constitute a World's Summer University in which may be studied the progress of mankind in all the departments of civilized life. * * * As soon as the location of the Exposition was fixed at Chicago, it was felt that no material exhibit would answer the demands of the time. The intellectual and moral forces of the Nineteenth Century have become so potent and active that there at once arose a demand for their proper presentation in connection with the proposed Exposition."

A Universal Federation of Higher Institutions of Learning.

In a second address on the same day, before the Department of Higher Education of the Association named, it was also said that: "We have heard much of the federation of labor, and something of the federation of man; but the idea of a universal federation of the higher institutions of learning, is a new star in the intellectual firmament. * * * If asked to name the most important characteristic of the educational movement of our immediate time, we should, without hesitation, say that it is the impulse of the higher institutions of learning to carry their treasures of truth, accumulated through former generations, to those multitudes of the people who have hitherto been deprived of them, and to say, 'take freely, without money and without price.'" * * * * The higher institutions of learning which, through many weary cen-

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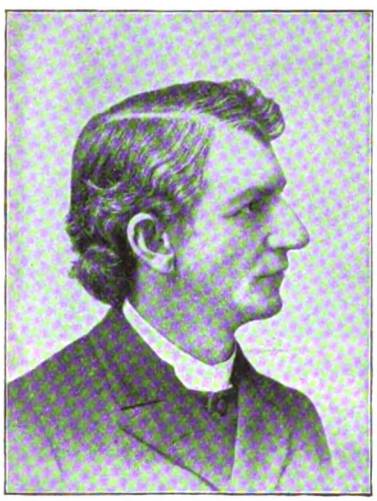
REV. JOSEPH COOK, LL.D.,
Boston.



JOHN M. COULTER, LL.D.,
Ex-Pres. Lake Forest University.



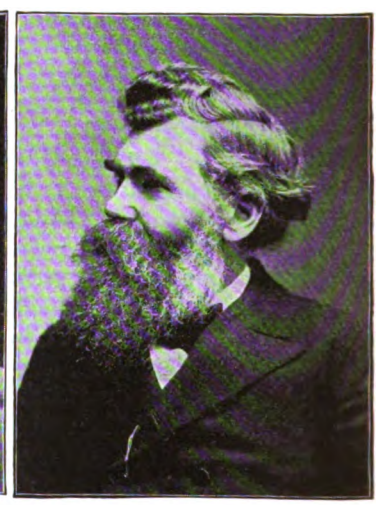
RT. REV. JOHN J. KEANE, D.D.,
Rector Catholic University.



REV. L. P. MERCER,
Member Gen. Com. on World's Religious Congresses.



REV. F. W. GUNSAULUS, D.D.,
Pres. The Armour Institute,
Chicago.



REV. JENKIN LLOYD JONES, A.M.,
Sec. Gen. Com. on World's Religious Congresses.

WORLD'S CONGRESS PORTRAITS.

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turies struggled, first for mere existence, and afterwards for enlargement, completion, perpetuity and power, have at last reached a stage from which they can go forth, like "armies with banners," to overcome the world of ignorance and superstition which lies around and below them. This is the secret meaning of the present world-wide movement which passes by the name of "The Extension of University Teaching." * * * * Before this era, not only were the higher institutions of learning isolated from the people, they were also isolated from each other. No common tie bound them in fraternal relations. But now the impulse to give the treasures of learning to the masses of the people, is necessarily accompanied by the impulse to bring those who are engaged in this heavenly mission into friendly relations with each other.

A Universal Fraternity of Learning and Virtue

In his closing address at the last session of the World's Parliament of Religion, on September 27, 1893, the President said:

"The establishment of a Universal Fraternity of Learning and Virtue was early declared to be the ultimate aim of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exposition. The Congress of Religions has always been in anticipation what it is now in fact, the culmination of the World's Congress scheme. This hour, therefore, seems to me to be the most appropriate to announce that upon the conclusion of the World's Congress series as now arranged, a proclamation of that fraternity will be issued to promote the continuation, in all parts of the world, of the great work in which the Congresses of 1893 have been engaged." And at the final session of the World's Congress Auxiliary, held in the Memorial Art Palace on Saturday, October 28, 1893, the President accordingly referred again to this subject, and said:



William R. Harper, Ph.D., LL.D.
President University of Chicago.

"In one of the earlier publications of the World's Congress Auxiliary, it was declared to be our purpose to bring all the departments of human progress into harmonious relations with each other; to crown the whole glorious work by the formation and adoption of better and more comprehensive plans than have hitherto been made to promote the progress, prosperity, unity, peace and happiness of the world; and to secure the effectual prosecution of such plans by the organization of a series of world-wide fraternities, through whose efforts and influence the moral and intellectual forces of mankind may be made dominant throughout the world.

"This declaration I now repeat, and in conformity with it proclaim the establishment of the World's Congress Fraternity, as the Universal Brotherhood of Learning and Virtue.

Membership of the Universal Fraternity.

"The original membership of this Fraternity will consist of the Officers and Members, the Committees of Organization, the Committees of Co-operation, the Advisory Councils, and the General Honorary Members of the World's Congress Auxiliary, and the participants in the proceed-

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ings of the several Congresses. The members of these several classes in any country, or city, or other appropriate locality, may organize and conduct Local Centers for the continuation, in any convenient form, of the World's Congress work, and may communicate with the corresponding classes in other countries or localities, and unite with them in furtherance of the ends in view, as occasion may from time to time require.

Mode of Proceeding.

In case of any future World's Congress, or International Congress, the organizations indicated may offer and give any appropriate and desired co-operation and aid, in conformity with the general principles and rules which have governed the Congresses of 1893. Additional committees and councils may be appointed and further proceedings taken, if need therefor shall hereafter arise. The present organization will be continued for fraternal and historic purposes, and for such further active work as cannot otherwise be better accomplished."

Inaugural Celebration, Jan. 1, 1895.

During the year 1894 much preparation and progress were made along various lines, and on January 1, 1895, the work of World's Congress Extension was formally inaugurated at a Reunion and Celebration held in the Chicago Auditorium. In his opening address on this occasion, the President again referred to the original purpose to perpetuate and extend the influence of the World's Congress work, and among other things said:



Henry Wade Rogers, LL.D.
President Northwestern University.

"Three years had been spent in forming a world-wide organization for the purpose of bringing all the departments of human progress into harmonious relations with each other, and thereby promoting the progress, prosperity, unity, peace and happiness of mankind; and we felt that we had no moral right to suffer this organization to be dissolved at the close of the Congresses, but that a sacred and solemn duty commanded us to preserve it, and continue its work. * * * It is now our happy privilege to declare that the World's Congress work stands to-day in higher esteem throughout the world than when the Congresses were closed, and gives the most gratifying assurances that it will yield bounteous harvests, in all its fields, during the coming centuries. * * * We have now assembled in a fraternal reunion to celebrate the achievements in which the gracious Providence of God permitted us to take a successful part; to send our heartfelt greetings to our brethren in all the continents; to revive the emotions of love and gratitude which their co-operation and aid inspired; to realize anew that when the time for an advance in the march of progress has fully come, the Infinite Wisdom and Power will surely clear the way for its accomplishment, and guide its course, and to resolve that whatever duties the future may have in store for us, shall be performed, not less efficiently than those which met us in the past.

Power of Public Opinion.

"We know that the greatest power of modern civilization is THE POWER OF PUBLIC OPINION, and we also know that by intelligent concert of

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action the leaders in the various departments of enlightened life can influence and modify, and even largely control that ruling power, and thus, by the operation of intellectual, moral and spiritual forces, accomplish results of great magnitude and importance. We, therefore, seek to make useful progress by the purification, the enlightenment and the elevation of public opinion, not only in our own country, but throughout the world.

"We would make the social purity and the moral power of which woman is the divinely appointed representative, as potent in public as it is in private life.

"We would make the public press more and more the voice of the highest intelligence and virtue, more and more the organ of that august public opinion to which reference has been made.

"We would exalt and enlighten all the useful industries of the world, and crown them with blessings and honors for the services they have rendered to mankind.

"We would establish between those industries and capital and commerce, relations so just and equal that it would be the manifest interest of each to protect and defend the other. We would find in a wise system of co-operation and mutual aid, a larger and more enduring prosperity than was ever attained by destructive competition.

"We would perfect the laws and reform the administration of justice and of the executive power, until in cities, states, and nations, the people will have ample cause to rise up and bless their rulers for the protection and the peace which they enjoy."



Cardinal Gibbons.

Eminent Participants in the Celebration.

Addresses were also made in furtherance of the object of the meeting by Dr. William R. Harper, President of the University of Chicago; Dr. Henry Wade Rogers, President of the Northwestern University; Dr. John M. Coulter, President of Lake Forest University; Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus, President of the Armour Institute; Dr. R. N. Foster, Chairman of the General Committee on Science and Philosophy, and Mrs. J. M. Flower, Trustee of the University of Illinois, representing the higher institutions of learning; by Rev. Dr. Frank M. Bristol, Rev. Lewis P. Mercer, and Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones, representing the Parliament of Religions; by Mrs. Charles Henrotin, Mrs. Elizabeth Boynton Harbert, and Mrs. Caroline K. Sherman, representing the Woman's Branch of the World's Congress Auxiliary. Messages were received from other distinguished participants in the World's Congress work, including Cardinal Gibbons, Baltimore; Archbishop Ireland, St. Paul; Rev. Joseph Cook, Boston; President Seth Low, of Columbia University; President Angell, of the University of Michigan; Bishop Keane, Rector of the Catholic University of America, Washington; Hon. and Rt. Rev. Bishop Fallows, Chairman of the General Committee on Education; Hon. Albert G. Lane, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, vice-chairman, and many others.

Before the close of the Parliament of Religions a movement had been

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begun, and a preliminary organization formed, to conduct the work of extending the beneficent results of the Religious Congresses of 1893, and the Committee of Extension has received many expressions of sympathy, and a desire to co-operate in the undertaking, from religious leaders in different parts of the world. The progress of this movement will be noticed in a subsequent chapter.

The University Association; Origin and Object.

Early in the year 1895, the Hon. and Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows, D.D., LL.D., Chairman of the General Committee of the Department of Education of the World's Congress Auxiliary, Ex-President Wesleyan University, Ex-Superintendent of Public Schools for the State of Wisconsin, etc., etc., formed a plan for a great movement in Educational Extension, in furtherance of the World's Congress work, by means of an Association of the Higher Institutions of Learning, and the establishment of classes at Local Centers, in suitable localities, to be instructed by means of lesson papers, lectures, etc., furnished in the several departments by members of the college and university faculties. This plan was so far matured and perfected that on August 12 of that year "THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION" was incorporated, under the laws of the State of Illinois, and immediately thereafter, active operations were commenced.



Mrs. Ellen M. Henrotin,
Pres. General Federation of Women's Clubs.

The Charter of the Association provides for bringing colleges and universities into close relations with the people, by furnishing through the faculties of the higher institutions of learning, and otherwise, systematic courses of reading and study, by means of leaves or syllabi, embracing all the different branches of human investigation and thought, thereby stimulating students to take college and university courses of study. The Charter also provides for doing all other things necessary or incident to the plans and purposes of the Association.

From the Prospectus for the incorporation, the following extracts are made to show more fully the general scope and purposes of the Association, and the harmony between the same and the higher institutions of learning upon which it chiefly depends for its support:

"The essential features of this work include, among other things, the establishment of more fraternal relations among universities, colleges, and the higher institutes and academies; the preparation of courses of study adapted to popular needs and conditions; the establishment of classes in such courses at a great number of local centers in all parts of the country; and such oral instruction by leaders and lecturers a· may be found practicable.

No Opposition nor Rivalry Contemplated.

"We do not contemplate any opposition to, nor rivalry with any of the established institutions of learning. On the contrary, we propose to perform the two-fold service of greatly increasing the dissemination of the higher branches of learning among the masses of the people, and thereby largely increasing the number of those who will complete their education in such institutions. We do not propose to make our courses of study a substitute for the instruction given in the institutions to which

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we have referred; but it is our purpose to make such courses a very important and valuable preparation for such instruction. It is also our object to make our courses of study extremely useful to those who, having been graduated some years ago, need to have their recollection of the studies they pursued, refreshed, and their knowledge of the various subjects involved, brought down to the present time.

"We think we are fully aware of the enormous difficulties which stand in the way of the success of this undertaking. We realize that some years, at least, will be required to bring about the general association of the higher institutions of learning which we hope ultimately to secure. We appreciate the difficulties of organizing the proposed classes in a great number of local centers throughout so vast a country as that of the United States. We expect that it will be necessary to bring foreign colleges and universities into our Association, in order to procure their aid in preparing the proposed courses of study, and otherwise promoting the success of our undertaking."

Extracts from By-Laws.

The following extracts from the By-Laws of the Association will further show the adaptability of the working plans for the service which the Association was incorporated to render:



James B. Angell, LL.D.
President University of Michigan.

Educational Organization.

"The Educational officers of the University Association shall embrace a Chancellor, a Registrar, a Custodian, a Faculty of Instructors, General Organizers of Local Centers, and such other officers, vice-officers and assistant officers, if any, as may be appointed by or under the direction of the Board of Trustees.

"The Chancellor shall be the chief executive of the Educational Department of the work of the Association; and *ex-officio*, the presiding officer of the faculty.

"The Faculty of the Association shall consist of eminent persons who shall be appointed thereto from time to time by the Board of Trustees, upon the nomination of the Chancellor. It shall be their duty to aid him in the preparation of the courses of study to be pursued under the auspices of the Association, and otherwise to assist him in the work thereof. The faculty shall consist of at least twelve members, and may be increased to any larger number by the appointment of additional members, as the occasion may from time to time require.

"The organization of classes, at Local Centers, for the pursuit of courses of study under the auspices of the Association, shall be under the direction and chief charge of the Chancellor. He shall appoint, as occasion may require, a State Organizer of the University Association for each of the States of the American Union, and such Local Organizers as may seem to be required for the establishment of classes in towns and cities of the respective states; and shall prescribe suitable rules aud regulations for the guidance and control of their work.

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FREDERICK C. HICKS, Ph.D.



WILLIAM CRAIG WILCOX, A.M.



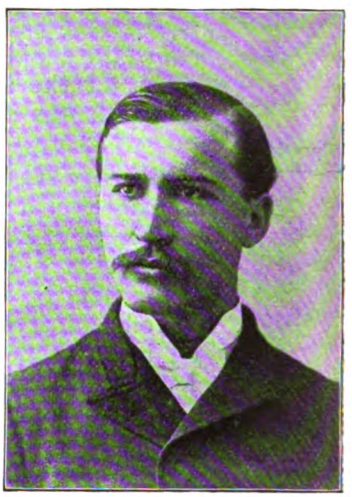
JOHN R. FICKLEN, B. Let.



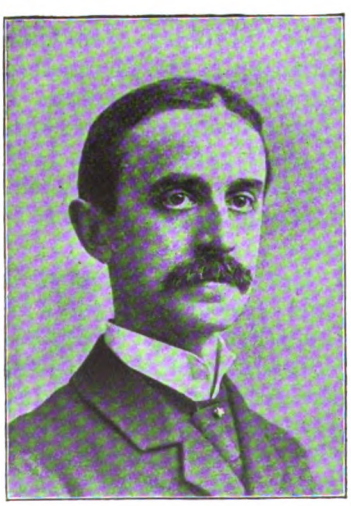
GEORGE EMORY FELLOWS, Ph.D.



KEMP P. BATTLE, LL.D.



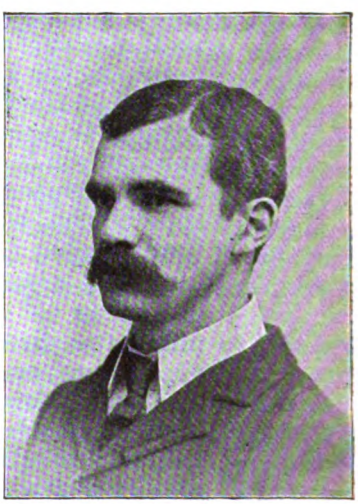
THOMAS NIXON CARVER, A.B., Ph.B.



GEORGE WELLS KNIGHT, Ph.D.



HOWARD W. CALDWELL, A.M., Ph.B.



RICHARD HEATH DABNEY, A.M., Ph.B.

MEMBERS OF FACULTY FOR COURSE IN HISTORY.

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Advisory Councils: State, National and International.

"To secure the general co-operation of the Higher Institutions of Learning, their advice and assistance in the arrangement of Courses of Study and the supply of Lecturers and Instructors, the Presidents, or other Chief Officers of such Institutions, and the members of the Faculties thereof, are appointed, subject to their acceptance, members of the Advisory Councils of the University Association, as specified below, without active duties, and without personal responsibility for the work of the Association.

"The Presidents and members of the Faculties of the Higher Institutions of Learning in any State or Province, shall constitute the Advisory Council of the University Association for such State or Province. Said Presidents shall also be Vice-Presidents of the National Advisory Council of the University Association.

"The Presidents and members of the Faculties of the Higher Institutions of Learning in the United States of America, shall constitute the National Advisory Council of the University Association. Said Presidents shall also be enrolled as Honorary Members of the International Advisory Council of said Association.



Hon. Seth Low, LL.D.
President Columbia University.

"To obtain, as far as may be practicable, the co-operation and aid of the Higher Institutions of Learning in foreign countries, the Presidents or Chief Officers, and the members of the Faculties of the Colleges, Universities, and other Higher Institutions of Learning in such countries, are appointed, subject to their acceptance, members of the International Advisory Council of the University Association. Said Presidents or Chief Officers, however named, shall be enrolled subject to their acceptance as honorary members of the International Advisory Council of said Association.

"The Chief Officer of the National and of the International Council shall be the President thereof.

Woman's Advisory Council.

"As an especial recognition of the advance of Women in Higher Education, the Chief Officers and the members of Faculties of the Higher Institutions of Learning for the Education of Women shall be enrolled, subject to their acceptance, to constitute the Woman's Advisory Council of the University Association. The principal officer of the Woman's Advisory Council shall be a Regent; and said Chief Officers, respectively, shall be Vice-Regents thereof.

"It is not expected that these Councils will have regular times and places of meeting, but it is hoped that they will be able to assemble on special occasions. It is desired that the several Advisory Councillors will freely co-operate with the officers of the Association by individual correspondence, and when opportunity may offer, by personal advice and assistance; and it is believed that great benefits will result to the Cause of Higher Education, throughout the world, from the fraternal relations which may thereby be established.

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Standards and Aims.

"The University Association pledges itself to uphold, to the extent of its authority and influence, the best standards of Higher Education in all the branches of learning. It will grant certificates only for progress actually made; and will trust that these certificates will receive the proper credit in all institutions allied with the Association.

"Each member of the Faculty of every co-operating institution is cordially invited to send, from time to time, any suggestions which he may be willing to make of improvements in the teaching of any subject in his own department; and it will be the constant effort of the Association to bring all the Higher Institutions of Learning throughout the world into more intimate and cordial relations, in order that all may have the benefit of the best attainments of each. In this way may be secured a constant approach toward a uniform standard of the highest excellence, resulting in important improvements in text books, methods of instruction and results."



Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M

In commenting on the organization of the World's Congresses, Mr. Francis F. Browne, the able and critical editor of "The Dial," and the efficient Chairman of the Committee of Organization of the Author's Congress, says that the work of making that organization, and conducting its operations, can be compared only with that of organizing a great University, with its various departments. The relation of the World's Congresses to a system of Universal Education seems to have been perceived from the beginning of the original movement.

Thus it may be seen that the World's Congress scheme was not only intended to bring about a review of the progress of the past and a statement of the living problems still awaiting solution, but also to result in organized efforts finally to secure the substantial unity of mankind in art, science, morals and religion. With this brief glance at the plans and purposes of World's Congress Extension, and the summary review of the World's Congress Work taken in the preceding chapter, we can more intelligently and satisfactorily proceed with our account of the organization and work of the World's Congresses of 1893.

NOTE.—As General Literature is the next course of the University Association work to be organized for the Local Centers, the historic connection of this work with that of the World's Congresses of 1893 will be illustrated in the next number of PROGRESS by a presentation of the Objects, Committees of Organization, and Advisory Councils of the Department of Literature of the World's Congress Auxiliary, as given in the "Preliminary Publications" of that body.

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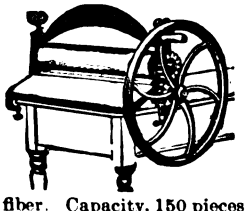

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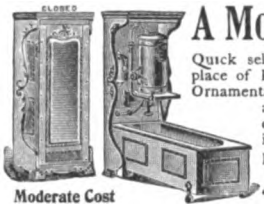

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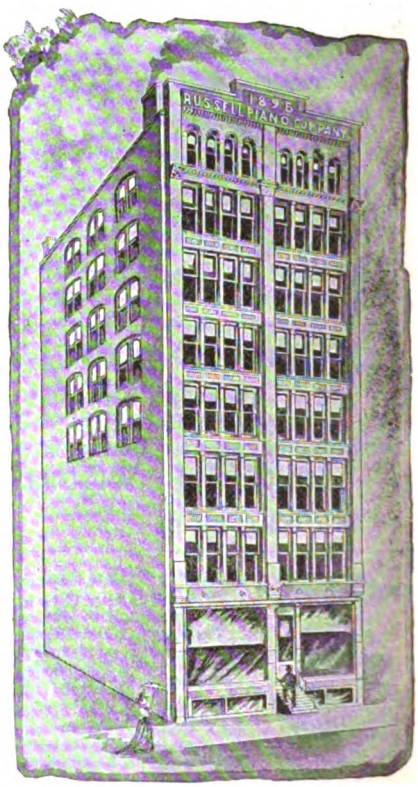

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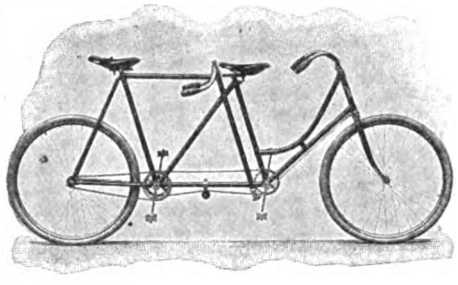

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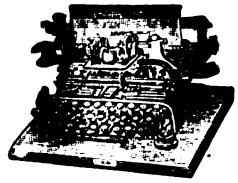

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To carry on the work of self-culture by individual effort, or in local centers or organizations, along the lines of High School, Normal School, University and World's Congress Extension.

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To aid the teachers of our Public, Private and Parochial Schools in thorough and systematic preparation for their important duties.

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UNITED STATES HISTORY FROM 1815 TO THE CIVIL WAR

PREPARED BY

HOWARD W. CALDWELL, A.M., Ph.B., Prof. of Am. Hist. and Civics. University of Nebraska

ASSISTED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED

1. INTRODUCTION. GENERAL OUTLINE.

ANALYSIS **of the period, 1815-1861. Three epochs distinguishable.**—(a) **The first epoch, 1815-1825.**—The first epoch may be said in general to extend from 1815 to 1825, and was characterized by a triumphant nationality. It was ushered in by the victorious conclusion of the Second War of Independence. This war not only confirmed the political liberty gained in 1776, but it went deeper, and established commercial and intellectual freedom as well. The nation was now ready to set up its own standards, for it had won not only its own self-respect, but also the respect of Europe. Like a young man, this new nation felt its strength and believed itself capable of any undertaking. It was now ready to turn to internal affairs, and, for the first time, began to examine itself to see what kind of a being it was.


Edward Everett.

(b) **Second Epoch, 1825-1845.**—From 1825 to 1845 was a time of transition. In the main the people were working out their industrial life. Economic questions, such as the bank, the tariff

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and internal improvements, divided them into parties. In this epoch the slavery question gradually forced itself into view and warned the people of a coming sectional struggle. New forces became powerful, especially those connected with an urban and manufacturing life. Industry was no longer simple and almost purely agricultural. A complex civilization was already well under way in development.

(c) **Third Epoch, 1845-1861.**—Between the year 1845 and the opening of the civil war the slavery question and the issues immediately growing out of it demanded the larger portion of the attention of the people. Sectionalism had gone so far that it divided the churches; to a great extent, business; and before the close of the era, parties. Concerning this question two peoples had been formed, unable to understand one another. The south had come to believe its peculiar system "a positive good," while the north was at last convinced that it was a political, social and moral evil. However, on closer examination, and on looking beneath this issue, there will be found a similarity between the two sections in general moral ideas, political conceptions and in race characteristics. This being the case, there was yet hope for a true national life, if this destroying and corroding factor, slavery, could only be uprooted. During this period an enormous immigration took place into the north which gave it a still greater excess of power and aided it in securing its triumph in the civil war.

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1. INTRODUCTION.

General Characteristics.—No one doubted that a change had occurred since 1798. The favorite state-rights dogma of that time had suffered irreparable injury. For sixteen years the national government in all its branches had acted, without listening to remonstrance, on the rule that it was the rightful interpreter of its own powers. In this assumption the Executive, the Legislature, and the Judiciary had agreed. Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, as well as Virginia and Georgia, yielded. Louisiana had been bought and admitted into the Union; the embargo had been forced; one national bank had been destroyed and another established, every essential function of a sovereignty had been performed, without an instance of failure, though not without question. However unwilling the minority might be to admit in theory the overthrow of their principles, every citizen assented in daily practice to the rule that the national government alone interpreted its own powers in the last resort. From the moment the whole people learned to accept the practice, the dispute over theory lost importance, and the Virginia resolutions of 1798 marked only a stage in the development of a sovereignty. . . .

In the brief space of thirty years, between 1787 and 1817—a short generation—the Union had passed through astonishing stages. Probably no great people ever grew more rapidly and became more mature in so short a time. The ideas of 1787 were antiquated in 1815, and lingered only in districts remote from active movement. . . .

Until 1815 nothing in the future of the American Union was regarded as settled. As late as January, 1815, division into several nationalities was still thought to be possible. . . . In 1815 for the first time Americans ceased to doubt the path they were to follow. Not only was the unity of their nation established, but its probable divergence from older societies was also well defined. Already in 1817 the difference was decided. In politics the distinction was more evident than in social, religious, literary, or scientific directions; and the result was singular. . . . —*H. B. Adams, Vol. IX., pp. 193, ff.*

National Feeling.—The war was renewed and reinstated the national feelings and character which the Revolution had given and which were daily lessened. The people have now more general objects of attachment with which their pride and political opinions are connected. They are more American; they feel and act more as a nation, and I hope that the permanency of the Union is hereby better secured. . . . I do insist on the undeniable fact that the national character has been entirely redeemed by the late war, and at this time no country is held by foreign nations and governments in higher respect and consideration than the United States.—*J. Gallatin.*

Monroe's Tour.—The president's tour through the east has produced something like a political jubilee. They were in the land of steady habits, at least for the time, "all Federalists, all Republicans" A general absolution of political sins seems to have been mutually agreed upon.—*W. H. Crawford.*

Effects of War of 1812.—The war had ruined the particularists; it had made all nationalists, if we may use the word. The bonds of the early days of the Revolution were forged anew, and the nation's heart beat as one. Patriotism and national pride had conquered sectionalism and personal selfishness. The era of good feeling had dawned. But it was the ominous calm that precedes the tempest. . . . But because the good effect of the second war with Great Britain was soon swept away by the slavery dispute, we must not overlook the fact that such an effect existed. The country entered the war distracted, indifferent, and particularistic; it emerged from it united, enthusiastic, and national. But the ebb was to be greater than the flow, and half a century was to elapse before the conditions of national unity, which existed in the years immediately following the war of 1812, were again to be plainly observed in our political history.—*N. M. Butler in Johns Hopkins Studies, V., pp. 274, ff.*

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1.—(*Continued.*)

General Conditions and Characteristics, 1815.—In a broad general way it may be said that before 1815 there was not really an American people. The nation was mainly colonial in temper and European in characteristics. After the war of 1812-15 it awoke to a consciousness of itself. The west was now a powerful factor and it had no traditions of an European connection. The generation now at the helm had grown to manhood since the Declaration of Independence. The victories at Lundy's Lane and New Orleans had aroused this new people to cast off the leading-strings of the mother country, in thought as well as in government. We must also remember that this newly conscious people had as yet no intellectual accumulations except in politics. In art and literature it had done nothing. In science, unless it might be in the line of invention, it had yet to prove its worth. In fact, we can see that it was a strong, overgrown, lusty youth, materialistic, honest, but rude and coarse, who bowed himself upon the scene and demanded a hearing of the world. This youth had already in his childhood made himself felt. He must now try his intellectual powers to see whether he had within himself the elements that would entitle him to live. In brief, then, the real American appeared with the beginning of this era. He resembled his European prototype, but was not he. He was a new being. His childhood and early youth were now ended. He had reached years of self-consciousness and was now ready to prove his manly character.



Oliver H. Perry.

1.—(*Continued.*)

Characteristics of American Social History.—The social movement was also decided. The war gave a severe shock to the Anglican sympathies of society, and peace seemed to widen the breach between European and American taste. Interest in Europe languished after Napoleon's overthrow. France ceased to affect American opinion. England became an object of less alarm. Peace produced in the United States a social and economical revolution which greatly curtailed the influence of New England, and with it the social authority of Great Britain. . . . The South and West gave to society a character more aggressively American than had been known before. That Europe, within certain limits, might tend toward American ideas was possible, but that America under any circumstances should follow the experiences of European development might thenceforward be reckoned as improbable. American character was formed, if not fixed. . . . Should history ever become a true science, it must expect to establish its laws, not from the complicated story of rival European nationalities, but from the methodical evolution of a great democracy. North America was the most favorable field of the globe for the spread of a society so large, uniform, and isolated as to answer the purposes of science. There a single homogeneous society could easily attain proportions of three or four hundred million persons, under conditions of undisturbed growth. . . . The want of permanence was not the only or the most confusing obstacle to the treatment of European history as a science. The intensity of the struggle gave prominence to the individual, until the hero seemed all, society nothing; and what was worse for scientific purposes, the men interested more than the societies. In the dramatic view of history, the hero deserved more to be studied than the community to which he belonged; in truth, he was the society, which existed only to produce him and to perish with him. . . . The history of the United States promised to be free from such disturbances. War counted for little, the hero for less; on the people alone the eye could permanently rest. The steady growth of a vast population without the social distinctions that confused other histories—without kings, nobles, or armies; without church, traditions, and prejudices—seemed a subject for the man of science rather than for dramatists or poets. . . . Yet history has its scientific as well as its human side, and in American history the scientific interest was greater than the human. Elsewhere the student could study under better conditions the evolution of the individual, but nowhere could he study so well the evolution of a race. The interest of such a subject exceeded that of any other branch of science, for it brought mankind within sight of its own end. . . . Whether the figures of history were treated as heroes or types, they must be taken to represent the people. American types were especially worth study if they were to represent the greatest democratic evolution the world could know. Readers might judge for themselves what share the individual possessed in creating or shaping the nation; but whether it was small or great, the nation could be understood only by studying the individual. For that reason, in the history of Jefferson or Madison, individuals retained their old interests as types of character, if not as sources of power.—*H. B. Adams, Vol. IX., pp. 221, ff.*

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2. GEOGRAPHY.

1. **Areas and Boundaries.**—The area of the United States in 1815 was approximately 2,000,000 square miles, including Oregon, which was in dispute with England. The natural boundaries of the United States were incomplete. In the southeast Florida was still held by Spain. Whether Texas was a part of this country or of Spain was an undecided question. The Rocky Mountains on the west separated us from Spanish possessions, but also kept us from the Pacific Ocean, which must be gained if we were ever to play the part of a world power. Thus the fact that our boundary lines were not in harmony with nature invited to war and conquest. This period saw these inharmonious conditions rectified and more natural boundaries secured. Our "manifest destiny" worked out a solution of the problem. By 1861 our area had expanded to about 2,970,000 square miles, and our boundaries had reached a natural resting place on the north and the south, as well as on the east and on the west.

2. **Physiographic Sections.**—Elevation, moisture, and temperature naturally divide the Union into several districts, with different characteristics. (*a*) The Atlantic sea-coast region is narrow at the north, and gradually widens as we go south, till it finally merges itself into (*b*) the second district, consisting of low lands extending along the Gulf of Mexico. (*c*) The third, the Mississippi valley, is the largest of these divisions. It may be subdivided into several sections: (1) the northeastern, originally covered with forests and having a heavy rainfall; (2) the northwestern, a treeless plain, wind-swept and comparatively dry—a section seemingly set aside for the creation of nervous energy and perhaps of nervous exhaustion; (3) the third section lies south of these two, and, covered with timber, is moist and hot—a prolific section, but less productive of energy and less healthful. The second of these divisions was just beginning to play a part in 1861. (*d*) The fourth, the Appalachian region, lies between (*a*) and (*c*), and is high and healthful, abounding in rich valleys and in mountains filled with the most abundant mineral deposits. These four physiographic sections constituted the vital parts of the Union till just before the civil war. Then the two new sections began to come into notice—(*e*) the plateau of the Cordilleras and (*f*) the Pacific coast region. The latter may be divided into a northern and a southern section.

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2. GEOGRAPHY.

Effects of Physical Geography.— . . . I shall, for the sake of convenience, consider the United States as geographically divided into two regions. A line running north and south along the eastern edge of the great interior plains separates the whole country into two natural divisions, contrasting strikingly with each other in their physical aspect and their meteorology. . . . Climate irresistibly modifies men; and here are the most extraordinary differences in very restricted areas. If climate impressions are at the bottom of the dreadful civil collision between the southern and northern sections of the Atlantic region through which we have so recently passed, what is the future which must be prognosticated for the inhabitants of the Pacific, where such impressions must be much more abrupt and much more profound? . . .

There is, therefore, a tendency to disintegration of disruption of the republic arising from climate. Communities separated by many degrees of latitude become in the course of time antagonistic in their feelings and thoughts. . . . If, again, there be any political bond, such, for instance, as the institution of slavery, it, too, will act in the same way. But the growth of cotton and perpetuation of slavery were both connected with the cause that was establishing physiological distinction in the Gulf communities, that is to say with climate.

Uniformity of climate makes people homogeneous; they will necessarily think alike, and invariably act alike. In the north the alternation of winter and summer allots to the life of man distinct and different duties. Summer is the season of outdoor labor; winter is spent in the dwelling. In the south labor may be continuous, though it may vary. The northern man must do today what the southern man may put off until tomorrow. For this reason the northern man must be industrious; the southern may be indolent, having less foresight, and a less tendency to regular habits. The cold, bringing with it a partial cessation from labor, affords, also, an opportunity for forethought and reflection, and hence the northern man acquires a habit of not acting without consideration, and is slower in the initiation of his movements. The southern man is prone to act without reflection; he does not fairly weigh the last consequences of what he is about to do. The one is cautious, the other impulsive.—*Draper, I., pp. 45, ff.*

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3. **Topography, Climate and their Political Effects.**—The United States open to the north and south. The mountain ranges converge toward the south, but do not meet so as to cut off the warm winds from the gulf. The opening in the north is wide, and the arctic winds can penetrate far south in the winter. This latter fact brings frost with it, and thus dislodges the germs of contagious fevers from our borders. The general elevation secures health. The moisture of the entire region, east of the Rocky mountain plain, is great enough to insure abundant crops, as it falls upon a soil which, in the main, is very fertile.

The parallelism of the Atlantic coast rivers invited, in early days, to isolated settlements, and thus to the development of localism. In this later period the road, the canal and the steam engine had lessened or destroyed this tendency. The Mississippi river and its tributaries bound the west and the south together in indissoluble bonds. The railroad united the east and the west in interest, in feelings and in thought. Climate and soil were the main factors in developing a system of labor which separated the north and the south into two natural sections incapable, on this subject, of understanding one another. They also were filled with the idea that their interests were antagonistic. Thus we see that the west was drawn in two directions: by natural means of communication, to the south; by artificial ties, to the east. Its action would be determined by the stronger of these two forces. The south had not kept itself in touch with the economic importance of the railroad and the Erie canal, hence it expected that the west would go with it, by the natural laws of gravitation, in the struggle begun in 1861. There were many errors in the reasoning. But now it is necessary to notice only the one. The artificial bonds were the stronger. However, the need of the natural highway of the Mississippi was too great to allow it to be broken, hence, instead of the west going with the south, it would not let the south part from it. Thus the Mississippi river proved a powerful factor in preserving, as well as in forming, this nation's life. The railroad and the telegraph may be said to have been even stronger, and to have proved themselves, in very truth, iron bands of nationality.



James Monroe.

3.

3 **The Negro and Climate.**—Most unfortunately the institution of slaveholding found a permanent place in one-half of our territory, and through its immediate and secondary effects, turned the minds of the people in that part of the country almost altogether back toward the more ancient ideals of the race. The conception of local government and of allegiance to the commonwealth in which the individual was born, the state of mind of the master sending down commands to subordinate men, the idea of an aristocracy in which rights were inherited, all naturally came as sequels to this singularly dominant institution. In all that related to the development of society slavery completely mastered and controlled the minds of the landlord class throughout the South. . . .

Although the negro is the one tropical creature, man or brute, who has ever succeeded in the temperate zone, and although his success in extra-tropical lands has here and there been surprisingly great, he cannot endure the cold in the region north of the Ohio and Potomac rivers sufficiently well to make him a valuable laborer. It is true that some families of the race have maintained themselves as far north as Massachussetts Bay, New Brunswick, and Canada for several generations, but, on the whole, they appear to be less enduring and less fecund in the parts of the continent which are visited by severe winters. The result of this incapacity to withstand the climate of the North, was that slavery never seriously affected the agriculture in the so-called Northern States and that in the slaveholding states there was a territory next to Mason and Dixon's line where slaveholding was unprofitable except for purposes of domestic service.—*N. S. Shaler, in Atlantic Monthly Vol. 69, p. 248, ff.*

Geographical Distribution of Slavery.—"It (the slavery question) is limited for a moment. But this is a reprieve only—not a final sentence. A geographical line, coinciding with a marked principle, moral and political, once conceived, and held up to the angry passions of men, will never be obliterated, and every new irritative will mark it deeper and deeper."—*Jefferson, 1820, in a letter to John Holmes.*

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4. TERRITORIAL DEVELOPMENT.

1. **Acquisition.**—The acquisition of Louisiana in 1803 began the territorial expansion of the United States. Gradually the idea of extension took such possession of the people that no boundary short of the Pacific was satisfactory. The "manifest destiny" of the Union, it was urged, demanded that we should round out our boundaries to the south and west. In 1819 a treaty was made with Spain by which we acquired Florida, and yielded such claim as we had to Texas as part of the price. There were three objects in view in this purchase: (1) to secure the lands along the gulf for commercial purposes; (2) to destroy a place of refuge for escaping slaves; (3) to remove a cause of irritation with Spain.

The movement for the acquisition or annexation of Texas began as early as 1826, and never ceased till it was gained in 1845. The system of slavery had to have constantly more territory or it would die of suffocation. This fact was recognized early by the southern leaders, hence slavery furnished the prime factor in the struggle for Texas. In general the west joined with the south in this demand. However, the annexation of Texas in 1845, instead of appeasing, seemed rather to increase the appetite of the people for more territory. This was shown as early as 1844, when the Democrats carried on the campaign under the battle-cry of "Oregon to 54° 40′ or fight." Also all Mexican territory as far south as the Rio Grande and the Gulf of California was in mind. President Polk's diary proves that he entered office determined to extend our boundaries to the Pacific, and he succeeded. The war with Mexico, from 1846 to 1848, was necessary for the success of the plan, so it was fought. At last in 1848 the coveted boundary was secure, and the two great oceans washed the two extremes of our territory. The Gadsden purchase in 1853 completed the territorial acquisitions of this period. Various attempts were made to secure Cuba, but all came to naught.



John Quincy Adams.

4.

1. **Acquisition of Territory from Mexico.**—Even the senator from South Carolina, attached as he has been by party ties to the President, and therefore, as we may suppose, acquainted with *his* motives for *his* war with Mexico, was compelled to say the other day in debate, that up to that hour the causes of this war were left to conjecture. The reason of this singular anomaly, sir, is to be found in the fact that the President and not Congress declared and commenced this war. . . . I do not say that Mexico had a right to make war upon us, because our citizens chose to seek their fortunes in the fields of Texas. I do not say that she had a right to treat you as a belligerent power, because you permitted your citizens to march in battalions and regiments from your shores, for the avowed purpose of insurrectionary war in Texas; . . . Your people did go to Texas. I remember it well. They went to Texas to fight for their rights. . . . They were recent emigrants to that country. They went there for the very purpose of seizing on that country, and making it a free and independent republic, with the view, as some of them said, of bringing it into the American Confederacy in due time. . . . At last you are informed that Mexico will receive a commissioner to treat of this Texan boundary, if you will condescend to negotiate. Instead of sending a commissioner to treat of *that*, the then only difficulty between the two republics, you send a full minister and require that he shall be received as such. . . .

The then Mexican President, the representative of some faction only, was tottering to his fall. His minister besought Mr. Slidell not to press his reception then. He was told that the excited feelings of the Mexican people were such that he must delay for a time. To this petition what answer is returned? You shall receive me *now*; you shall receive me as minister and not as commissioner; you shall receive me as though the most pacific relations existed between the two countries. . . .

From this correspondence it is perfectly clear, that if Mr. Slidell had been sent in the less ostentatious character of "commissioner," to treat of the Texas boundary, that treaties and not bullets would have adjusted the question. But this was not agreeable to the lofty conceptions of the President. He preferred a vigorous war to the tame process of a peaceful adjustment.—*T. Corwin, in Congressional Globe.*

Object of the Mexican War to Gain Territory (see SIDE LIGHTS).

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5. (2) USE, INSTITUTIONS AND INFLUENCE OF THE TERRITORIES.

The territorial domain of the United States will be treated of from three points of view: (*a*) its use and management as property; (*b*) its institutions and government; (*c*) its influence on political and constitutional development.

(*a*) **Management as Property.**—Previous to 1820 the lands had been sold on time, and in general in large tracts, at two dollars per acre. The crisis of 1819-1821 caused a complete collapse of this credit system. By a law of 1820 the lands were to be sold, for cash, at one dollar and a quarter per acre. The systems of pre-emption and homesteads grew up gradually during this period. The pre-emption law of 1841 gave final form to tendencies which had been at work for many years. It was not till the last year of our period that the homestead bill received the signature of President Lincoln and became the law of the land. Also during the latter part of this period public lands began to be used extensively to aid in the construction of railroads and for other internal improvements. The plan of distributing the income from land sales among the states, advocated by Clay, became, for many years, one of the leading tenets of the whig party. Finally it should be noticed that at the beginning of this period the idea that the public domain should be managed with reference to public revenue was still dominant. By the end of the period these lands were to be used for homes for the people, and, through public improvements, to advance the common weal.



Andrew Jackson.

(*b*) **Character of Institutions.**—Out of the attempt to determine the character of the institutions of the territories came two of the great compromises of our national history. By the Missouri Compromise it was decided that slavery should be forbidden in all that part of the Louisiana territory north of 36° 30′. The basis of this compromise lay in the doctrine that Congress had the right to determine and control the institutions of the territories.

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5. (2) USE, INSTITUTIONS AND INFLUENCE OF THE TERRITORIES.

Popular Sovereignty in the Territories.—Resolution of the House of Representatives, State of Illinois, 1850-51. Resolved, that our liberty and independence are based upon the right of the people to form for themselves such a government as they may choose; that this great privilege—the birthright of freemen, the gift of heaven, secured to us by the blood of our ancestors—ought to be extended to future generations; and no limitation ought to be applied to this power, in the organization of any territory of the United States, of either a territorial government or a state constitution; provided, the government so established shall be republican, and in conformity with the constitution. . . .

Government of Territories.—In the judgment of your committee, those measures (Compromise of 1850) were intended to have a far more comprehensive and enduring effect than the mere adjustment of the difficulties arising out of the recent acquisition of Mexican territory. They were designed to establish certain great principles, which would not only furnish adequate remedies for existing evils, but *in all time to come* avoid the perils of a similar agitation by withdrawing *the question of slavery from the halls of Congress and the political arena, and committing it to the arbitrament of those who were immediately interested in and alone responsible for its consequences.* . . . You cannot fix bounds to the onward march of this great and growing country. You cannot fetter the limbs of the young giant. He will burst all your chains. He will expand and grow, and increase, and extend civilization, Christianity and liberal principles. Then, sir, if you cannot check the growth of the country in that direction, is it not the part of wisdom to look the danger in the face, and provide for an event which you cannot avoid? I tell you, sir, you must provide for continuous lines of settlement from the Mississippi valley to the Pacific Ocean. And in making this provision you must decide upon what principles the territories shall be organized. In other words, whether the people shall be allowed to regulate their domestic institutions in their own way, according to the provisions of this bill, or whether the opposite doctrine of congressional interference is to prevail. Postpone it if you will; but whenever you do act, this question must be met and decided. . . . There is another reason why I desire to see this principle recognized as a rule of action in all times to come. It will have the effect to destroy all sectional parties and sectional agitations . . .

Douglass in introducing the Kansas-Nebraska bill.

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6.

The Doctrine of 1820 was no longer acceptable to a majority of the people in 1850. In its stead a new one, the doctrine of "non-intervention," was declared by Congress to express the true principle. The steps in this evolution can not be traced here. It must suffice to say that it took place under the transforming power of the slavery question. In 1846 began a discussion in regard to the organization of the territory acquired from Mexico. The north was arrayed against the south, in support of the "Wilmot Proviso." After four years of discussion Clay's compromise was accepted in principle, and the doctrine of "non-intervention" was applied to all territory gained from Mexico, except California, which was admitted as a free State. But "non-intervention" had no definite meaning—it meant all things to all men; hence the question was not yet settled. Douglas' Kansas-Nebraska bill of 1854 affirmed its interpretation of "non-intervention" to be to give to the people of each territory and State the right to determine for themselves the character of their institutions. It also applied this principle to *all* the territory of the United States, not merely to Utah and New Mexico. March 6, 1857, the Supreme Court, in the Dred Scott case, announced that Congress had no constitutional right to exclude slavery from any territory, and that therefore the compromise of 1820 was unconstitutional, null and void. During the fifteen years ending in 1860, no other subject occupied so much of the time of Congress and of the people as this question of the institutions of the territories. By the end of the period four principal views were held. (1) The Republicans claimed that free territory could not be converted into slave territory, either by Congress or by the people of the territory. (2) The Douglas Democrats stood for the doctrine of "popular sovereignty." They affirmed that the people of a territory at any time during its territorial existence might introduce or exclude slavery, as well as any other institution. (3) The "Moderates," or "Conservatives," north and south, were willing to divide the territory along the former compromise line of 36° 30′. Those who cared more for the Union than for the settlement of the slavery question tended toward this group. (4) The Radicals of the south claimed the right to take any property, slaves included, into any territory, and finally came to demand the protection of such property by Congress.



Washington Irving.

(*c*) **General Influence of the Public Territories.**—This subdivision invites into a broad and interesting field. The mere existence of a wide *common* domain emphasized the idea of nationality. The constant westward movement into a new country tended to extend and to make deeper and more permanent the democratic ideas and practices of the people. The true national sentiment also came, in the first place, from the west, with its commingling of people from all sections and all countries. The state was to them of little value, the nation was everything.

6.

Abrogation of the Missouri Compromise.—The statement to which they seem to attach the most importance, and which they have repeated oftener perhaps than any other, is that, pending the compromise measure of 1850, no man in or out of Congress ever dreamed of abrogating the Missouri Compromise; that from that period down to the present session nobody supposed that its validity had been impaired, or anything done which rendered it obligatory upon us to make it inoperative hereafter; that at the time of submitting the report and bill to the Senate, on the fourth of January last, neither I nor any member of the committee ever thought of such a thing, and that

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we could never be brought up to the point of abrogating the eighth section of the Missouri act until after the senator from Kentucky introduced his amendment to my bill. . . . The principle which we propose to carry into effect by the bill is this: *That Congress shall neither legislate slavery into any territories or State, nor out of the same, but the people shall be left free to regulate their domestic concerns in their own way, subject only to the Constitution of the United States.* . . . These measures are predicated on the great fundamental principle that every people ought to possess the right of forming and regulating their own internal concerns and domestic institutions in their own way. . . . These things are all confided by the Constitution to each state to decide for itself, and I know of no reason why the same principle should not be confided to the territories.—*Douglas.*

Effect of Sectionalism.—When the people of the North shall all be rallied under one banner and the whole South marshaled under another banner, and each section excited to frenzy and madness by hostility to the institutions of the other, then the patriot may well tremble for the perpetuity of the Union. Withdraw the slavery question from the political arena, and remove it to the states and territories, each to decide for itself, such a catastrophe can never happen. Then you will never be able to tell, by any Senator's vote for or against any measure, from what state or section of the Union he comes. . . . Mr. President, I have not brought this question forward as a Northern man or as a Southern man. . . . I have nothing to say about Northern rights or Southern rights. I know of no such divisions or distinctions under the Constitution.—*Douglas, Works, pp. 223 ff.*

The Territories a Common Possession of the States.—Sir, the day that the balance between the two sections of the country, the slaveholding states and the non-slaveholding states, is destroyed, is a day that will not be far removed from political revolution, anarchy, civil war, and widespread disaster. The balance of this system is in the slaveholding states. They are the conservative portion—always have been the conservative portion—always will be the conservative portion; and with a due balance on their part may, for generations to come, uphold this glorious Union of ours. But if this scheme should be carried out—if we are to be reduced to a handful—if we are to become a ball to play the presidential game with—to count something in the Baltimore caucus—if this is to be the result, woe! woe! I say, to this Union! . . .

How, then, do we stand in reference to this territorial question—this public domain of ours? Why, sir, what is it? It is the common property of the states of this Union. They are called "the territories of the United States." And what are the "United States" but the states united? Sir, these territories are the property of the states united; held jointly for their common use, and is it consistent with justice—is it consistent with equality, that any portion of the partners, outnumbering another portion, shall oust them of this common property of theirs—shall pass any laws which shall proscribe the citizens of other portions of the Union from emigrating with their property to the territories of the United States? Would that be consistent—can it be consistent—with the idea of a common property, held jointly for the common benefit of all? Would it be so considered in private life? Would it not be considered the most flagrant outrage in the world—one which any court of equity would restrain by injunction, or any court of law in the land would overrule? . . .

Sir, here let us say a word as to the compromise line. I have always considered it as a great error—highly injurious to the South, because it surrendered, for mere temporary purposes, those high principles of the Constitution upon which I think we ought to stand. I am against any compromise line. Yet I would have been willing to acquiesce in a continuation of the Missouri compromise, in order to preserve, under the present trying circumstances, the peace of the country. One of the resolutions in the House, to that effect, was offered at my suggestion. I said to a friend there, "Let us not be disturbers of this Union. Abhorrent to my feelings as is that compromise line, let it be adhered to in good faith; and if the other portions of the Union are willing to stand by it, let us not refuse to stand by it. It has kept peace for some time, and, in the present circumstances, perhaps, it would be better to be continued as it is." But it was voted down by a decided majority. It was renewed by a gentleman from a non-slaveholding state, and again voted down by a light majority.—*Calhoun, Works, IV., 343. ff.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **AMERICAN HISTORY.**—Introduction, General Outline (1).—Analysis of the Period, 1815-1861, Three Epochs; (a) The First Epoch, 1815-1825; (b) The Second Epoch, 1825-1845; (c) The Third Epoch, 1845-1861, General Characteristics of the Period, National Feeling, Characteristics of American Social History.
2. **GEOGRAPHY** (1).—Area and Boundaries. (2).—Physiographic Sections, Effects of Physical Geography.
3. **GEOGRAPHY** (Continued).—(3) Topography. Climate and their Political Effects, The Negro and Climate, Geographical Distribution of Slavery.
4. **TERRITORIAL DEVELOPMENT** (1).—Acquisition of Territory from Mexico, Object of Mexican War to Gain Territory.
5. **TERRITORIAL DEVELOPMENT** (Continued).—(2) Use, Institutions and Influence of the Territories. (a) Management as Property, (b) Character of Institutions, Popular Government in the Territories, Government of Territories.
6. **TERRITORIAL DEVELOPMENT** (Continued).—The Doctrine of 1820. (c) General Influence of Public Territories, Abrogation of the Missouri Compromise, Effect of Sectionalism, The Territories Common Possessions of the States.

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QUESTIONS.

1. *Into how many epochs may this period be divided? What is the basis of division? Why was there little real national life before 1815? How did the war of 1812 aid in developing a national spirit? What was the main characteristic of the first epoch? Why was there little sectional feeling as yet? Do nations have youth, manhood and old age? Did the people of the United States in 1815 thoroughly know themselves? Dates of the second epoch? Name the leading issues of the epoch? Why may it be called a transition period? What new interest came in to divide the people? Was the simple agricultural life of the earlier period a higher or lower form of life and civilization? What was the leading question in American politics after 1845? Why did this question now divide the people more than it had in the earlier decades? Did the South honestly believe it was right in holding slaves? How can you explain such a belief? Was the separation of the North and South fundamental or only on the surface? What differences can you point out between an American and a European in 1815?*

2. *What changes in the boundaries of the United States between 1815 and 1861? What importance that a country should have natural boundaries? Apply this to the history of England, of France, of Germany. Where did our country need rounding out in 1815? What constitutes natural boundaries? What gain in area in this period? Did it strengthen or weaken the nation? What was meant by "manifest destiny"? What means may a nation take to secure its "manifest destiny"? How far was the Rebellion due to natural causes, such as climate, soil, etc.? In what ways has the United States been affected by the existence of north and south rather than east and west mountain ranges? How did the Mississippi river help to nationalize the United States? How was the early colonial history affected by reason of the parallel rivers on the Atlantic coast.*



John Marshall.

3. *Are the present geographical differences in the United States sufficient to endanger its future harmony? Could the United States have existed in the 18th century? Name the geographical sections in the United States? Point out the essential characteristics of each? Would it be better to divide the country up into as many states as there are natural sections? Is the United States favorably or unfavorably situated when compared with other nations? Are natural divisions as important now as in former centuries? How do the natural features of a country, as mountains, sea coasts, plains, etc., affect a people? How does temperature, and how soil?*

4. *What was the first territory acquired by the United States? In early days what section was against acquisition of territory? What one for? Why? What motives led to the acquisition of Florida? What territorial claim was abandoned by the United States at the time of the purchase of Florida? When did the movement for the "reannexation" of Texas begin? What was the principle reason? What sections for acquisition? Why? It was annexed by "a joint resolution," not by a treaty—why? Was this annexation the cause of, or the occasion of the war with Mexico? What proof that President Polk intended to acquire California during his administration? What was the Gadsden purchase? What other territory was especially wished by the South during the years 1848-1860?*

5. *From what three points of view may we study the United States territories? When considered as property what various ideas had prevailed in regard to management? Was the plan of selling it at the highest price obtainable a wise one? Is there any connection between the homestead policy and democracy? Why was the South in general opposed to the homestead laws? Was the use of the public lands in aid of internal improvements expedient? How did Clay propose to dispose of the revenue from the sale of public lands? Was there any connection between his plan and the protective tariff? Was his plan constitutional? Why was Jackson opposed to it? How did the system of pre-emption arise? Has the public domain of the United States paid into the treasury as much as it has cost?*

6. *What was the first great compromise in regard to the institutions of the territories? What right over the territories did Congress assume in this law? Was there one compromise with two parts or two compromises? Under what compromise was Missouri finally admitted to the Union? What was Clay's compromise in 1850 in regard to territories? To what territory did it apply? What was Douglas's principle in 1854 in the Kansas-Nebraska Bill? Was it wise to repeal the compromise of 1820? What territorial decision in the Dred Scott case? Why was this territorial question so important from 1845 to 1861? What were the four principal doctrines in regard to control of territories in 1860? What argument may be advanced in support of each? How has the possession of a public domain helped to develop the national idea? In what ways has the existence of a "frontier" in the United States aided in developing the democratic tendency? Where did the American people (not transplanted Europeans) first find a real existence?*

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7. POLITICAL HISTORY.

1815-1829—Politically a Period of Transition.—The first years of this period in American political history were marked by the downfall of the Federal party. For many years previous the Republicans had been "Federalizing and the Federalists Republicanizing." During the years 1815 to 1825 the process of amalgamation took place. The Republicans in name absorbed the whole people, but became essentially broad-constructionists in the process. The Federalists disappeared as a party, and with them went the last vestiges of aristocracy and paternalism in government. The Hartford convention and the seemingly unpatriotic course of the Federalists in the war of 1812 gave the final stroke to the Federal party. However, the real inner cause of decay was due to the fact that a new set of problems were now to confront the people. The reasons for the existence of the old parties had passed away, and therefore a reorganization was necessary.

During Monroe's administration local questions were the only ones dividing the people. New national issues were in process of preparation, but were not formulated. The so-called "Era of Good Feeling" existed, but in the main it is a misnomer, for, while national parties were in abeyance, personal illfeeling and intrigue were never more marked. During the latter years of this era the people, rather than the Republicans, as it is usually stated, began again to divide into parties. The campaign of 1824 was almost entirely a personal struggle for the succession. Adams, Clay, Crawford and Jackson were all members of the Republican party. Adams and Crawford were Federal in ancestry, but for many years had acted with the Republicans. The following of each was determined by class or sectional ideas and interests. In the House Adams and Clay united; thus Adams became President and made Clay his Secretary of State. This raised the cry of "bargain and corruption." It also naturally led to a union of the "outs" against the "ins." Thus gradually Jackson's and Crawford's followers came together. Jackson in 1828 became the candidate of "the people." The idea of the Federalists that only the "best" people should have power, and of Jefferson that the people should choose the "best" for their leaders, now ended. The "fourth estate" seized power and put its own representatives into place.

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7. POLITICAL HISTORY

Political Effects of the War of 1812.—In a single day, almost in a single instant, the public turned from interests and passions that had supplied its thoughts for a generation, and took up a class of ideas that had been unknown or but vaguely defined before. At Washington the effect of the news was so extraordinary as to shake faith in the seriousness of party politics. Although the peace affected in no way party doctrine or social distinctions, a new epoch for the Union began from the evening of February 13, when the messenger from Ghent arrived with the treaty. No one stopped to ask why a government, which was discredited and falling to pieces at one moment, should appear as a successful and even a glorious national representative a moment afterward. . . .

At the close of the year 1815 the general effect of the peace was already well defined. The Southern States were in the full enjoyment of extraordinary prosperity. The Middle States were also prosperous and actively engaged in opening new sources of wealth. Only the Eastern States suffered under depression; but there it was so severe as to warrant a doubt whether New England could recover from the shock. The new epoch of American history began by the sudden decline of Massachusetts to the lowest point of relative prosperity and influence she had ever known, and by an equally sudden stimulus to the South and West. . . .

Between 1810 and 1815, great changes in the American people struck the most superficial observer. The Rights of Man occupied public thoughts less, and the price of cotton more, in the later than in the earlier time. Although in 1815 Europe was suffering under a violent reaction against free government, Americans showed little interest and no alarm, compared with their emotions of twenty years before. Napoleon resumed his empire; and was overthrown at Waterloo, without causing the people of the United States to express a sign of concern in his fate; and France was occupied by foreign armies without rousing among Americans a fear of England. Foreign affairs seemed reduced to the question whether England would consent to negotiate a treaty of commerce. . . . The message proved, or seemed to prove, that Madison's views and wishes lay in the directions of strong government. He advised "liberal provision" for defence, more military academies, an improved and enlarged navy, effectual protection to manufactures, new national roads and canals, a national university, and such an organization of the militia as would place it promptly and effectually under control of the national government.—*H. B. Adams.*

Future of the United States in 1816 (see SIDE LIGHTS).

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8. 1829-1852. THE WHIGS AND THE DEMOCRATS.

1829-1852. The Whigs and the Democrats.—From 1825 to 1834 was an era of political chaos. Parties formed and reformed. Membership changed rapidly. Adams, in favoring internal improvements, a national university, and the South American States gave an opportunity for the substitution of principles instead of personal passions. Jackson's triumph, in 1828, tended to consolidate the "conservatives" of the country still more firmly into the National Republican party, led by Clay, while Jackson's supporters began to be known as Democratic Republicans. Each claimed to be the legitimate successor of the Republican party of Jefferson. In the campaigns of 1828 and 1832 we had our first one-idea party, based on moral principle—the Anti-Masons.



Birthplace of Henry Clay.

Jackson and Clay were rapidly organizing their followers into political armies. By his vetoes of bills for internal improvements and for the recharter of the bank, Jackson hastened the reorganization of parties. Finally, by 1832, the internal development of the country had prepared the people for the next great struggle. Economic questions were now to divide the people. The bank, the tariff, internal improvements, money, the distribution of the surplus, and the subtreasury scheme were to be the important political issues. From 1834 to 1852 the two leading parties were the Whigs and the Democrats. Material interests were emphasized. The Whigs were especially the champions of property, its increase and its rights. To a certain degree they also emphasized the national interests more than the Democrats. The latter party was more a personal party; its members looked more to leaders. In theory, also, it stood as the representative of the rights of persons as opposed to the interests of property. It has been well said that the Whigs had the best men, but the Democrats the best principles. During the last few years of the period the industrial questions were of less moment. They had been, in part, settled satisfactorily to the people; and, in part, set aside by the increasing importance of the slavery and sectional struggle. By 1852 the two parties had merely an outward existence. Internally they were without vitality. The campaign of that year has been called the campaign of "tweedle-dee and tweedle-dum." Again, we have reached a point when there must be a reorganization of parties, for new issues were demanding a solution.

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8. 1829-1852. THE WHIGS AND THE DEMOCRATS.

Clay on Jackson in Seminole War. — It has been attempted to vindicate the general [Jackson] upon grounds which, I am persuaded, he would himself disown. It has been asserted, that he was guilty of a mistake in calling upon the court to try them, and that he might have at once ordered their execution without that formality. I deny that there was any such absolute right in the commander of any portion of our army. The right of retaliation is an attribute of sovereignty. It is comprehended in the war-making power that Congress possesses. . . . The prisoners are said, in those orders, to have been *tried* "on the following *charges and specifications.*"

. . . I deny that any commander-in-chief, in this country, has this absolute power of life and death at his sole discretion. It is contrary to the genius of all our laws and institutions. . . .

In regard to Ambrister, it is with grief and pain I am compelled to say, that he was executed in defiance of all law; in defiance of the law to which General Jackson had voluntarily, if you please, submitted himself, and given, by his appeal to the court, his implied pledge to observe. I know but little of a military law, and what has happened has certainly not created in me a taste for acquiring a knowledge of more; but I believe there is no

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example on record, where the sentence of the court has been erased, and a sentence not pronounced by it, carried into execution. . . . However guilty these men were they should not have been condemned or executed without the authority of the law. . . . [After discussing Jackson's reasons for seizing Pensacola, Clay resumes]: General Jackson says, that when he received that letter he no longer hesitated. No, sir, he did no longer hesitate. He received it on the 23d, he was in Pensacola on the 24th, and immediately after set himself before the fortress of San Carlos de Barancas, which he shortly reduced. *Veni. vidi, vici.* Wonderful energy! Admirable promptitude! Alas, that it had not been an energy and a promptitude within the pale of the constitution, and according to the orders of the chief magistrate. I approve with all my heart of the restoration of Pensacola. . . . The president has, in this instance, deserved well of his country. He has taken the only course which he could have pursued, consistent with the constitution of the land. And I defy the gentleman to make good both his positions, that the general was right in taking, and the president right in giving up, the posts. . . . Recall to your recollection the free nations which have gone before us. Where are they now?

Gone glimmering through the dream of things that were,
A schoolboy's tale, the wonder of an hour.

And how have they lost their liberties? . . . [Clay says by military chieftains, and then continues]: I hope not to be misunderstood; I am far from intimating that General Jackson cherishes any designs inimical to the liberties of the country. I believe his intentions to be pure and patriotic. I thank God that he would not, but I thank him still more, that he could not if he would, overturn the liberties of the republic. But precedents, if bad, are fraught with the most dangerous consequences. . . . It [military despotism] begins upon them; it will end on us. I hope our happy form of government is to be perpetual. But, if it is to be preserved, it must be by the practice of virtue, by justice, . . . and, above all, by holding to a strict accountability, the military branch of the public force. Are former services, however eminent, to preclude even inquiry into recent misconduct? Is there to be no limit, no prudential bounds to the national gratitude? I am not disposed to censure the president for not ordering a court of inquiry or a general court martial. Perhaps, impelled by a sense of gratitude, he determined, by anticipation, to extend to the general that pardon which he had the undoubted right to grant after sentence.—*Clay's Works, I, pp. 433 ff.*

Organization of the Whig Party.—The largest section of the opposition to the Jacksonian Democracy was organized in 1834 as the Whig party. According to the "Whig Almanac" for 1838, the party as then constituted comprised: "(1) Most of those who under the name of National Republicans had previously been known as supporters of Adams and Clay, and advocates of the American system [of tariff-protection]; (2) most of those who, acting in defense of what they deemed the assailed or threatened rights of the states, had been stigmatized as Nullifiers, or the less virulent State Rights men, who were thrown into a position of armed neutrality towards the administration by the doctrines of the proclamation of 1832 against South Carolina; (3) a majority of those before known as anti-Masons; (4) many who had up to that time been known as Jackson men, but who united in condemning the high-handed conduct of the executive, the immolation of Duane, and the subserviency of Taney; (5) numbers who had not before taken any part in politics, but who were now awakened from their apathy by the palpable usurpations of the executive and the imminent peril of our whole fabric of constitutional liberty and national prosperity." It was not to be expected that a party composed of such various elements would be able to unite on one candidate with heartiness; and, as the vent proved, it was necessary that some time should elapse before anything like homogeneity could be given to the organization.—*E. Stanwood, Hist. of Presidential Elections, Ch. 14.*



Henry Clay.

Parties, 1834.—By "Whig" was expressed the antagonism felt to the high prerogative or "Tory" doctrines of Jackson—"King Andrew," as his enemies now called him—who seemed to have usurped all the functious of state like an absolute monarch. The name pleased the Federal families of New England, never partial to Jeffersonian traditions, and Webster himself had, in 1804, appealed in a Federal pamphlet "to old Whigs." It pleased the State Rights men at the South, for Hayne had used the word favorably in his debate with Webster, and so had Jefferson in one of the last letters he ever wrote. These Whigs of 1834 announced themselves the true successors of the Whigs of 1776, and likened their course to that of the rebel colonists. Their liberty poles defied the hickory poles. They chose for appropriate emblems the national flag, live eagles, portraits of Washington. In such a party Clay and the war men of 1812 were joined on equal terms by the sons of Revolutionary sires. "I have been educated from my cradle," now proclaimed Webster, with zealous pride, "in the principles of the Whigs of '76."

In general, the Democrats sided with persons, but the Whigs, on the other hand, leaned to property, to great public and private undertakings involving money and fostered by privilege and favoritism, and the men engaged in them. Their party, like the earlier Federalist, soon became the favorite of northern polite circles, of scholars, professional men, the rich and prosperous, tradesmen, bankers, of such as led good society or hung to its skirts, of capitalists and those who bask in the sunshine of capital, but most of all of manufacturers and merchants; classes intelligent, yet timid lest they should lose something, and disposed to personal schemes.—*Schouler, Vol. IV., pp. 192 ff.*

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9. THE SLAVERY PERIOD IN POLITICAL PARTIES.

The Slavery Period in Political Parties.—The years 1852 to 1861 were again years of disintegration and reorganization. The Know-Nothings, succeeded by the Americans, afforded the first visible sign of the breaking up process. This party, founded on a wrong principle, could not long endure in the free atmosphere of America. It served, however, as a means for the destruction of the two old parties. Thousands of men passed through it into the Republican party who would not otherwise have left their old parties. It hastened the reorganization of parties founded on the slavery question, and, in great part, sectional in organization. The Republican party, the outcome of all this movement, was composite—a union of Free-Soilers and Anti-Slavery Democrats with the larger part of the northern Whigs.

By 1860 there were four distinct political ideas which found expression in as many parties or fragments of parties. The Republicans were the most solidified and stood for one idea—the non-extension of slavery. The Union party represented those who clung to the spirit of the constitution of 1787—a compromise constitution. They were willing to be oblivious of the slavery question for the sake of the Union. The Democrats were divided. Douglas and the northern Democrats were for ignoring the question as a national issue, and believed in referring the whole subject to the people of the territories for adjustment. The southern Democrats demanded positive rights in the territories, these rights to be protected by Congressional action, if necessary. They stood also for the doctrine that slavery was a "positive good," hence were ready, even anxious to see it extended and perpetuated.

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9. THE SLAVERY PERIOD IN POLITICAL PARTIES.

Right of Petition.—Well, sir, what becomes of these incendiary pamphlets, these speeches if they go to the public? What will be done with them by the public press? The newspapers report these speeches; every speech is circulated through your whole country; and how can you arrest it? Will you introduce a resolution that members of this house shall not speak a word in derogation of the sublime merits of slavery? You must have a resolution of this kind, to follow the one laid upon your table this morning—a resolution that no member of this house shall dare to utter an incendiary sentiment? And what is that incendiary sentiment! Why, it is, in substance, the contents of these pamphlets. Well, sir, you begin with suppressing the right of petition; you must next suppress the right of speech in this house; for you must offer a resolution that every member who dares to express a sentiment of this kind, shall be expelled, or that the speeches shall not go forth to the public—shall not be circulated. What will be the consequence then? You suppress the right of petition; you suppress the freedom of speech; the freedom of the press, and the freedom of religion; for, in the minds of many worthy, honest and honorable men, fanatics, if you please so to call them, this is a religious question, in which they set under what they believe to be a sense of duty to their God; and, however, erroneous may be their conclusions, it is not for me, nor for this House to judge them. Therefore, sir, in deference to what has been heretofore the usage of this House, in deference to the respect which is due to the right of petition, and the respect which is due to the right of freedom of speech, freedom of press, and freedom of religion, I hope that this petition will be left where it has been placed by the House, in the possession of the committee on the district of Columbia, and that we shall hear no more about it.—*J. Q. Adams, in Congress.—Benton's Debates.*

If they prosecute this measure in this House, by attempts at legislating us out of our rights, we will resist it here by legislative acts, as long as we can; and if at last they prove too strong for us, and succeed in passing unconstitutional laws, to rob us of our property, to murder our wives and children, still we will not submit; they must change the constitution before they can bind us by any laws of abolition; this they never can do, if the south is true to itself. And true we shall be, I hope in God, to our constitution, our wives, our children, and our country. If still they pursue us to the last, and attempt to do by force what they never can do by law, we will not be found wanting; we will not desert this capitol, nor this country. This is the Old Dominion; this land is ours as well as theirs; it was ceded by Virginia and Maryland, where slavery is tolerated by law. Shall we leave it, then, to the dominion of force, and that, too, inflicted by the unhallowed arm of the wild and worse than savage fanatic? No, never!—*Alford, in Congress.*

Now, in their denunciations of the north, it is these, the very primordial rights of the universal people, of the United States, that gentlemen from the south assail. They strike at the freedom of opinion, of the press, and of speech, out of doors—and the right of petition and of debate to this House. . . . Now, as I have already said, I hold the right of petition to be an original and unalienated right of the people of the United States, secured to them by the Constitution but not derived from it. I hold that the right appertains, not to the subject matter of the petition, but to the person of the petition. I hold, also that the obligation to receive the petition corresponds to the right of petitioning, since the right, without the duty, is a mere name and not a substance. And there may be a power to receive a petition without any obligation to receive it, or any right to insist upon its reception as a corresponding duty.—*Cushing, in Congress.*

Right of Petition (see SIDE LIGHTS).

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10. SLAVERY.

The Early Period.—In 1815 public opinion was as yet little formed on this question. No doubt the sentiment of the vast majority of the north was opposed to it, and of the south in its favor. However, the contest between the two sections had not as yet begun, and people had given it little thought. The intensity of conviction in the one section and in the other only came many years later. The material interests of the south were more directly and intimately involved in the system, hence that section first came to a conscious realization of its position. The close of the wars of the French Revolution and of Napoleon, and of the war of 1812 at the same time, in 1815, emancipated the United States from its intimate connection with foreign affairs, and left the country free to turn to its own internal development. Conditions were ready for the first contest. In 1818 Missouri asked for an enabling act. Then the question was, Shall she be admitted as a slave or as a free state? After a two years' contest Missouri came in with slavery, while the system was excluded north of 36° 30′, in the Louisiana purchase. This contest opened the eyes of the south, so that it never slumbered again. The north, as a whole, was only momentarily awakened, and seemingly hoped and expected that there was no "irrepressible conflict" in store for the Union over this issue. The way, however, was open for the abolitionist and the abolition society. By 1830 Lundy, Garrison and others began the formation of these societies and the agitation against slavery. Garrison's announcement that "slavery is a sin," and "the constitution a covenant with death and a league with hell," marked the beginning of a new epoch in the history of this subject and of the nation. The south soon recognized the new power at work and demanded its suppression.



William Lloyd Garrison.

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10. SLAVERY.—THE EARLY PERIOD.

Effects of Slavery Agitation.—He now saw with equal clearness, as clear as the noonday sun, the fatal consequences which must follow, if the present disease be not timely arrested. He would repeat again what he had so often said on this floor. This was the only question of sufficient potency and magnitude to divide this Union; and divide it, it would, or drench the country in blood, if not arrested. He knew how much the sentiment he had uttered would be misconstrued and misrepresented. There were those who saw no danger to the Union in the violation of all its fundamental principles, but who were full of apprehension when danger was foretold or resisted, and who held not the authors of the danger, but those who forewarned or opposed it, responsible for consequences. But the cry of disunion by the weak or designing had no terror for him. If his attachment to the Union was less, he might not tamper with the deep disease which now afflicts the body politic, and keep silent until the patient was ready to sink under its mortal blows. . . . The assaults daily made on the institutions of nearly one-half of the states of this Union by the other —institutions interwoven from the beginning with their political and social existence, and which can not be other than they are without their inevitable destruction—will, and must, if continued, make two people of one, by destroying every sympathy between the two great sections, obliterating from their hearts all recollections of their common danger and glory, and implanting in their place a mutual hatred, more deadly than ever existed between two neighboring people since the commencement of the human race. He feared not the circulation of the thousand incendiary and slanderous publications which were daily issued from an organized and powerful press, among those intended to be vilified. . . .

A mysterious providence had brought together two races from different portions of the globe, and placed them together in nearly equal numbers in the southern portion of this Union. They were there inseparably united beyond the possibility of separation. Experience had shown that the existing relation between them secured the peace and happiness of them both. Each had improved; the inferior greatly; so much so, that it had attained a degree of civilization never before attained by the black race in any age or country. Under no other relation could they coexist together. To destroy it was to involve a whole region in slaughter, carnage and desolation; and come what will, we must defend and preserve it. . . . Many in the South once believed that it was a moral and political evil. That folly and delusion are gone. We see it now in its true light and regard it as the most safe and stable basis for free

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institutions in the world. It is impossible with us that the conflict can take place between labor and capital, which make it so difficult to establish and maintain free institutions in all wealthy and highly civilized countries where such institutions as ours do not exist. The Southern States are an aggregate, in fact, of communities, not of individuals. Every plantation is a little community, with the master at its head, who concentrates in himself the united interests of capital and labor, of which he is the common representative. These small communities aggregated make the state in all whose action, labor, and capital is equally represented and perfectly harmonized. Hence the harmony, the union, and the stability of that section, which is rarely disturbed, except through the action of this government. The blessing of this state of things extends beyond the limits of the South. It makes that section the balance of the system: the great conservative power, which prevents other portions less fortunately constituted, from rushing into conflict.—*Calhoun, Works, III., 153, 154, 179, 180.*

Effects of Slavery.—And yet, I do not know that, to an enlightened mind, a scene of civil war is any more sickening than the thought of a hundred and fifty years of slavery. Take the broken hearts, the bereaved mothers, the infant



J. J. Audubon

wrung from the hands of its parents, the husband and wife torn asunder, every right trodden under foot, the blighted hopes, the imbruted souls, the darkened and degraded millions, sunk below the level of intellectual life, melted in sensuality, herded with beasts, who have walked over the marl of Southern slavery to their graves, and where is the battle field, however ghastly, that is not white—white as an angel's wing—compared to the blackness of that darkness which has brooded over the Carolinas for two hundred years?

Heaven pardon the judges, the merchants, and the clergy, who make it necessary for hunted men to turn, when they are at bay, and fly at the necks of their pursuers! It is not our fault! I shrink from no question, however desperate, that has in it the kernel of possible safety for a human being hunted by twenty millions of slave catchers in this Christian republic of ours. . . .

Let us see to it, that, in spite of the tenderness of American prejudice, in spite of the morbid charity that would have us rebuke the sin, but spare the sinner, in spite of this effeminate Christianity, that would let millions pine, lest one man's feelings be injured—let us see to it, friends, that we be "harsh as truth and uncompromising as justice."—*Wendell Phillips, Speeches I., pp. 49, 86, 91.*

Declaration of Independence and Slavery Contradictions.—There is something unspeakably pitiable and alarming in the state of that society where it is deemed necessary, for self-preservation, to seal up the mind and debase the intellect of man to brutal incapacity. We shall not now consider the policy of this resolve, but it illustrates the terrors of slavery in a manner as eloquent and affecting as imagination can conceive. . . .

Truly the alternatives of oppression are terrible,
But this state of things can not always last, nor
ignorance alone shield us from destruction

I have said that the claims of the slaves for redress are as strong as those of any Americans could be, in a similar condition. Does any man deny the position? The proof, then, is found in the fact, that a very large proportion of our colored population were born on our soil, and are therefore entitled to all the privileges of American citizens. This is their country by birth, not by adoption. Their children possess the same inherent and unalienable rights as ours, and it is a crime of the blackest dye to load them with fetters. Every Fourth of July our Declaration of Independence is produced, with a sublime indignation to set forth the tyranny of the mother country and to challenge the admiration of the world. But what a pitiful tale of grievances does this document present, in comparison with the wrongs which our slaves endure! In the one case, it is hardly the plucking of a hair from the head; in the other, it is the crushing of a live body on the wheel—the stings of the wasp contrasted with the tortures of the inquisition. Before God, I must say, that such a glaring contradiction as exists between our creed and practice the annals of six thousand years can not parallel. . . .

Slavery must speedily be abolished; the blow that shall sever the chains of the slaves may shake the nation to its center—may momentarily shake the pillars of the Union—but it shall redeem the character, extend the influence, establish the security, and increase the prosperity of our great republic. . . .

It is in vain that we strive to take an exalted rank among the nations till this is done away. No matter what we are—no matter how well fed and clothed are a part of our people—no matter how abundant are our civil and religious privileges—no matter how excellent and how equalizing are our institutions—no matter how great are our facilities for instruction, our ardor in benevolent operations; it all goes for nothing, so long as we grind to the dust three millions of our countrymen because their skins are not colored like our own.

It is no common conflict in which we are engaged, because whatever forms of political oppression you may have here, or in Europe, or in the world besides, there is no power so dreadful and exterminating as American slavery. It began with the very beginning of the Union, and it has grown with our growth until it now holds complete mastery over the whole country, so that the two great political parties are eager to do its bidding, and religious sects bow before it and do it homage; in one word, it has completely subjected church and state—*Life of Wm Lloyd Garrison, I., 86, 131, 387; II., 408; III., 161.*

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11.

Development of the Contest.—The first attempt was made about 1835 in the movement to suppress "incendiary publications." They were to be excluded from the mails because they endangered a constitutional right of the slave states, as well as the lives and property of their people. But to exclude them from the mails meant to destroy the constitutional right of free speech and a free press. Thus the interests of the two sections came into direct conflict over these opposing constitutional claims, and each section had a plausible argument in favor of its position. The attack upon the "right of petition" began in 1836, and various "gag" rules were passed by Congress to shut out these petitions against slavery. John Quincy Adams became the hero of the day, and for nearly ten years led—and for a part of the time—was almost the sole upholder of the "right of petition." He lived to see his cause triumphant in 1844; then in 1848 he laid aside his armor while at work in the house itself where his greatest contests had been fought and triumphs won. As before, two irreconcilable principles came into conflict. The south claimed the constitutional right for each state for itself to determine its own institutions. It, therefore, rightfully, from this point of view, insisted that to petition against slavery in the District of Columbia, because it was the "sum of all villainies," was to endanger its existence in the states, for its character in one place was the same as in another. But to deny the right of petition was to deprive the people of a privilege constitutionally guaranteed. The only conclusion then was that one system or the other must fall, the nation must become, as Lincoln later said, "all slave or all free." The great champion of the slavery cause, Calhoun, saw that the education of the rising generation in the belief that slavery was a moral, social and political evil, would undermine the system. His first remedy was a demand that agitation should cease; that the dissemination of the abolition doctrines through an "incendiary" press should stop; that petitions should be no longer received by Congress; finally that Congress itself should no longer discuss the subject. He soon saw that these means were not enough. Therefore, in 1837, he took the final forward step, and affirmed that slavery was a "positive good." He urged that the system was best for both races; that it was the natural relation, and that the highest and the purest democracy could only be founded upon this idea. Thus the two sections were no longer to be arrayed the one against the other on grounds of mere political or even material interests. The moral and religious natures of man were now involved. Just as each section came to believe more firmly in the rightfulness of its cause, the certainty of a conflict became greater. There could now be no compromise, for each was no longer contending for the triumph of a mere question of expediency, but for the supremacy of what it believed was right.



Wendell Phillips.

11.

Abolitionism Impracticable.—Abolitionism in our America sailed among the clouds; it was, and it professed itself a moral reform, a striving after the theoretical good, not confined to the legally practicable nor moving on those political lines which determine how much of social progress and reform an age may safely bear. With this irresponsible movement mingled various other schemes for the regeneration of the human race, less disquieting, less convincing, too, since nothing can be plainer than the abstract wrong of holding in slavery one's fellow-men. In Europe, once more, these schemes were mostly hatched; but America, young and developing, brought up the whole brood of experiments, the sickly and the strong together.—*Schouler, IV., p. 311.*

Contesting Forces; Radicalism and Conservatism.—The abolitionists had not only the mob with its love of disorder and aristocratic hate for the despised negro, the demagogues of politicians with their competitive bidding for the southern holders of power, and the selfishness of all who endeavored to allay every political storm that their peace and money interests might not be put

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in jeopardy, against them; they also aroused the best qualities of the national character to great and even bitter resistance against them. The radical character of abolitionism was in the most flagrant contradiction with the Anglo-Saxon spirit of conservatism. This spirit instinctively recoiled from a creed which rejected, on principle, any attempt toward the adoption of a middle course, and which declared that under no circumstances could it surrender an iota of its demands. What angel had come down and brought to the abolitionists from the throne of the Lord of the world, the commission to charge the whole nation—and their forefathers, around whom was the halo of fame—with harboring and nursing in their bosom the "sum of all villainies," and to proclaim the judgment of heaven against them, unless they cast the viper to the earth and trample it under foot? National pride rebelled against this threatening absolutism in speech, of the prophet and the judge. . . .

Woe to the United States, if there had not been enough fiery zealous idealism and a sufficiently pure code of ethics to call forth the abolitionists, and to make them the leaven by which, in the course of decades, and under the pressure of great events, the entire population of the free states were to be leavened! But woe, also, to the United States, if they had had so little sense for realistic politics, that the entire population of the free states, should have sided with the abolitionists immediately, and that the fruit of these latter should have been matured before they had suffered from a severe conflict from within and without, because the conservative party was wanting in moral force! . . . —*Von Holst, II., p. 104.*

Hatred of Abolitionists.—The assurance which people did not tire of repeating, that abolitionism could not be more strongly condemned at the South than it was at the North, was simple truth. But to the person who refuses to see anything in this fact save the infinite depravity of the North, under the rule of the slavocracy, and that of the northern politicians enlisted in its service, all the history that follows must remain an unintelligible enigma. That there is a contradiction, such that it is difficult to imagine one more direct or violent, running through all that has been said, can not, indeed, be denied. But the contradiction lay in the actual circumstances of the time and in the existing laws (Rechte). Hence it could not be otherwise than that individuals should be carried hither and thither between opposing views, in the mad whirl. They were looking for a solution where there was no solution. . . .

To any one who, with Benton, sees in Calhoun only the demagogue devouring himself with suppressed rage because his wild ambition remained unsatisfied, systematically and consciously laboring for the dissolution of the Union, not only this remarkable man himself, but the whole "irrepressible conflict" with its all-embracing and all-permeating entanglement of irreconcilable contraries, remains a closed book with seven seals. Calhoun clung truly and warmly to the Union. . . . He would have cheerfully, and with all the power of conviction, defended it, provided only slavery was made secure. . . . —*Von Holst, II., p. 136.*

Inconsistency of Slave Power.—The slavocracy had always had fits of this battle-mad passion for peace, but it was in the gag-resolutions that it, for the first time, introduced method into its madness, and consciously gave it the fullest rein. In its relation to slavery, congress henceforth presented the picture of a popular assembly which, to preserve the peace, raised a tumult when anyone coughed or sneezed, and soon made tumult the standing order of the day in order to keep cries from without from leading anyone within into the temptation to open his mouth. The rage for quiet became more and more general and more and more violent, and on that account precisely, a convincing proof, which became more and more convincing every day, that the restoration of quiet was impossible. And the wider the circle of those who reached this conviction was, the wider grew the circle of those who saw clearly that the gag-resolutions undermined the foundations of the republic. . . . —*Von Holst, II., p. 258.*

Sectional Hatred.—However sound the great body of the non-slaveholding states are at present, in the course of a few years they will be succeeded by those who will have been taught to hate the people and institutions of nearly one-half of this Union with a hatred more deadly than one hostile nation ever entertained toward another.—*Calhoun, Works, II., 629.*

"Incendiary Publications."—The postmaster-general starts out with the incontestable principle, that so far as the federal constitution entered into the question, the several states had the right to prohibit the dissemination within their limits of publications which appeared dangerous to them. Every one of the slave states had made such a prohibition in relation to all publications which bore a character inimical to slavery. "Now have these people," Kendall asks, "a legal right to do by the mail carriers and postmasters of the United States acts which, if done by themselves or their agents, would lawfully subject them to the punishment due to the felons of the deepest dye? Are the officers of the United States compelled by the constitution and laws to become the instruments and accomplices of those who design to baffle and make nugatory the constitutional laws of the states?"—*Von Holst, II., p. 125.*

Defects of Calhoun's Reasoning.—The defect in Calhoun's reasoning was not, as was claimed on all sides, that it widely overshot the mark, but that it did not, by any means, go far enough, although it went precisely as far as any reasoning could go, which was based on the supposition of the preservation of *this* Union. Calhoun's assertion, that the continuance of slavery in the Union would be impossible as soon as the unqualified condemnation of it by the abolitionists became the moral conviction of the majority of the people, and of the civilized world, was unassailable. But could this be prevented by making the thresholds of the halls of Congress magic lines which the abolitionist confession of faith would not be able to pass? The last conclusion from his own irrefutable premises was not to the effect that the attack should be met at the very border if it were to be beaten back, but that the attack itself should be rendered impossible. . . .

The fundamental defect of this reasoning, again, was the assumption that everything depended on the action of Congress. It is certain that it would necessarily operate either to promote or restrict slavery; but that the final decision could never be given by Congress, Calhoun had irrefutably proved. The moral convictions of the people, which he had rightly designated as the decisive force, lay outside the sphere of congressional power not only constitutionally, but in fact. . . . —*Von Holst, II., 269.*

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12.

The Culmination.—Southern statesmen in 1815 rather deplored the existence of slavery and apologized for it, yet were unwilling or unable to give it up. They believed that a free negro population living among the whites was a greater evil than slavery itself. This state of mind, however, was one in which their love of the Union could rise above their interest in slavery. By 1860, the South had become a unit practically in the belief that the system was a "positive good." The transformation was gradual, and this result produced by many factors. In this state of mind the preservation of slavery seemed to them to be necessary for the existence of society and even of civilization itself. The Union was no longer of primary importance. If it ever became a question between the existence of slavery and of the Union, the latter must go. But in these same years the people of the North had been educated by the press, the pulpit, literature and the theatre, and by evolution itself to hold the system wrong socially, industrially, politically and morally. Each section also believed the other to be the aggressor; but the Anglo-Saxon love of law deferred the conflict between these two antagonistic forces for many years. Finally, those who recognized the binding force of the "higher law" refused longer to be bound by the letter of the Constitution. But their law-loving instincts were satisfied when the doctrine was set forth that the Declaration of Independence was the basis of the Constitution and was of equal binding force with it. However, the final result of these two contradictory faiths, living, so to speak, in the same house, could end only in one way, in civil war. Lincoln's prophecy came true that a "a house divided against itself could not stand."



Frederick Douglass.

12.

"**Irrepressible Conflict.**"—Hitherto, the two systems (slave and free labor) have existed in different States, but side by side, within the American Union. This has happened because the Union is a confederation of states. But, in another aspect, the United States constitute only one nation. Increase of population, which is filling the states out to their very borders, together with a new and extended net-work of railroads and other avenues, and an internal commerce which daily becomes more intimate, is rapidly bringing the states into higher and more perfect social unity or consolidation. Thus these antagonistic systems are continually coming into closer contact, and collision results. Shall I tell you what this collision means? They who think it is accidental, unnecessary, the work of interested or fanatical agitators, and therefore ephemeral, mistake the case altogether. It is an irrepressible conflict between opposing and enduring forces, and it means that the United States must and will, sooner or later, become either entirely a slaveholding nation, or entirely a free-labor nation. Either the cotton and rice fields of South Carolina and the sugar plantations of Louisiana will ultimately be tilled by free labor, and Charleston and New Orleans become marts for legitimate merchandise alone, or else the rye fields and wheat fields of Massachusetts and New York must again be surrendered by their farmers to slave culture and to the production of slaves, and Boston and New York become once more markets for trade in the bodies and souls of men. It is the failure to apprehend this great truth that induces so many unsuccessful attempts at final compromise between the slave and free states, and it is the existence of this great fact that renders all such pretended compromises, when made, vain and ephemeral.—*Seward, Works, Vol. IV., pp. 56 57*

"**Divided-House Doctrine.**"—*Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Convention:* If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it. We are now far into the fifth year since a policy was initiated with the avowed object and confident promise of putting an end to slavery agitation. Under the operation of that policy, that agitation has not only not ceased, but has constantly augmented. In my opinion it will not cease until a crisis shall have been reached and passed. "A house divided against itself cannot stand" I believe this government can not endure half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved—I do not expect the house to fall—but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction; or its advocates will push it forward till it shall become alike lawful in all the states, old as well as new, North as well as South. —*Lincoln, Works, I., p. 240.*

"**Higher Law.**"—"No person held to service

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or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up, on claim of the party to whom such service or labor is due." This is from the Constitution of the United States in 1787, and the parties were the republican states of this Union. The law of nations disavows such compacts; the law of nature, written on the hearts and consciences of freemen, repudiates them. Armed power could not enforce them, because there is no public conscience to sustain them. I know that there are laws of various sorts which regulate the conduct of men. There are constitutions and statutes, codes mercantile and codes civil; but when we are legislating for states, especially when we are founding states, all these laws must be brought to the standard of the laws of God, and must be tried by that standard, and must stand or fall by it.—*Seward, Works, I., p. 66.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **POLITICAL HISTORY, 1815-1829.**—Politically a Period of Transition, Political Effect of the War of 1812, Future of the United States in 1816.
8. **POLITICAL HISTORY** (Continued) **1829-1852.**—Whigs and the Democrats, Clay on Jackson in Seminole War, Parties in 1834.
9. **POLITICAL HISTORY** (Continued) **1829-1852.**—The Slavery Period in Political Parties, Right of Petition.
10. **SLAVERY.**—The Early Period, Effects of Slavery, Declaration of Independence and Slavery Contradictions.
11. **SLAVERY** (Continued).—Development of the Contest, Abolitionism Impracticable, Contesting Forces, Radicalism and Conservatism, Hatred of Abolitionists, Right of Petition and Slavery, Inconsistency of Slave Power, Sectional Hatred, Incendiary Publications, Defects of Calhoun's Reasoning
12. **SLAVERY** (Continued).—The Culmination, Irrepressible Conflict, Divided-House Doctrine, Higher Law

QUESTIONS.

7 *What were the principles of the Republican party? Of the Federal? What were some of the leading causes of the decay of the Federal party? What is meant by the "Era of Good Feeling"? What were its political characteristics? During the years 1817-1825 were the people all Republicans, or were there rather no parties? Was the campaign of 1824 a personal or a party contest? How was J. Q. Adams elected president? Should Clay have accepted the post of Secretary of State under Adams? Trace the steps in the formation of new parties? Why did Jackson come to hate Clay and Adams so bitterly?*

8 *What was the leading issue in the campaign of 1828? How were candidates for president nominated previous to 1831? How since? Which is the better method? What one-idea party in 1828 and in 1832? Have we had others since? By 1834 what were the party names? What were the leading principles of each party? Were the parties sectional? Why were economic questions so prominent during this period? What new issue begins to creep into politics? Was Jackson right in vetoing the bank bill in 1832? What is meant by the "distribution of the surplus"? By the "sub or independent" treasury? Mention some of the leading Whigs? Of the leading Democrats? Was there any class tendency in parties? Which was the better party? How were the public monies kept before 1840? Since 1846?*

9. *What political issue had ceased to be of practical importance by 1844? On what question was Polk elected president? What part did the Liberty party play in this election? Why were the Whigs successful in 1848? What was the difference, if any, between the two parties in 1852? Why did the Whig party, rather than the Democratic party, go to pieces in the following year? How do you explain the existence in these years of so many little side parties or factions as "Hards," "Softs," "Barnburners," "Hunkers," "Cotton Whigs," "Conscience" Whigs, "North Americans," "South Americans," etc.? Why was the Know-Nothing or American party formed? Why the Republican? What was the composition of the Republican party? Why was it a sectional party? Is that fact a reproach? What view in regard to slavery was taken by all parties in 1860?*

10. *What was the state of the public mind on the slavery question in 1815? Which section came to a recognition of its importance first? Why? What was the principal argument in 1820 against slavery? Over what question did the first great slave contest arise? Why was the South more nearly unanimous than the North? What was the compromise of 1820? Was it wise to compromise at this time? What new movement came into being soon after this time? Who were its early leaders? Did the Abolitionists tighten or loosen the bonds of the slave? How did Garrison characterize the constitution?*

11. *Did the slavery system or the Abolitionists cause the bitter feeling between the North and the South? What were "incendiary publications"? How did the South demand they should be treated? What law did Jackson propose for such publications? With what clause of the constitution did the demand of the South conflict? Who was the hero of the struggle of this right? What is the "right of petition"? Why did southern congressmen feel so bitterly over the petitions against slavery in the District of Columbia? If the discussion of the subject of slavery in Congress could have been stopped, would it have secured peace?*

12. *What admission did southern statesmen make in regard to the slave system in the early part of the century? Why was this position abandoned? What forward step did Calhoun take in 1837? Was this step necessary? Was Calhoun's doctrine believed in the South in 1861? If so, how could they have done otherwise than they did? Did Calhoun love the union? Did he expect it would ever be necessary to secede? Were the Abolitionists Unionists or Secessionists? Was slavery the cause of secession? Was there free-speech and a free-press in the South after 1820? Were the rights of the states in regard to slavery immediately in danger in 1861? What difference between the Revolution of 1776, and the Rebellion of 1861?*

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13. WARS.

It is a pleasure for one who believes in peace rather than in war to record that once only during this period did the United States feel called upon to resort to war. It is less pleasant, however, to have to admit that the one war was unjust and forced upon a weak state for the sake of aggrandizing the more powerful. In general it may be noted that thus far in our history the people have not been warlike. They are not cowardly, not wanting in patriotism, not merely mercenary in spirit, as all the wars that have been fought prove. The spirit of the American people has been turned to industrialism rather than to militarism. Their motto seems to have been in peace prepare for war by growing rich. Jefferson and Gallatin instilled these principles into the American people, and our history seems to prove that they were not wrong. The strongest army is an industrial army. The youth at the plow and the anvil, in the counting house and at the loom, gives a better preparation for war than the same youth in the camp and in semi-idleness.

Indian Wars.—The first of the Indian wars of this period was with the Seminoles in 1817–19. The march of Jackson from Tennessee, his invasion of Florida, his hanging of the two Englishmen, his celebrated Rhae letter, the discussion in Monroe's cabinet in regard to sustaining him in his Florida expedition; the attack upon him by Clay in Congress, and the long debate there, constituted the most interesting features of this rather badly managed undertaking. The ultimate result in estranging Jackson and Calhoun in 1830 forms a fitting climax to the whole affair. The second Seminole war, 1837–42, is best known in connection with the name of the famous Indian chief Osceola. Giddings has made this war important by charging that it was essentially a slave-catchers' war. The Black Hawk war of 1832 brought for the first time into the service of his country a man, destined to find a martyr's death in its service—the illustrious Lincoln.

Foreign Wars.—The United States in 1815 refused longer to pay tribute to the Barbary powers, and were the first nation to make them respect its flag and the rights of our commerce.

The struggle with Mexico began in the spring of 1846 when Gen. Taylor was ordered to advance to the Rio Grande. Poor Mexico fought bravely, but her troops and their equipment were too inferior, and in the battles of Monterey and Buena Vista General Taylor won such victories that he captured the White House at Washington in 1849. In 1847 General Scott marched from one victory to another, from Vera Cruz, passed Cherubusco and Chapultepec to the city of Mexico, and planted the flag of the United States on the walls of the proud city of the Montezumas. From the city of Mexico peace was dictated and the distracted country was dismembered. The United States entered into the rich possessions of California and the mines of the Rocky mountains.

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13. WARS.

Giddings Has Made this War Important.—Torn from their native land their friends and homes, they were sold in the markets of Carolina and Georgia. Feeling the hand of oppression bearing heavily upon them, they fled to Florida, and, under Spanish laws, became free. Holding lands of the Spanish crown, they became citizens of that territory, entitled to protection. To regain possession of their truant bondmen, Georgia made war upon Florida, but failed to obtain her object. At a time of profound peace, our army, acting under the direction of the Executive, invaded Florida, murdered many of these free men, and brought others to the United States and consigned them to slavery. An expensive and bloody war followed; but failing to capture more of the exiles, our army was withdrawn. This war was followed by diplomatic efforts. Florida was purchased; treaties with the Florida Indians were made and violated; gross frauds were perpetrated; dishonorable expedients were resorted to, and another war provoked. During its protracted continuance of seven years, bribery and treachery were practiced toward the exiles and their allies, the Seminole Indians; flags of truce were violated; the pledged faith of the nation was disregarded. By these means the removal of the exiles from Florida was effected. After they had settled in the western country, most of these iniquities were repeated, until they were driven from our nation and compelled to seek an asylum in Mexico. Men who wielded the influence of government for the consummation of these crimes, assiduously labored to suppress all knowledge of their guilt; to keep facts from the popular mind; to falsify the history of current events, and prevent an exposure of our national turpitude.—*Giddings, in The Exiles of Florida.*

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14. FOREIGN RELATIONS.

With England.—Relatively foreign affairs played a much less important part in this period of American history than in its earlier years. Perhaps it may be said that the character of the people and the institutions of the country were only slightly, if at all, influenced by our foreign relations. The evolution and growth of the nation were almost wholly from within, due to internal causes. The only exception to this rule, seemingly, was found in the diplomacy which secured an extension of territory or a modification of the principles of international law.

The relations of England and the United States were strained several times, but skillful diplomacy on the part of both countries prevented a rupture. The first serious question was concerning the fisheries. The English claimed that the rights which the United States had to fish on the banks of Newfoundland were secured by treaty, and therefore lost in the war of 1812. The American statesmen founded their claim, on the contrary, on natural right, not on treaty privilege. The treaty of 1818 secured to the United States most of the rights claimed, and also settled the northern boundary along the parallel of 49° west to the crest of the Rocky mountains. The dispute over the north-eastern boundary remained open till the Webster-Ashburton treaty of 1842. Webster, in this famous treaty, also secured a satisfactory settlement of the "Caroline" and "McLeod" affairs, as well as other minor matters that were causes of irritation.



Martin Van Buren.

The Oregon territory was in an unsettled condition till 1846. The United States claimed the whole of Oregon to 54° 40′ north latitude, basing their claim on purchase from Spain in 1819, discovery in 1792, exploration by Lewis and Clark in 1804-5, and finally on settlement. England claimed the territory as far south as the Columbia river. After much diplomatic correspondence, extending through many years, a compromise was finally reached by which the boundary line of 49° was extended to Puget sound.

Between 1818 and 1828 England and the United States indulged in a "navigation war" over the West India trade, to the detriment of both. It finally ended in England's abandoning her time-honored "colonial policy." The effect was exceedingly important, for it forced Spain and other countries to take the same course, and thus the idea that colonies existed only for the good of the mother country was finally abandoned.

In 1854 a reciprocity treaty was concluded with Canada. Under its terms, between 1854 and 1866, there was practical free trade throughout the continent of North America. The most famous of all our treaties of this period with Great Britain, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, was made in 1851. The aim was to secure the neutrality of the Nicaragua canal when built. Its interpretation has been the occasion of many a sharp diplomatic contest, and its binding force has been called in question. On the whole the two foremost nations of the world in power and civilization have, to the honor of both, moved forward along the peaceful paths of progress.

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14. FOREIGN RELATIONS.

The Mexican War Defended.—He was also assured that it was the sincere desire of this government to maintain with that of Mexico relations of peace and good understanding. That functionary, however, notwithstanding these representations and assurances, abruptly terminated his mission, and shortly afterward left the country. Our envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Mexico was refused all official intercourse with that government, and, after remaining several months, by the permission of his own government he returned to the United States. Thus, by the acts of Mexico, all diplomatic intercourse between the two countries was suspended. Since that time

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Mexico has, until recently, occupied an attitude of hostility toward the United States, has been marshaling and organizing armies, issuing proclamations, and avowing the intention to make war on the United States either by an open declaration or by invading Texas. . . .

With a sincere desire to preserve peace and restore relations of good understanding between the two republics, I waived all ceremony as to the manner of renewing diplomatic intercourse between them; and, assuming the initiative, on November 10 a distinguished citizen of Louisiana was appointed envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to Mexico, clothed with full powers to adjust, and definitively settle, all pending differences between the two countries, including those of boundary between Mexico and the state of Texas . . .

In a communication to Congress a succinct statement of the injuries which we had to suffer from Mexico, and which have been accumulating during a period of more than twenty years, every expression that could tend to inflame the people of Mexico, or defeat or delay a pacific result, was carefully avoided. An envoy of the United States repaired to Mexico with full powers to adjust every existing difference But though present on the Mexican soil, by agreement between the two governments, invested with full powers, and bearing evidence of the most friendly dispositions, his mission has been unavailing. The Mexican government not only refused to receive him, or listen to his propositions, but, after a long-continued series of menaces, have at last invaded our territory, and shed the blood of our fellow-citizens on our own soil. . . .

Thus the government of Mexico, though solemnly pledged by official acts in October last, to receive and accredit an American envoy, violated their pledged faith, and refused the offer of a peaceful adjustment of our difficulties. Not only was the offer rejected, but the indignity of its rejection was enhanced by the manifest breach of faith in refusing to admit the envoy, who came because they had bound themselves to receive him. . . .

The Mexican government refused all negotiations, and have made no proposition of any kind. In my message at the commencement of the present session, I informed you that upon the earnest appeal both of Congress and convention of Texas, I had ordered an efficient military force to take a position "between the Nueces and the Del Norte." This had become necessary to meet a threatened invasion of Texas by the Mexican forces, for which extensive military preparations had been made. . . . This force was concentrated at Corpus Christi, and remained there until I had received such information from Mexico as rendered it probable, if not certain, that the Mexican government would refuse to receive our envoy. . . .

It became, therefore, of urgent necessity to provide for the defense of that portion of our country. Accordingly on January 13 last instructions were issued to the general in command of the troops to occupy the left bank of the Del Norte. . . .

The grievous wrongs perpetrated by Mexico upon our citizens throughout a long period of years, remained unredressed; and solemn treaties, pledging her public faith for this redress, have been disregarded. A government either unable or unwilling to enforce the execution of such treaties, fails to perform one of its plainest duties. . . . Had we acted with vigor in repelling the insults and redressing the injuries inflicted by Mexico at the commencement, we should doubtless have escaped all the difficulties in which we are now involved. Instead of this, however, we have been exerting our best efforts to propitiate her good will. Upon the pretext that Texas, a nation as independent as herself, thought proper to unite its destinies with our own, she has affected to believe that we have severed her rightful territory, and in official proclamations and manifestoes, has repeatedly threatened to make war upon us for the purpose of reconquering Texas. . . . But now, after reiterated menaces, Mexico has passed the boundary of the United States, has invaded our territory, and shed American blood upon the American soil. She has proclaimed that hostilities have commenced, and that the two nations are now at war. As war exists, and, notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it, exists by the act of Mexico herself, we are called upon, by every consideration of duty and patriotism, to vindicate with decision, the honor, the rights and the interests of our country. — *President Polk, in Statesman's Manual, IV., p. 1449, ff.*

Mexican War Unnecesssary.—That the settlement of the claims of our citizens upon Mexico had been held back purposely, for the sake of furnishing accumulated pretexts for the present war, he had not a doubt. . . . The government might choose to set forth a long list of wrongs, as the causes of this war, but its real drift was the acquisition of Mexican territory and the establishment of boundaries. . . . Mr. D—— went on to say that the President labored hard to show that it was because Mexico refused the payment of our claims that this war was entered upon; and further, because Mexico refused to receive our minister, Mr. Slidell. But it was no such thing. Mexico had agreed to receive an agent to treat about the question of boundary, but never to receive a full minister. . . . The President would have the country believe that it was not till after all patience and forbearance were completely exhausted that the order was given for the army to advance; whereas, in truth and in fact, such an order had been given through Mr. Bancroft long before.—*Darragh, in Congressional Globe.*

Mexican War Not a Defensive War.—Another assertion in the message was, that the present was a defensive war. The whole tenor of the message, indeed, conveyed that impression. A defensive war! Who of all the people of the United States had been defended by it? What part of the United States had anyone invaded? Where had any portion of our territory been attacked? . . .

But the President said that Mexico had long been inflicting a series of wrongs upon us. Very true, so she had. But an agreement had been made between the two governments on that subject by a solemn treaty. It turned out thus, the President himself being the judge, to be a mere question of dollars and cents.—*Giddings, in Congressional Globe.*

Mr. Polk, on May 12 last, in recommending to Congress to recognize *the* war which, he said, "Mexico had commenced," gave, as the reason, "that she had invaded *our* territory, and spilled *our* blood on *our* own soil. He also procured the preamble to the war bill, false in fact and fraudulent in purpose, to recite that "war existed by the acts of Mexico" Does this look as if we had gone to war with her for not paying our debt? No sir, it is an after-thought, got up to change the issue.—*Mr. Culver, in Congressional Globe and Appendix, 2d sess., 29th Cong.*

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15.

With Spain and Other Countries.—Our relations with Spain during the early part of this period were more important than with any other country. Constant irritation existed along the border of Florida till its purchase in 1819. Jackson's invasion of Florida and the hanging of Ambrister and Arbuthnot involved us in difficulties with both England and Spain. In 1824, when Jackson was Governor of Florida, he arrested the Spanish ex-governor of Florida and held him a prisoner for a day. For this an apology was made by the United States. The negotiations for the purchase of Florida were delicate, and were carried to a triumphant conclusion with the greatest difficulty.

The South American states became independent in the early years of this epoch. Threats on the part of the "Holy Alliance" to aid Spain in their recovery led to the promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823. This is perhaps the most famous state paper ever issued by the executive department of our government. It was a statement of the policy that the United States would pursue under certain circumstances. However, in it the United States does not pledge itself to any other nation, but simply informs the world of its purposes and views. That part of this doctrine which pertains to the "introduction of their systems of government" does not seem to be any longer applicable, for it related only to the introduction of absolutism and the theory of the divine right of kings to rule. The part in relation to colonization is still applicable, and the United States will act on it at its discretion.

In our history Cuba has been like a red-flag to a bull. At first the south preferred that Spain should retain it; later she wished to secure it to prevent its "Africanization." "Filibusters" descending on its coast from the United States, led Spain to protest, on the ground that our neutral duties were not well observed. Finally, between 1845 and 1860 various attempts were made to purchase it, but in vain, for Spain would not sell. In 1854 appeared the famous "Ostend Manifesto" which declared that, as self-preservation was the first law of nature for nations as well as for individuals, if the acquisition of Cuba became necessary for the preservation of the Union, it should be seized, should Spain still refuse to sell. In other words, the might of the highwayman was to settle the dispute.

Diplomacy failed with Mexico. The recognition of the independence of Texas in 1837, together with the various claims of our citizens to loss of property or liberty in Mexico aroused ill-will between the two countries. The annexation of Texas in 1845 angered Mexico greatly, but even then war might have been averted had not President Polk resolved on the acquisition of California. This end could be gained only by war, as Mexico refused to sell it. If the end justifies the means then an American need not blush for this war, for it is perhaps unquestioned that its results were beneficial to civilization. The Gadsden purchase, in 1853, completed our relations with Mexico, except such as were based on friendship.

In 1825, in the Panama Congress, an attempt was made to unite the states of the two Americas in a league for mutual protection, and for the advancement of their commercial interests. It wrecked on the shoals of slavery. The Koszta affair, Webster's Hülsemann letter, and the visit of Kossuth, in 1851, constituted the important events in our diplomacy with Austria. The "Young Americans" of the last decade of this period were for reversing our foreign policy of non-intervention in European affairs to take up the cause of oppressed peoples everywhere. Under the leadership of Douglas, Pierce and others this party flourished for a time, but at length succumbed to domestic interests, and saner councils.

15.

Cuba Wanted.—We have arrived at the conclusion, and are thoroughly convinced that an immediate and earnest effort ought to be made by the government of the United States to purchase Cuba from Spain at any price for which it can be obtained not exceeding the sum of $..... . . .

Indeed, the Union can never enjoy repose, nor possess reliable security, as long as Cuba is not embraced within its boundaries. Its immediate

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acquisition by our government is of paramount importance and we can not doubt but that it is a consummation devoutly wished for by its inhabitants. . . . The system of immigration and labor lately organized within its limits, and the tyranny and oppression which characterize its immediate rulers, threaten an insurrection at every moment which may result in direful consequences to the American people.

But if Spain, dead to the voice of her own interest, and actuated by stubborn pride and a false sense of honor, should refuse to sell Cuba to the United States, then the question will arise, What ought to be the course of the American government under such circumstances? Self preservation is the first law of nature, with states as well as with individuals. . . .

After we shall have offered Spain a price for Cuba far beyond its present value, and this shall have been refused, it will then be time to consider the question, Does Cuba, in the possession of Spain, seriously endanger our internal peace and the existence of our cherished Union?

Should this question be answered in the affirmative, then, by every law, human and divine, we shall be justified in wresting it from Spain, if we possess the power; and this upon the very same principle that would justify an individual in tearing down the burning house of his neighbor if there were no other means of preventing the flames from destroying his own home.

Under such circumstances we ought neither to count the cost nor regard the odds which Spain might enlist against us. We forbear to enter into the question, whether the present condition of the island would justify such a measure. We should, however, be recreant to our duty, be unworthy of our gallant forefathers, and commit base treason against our posterity, should we permit Cuba to be Africanized and become a second St. Domingo, with all its attendant horrors to the white race, and suffer the flames to extend to our own neighboring shores, seriously to endanger or actually to consume the fair fabric of our Union.—*Ostend Manifesto, October 18, 1854.*

America for Americans.—The question presented by the letters you have sent me, is the most momentous which has ever been offered to my contemplation since that of independence. That made us a nation; this sets our compass and points the course which we are to steer through the ocean of time opening on us. And never could we embark on it under circumstances more auspicious. *Our first and fundamental maxim should be, never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe. Our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle with cis-Atlantic affairs.* America, north and south, has a set of interests distinct from those of Europe, and peculiarly her own. She should therefore have a system of her own, separate and apart from that of Europe. While the last is laboring to become the domicile of despotism, our endeavor should surely be to make our hemisphere that of freedom.—*Letter of Jefferson to Monroe, 1823.*

No Further European Colonization.—Those independent nations (South American republics and Mexico) will possess the rights incident to that condition, and their territories will, of course, be subject to no *exclusive* right of navigation in their vicinity, nor of access to them by any foreign nation. A necessary consequence of this state of things will be, that the American continents, henceforth, will no longer be subject to *colonization.* Occupied by civilized, independent nations, they will be accessible to Europeans and each othe on that footing alone.—*J. Q. Adams to Minister Rush, 1823; Register of Debates, 1825-6, II., pt. 2, p. 31.*

The Monroe Doctrine.—In the discussion to which this interest has given rise, and in the arrangements by which they may terminate, the occasion has been judged proper for asserting, as a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintained, are



William H. Harrison.

henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.

The citizens of the United States cherish sentiments the most friendly in favor of the liberty and happiness of their fellow men on that side of the Atlantic. In the wars of the European powers, in matters relating to themselves, we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy to do so. It is only when our rights are invaded or seriously menaced that we resent injuries or make preparation for our defence. With the movements in this hemisphere we are of necessity more immediately connected, and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. The political system of the allied powers is essentially different in this respect from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which exists in their respective governments. And to the defense of our own, which has been achieved by the loss of so much blood and treasure, and matured by the wisdom of their most enlightened citizens, and under which we have enjoyed unexampled felicity, this whole nation is devoted. We owe it, therefore, to candor, and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered, and shall not interfere But with the governments which have declared their independence, and maintained it, and whose independence, we have, on great consideration and on just principles acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as a manifestation of any unfriendly disposition toward the United States.—*President Monroe's Annual Message, Dec. 2, 1823.*

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16. ECONOMIC HISTORY.

The Tariff.—In general previous to 1815 the attention of the American people was directed to foreign rather than to domestic affairs. Now for the first time they felt a real national life. The effects of this were seen in an attempt to develop the industries of the country to such an extent as to free it from all dependence on foreign nations. This thought gave the first impulse to the protective movement, while the events of the years immediately following the close of the war of 1812 gave this impulse a new direction, and established the doctrine of economic protection in American history. The years 1815 to 1830 in economic history were years of transition. The simple agricultural life of the fathers was passing away, and a complex one was gradually taking its place. Large manufacturing establishments appeared. Division of labor was developed. Varied industries were created. During this period of transition while manufacturing industries were yet in general "infant industries," there was a popular demand for protection. The question did not become a party issue until the end of this era, and entered politics for the first time in 1828. Sectional tendencies were seen; yet on the whole it was a people's movement and grew in strength gradually till its culmination in power about 1828. In the south a reaction set in about 1820, and by 1828, the extreme southern states had taken their final stand against the principle of protection.

Between 1807 and 1815 many manufacturing industries were established, and much capital was turned from agriculture and commerce into these channels. The embargo, non-intercourse and war caused the change. Now that Europe was again at peace, and the war of 1812 ended, normal conditions returned, and the competition of Europe with our "infant industries" began anew. Excessive importations took place, and our new industries were in danger of prostration. The result was a cry for protection. The first law manifesting this new spirit was passed in 1816. Cottons, woolens and iron were the specially favored articles. Cottons, under the "minimum" principle that whatever the cost, the invoice value for duty should be 25c per yard, received, within a few years as prices decreased, a protection almost equal to prohibition. Rates were increased on iron in 1818. A general increase was asked in 1820, but not made till 1824. In this year occurred the great debate between Clay for, and Webster against, the protective tariff. In 1827 another increase was asked for in woolens, but it was not granted till the famous, or rather infamous, law of 1828 was enacted. This act has passed into history as the "Tariff of Abominations." For the first time politics rather than principle determined the character of the act. Unfortunately it can not be said that it was the last time. The bill finally passed as a result of Webster's change, due to a change in his New England environment. Calhoun now broached nullification, but did not press it at this time. He was waiting to see whether the principle was to become permanent. The revisions of 1830 and 1832 left protection unimpaired. South Carolina now passed her nullification act. President Jackson in the same year issued his "Proclamation." Thus at the close of the year 1832 South Carolina and the Union, Calhoun and Jackson, stood facing each other. At this moment of peril Clay proposed the famous compromise of 1833; and, upon its passage, accompanied by the "force bill," South Carolina withdrew her ordinance. This compromise measure provided for present protection, a gradual reduction, and in 1842 an average tariff of not to exceed 20 per cent. As a matter of fact the last reductions in 1842 never took place, for the crisis of 1837 had so depleted the treasury that an increase in income was necessary. September, 1842, a protective tariff law was enacted. It was replaced in 1846 by the Walker tariff, a tariff based on the idea of revenue only. The surplus in the treasury in 1857 led to a further reduction, and the end of our period came with duties lower than they had been before since the war of 1812.

New England in 1816 was in general opposed to the principle of protection

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The central and western states were solidly for it, while the south was divided, with its leading statesmen favoring the principle. By 1830 the question had become sectional, the line of division coinciding with the line separating the slave and the free states. A few years later it became a party question, with the Whigs favoring and the Democrats against. The state of Pennsylvania was an anomaly, as it was for protection, and yet radically Democratic. After 1845 there was little interest in the subject, and all sections were gradually coming to the acceptance of the principle of a low tariff, when the war came, reversed this tendency and restored the protective idea to its old supremacy.

16. ECONOMIC HISTORY.

Defense of Protection; the "American System."—In casting our eyes around us, the most prominent circumstance which fixes our attention, and challenges our deepest regret, is the general distress which pervades the whole country. It is forced upon us by numerous facts of the most incontestable character. It is indicated by the diminished exports of native produce; by the depressed and reduced state of our foreign navigation; by our diminished commerce; by successive unthrashed crops of grain, perishing in our barns and barnyards, for the want of a market; by the alarming diminution of the circulating medium; by the numerous bankruptcies, not limited to the trading classes, but extending to all orders of society; by universal complaint of the want of employment, and a consequent reduction of the wages of labor; by the ravenous pursuit after public situations, not for the sake of their honors, and the performance of their public duties, but as a means of private subsistence; by the reluctant resort to the perilous use of paper money; by the intervention of legislation in the delicate relation between debtor and creditor, and above all, by the low and depressed state of the value of almost every description of the whole mass of the property of the nation, which has, on an average, sunk not less than about fifty per centum within a few years. . . .

What, again, I would ask, is the cause of the unhappy condition of our country, which I have faintly depicted? It is to be found in the fact that, during almost the whole existence of this government, we have shaped our industry, our navigation and our commerce, in reference to an extraordinary war in Europe, and to foreign markets, which no longer exist; in the fact, that we have depended too much upon foreign sources of supply, and excited too little the native.

The greatest want of civilized society is a market for the sale and exchange of the surplus of the produce of the labor of its members. This market may exist at home or abroad, or both; but it must exist some where, if society prospers; and, whereever it does exist, it should be competent to the absorption of the entire surplus of production. It is most desirable that there should be both a home and a foreign market. But, with respect to their relative superiority, I can not entertain a doubt. The home market is first in order, and paramount in importance. The object of the bill under consideration, is, to create this home market, and to lay the foundation of a genuine American policy.

In former times, when but little comparative use was made of machinery, manual labor, and the price of wages, were circumstances of the greatest consideration. . . . The sole object of the tariff is to tax the produce of foreign industry, with a view of promoting American industry. The tax is exclusively levelled at foreign industry. . . . The alleged fact of the high price of wages is not admitted. The truth is, that no class of society suffers more in the present stagnation of



Charles Sumner.

business, than the laboring class. That is a necessary effect of the depression of agriculture, the principal business of the community. . . .

I agree with the honorable gentlemen from Virginia, that high wages are a proof of national prosperity; we differ only in the means by which that desirable end shall be attained. But, if the fact were true, that the wages of labor are high, I deny the correctness of the argument founded upon it. The argument assumes, that natural labor is the principal element in the business of manufacture. That was the ancient theory. But the valuable inventions and vast improvements in machinery, which have been made within a few past years, have produced a new era in the arts. . . . The last objection, with a notice of which I shall trouble the committee, is, that the constitution does not authorize the passage of the bill. The gentleman from Virginia does not assert indeed that it is inconsistent with the express provisions of that instrument, but he thinks it incompatible with the spirit of the constitution. If we attempt to provide for the internal improvement of the country, the constitution, according to some gentlemen, stands in our way. If we attempt to protect American industry against foreign policy and the rivalry of foreign industry, the constitution presents an insuperable obstacle. This constitution must be a most singular instrument! It seems to be made for any other people than our own. Its action is altogether foreign.—*Henry Clay, Works, pp. 497, ff.*

Webster Against Protection (see SIDE LIGHTS).

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17.

General Economic Development.—In a general way the year 1830 may be chosen to mark the transition from a rural to an urban tendency in the distribution of population. During the thirty years preceding 1820 the city population only increased from 131,000 to 475,000. In the next ten years it nearly doubled, and by 1860 5,072,000 people, or one-sixth of the population, instead of one-thirtieth as in 1790, were gathered in cities. This fact brought with it new economic conditions. The great factory with its hundreds of operatives replaced the hum of the spinning wheel, or the crash of the loom in the home. The producer and the consumer were no longer side by side. The great city brought into existence new problems in government. Poverty, the "sweat" shop and the ward "boss" furnished work for the philanthropist as well as for the political and social reformer. Again the north and the south divided on the economic as well as the moral aspects of the labor question. Slave labor is essentially "extensive," hence it constantly demanded more and more territory. Texas and California were gained under the influence of this necessity. On the other hand free labor is "intensive." It created cities, fertilized the soil, varied its industries, increased its numbers, grew in intelligence and power, and accumulated wealth. Thus the struggle between the two systems must come whenever slave labor was forbidden to expand its territorial limits. But in the contest free labor must conquer, for it had created for itself the numbers, wealth, resources and strength which the other system lacked.

The marvelous industrial development of this era cannot be understood without a knowledge of the great increase in numbers and hence in power through immigration. The north was the recipient of this entire increment. The great impulse to emigration came in 1845 on account of the conditions in Europe, and by 1861 more than 4,000,000 of people came to this country, and thousands of them lent their aid to the cause of free labor and its economics in the struggle from 1861 to 1865. Finally the most momentous changes in the world's history came during these years. In the beginning of the century the means of travel were scarcely better than they were two thousand years before. The road, the horse and the wagon were still as in Greece and Rome the only means of conveyance. Agricultural and other industrial implements were only slightly better developed. But think of the change between 1815 and 1861! The railroad, the telegraph, the sewing machine, and the mower had almost revolutionized the industry of world. These inventions were almost as important politically and socially as they were industrially. As elsewhere stated, the railroad united the east and the west, made and preserved a nation.

Finally in our economic studies we should notice the three great crises of 1816, 1837 and 1857. The conditions preceding each were similar; a deranged currency, excessive speculation and inflated prices.

17.

Effects of Railroads.—These matters of transportation policy in past centuries are chiefly important as illustrating the drift of the general history of the time. In itself the transportation business was small The movement of goods in a year on all the through routes of the world a century ago would not equal the movement on a single one of our trunk lines of railroad at the present day. . . . .

We no longer produce for the home market, but for the world's markets. It is by the world's supply and demand that prices are made. The development of transportation has been the main instrument of this change. It has gone hand in hand with the extension of the credit system; each has supplemented the other. The bill of lading is made to serve the same purpose as the bill of exchange. The movements of the international trade are helped forward by telegraphic transfers of money. Transactions which would formerly have taken months to complete are now settled in half an hour. . . .

The concentration of industry in large cities is directly connected with improved transportation. When roads were the chief means of transportation the size of cities was limited by the available supply of food. . . .

One hundred years ago the United States had no system of transportation. Except on natural watercourses it had very little transportation of any kind. The roads were built by local authorities for local purposes—and badly built at that. Wagon conveyance was slow, and expensive. It took a week to go from Boston to New York by stage, and nearly three weeks to reach Charleston. . . . *Hadley, Railroad Transportation, 4, ff.*

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18. EDUCATION.

Public Education, as we know it, may be said to be the product of the period under consideration. As in so many other fields of American history, the close of the second or real war of independence marked also the beginnings of new and more powerful influences in education. The years immediately preceding 1825 were marked by increasing pauperism and drunkenness and less respect for the rights of property than the earlier years of American history. A great religious and temperance revival began in that year. Many found the cure for the evils that threatened society in increasing the public intelligence through education. The result was a turning to and a study of the educational methods in vogue, which led to a general but gradual reorganization in both scope and methods.

Previous to 1815 only the rudiments of the common schools, of systems of organization, of supervision, of support by the state, of co-education—in fact, of education for girls at all—of special training for teachers, of technical education, were found. The common or public school began in "pauper" or charity schools. The ruling classes educated their children at home or in private schools. The mingling of the classes with the masses was not yet to be endured. The growth of democracy and the development of the public schools have gone forward hand in hand. The "rate bill" supported the school, for the public tax was as yet little known. By the end of this period the reorganization in the north was almost completed. The south lagged behind, and did not complete her movement until after the civil war. The parochial school was also common far down into this century, even long after the union of church and state politically had ceased. Naturally and necessarily it follows that there could be no system of organization as long as the schools were private or parochial.



George Peabody.

The first attempt at organization was the district system, a system not yet superseded by the township or county plan in many parts of the country. Supervision developed slowly. The state superintendent, as also the county and city superintendents, were the products of this period. Horace Mann and Henry Barnard did more, perhaps, to co-ordinate, organize, and unify the school system than any other men of the period. Teachers' institutes and normal schools were not developed until well down into the middle of the century. Towards the close of this period the educational forces were not only furnished with better text books, but they were also supplemented in their work by lyceum lecture courses, and circulating libraries. The lyceum and the lecture courses reached their zenith during this last decade. The barrenness of the courses, whether in common school or in college, was also relieved a short time before the civil war by introducing the study of poetry and literature in general, by the expansion of the work in history and the sciences, and finally by the introduction of the elective system in colleges. The University of Virginia led in this last reform, itself quickened to this action by the great leader of American democracy and founder of the State University, Thomas Jefferson. Law and divinity schools were also the product of this period, while medical and other technical schools advanced with great rapidity. Permanent provision for the support of the public schools, whether higher or lower, was also made by the

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grant of public lands and by the establishment of a regular system of taxation for their support. The change within the school-room was as marked as without. "Moral suasion" was becoming as common as the use of the rod had formerly been. But more important still, the school now was becoming co-educational. Girls were to be educated, and with their brothers. In the last decade of our period came the final battle to determine whether the schools were to be state or church, public or parochial. Since then there have been skirmishes, but no contest that seriously endangered the free, popular public school system.

18. EDUCATION.

Educational Tendencies of the Period.—As a mere inventory, the results of this history will at first surprise us. We see the broad scope of the educational idea – not merely its school course from the kindergarten to the university, but its supplementary institutions, the library, the museum, the reading circle, the scientific association, the variety of special schools; the widespread impulse toward founding educational institutions, and increasing with the growth of the nation. All this becomes impressive only when seen in the solid mass.

But more than all, the trend of the movement interests us as it becomes apparent through the contrast of beginnings with subsequent stages of unfolding:

(1).—We see everywhere a movement from private, endowed, and parochial schools, toward the assumption of education by the state. The general government, founded "to promote the general welfare," as the preamble to the constitution recites, has fostered education from the beginning by extensive donations of land. States first established colleges and universities, and next free common elementary schools; and afterward gradually filled in intermediate links of the system, and then added supplementary institutions. By and by state systems of education for the unfortunates and criminal classes arise. Then special schools for the training of teachers, and the foundation and support of libraries and museums at public expense begin. Private endowment and religious zeal initiate new lines of educational experiment, and as soon as their utility to the general welfare is demonstrated they are adopted into the system of free education, supported at public expense.

(2).—There is a trend away from isolated efforts and toward system and supervision. System has this advantage that it makes supervision possible. It is the object of general superintendence to discover what is fruitful and promising in the work of individuals and localities, and to strengthen the whole system by making the adoption of these improvements universal. Each shall contribute something worth adopting by all, and, in turn, avail himself of their experience. In this lies the great significance of our national trend toward system.

(3) —There has been a trend in methods. This appears in several particulars, namely, in the adaptation of the matter of instruction to the mind of the child, so that he assimilates relatively more, and memorizes or stores up, in an undigested form, relatively less. This adaptation appears most noticeably in the instruction of the primary grades, and, next to this, in the advanced instruction in natural history and physics. The pupil is made to conduct his own researches, and is furnished the material for study The methods also have improved, in that they widen the investigation in the collateral branches. Formerly each subject was isolated from its relations; now it is enumerated by light thrown on it from other provinces. The methods of discipline have generally improved. Corporal punishment has been very much diminished. The entire educational idea has progressed in the direction of divine charity.— *W. T. Harris, Education in the United States.*

The University of Virginia.—As early as 1779, while yet the "Old Dominion" with her sister states was embroiled in a doubtful war; and again in 1814, after numerous defeats and constant opposition from the already established William and Mary College, from the Protestant churches and from most of the political leaders of the time, Mr. Jefferson and his friends sought to provide for the state, along with the general system of education, a university, in which should be taught in the highest degree, "every branch of knowledge, whether calculated to enrich, stimulate, and adorn the understanding, or to be useful in the arts and practical business of life." Five years later (1819) an act of the assembly was obtained establishing the University of Virginia. When six years later it was opened, after a wide acquaintance and careful study of the most progressive institutions in the United States, it was found that in discipline and instruction, in constitution and means, it materially differed from them all. In Mr. Jefferson's words in publishing his plan, it was said: "There is one practice from which we shall certainly vary, although it has been copied by near y every college and academy in the United States. That is the holding of the students all to one prescribed course of reading, and disallowing exclusive application to those branches only which are to qualify them for the particular vocation to which they are destined. We shall, on the contrary, allow them uncontrolled choice in the lectures they shall choose to attend, and require elementary qualifications only, and sufficient age."—*Boone, Education in the United States, 6-7, 190.*

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **WARS.**—Indian Wars, Foreign Wars.
14. **FOREIGN RELATIONS.**—With England, Mexican War Defended, Mexican War Unnecessary, Mexican War not a Defensive War.
15. **FOREIGN RELATIONS** (Continued) —With Spain and Other Countries, Cuba Wanted, America for Americans, No further European Colonization, The Monroe Doctrine.

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16. **ECONOMIC HISTORY.**—The Tariff, Defense of Protection, The "American System," Webster against Protection.
17. **ECONOMIC HISTORY** (Continued).—General Economic Development, Effects of Railroads.
18. **EDUCATION.**—Educational Tendencies of the Period, The Universitiy of Virginia.

QUESTIONS.

13. *Have the people of the United States been a military people? What is the best method of preparing for war? Who was the great champion of "industrialism" as the best foundation of a nation's greatness? What is the great element of weakness in a military nation like Germany? In the long run what nation always triumphs? Are we as a nation so situated as to need a standing army? Is it or not a waste of our resources and strength to spend a large amount of money on a great naval establishment? What Indian wars have we been engaged in? Were they just wars? What great political complication grew out of the First Seminole War? Why were the American troops always victorious? Is a civilized, results beneficial to civilization? Why were the American troops always victorious? Is a civilized, vigorous and progressive nation justified in seizing territory from a decaying or stationary state?*

14. *Why were foreign affairs of less moment in this period than they were during the preceding years? In what ways did our foreign relations affect internal development? With what countries were our relations most intimate and important? How did the dispute with England over the fisheries question arise? What three boundary disputes were practically settled during this period? What was the "Caroline" affair? What foundation had the United States for its claim to all Oregon? Ought the had England to Oregon as far south as the Columbia? How was the question settled? Ought the United States to have compromised? What was the result of the "Navigation War" between England and the United States? What was the so-called "Colonial Policy"? What treaty of reciprocity during this period? Was it wise? What was the Clayton-Bulwer treaty? Is it still binding? Was Jackson justified in hanging Ambrister and Arbuthnot?*



Cyrus W. Field.

15. *What various causes of dispute with Spain? Why was Spain willing to sell Florida? Why did the United States wish Florida? How did the Monroe Doctrine originate? What is the Monroe Doctrine? Why was England willing to have it declared? What was the "Holy Alliance"? What were its principles? Is the Monroe Doctrine applicable now? Is it a part of international law? Is the United States under political obligation to the other American states on account of this doctrine? Is the Monroe Doctrine a law of the United States? What difficulties with Spain about Cuba? What is meant by "Filibustering"? What was the "Ostend Manifesto"? Who were its authors? What doctrine did it set forth? If its doctrines were true, what was then true of slavery? What was the Panama Congress? Did we treat Mexico in negotiating the same as other powers? Who was Kossuth? How received in this country? What were the plans of the "Young Americans" 1848 1860? Were they wise and statesmanlike? Who was their most noted leader?*

16. *What is a tariff? What a protective, what a free-trade tariff? What was the condition of American manufactures in 1815? What was the danger of their destruction at that time? Why was protection popular at that time? How did the sections of the country divide on the question? When did the tariff first become a political or party issue? What was the "tariff of abominations"? What political purpose in its passage? What is meant by an "Infant Industry"? Will the arguments applicable to infant industry apply to developed industries? In what year were tariff bills passed? Which ones were protective? Which inclined toward free trade? Explain why protection was a popular movement from 1815 to 1828 and a party question afterward? Why so little interest in the question from 1845 to 1860? Which won in the tariff controversy of 1832-33, Jackson or Calhoun? Which, in a general way, be said to mark? What*

17. *What change in American life may the year 1830, in a general way, be said to mark? What new dangers came with the change? What advantages? Why did the south demand an extension of territory? Why so few cities in the South? Why so few manufactures? How far was the civil war an economic struggle? Why did immigrants into the United States almost all go to the north? How did this fact affect the result in the civil war? What change in means of travel in this period? Were the changes greater than in the 2,000 preceding years? How did this change affect the social and political life of the people? In what direction did most of the railroads extend? How affect our history? Could the United States exist today without the railroad and telegraph? What crises took place in this period?*

18. *About what time did the present system of public education become fairly well established? What led to study of educational methods about the beginning of this period? Mention some of the important changes made in this period. What was the origin of the common school system? What is the connection between the "rate-bill" and aristocracy? Between democracy and the free public school? Why was the South slower in adopting changes than the North? Who were leaders in reforming school supervision? What aids to public education in decade 1850-1860? What change in college curricula took place about this time? What are the advantages of the elective system? The disadvantages? What university first introduced it? What resources for the support of the public schools by 1860? Is education a public or a private interest?*

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19. RELIGION.

(1) **Church and State.**—At the beginning of this period of American history the union between church and state which had existed during the colonial era was almost ended. In Connecticut and Massachusetts there yet remained a slight connection. The various proscribed sects, as Baptists, Episcopalians, and Methodists, joined with the Republicans to overthrow the Federalists, and to remodel the state constitution of Connecticut. This was accomplished in the year 1818. After that year the Congregational clergy had no more legal rights than the ministers of other denominations. The same result was reached in Massachusetts a few years later. Finally everywhere, by the middle of the century, the religious disqualifications for holding office were removed.



John Tyler.

(2) **Catholics.**—Except in Maryland and in Louisiana there was no large body of Catholics till in the fifth decade of the century. Protestantism was everywhere in the ascendency. After 1845, however, the great emigration from Ireland and Germany set in, which led to the Know-Nothing movement in 1854 and the following years. One phase of their movement was directed against the Catholics who had come during these years in large numbers. This was in part due to inherited feelings and in part to the unwise action of the Catholics themselves in regard to the Bible in the public schools and to the holding of church property. But the spirit of toleration was too strong, and the feeling of fair play too great on the part of the American people to allow this movement to become really dangerous to religious liberty.

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19. RELIGION.

Union of Church and State in Decay. — Yet every one felt that real distinctions of party no longer existed. The Anglicans of Connecticut the Unitarians of Boston, the Universalists and Baptists looked chiefly to the overthrow of the established New England church; and the democrats of New York, like the republicans of Virginia, labored for a system of internal improvements, and for increased energy in the national government. Parties, no longer held together by discipline, were liable at any moment to fall into confusion; and as frequently happened in such stages of public opinion, they were extraordinarily affected by influences seemingly trivial. . . . In the intellectual development of the country, the earlier stage of Unitarianism was more interesting than the latter, for it marked a general tendency of national thought. . . . The most remarkable quality of Unitarianism was its high social and intellectual character. The other more popular religious movements followed for the most part a less ambitious path, but were marked by the same humanitarian tendency. In contrast with old stringency of thought, the religious activity of the epoch showed warmth of emotion. . . .

Separation of Church and State in New England.—The coalition of republicans with the proscribed religious sects miscarried, as we have seen, in the spring elections of 1816; but a year later this toleration ticket prevailed, and Wolcott was chosen governor. The canvass was one of the most violent ever witnessed in that state. In John Cotton Smith, the defeated candidate, appeared the last of the old Connecticut regime of courtly but stiff-necked and bigoted magistrates who stood for steady habits, the discipline of youth, and the repression of all backsliders. With him passed away the queue, the cockaded hat, powder-black stockings, knee-breeches and buckles, and those other awe-inspiring emblems of Connecticut authority which marked training-day in the olden times. . . .

This, it should be observed, was a religious, quite as much as a political, triumph. Methodists, Episcopalians, Baptists, Universalists, radical infidels, all who had been placed under the ban of the old Congregational establishment with which state federalism had been inseparably connected, united at the polls with the republicans to throw off the yoke of intolerance. . . .

Church and State were henceforth separated, no one was to be compelled to join or support any religious association, and each sect was allowed to tax its members for its own support. . . .

Massachusetts was the only state in the Union where compulsory taxation for religious worship still prevailed: for the New Hampshire toleration act was passed in 1819, and when the people of Maine separated they separated from the system. In the dismembered Commonwealth the rule had come to this, that persons were allowed to choose their religion; but must support some religion, so that if not attending anywhere, one's payment still went to the Congregational church. . . . (Channing inspired this movement, which was an intellectual one and had already gained control of Harvard University.)—*Schouler.*

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20.

(3) **Reform.**—"Crime, profaneness, desecration of the Sabbath, intemperance and pauperism prevailed everywhere to an extent which called loudly for public interference." This condition aroused a moral awakening, and in 1825 one of the most notable religious revivals of the century began. This movement took a moral as well as a religious direction, and led to reforms in regard to prisons, charity work, debtor laws and education for the defective classes; also to agitation against drunkenness, Sabbath-breaking, and finally against slavery. The abolition movement seemed in part to have been the product of this movement of moral exaltation. This moral enthusiasm spent its force in the south without reaching the question of slavery.



Daniel Webster.

(4) **Unrest and Disintegration.**—A disintegrating tendency was at work during the whole of this period. In its early years the Unitarian doctrine led to a split in the Congregational church of New England. Boston and Harvard became the center of one wing, the Unitarians, and Yale the centre of the orthodox Congregationalists. At a later day the Presbyterians divided into the new and the old schools; the Methodists into a church south and a church north. The Christian church split off from the Baptists. The Universalists gained a standing. Unrest was one of the causes. The slavery issue came in as another factor. The effect on the whole was to extend the idea of toleration. In so far as slavery was a cause it helped to alienate the North and the South. In the one section it was taught that slavery was right and sanctioned by the Bible. In the other the Church gradually came to take a stand against its extension, and finally against its existence. This religious sunrest also favored the rise of philosophers, and aided in the development of trancendentalism.

20.

Unrest and Disintegration.—Protestant Christianity began to split up into a diversity of proselyting sects, none having standards of authority, and some with absurd or trivial tenets to rest upon. Mental insanity, originating often in religious delusions, began to work out murders and suicides, such as befitted emotional people, more French than English; knavery and fanaticism blew the trumpet for a new age of miracles and insight into the spirit world. In the streets of New York City might be seen a woman who carried about a Bible, and harangued the curious crowds, proclaiming herself inspired. Joe Smith, the Mormon prophet, led his chosen band to Missouri, the earlier land of promise, where thousands joined the new faith he had founded on a pretended discovery of some holy writings graven upon plates, and dug up by him near Lake Ontario. The wonders of animal magnetism, mesmerism, and clairvoyance were next made known and pressed into the use of cheap exhibitions of the future state. Other reforms were for this life. Socialism was preached by those English agitators, Robert Owen and Fannie Wright, the latter a pioneer among female orators of the emancipated type. To communism in property the locofocos of New York had shown some tendency. Fourierism, with its broad indecencies of promiscuous life and its impracticable theory of associated industry, had its little school of advocates by the time Owen went out of fashion. In medicine started out homeopathy, hydropathy, the Graham diet, and the Thompsonian cure. Non-resistance started up among those who were forcing the rest of mankind to war. Phrenology was a new study, enabling human character to be read by the protruberances of the brain. And scarcely had these philanthropic and religious revolutions been set in motion by the friends of universal progress, when William Miller, an American farmer, flamed like a comet to announce, calendar in hand, that the world was coming to an end. No idea was so absurd or so visionary that one might not hope to found a school or a sect upon it in this new American society, if only he seemed to be in earnest; whether earnest or not, he got well advertised. . . . —*Schouler, Vol. II., pp. 133 ff., III., 51 ff.*

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21.

(5) **Spirit and Action.**—Home missionary societies took on a new spirit in the period immediately after the war of 1812, while the foreign missionary society was not founded till some years later. Samuel John Mills' name should stand first among the leaders in this movement. The Bible Society of the United States, founded in 1816, was the result of his efforts. Finally, it should be noted that a vast forward stride was taken in the years between 1815 and 1861 in the spirit of religion. It was less doctrinal and more practical. Belief was of less moment, and life of more. Toleration was beginning to be recognized as one of the Christian virtues. The church as such was doing more for temperance, for education in its broadest sense, and for reforms in the homes of the people.



Marshfield.—Residence of Daniel Webster.

21.

The Just Attitude of the Government toward all religious bodies whose tenets do not contravene its welfare is impartial sufferance and protection. Church and state are co-ordinate powers, each supplementing and upholding the other, and both alike ordained of God. It is, therefore, the duty of all religionists to sustain the government, to obey dignities and recognize the authority of the powers that be. We are bound to "render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's." On this the church recognizes the function of the civil administration as the impartial champion of the religious rights of all. In this view of the inter-relation of the church and the state lies the function of all moral legislation. The Sabbath law, for example, is defended on the ground of the individual right to rest and worship without disturbance. By the recognition of this principle the influence of the churches is enlisted in civil reform. Under it have grown up the organized charities which cover the land. The church withholds her grasp from the public treasury; the state confiscates no ecclesiastical holdings. The humblest body of believers is secure in its rights. The government is bound to defend it in the exercise of its religion, however peculiar, so long as this is not in contravention to the fundamental principle of the state or dangerous to its welfare. This is involved in the very thought of religious freedom; and these are the boundaries of the American establishment which, when realized, must furnish forth, as we believe, the theocracy of the Golden Age, the Commonwealth of God.—*David James Burrell at World's Congress of Religions.*

Christianity and Social Science.—Christianity, on the other hand, favors the development of the most diverse social institutions and the development of a grand public life, because these mean fraternity. What is private separates; what is public draws together. Art galleries, for example, when private, mean withdrawal and withholding the products of the mind of man, while public art galleries signify public uses of that which is essentially public in its nature. As a social force, Christianity favors private frugality and generous public expenditures. We may express all this and something more in the statement that Christianity means social solidarity or it means nothing. When the founder of Christianity said he was the Son of Man, he at the same time proclaimed social solidarity. Social solidarity means the recognition of the identity of all human interests, and, truly understood, it promotes the identification of one's self with humanity. Fulness of life in every department must be sought in human society. Wealth, art, music, literature, religion, even language itself, are all social products. What Christianity teaches in this respect, social science, rightly understood, teaches also. Isolated life means material poverty and the absence of intellectual achievements. Man becomes great only when humanity moves within him. Art is only great when it is an expression of the social life. Masterpieces of art were exposed on the highways of a nation unable to appreciate them. Literature makes epochs when in a writer the national life pulsates and through him the nation speaks. Morality finds its source and its sanction in society and is re-enforced by the commands of the Almighty.—*Prof. Richard T. Ely at World's Congress of Religions.*

First Modern Sunday Schools.—During the year 1809 the great change began to take place which transferred Sunday schools from the charge of paid teachers to those who volunteered to work without pay. The change in England took place at a much later day. A new idea also crept in with this alteration. It had been thought before this date under the reign of paid teachers, that Sunday schools were chiefly for the low and ignorant children. Under the voluntary system it has come to be the main effort to enlist all for continued Bible study.—*Newman, America: Its History and Biography, p. 426.*

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22. SOCIAL LIFE.

Immaturity; beginnings, to about 1830.—Nothing, perhaps, in historical writing is so hard as to depict accurately the real life of the people. To describe events is comparatively easy. To outline the characteristics of a single individual is more difficult, but to find out and describe those of the mighty being we call the "people" requires a deep study, a powerful imagination, and a great effort of the intellect. That the people of the United States of 1820 were not simply transplanted Europeans is generally admitted. Now, if they were a new people, what marks differentiated them from their forefathers, and from their cousins across the sea? This new people, in 1815, was only beginning to be self-conscious. Perry's victory on Lake Erie, Jackson's at New Orleans, the work of Lawrence, Decatur and others on the sea, acted as the needed stimuli. In general it may be said that the American people were self-sufficient and self-confident, yet slightly mistrustful of themselves, hence they wished the approval of the old world, and became angry if they received criticism instead. On the whole they were inclined to materialism, having, however, enough of the yeast of idealism to save them from complete absorption in the pursuit of the almighty dollar. The rush and bustle of later times was only showing itself in localities, and was not as yet a common characteristic. In these early years country life predominated; simplicity and conservatism rather than radicalism were in the ascendancy. The innovating spirit became rife in the fourth and fifth decades of this century as illustrated in the Brook farm experiment, in the introduction of hydropathy and the other "opathies"; in the rise of the Grahamites, of socialism, of Fourierism and of the Millerites. The American was youthful, therefore buoyant, hopeful, expectant. He had as yet done little, but he gave promise of much in the future. Perhaps he was above all an "American" and a worshiper of American institutions. If not already believing, this new people in time came to believe that their country was superior to all others; to hold that its institutions were fitted for all times and all conditions. Their patriotism became so great and all-pervading it was not at all critical. They had not yet acquired sufficient confidence in themselves to be indifferent to disparaging remarks. They resented the criticisms of Dickens and others, thereby showing their lack of complete maturity.

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22. SOCIAL LIFE.

American Social Characteristics.—In the American character antipathy to war ranked first among political traits. . . . In politics, the divergence of America from Europe perpetuated itself in the popular instinct for peaceable methods . . . That the individual should rise to a higher order either of intelligence or morality than had existed in former ages was not to be expected, for the United States offered less field for the development of individuality than had been offered by older and smaller societies. The chief function of the American Union was to raise the average standard of popular intelligence and wellbeing, and at the close of the war of 1812 the superior average intelligence of Americans was so far admitted that Yankee cuteness, or smartness, became a national reproach; but much doubt remained whether the intelligence belonged to a high order, or proved a high morality. . . .

America showed an unEnglish rapidity in movement. In politics, the American people, between 1787 and 1817 accepted greater changes than had been known in England since 1688. . . . Another intellectual trait, as has been already noticed, was the disposition to relax severity. Between the theology of Jonathan Edwards and that of William Ellery Channing was an enormous gap, not only in doctrines but also in methods. . . . With the establishment of these conclusions, a new episode in American history began in 1815. New subjects demanded new treatment, no longer dramatic but steadily tending to become scientific. The traits of American character were fixed; the rate of physical and economical growth was established; and history, certain that at a given distance of time the Union would contain so many millions of people, with wealth valued at so many millions of dollars, became thenceforward chiefly concerned in regard to what kind of people these millions were to be. They were intelligent, but what paths would their intelligence select? They were quick, but what solution of insoluble problems would quickness hurry? They were scientific, and what control would their science exercise over their destiny? They were mild, but what corruptions would their relaxations bring? They were peaceful, but by what machinery were their corruptions to be purged? What interests were to vivify a society so vast and uniform? What ideals were to ennoble it? What object, besides physical content, must a democratic continent aspire to attain? For the treatment of such questions, history required another century of experience.—*Henry B. Adams, Hist. of U. S., 1801-1817, Vol. IX., pp. 80 ff., 183 ff., 219 ff.*

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23.

The American in the Saddle.—By 1830 we may say that this new people was in the saddle with the reins well in hand. Jackson was their representative, and, whether for weal or woe, was carrying out their will. But by this time also the idealistic leaven was working. It showed itself in countless ways. Education, moral movements, temperance and prison reforms, transcendentalism, anti-slavery movements, were only a few of its manifold manifestations. European critics believed this American to be wholly mercenary. The answer to this charge was given when the guns of Sumter resounded over the land. The southern man was perhaps not less idealistic, but his environment gave him a different field of vision. Gallantry, chivalry, honor and courage, perhaps less marked American traits, were his dominant characteristics. The ideal American was able to adapt himself to all circumstances. He did not seem to have to learn what to do, but from his innate qualities he seemed to know. Henry James, in "The Americans," has well illustrated this phase of his character.



James K. Polk.

By the close of this period the scientific attainments of the American made him easily the leader of the industrial world. He took from the old world what he would, but he no longer imitated—he absorbed, assimilated and transformed. His home was no longer without adornment; his love of the beautiful was aroused, but not as yet developed. Elegance and refinement in literature were not unknown. The character of his amusement had undergone a transformation. The simple life of the earlier years was yielding to the complexity of a nation with varied industries and vast cities. Rush was now a marked characteristic. Idleness was despised. Movement was everywhere, even to so great an extent as to sacrifice depth and strength. Nationality was no less marked, but it was now more calm. However, it had not yet reached that state when its own self-approval was all-sufficient.

23.

American Social Traits.—In spite of existing disadvantages, however, the American had already gained a national character in European estimation and his own. In marked contrast with his English progenitor, he was depicted as long-bodied, lank, and bilious, awkward in his movements, inclined to stretch at ease, drawling in speech, of imperturbable, rather than hasty or passionate temper, having a keen, roving eye, features inclining to sharpness, and a corkscrew inquisitiveness, from which there was no possible escape. His fertile expedients for every emergency were astonishing; he showed himself equally at home on sea or land, and was exceedingly shrewd at a bargain, often carrying his point artfully under an aspect of simplicity. In his hat of roughly dressed beaver, when he wore it, he stuffed handkerchief, cigars, letters, and newspapers. He seemed always busy, always on the alert to discern the main chance. . . . . Consequently our manners and customs were those of a society hard at work and intent almost to enthusiasm on subduing the material world. Here was to be seen a vast country, much of it still in nature's primeval wilderness, and a vigorous race hacking and hewing in all directions, preparing forest lands for farming, and farm lands next for a close urban population. . . . Nor was this anxious, restless spirit confined to the pioneer existence, but it was visible everywhere. If not at work, our American sat uneasily: he would stretch his legs over the mantlepiece or a chair; he would whittle with his jack-knife, drum with his hands, whistle to himself. . . . Competition and his unsettled and changeful surroundings kept him nervous, lest he should waste a moment. . . .

Up to 1830 women had taken no part in public affairs, not even the temperance reform bringing their rare energy for details into play. It was Garrison's abolition movement, reinforced, in some sense, by Emerson and the transcendental school, as we shall observe hereafter, that first engaged their open co-operation with men, and started the ball for what our cant phrase reckons as "women's rights". . . .

Where birth and rank make no permanent distinction, one must dress well to keep in style, and by all odds the Americans were the best dressed common people in the world, showing good taste even in economy. In language and conversation, too, no common people evinced such intelligence. . . . This western boastfulness and push, and ready hospitality, which gave to our expanding Union a new type of character, was not much longer to effervesce, chiefly in Cincinnati. . . . — *Schouler III., pp. 511 ff., IV. pp. 4 ff.*

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24. CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

The fifty years after 1815 saw no change made in the outward form of the written constitution. But it was during these years, to a great degree, that the unwritten constitution came into existence through the interpretations of Congress, of the President, and, above all, of the Supreme Court. John Marshall, in the wonderful series of decisions which bear the impress of his genius, did more, perhaps, to mold the constitution into a national form than any other one man. Excepting two important earlier cases, these decisions began in 1816. and did not end until his death in 1835. In Martin vs. Hunter's Lessee it was affirmed by the Supreme Court that the right of appeal lay from a state court to the federal Supreme Court. A state bankrupt law discharging the contract was decided to be contrary to the federal constitution. In the famous Dartmouth College case, also in 1819, the court decided that charters were contracts, and that a state could not impair them. In 1821, in Cohens vs. Virginia, the right of the federal court to reverse a decision of the highest state court was announced. Later, in 1824, in Gibbons vs. Ogden, it was decided that all commerce, trade, traffic and communication between the states was under the control of Congress, and not of the states. Finally, in 1827, the Supreme Court decided that the discretion in regard to calling forth the militia rested with the President, and not with the state executives. All of these decisions were based on the idea of nationality. Thus one by one the powers of government were gathered together in the hands of the United States. This nationalizing tendency of the Supreme Court under the guidance of Marshall was in harmony with legislative interpretation till about 1830. Then slavery entered, and the great struggle over interpretation began. In the senate in that year Webster and Hayne met in debate over this great question. Both sides appealed to history and the word of the constitution. The friends of each believed him the victor. Three years later Webster and Calhoun measured swords over this question. It was a contest of giants, and Webster's victory, if victory it was, was won with difficulty. Webster's reply to Hayne furnished the nationalist his rallying cry, a cry that rang in the ears of the people of the North till it finally inspired them to action. Nullification died, but the doctrine of secession took its place. This principle was gradually developed till the people of the South by 1861 came to have no doubt of its rightfulness and of the justness of their action in accordance with it. Thus the two sections had drifted apart constitutionally as well as religiously, politically and morally. They finally settled forever, let us hope, the issue on the bloody field of war.



Zachary Taylor.

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24. CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT.

Origin and Nature of the Constitution.—This leads us to inquire into the origin of this government and the source of its power. Whose agent is it? Is it the creature of the state legislatures, or the creature of the people? If the government be the agent of the state governments, then they may control it, provided they can agree in the manner of controlling it; if it be the agent of the people, then the people alone can control it, restrain it, modify or reform it.

If there be no power to settle such questions, independent of the states, is not the whole Union a rope of sand? Are we not thrown back again, precisely, upon the old Confederation? It is too plain to be argued. Four and twenty interpreters of the constitutional law, each with a power to decide for itself, and none with authority to bind anybody else, and this constitutional law the only bond of their union! What is such a state of things but a mere connection during pleasure, or, to use the phraseology of the times, *during feeling?* And that feeling, too, not the feeling of the people, who established the Constitution, but the feeling of the state governments. . . .

I must now beg to ask, sir, whence is this supposed right of the states derived? Where do they find the power to interfere with the laws of the Union? Sir, the opinion which the honorable gentleman maintains is a notion founded in a

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total misapprehension, in my judgment, of the origin of this government, and of the foundation on which it stands. I hold it to be a popular government, erected by the people; those who administer it, responsible to the people; and itself capable of being amended and modified, just as the people may choose it should be. It is as popular, just as truly emanating from the people, as the State governments. It is created for one purpose; the State governments for another. It has its own powers; they have theirs. There is no more authority with them to arrest the operation of a law of Congress, than with Congress to arrest the operation of their laws. We are here to administer a Constitution emanating immediately from the people, and trusted by them to our administration. . . .

The people, then, sir, erected this government. They gave it a Constitution, and in that Constitution they have enumerated the powers which they bestow on it. They have made it a limited government. They have defined its authority. They have restrained it to the exercise of such powers as are granted; and all others, they declare, are reserved to the states or the people. . . .

But, sir, the people have wisely provided, in the constitution itself, a proper, suitable mode and tribunal for settling questions of constitutional law. By declaring, sir, that "the Constitution, and the



Millard Fillmore.

laws of the United States made in pursuance thereof, shall be the supreme law of the land, anything in the Constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding."—*Webster, Works, III., pp 321. ff.*

Rights of the National Government.—To sum up all in a few words: The general government has the right, in the first instance, of construing its own powers, which, if final and conclusive, as is supposed by many, would have placed the reserved powers at the mercy of the delegated, and thus destroyed the equilibrium of the system. Against this, a state has the right of nullification. This right on the part of the state, if not counterpoised, might tend too strongly to weaken the general government and derange the system. To correct this, the amending or repairing power is strengthened.

We, then, hold it as unquestionable, that, on the separation from the crown of Great Britain, the people of the several colonies became free and independent states, possessed of the full right of self government; and that no power can be rightfully exercised over them, but by the consent and authority of their respective states, expressed or implied. We also hold it as equally unquestionable, that the Constitution of the United States is a compact between the people of the several states, constituting free, independent and sovereign communities; that the government it created was, formed and appointed to execute, according to the provisions of the instrument, the powers therein granted, as the joint agent of the several states; that all its acts, transcending these powers, are simply and of themselves, null and void, and that in case of such infractions, it is the right of the states, in their sovereign capacity, each acting for itself and its citizens, in like manner as they adopted the Constitution, to judge thereof in the last resort, and to adopt such measures—not inconsistent with the compact—as, may be deemed fit, to arrest the execution of the act within their respective limits. Such we hold to be the rights of the states, with reference to an unconstitutional act of the government; nor do we deem their duty to exercise it on proper occasions, less certain and imperative, than the right itself is clear. . . .

But, while we hold the rights and duties of the states to be such as we have stated, we are deeply impressed with the conviction that it is due to the relation existing between them, as members of a common Union, and the respect they ought ever to entertain towards the government ordained to carry into effect the important objects for which the constitution was formed, that the occasion to justify a state in interposing its authority, ought to be one of necessity; where all other peaceful remedies have been unsuccessfully tried; and where the only alternative is, interposition on one side, or oppression of its citizens, and imminent danger to the Constitution and liberty of the country on the other; and such we hold to be the present.—*Calhoun, Works, VI., pp. 176, ff.*

The Union a Nation.—From these conventions the Constitution derives its whole authority. The government proceeds directly from the people; is "ordained and established" in the name of the people. . . . It required not the affirmance, and could not be negatived by the state governments. The Constitution, when thus adopted, was of complete obligation, and bound the state sovereignties. . . . The government of the Union then (whatever may be the influence of this fact on the case), is emphatically and truly a government of the people. In form and substance it emanates from them, its powers are granted by them, and are to be exercised directly on them, and for their benefit. This government is acknowledged by all to be one of enumerated powers. If any one proposition could command the universal assent of mankind, we might expect it would be this—that the government of the Union, though limited in its powers, is supreme within its sphere of action. This would seem to result necessarily from its nature. Among the enumerated powers, we do not find that of establishing a bank or creating a corporation But there is no phrase in the instrument which, like the Articles of Confederation, excludes incidental or implied powers; and which requires that everything granted shall be expressly and minutely described. . . .

The government which has a right to do an act, and has imposed on it the duty of performing that act, must, according to the dictates of reason, be allowed to select the means; and those who contend

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that it may not select any appropriate means, that one particular mode of effecting the object is excepted, take upon themselves the burden of establishing that exception. . . . To its enumeration of powers is added that of making "all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department thereof." The word "necessary" is considered as controlling the whole sentence, and as limiting the right to pass laws for the execution of the granted powers, to such as are indispensable, and without which the power would be nugatory. That it excludes the choice of means and leaves to Congress in each case, that only which is most direct and simple. Is it true, that this is the sense in which the word "necessary" is always used? Does it always import an absolute physical necessity so strong that one thing, to which another may be termed necessary, can not exist without that other? We think it does not. . . . If this limited construction of the word "necessary" must be abandoned in order to punish, whence is derived the rule which would reinstate it, when the government would carry its powers into execution by means not vindictive in their nature? —*Chief Justice Marshall, Case of McCulloch vs. State of Maryland et al., 1819.*

Nullification Opposed (see SIDE LIGHTS).

Right of Secession Denied.—In order to justify secession as a constitutional remedy, it must be on the principle that the Federal government is a mere voluntary association of states, to be dissolved at pleasure by any one of the contracting parties. If this be so, the Confederacy is a rope of sand, to be penetrated and dissolved by the first adverse wave of public opinion in any of the States. . . . But that the Union was designed to be perpetual appears conclusively from the nature and extent of the powers conferred by the constitution on the Federal Government. These powers embrace the very highest attributes of national sovereignty. They place both the sword and the purse under its control. . . . To the extent of the delegated powers, the Constitution of the United States is as much a part of the constitution of each state, and is as binding upon its people, as though it had been textually inserted therein. . . . The right of resistance on the part of the governed against the oppression of their governments can not be denied. It exists independently of all constitutions, and has been exercised at all periods of the world's history. . . . Secession is neither more nor less than revolution. It may or it may not be a justifiable revolution, but still it is revolution.—*Buchanan's Message, Dec. 1860, in App. to Congressional Globe. Pt. 2, 2d Sess., 36th Congress. pp. 2, ff.*

States Right Doctrine Defended.—When the colonies united in sending representatives to a Congress in Philadelphia, there was no purpose, no suggestion of a purpose, to merge their separate individuality in one consolidated mass. . . . It was as "United States," not as a state, or united people—that these colonies—still distinct and politically independent of each other—asserted and achieved their independence of their mother country. As "United States" they adopted the Articles of Confederation, in which the separate sovereignty, freedom, and independence of each was distinctly asserted. They were "United States" when Great Britain acknowledged the absolute freedom and independence of each, distinctly and separately recognized by name. . . . It was without any change of title—still as "United States"—without any sacrifice of individuality—without any compromise of sovereignty—that the same parties entered into a new and amended compact with one another under the present constitution. Larger and more varied powers were conferred upon the common Government for the purpose of insuring a more perfect union—not for that of destroying or impairing the integrity of the contracting members.

The point which now especially concerns the argument is the historical fact that, in all these changes of circumstances and of government, there



Franklin Pierce

has never been one single instance of action by the "people of the United States in the aggregate," or as one body.

If then, the people of the states, in forming a Federal Union, surrendered—or, to use Burlamaqui's terms transferred—or if they meant to surrender or transfer—part of their sovereignty, to whom was the transfer made? . . . There was no such surrender, no such transfer, in whole or in part, expressed or implied. They retained and intended to retain, their sovereignty in its integrity—undivided and indivisible. . . .

When the Articles of Confederation were amended, when the new Constitution was substituted in their place and the general government reorganized, its structure was changed, additional powers were conferred upon it, and thereby subtracted from the powers heretofore exercised by the State governments; bnt the seat of sovereignty—the source of all those delegated and dependent powers—was not disturbed. There was a new government or an amended government—it is entirely immaterial in which of these lights we consider it—but no new PEOPLE was created or constituted. The people, in whom alone sovereignty inheres, remained just as they had been before. The only change was in the form, structure and relations of their governmental agencies. . . .

So far from being against the Constitution or incompatible with it, we contend that, if the right to secede is not prohibited to the states, and no power to prevent it expressly delegated to the United States, it remains as reserved to the states or the people from whom all powers of the General Government were derived. . . .

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To those who argue that the grants of the Constitution are fatal to the reservation of sovereignty, by the states, the Constitution furnishes a conclusive answer in the amendment which was coeval with the adoption of the instrument, and which declared that all powers not delegated to the Government of the Union were reserved to the states or to the people. As sovereignty was not delegated by the states, it was necessarily reserved. . . . —*Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government, by Jefferson Davis, I., pp. 118, ff.*

Secession Inexpedient, Secession in South Carolina (see SIDE LIGHTS).

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **RELIGION.**—*Church and State.* Union of Church and State in Decay, Separation of Church and State in New England.
20. **RELIGION** (Continued).—Unrest and Disintegration.
21. **RELIGION** (Continued).—Spirit and Action.
22. **SOCIAL LIFE.**—Immaturity; beginnings to about 1830, American Social Characteristics, Social and Political Principles.
23. **SOCIAL LIFE** (Continued).—The American in the Saddle, American Social Traits.
24. **CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT.**—Origin and Nature of the Constitution, Rights of the National Government, The Union of a Nation, Nullification Opposed, Right of Secession Denied, States Right Doctrine Defended, Secession Inexpedient, Secession in South Carolina.

QUESTIONS.

19. *In what states was the union of church and state most intimate in 1815? What denomination had special privileges? How was the system overthrown? Was the union a good or an evil? Why? When overthrown in Connecticut? When did the Catholic Church begin to become strong? What movement was in part due to this fact? Was the movement in accord with the spirit of American institutions? What were the causes of the great religious revival of 1825? Of 1859? What results, in part, due to these great revival movements? Why so much religious unrest during these years? Was it a sign of progress or the reverse? What change in the spirit of the church during these years? What noted movements in religion takes form during these years? What religious differences between the North and the South? What important results flow from these differences?*

20. *What disintegrating tendencies were now at work? In what ways were these tendencies shown? What were the causes? What was the general effect? How did this disintegration aid in alienating the North and the South? How did it develop transcendentalism? Give the substance of Schouler's statement? Give the substance of the origin of the term locofocos?*

21. *Give a brief history of the home missionary societies? Give a sketch of the work of Mills? The Bible Society? What changes had taken place in religious toleration? In the work of the church? Give the substance of Burrell's statement as to the just attitude of the government towards religion? Of Prof. Ely's on Christianity and social science? Give Newman's statement in reference to the first modern Sunday school?*

22. *Why is it difficult to depict correctly the social life of a people? When was the "American" born? In what section of the country does he first appear? Where were some of the factors that awakened him to a knowledge that he was a new being? Discuss his characteristics. Why did he dislike criticism? Was he as yet a radical or innovator in 1815? When does this characteristic become marked? What was his opinion in regard to his institution and constitution? Is it best to be so non-critical? Why was the westerner further removed from the European standards than the resident along the coast? Why did radical democracy first develop in the west?*

23. *About what time do American people take power into their hands? If Jackson is a type, what characteristics had the people about 1830? Are the American people peculiarly materialistic? What proof that they are not wholly so? What nation do we most nearly resemble in this respect? How did the northerner and southerner differ? Which was farthest removed from the original type? Why can the American so easily adapt himself to any surroundings? What has given America her industrial greatness? How has it affected character? What change in manners between 1815 and 1861? Describe the personal appearance of "Uncle Sam". Is it a correct likeness? Has America developed individuality, or simply raised the average? Is the American an optimist or a pessimist?*

24. *Were any amendments made to the written constitution during this period? Was the constitution the same at the end as at the beginning of the period? What brought about the change? How do you explain the fact that while about 1,700 amendments to the constitution have been discussed in Congress only 15 have been adopted? What is an unwritten constitution? What is the most famous of unwritten constitutions? Which is the better, the written or the unwritten constitution? Is our real constitution found wholly in the written documents? If not, where shall we look for other parts? Are the state constitutions a part of the constitution of the United States? Mention some of Marshall's famous decisions. What effect did they have on the nature of the constitution? What famous debates over the nature of the constitution? What leading features in regard to its nature? What was the doctrine of nullification? Discuss arguments used for and against it. Discuss arguments for and against the doctrine of secession. Was slavery, in reality, supported on the doctrines of states rights, or sectional interests?*

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Adams, John Quincy (1767-1848).—Born in Massachusetts and the sixth president of the United States.

American Party, or Know-Nothing Party, advocated the control of the government by the native citizens. It was a secret fraternity and refused to give out information; hence called *know-nothings.*

Brook Farm.—A farm at West Roxbury, near Boston, Mass., the scene of an experiment in agriculture and education by the *Brook Farm Association*, composed of Ripley, Hawthorne, C. A. Dana and others.

Buchanan, James (1791-1868).—The fifteenth president of the United States; born in Pennsylvania.

Calhoun, John C. (1782-1850).—A noted American statesman. He was of Irish extraction and was born in South Carolina.

Caroline-McLeod Affair.—The case of a British subject, Alexander McLeod, tried in New York State, in 1841, for his part in the burning of the steamer Caroline in Niagara river in 1837. McLeod was acquitted.

Clay, Henry (1777-1852).—A celebrated American statesman and orator; born in Virginia. He held numerous positions of trust and honor.

Cordilleras (kor-dil yā′räz).—A name applied to various portions of the central mountain systems of America.

Corwin, Thomas (1794-1865). — An American statesman and orator. Born in Kentucky, but represented Ohio in various official capacities.

Crawford, William H. (1772-1834).—An American statesman and native of Virginia. He represented Georgia in various capacities, and was a candidate for the presidency in 1824.

Cuba.—The largest island in the West Indies. Capital, Havana. It was discovered by Columbus in 1492 and named Juana. Slavery was abolished in 1886. Length, 760 miles. Average width, 60 miles. Area, 41,655 square miles. Population (1890), 1,631,687.

Decatur, Stephen (1779-1820).—An American naval officer. Born in Maryland and killed in a duel.

Douglas, Stephen A. (1813-1861). — American Democratic politician and statesman. He was born in Vermont, and represented Illinois, his adopted state, in various official capacities.

Fillmore, Millard (1800-1874).—The thirteenth president of the United States; born in New York.

Free-Soil Party.—A party opposed to the extension of slavery into the Territories. It was one of the principal elements in the formation of the Republican party in 1854.

Fulton, Robert (1765-1815). — An American engineer and inventor. In 1803 he launched a steamboat on the Seine.

Gallatin, Albert (1761-1849). — An American statesman and financier; born in Switzerland. He represented Pennsylvania in various official capacities.

Garrison, William Lloyd (1804-1879).—A noted American abolitionist, and a native of Massachusetts.

Harrison, W. H. (1773-1841).—The ninth president of the United States; born in Virginia.

Jackson, Andrew (1767-1845). — The seventh president of the United States; born in North Carolina, and adopted citizen of Tennessee.

Jefferson, Thomas (1743-1826). — The third president of the United States. He represented Virginia, his native state, in numerous official positions. He was also the founder of the University of Virginia.

Know-Nothings (see American Party).

Lawrence, James (1781-1813).—An American naval officer, and a native of New Jersey.

Locofocos.—"In 1835, in the City and County of New York, a portion of the Democrats organized themselves into the 'equal rights' party. At a meeting in Tammany Hall they attempted to embarrass the proceedings of the Democratic nominating committee by presenting a chairman in opposition to the one supported by the regular Democrats. Both parties came to a deadlock, and, in the midst of great confusion, the committee extinguished the lights. The equal rights men immediately relighted the room with candles and locofoco matches, with which they had provided themselves. From this they received the name of locofocos, a designation which, for a time, was applied to the whole democratic party by the opposition."—*W. R. Houghton, Hist. of Am. Politics, p. 219.*

Monroe, James (1758-1831).—The fifth president of the United States. He was a native of Virginia and the author of the "Monroe Doctrine."

Morse, S. F. B. (1791-1872). — An American artist and inventor; born in Massachusetts. In 1832 he designed an electric telegraph and exhibited a working model of the same in 1835. In 1837 he applied for a patent, and 1843 Congress granted an appropriation for a line between Baltimore and Washington. This line was completed in 1844.

Perry, Oliver Hazard (1785-1819).—An American naval officer; a native of Rhode Island.

Pierce, Franklin (1804-1869).—The fourteenth president of the United States; a native of New Hampshire.

Polk, James K. (1795-1849).—The eleventh president of the United States; born in North Carolina and became a citizen of Tennessee.

San'ta A'nna (1795-1876).—A Mexican general and politician.

Scott, Winfield (1786-1866). — An American general and a native of Virginia. Entered the United States army in 1808; distinguished himself in the war of 1812. Became major-general and commander-in-chief of the United States army in 1841 and brevet lieutenant-general in 1847. Was the unsuccessful Whig candidate for president in 1852.

Taylor, Zachary (1784 1850). — The twelfth president of the United States; born in Virginia.

Tyler, John (1790-1862).—The tenth president of the United States; born in Virginia.

Webster-Ashburton Treaty.—The treaty of Washington (1842), by which the Oregon question was settled; also the frontier line between Maine and Canada. The VIII. and IX. articles provided for putting an end to slavery.

Webster, Daniel (1782-1852).—A famous American statesman, orator and lawyer. He was a native of New Hampshire, but he became a citizen of Massachusetts.

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SIDE LIGHTS.

Object of Mexican War to Gain Territory.—It was true that she had refused to treat with, or even to receive, our minister, Mr. Slidell; offering, however, at the same time, to receive and treat with a commissioner on the subject of the boundary dispute; but our President insisted that she should treat with a full minister, and of all matters of difference between the two countries, or not at all. . . . We also alleged that Mexico had invaded our soil and shed the blood of our citizens upon it; in other words, that Mexico had commenced the war against us. This, sir, was a mistake. We all know that the first blood shed in the war was shed in the valley of the Rio Grande, on the left or east bank of that river. And there may be some doubt as to which shed it, our troops or the Mexicans, as both shed blood first about the same moment; but I deny that this was on our soil, or that it was the commencement of the war. What right had we to the left bank of the Rio Grande, and how did we come by it? We had the right of Texas, whatever that was, and we obtained it from her, and we had no other. Well, what right had Texas to it? Had it ever been ceded to her? No, nor ever attempted to be by anybody having authority to make the cession. Had she ever conquered or revolutionized it? No. Had she ever extended her jurisdiction over it? Never. Then what right had she to it? Why, she had *claimed* it, and that was all. . . .

I will next inquire for what is the war waged? Not for the conquest of territory, but for peace, says the President. For peace, indeed! Why, sir, he was the first to break peace. But for him, we should have had peace now. . . . Well, what next? O! it is prosecuted to make Mexico pay the "indemnity" to our citizens, and also the expenses of the war. What has she to pay with? Nothing but land. You have taken five of her departments already, and you are going on to take more as fast as you can. We are told by a half dozen of the friends of the President in this House, that the territory conquered is never to be given up to Mexico; and by another, who is understood to speak the President's sentiments exactly (Mr. Stanton), that he who does not see that Mexico is shortly to be annexed to the United States, can not read aright the signs of the times; and yet, sir, we are told in the same breath that the war is not one of conquest.—*Root, in Congressional Globe.*

Future of the United States in 1816.—Every serious difficulty which seemed alarming to the people of the Union in 1800 had been removed or had sunk from notice in 1816. With the disappearance of every immediate peril, foreign or domestic, society could devote all its energies, intellectual and physical, to its favorite objects. This result was not the only or even the chief proof that economical progress was to be at least as rapid in the future as at the time when the nation had to struggle with political difficulties. Not only had the people during these sixteen years escaped from dangers; they had also found the means of supplying their chief needs. Besides clearing away every obstacle to the occupation and development of their continent as far as the Mississippi river, they created the steamboat, the most efficient instrument yet conceived for developing such a country. The continent lay before them, like an uncovered ore-bed. They could see, and they could even calculate without reasonable accuracy, the wealth it could be made to yield. With almost the certainty of a mathematical formula, knowing the rate of increase of population and of wealth, they could read in advance their economical history for at least a hundred years. . . . *H. B Adams, Vol. IX. pp. 80, 103, 173, ff.*

Calhoun's Political Ideas, 1816. . . . "In the policy of nations, there are two extremes: One extreme, in which justice and moderation may sink in feebleness; another, in which that lofty spirit which ought to animate all nations, particularly free ones, may mount up to military violence. These extremes ought to be equally avoided; but of the two, I consider the first far the most dangerous. . . . I consider the extreme of weakness not only the most dangerous of itself, but as that extreme to which the people of this country are peculiarly liable."—*Calhoun.*

Adams on Right of Petition.—What, sir? Will you put the right of petition, of craving for help and mercy and protection, on the footing of political privileges? It is an idea which has never even been entertained by the utmost extreme of human despotism; no despot of any age or clime, has ever denied this human privilege to the poorest or the meanest of human creatures. If this House decides that it will not receive petitions from slaves under any circumstances, it will cause the name of this country to be enrolled among the first of barbarous nations. A petition is a supplication; and supplication for what? For relief from those who have the power to give relief, and who are placed in a situation to attend to the cry of distress. That would be a sad day, sir, in my opinion, when a vote should pass this House that it would not receive a petition from slaves. What would it lead to? When the principle is once begun of limiting the right of petition, where would it stop? . . . The ground he (Mr. Robertson) takes is this: That the petitioner has no right to petition because Congress has no power to grant! Let us concede the premises, and then it is clear that the whole right of petition is rendered a nullity; it is reduced to nothing; it is annihilated; for, let but a majority only please to assert the absence of power on any question not agreeable to them to entertain, and (according to the argument) the right of petition ceases to exist because of the alleged absence of power! . . . If the law of South Carolina is a good argument to the gentlemen from South Carolina (Mr. Thompson), and if a member of that legislature is made amenible for words spoken in debate not only to the legislature, but also to the grand and petit juries—if that, sir, is the law of South Carolina, I thank God I am not a citizen of South Carolina!—*J. Q. Adams, in Congress.—Benton's Debates, xviii., pp. 9-10, 275, 277, 278, 284, 285, 287.*

Webster Against Protection, 1824.—It is a question, he says, between the friends of an "American policy" and those of a "foreign policy." This, sir, is an assumption which I take the liberty, most directly to deny. Mr. Speaker certainly intended nothing invidious or derogatory to any part of the House by this mode of denominating friends and enemies. But there is power in names, and this manner of distinguishing those who favor and those who oppose particular measures may lead to inferences to which no mem-

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ber of the House can submit. It may imply that there is a more exclusive and peculiar regard to American interests in one class of opinions that in another. Such an implication is to be resisted and repelled. Every member has a right to the presumption, that he pursued what he believed to be the interests of his country with as sincere zeal as any other member. . . .

With me it is a fundamental axiom, it is interwoven with all my opinions, that the great interests of the country are united and inseparable; that agriculture, commerce, and manufactures will prosper together or languish together; and that all legislation is dangerous which proposes to benefit one of those without looking to consequences which may fall on the others. . . . The means of subsistence are abundant; and at the very moment when the miserable condition of the country is asserted, it is admitted that the wages of labor are high in comparison with those of any other country. A country, then, enjoying a profound peace, perfect civil liberty, with the means of subsistence cheap and abundant, with the reward of labor sure, and its wages higher than anywhere else, can not be represented as in gloom, melancholy and distress, but by the effort of extraordinary powers of tragedy. . . .

I regard, sir, this issue of irredeemable paper money, as the most prominent and deplorable cause of whatever pressure still exists in the country. . . . In fine, sir, I think it is clear that, if we now embrace the system of prohibitions and restrictions, we shall show an affection for what others have discarded and be attempting to ornament ourselves with cast-off apparel. . . .

I do not admit the general principle; on the contrary, I think freedom of trade to be the general principle and restriction the exception. And it is for every state, taking into view its own condition, to judge of the propriety, in any case, of making an exception, constantly preferring, as I think all wise governments will, not to depart without urgent reason, from the general rule. . . .

I can not find that we have those idle hands of which the chairman of the committee speaks. The price of labor is a conclusive and unanswerable refutation of that idea; it is known to be higher with us than in any other civilized state, and this is the greatest of all proofs of general happiness. . . . The true reason, sir, why it is not our policy to compel our citizens to manufacture our own iron, is, that they are far better employed. It is an unproductive business, and they are not poor enough to be obliged to follow it. If we had more of poverty, more of misery, and something of servitude, if we had an ignorant, idle, starving population, we might set up for iron-makers against the world.—*Webster, Works, III., pp. 95, ff.*

Nullification Opposed.—If the unequal operation of law makes it unconstitutional, and if all laws of that description may be abrogated by any state for that cause, then indeed is the Federal Constitution unworthy of the slightest effort for its preservation. We have hitherto relied on it as the perpetual bond of our Union, we have received it as the work of the assembled wisdom of the nation. We have trusted to it as to the sheet-anchor of our safety in the stormy times of conflict with a foreign or domestic foe. We have looked to it with sacred awe as the palladium of our liberties, and with all the solemnities of religion have pledged to each other our lives and fortunes here, and our hopes of happiness hereafter in its defense and support. Were we mistaken, my countrymen, in attaching this importance to the constitution of our coutry? Was our devotion paid to the wretched, inefficient, clumsy contrivance which this new doctrine would make it? Did we pledge ourselves to the support of an airy nothing, a bubble that must be blown away by the first breath of disaffection? Was this self-destroying, visionary theory the work of the profound statesmen, the exalted patriots, to whom the task of constitutional reform was entrusted? Did the name of Washington sanction, did the states ratify such an anomaly in the history of fundamental legislation? No. We were not mistaken. The letter of this great instrument is free from this radical fault; its language directly contradicts the imputation; its spirit—its evident intent contradicts it.

To say that any state may at pleasure secede from the Union is to say that the United States are not a nation. . . . Contemplate the condition of that country of which you still form an important part!—consider its government uniting in one bond of common interest and general protection so many different states—giving to all their inhabitants the proud title of AMERICAN CITIZEN—protecting their commerce—securing their literature and their arts—facilitating their inter-communication—defending the frontiers—and making their name respected in the remotest parts of the earth! Consider the extent of its territory, its increasing and happy population, its advance in arts which render life agreeable, and the sciences which elevate the mind! See education spreading the lights of religion, morality, and general information in every cottage in this wide extent of our territories and states! Behold it as the asylum where the wretched and oppressed find a refuge and support! Look on this picture of happiness and honor, and say, WE TOO, ARE CITIZENS OF AMERICA. Carolina is one of these proud states. Her arms have defended, her best blood has cemented this happy union! And then add, if you can, without horror and remorse, this happy union we will dissolve, this picture of peace and prosperity we will deface—this free intercourse we will interrupt—these fertile fields we will deluge with blood—the protection of that glorious flag we renounce—the very name of Americans we discard. And for what, mistaken men! For what do you throw away these inestimable blessings—for what would you exchange your share in the advantages and honor of the



James Buchanan.

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Union? For the dream of a separate independence—a dream interrupted by bloody conflicts with your neighbors and a vile dependence on a foreign power.—*Jackson's Proclamation Against Nullification.*

Secession Inexpedient.—I have ever believed, and do now believe, that it is to the interest of all the states to be and remain united under the Constitution of the United States, with a faithful performance by each of all its constitutional obligations. If the Union could be maintained on this basis, and on these principles, I think it would be the best for the security, the liberty, happiness, and common prosperity of all. . . .

My judgment, as is well known, is against the policy of immediate secession for any existing causes. It can not receive the sanction of my vote; but if the judgment of a majority of this Convention, embodying as it does the Sovereignty of



Gen. Winfield Scott.

Georgia, be against mine; if a majority of the delegates in this convention shall, by their votes, dissolve the compact of union which has connected her so long with her confederate states, and to which I have been so ardently attached, and have made such efforts to continue and to perpetuate upon the principles on which it was founded, I shall bow in submission to that decision. . . .

But the only true equilibrium or balance of power, in my opinion, under our system, which it was essential to maintain, was the recognized sovereignty of the several states. This was the all-powerful check against aggression upon the rights of any state. . . .

Whether we ought to secede in consequence of the faithlessness of those Northern States alluded to is simply a question of policy. It is one on which able men and true may differ. One thing is certain: the South would be justified in doing it. For nothing is better settled by all law, recognized by savage as well as by civilized people, than that a compact broken by one party to it is not binding on the other. But if we secede I should like to see it put on the right ground; and while I think the ground would fully justify the act, yet I do not think it would at present be wise to resort to that remedy. For I feel confident that, if we should adopt the right course, those states would recede and repeal their obnoxious statutes. Hence I am mortified and grieved when I read such papers as the South Carolina manifesto. It is not on the right line. . . .

The Union was formed by the consent of independent sovereign states. Ultimate sovereignty still resides with them separately, which can be resumed, and will be, if their safety, tranquility, and security, in their judgment, require it. Under our system, as I view it, there is no rightful power in the General Government to coerce a state, in case any one of them should throw herself upon her reserved rights and resume the full exercise of her sovereign powers.—*Life of Alexander H. Stevens, by Johnston and Browne, pp. 373, ff.*

Secession in South Carolina.—It was decided to make the signing of the ordinance an impressive public ceremony. The governor and the legislature, who had followed the convention to Charleston, were invited to assist in the proceedings that evening. At half-past six the members of the convention came together at the place of their deliberations, and, forming in files of two with locked arms, they marched silently, lighted by the flare of bonfires, to Institute Hall, which had been selected because it was the largest assembly-room in the city. . . .

The audience had not long to wait. The cry "The convention is coming!" drew every one's regard. Its president, leaning on the arm of the clerk, entered by a door in the rear of the hall and took his place upon the rostrum. Following him came the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House clad in the robes of office, with the clerks of both bodies in their black silken gowns. The delegates, the senators, and the representatives made their entrance by another door and took the reserved places in the body of the hall. A clergyman with bowed form and hair as white as snow advanced to the front of the platform with upraised hands, the whole assembly rising to their feet in reverent attitude while he invoked the blessing and favor of Almighty God on this great act of his people about to be consummated. The president of the convention, holding in his hand the parchment with the great seal of the State, read slowly and solemnly therefrom the Ordinance of Secession. As the last word "dissolved" left his lips the audience broke forth into a cheer, a shout, and a roar, that lasted until physical exhaustion made silence a necessity. The delegates sat grave and silent. They were now asked by the president to step forward and sign the ordinance. This ceremony took two hours, but the audience remained to witness it. When R. B. Rhett, who had been a disunionist since 1832, advanced to the rostrum, there were thunders of applause; cheers greeted Delegate Spratt, whose vehement advocacy of the opening of the African slave trade singled him out for notice; and ex-Governor Gist, who had been the official mouthpiece of the beginning of this secession movement, also inspired demonstrations of popular favor. To many of the people looking on there must have come the thought of that other signing of a Declaration of Independence, of that new era ushered in July 4, 1776; and their feeling grew stronger that now was beginning a second glorious revolution, which, if successful, would, on account of a securer basis, be more lasting. . . .—*Rhodes II, pp. 109 ff.*

American Literature, 1815-1816.—1. Limitation.—The struggle of the American people through the difficulties of their frontier life, as it were, up to their present plane of equality with other nations, was not less hard in litera-

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ture than in politics. It may be said, perhaps, that the expression of the intellectual and emotional development of the nation, as it is found in the field of literature, was somewhat behind the evidences of this remarkable growth in most other lines of activity. At the opening of this period (1815), prose and verse differed in no way from that before 1815. Men still imitated foreign models. It was the era when writers of America went to school, for the most part, to contemporary English writers The people were not ready to appreciate, as a writer, the one man who had been an American, although they welcomed his writings and appreciated him in every other side of his varied activity—as statesman, philanthropist, scientist, inventor, and moralist. Benjamin Franklin was our first American.

1815-1838.—This period of foreign control in literary ideals extended not merely to 1815, but much farther. It is only for convenience of general statement that the end of this period is placed at 1838. Scarcely ever are phases of social development sharply defined, and this is especially true in literature. One may more accurately mark the beginnings of a new order of things, from which may also be dated only the beginnings of decline in an old order. It is this attitude that one must take toward the changes that took place in American ideals from 1815 to 1860. Before 1838, the typical writer was an imitator. J. Fenimore Cooper and Washington Irving must be thus classed. The brilliant and polished, but shallow, Nathaniel P. Willis is a fair representative, in his work, of what Americans were trying to do in literature. So, of almost all the writers before 1838, it may be said that manner was much more important than matter. What men wrote was of less account than how they said it.

The entering wedge in this devotion to foreign models came in the efforts of William Cullen Bryant and Richard H. Dana. The former may be characterized as Wordsworthian, while the latter was, in many things, a veritable Coleridge. This, too, it should be remembered, at a time when the elect of Boston were devoted to Pope and classicism.

2. Freedom from Tradition, 1838-1850.—The inception of higher spiritual life for Americans was in that wonderful period from 1838 to 1850. It belongs to the historian of the social life of our country to tell of the varied phenomena that accompanied this travail. Along with this earnest spirit of abolitionism, which rose like a tide higher and higher, and the many "*isms*" that marked the breaking away of the American people from all previous traditions, appeared a special manifestation on the side of spiritual life, which was, perhaps, quite typical of the change just commencing in the ideals of the nation. It is known as "Transcendentalism." Only now are men beginning to realize what this movement meant and still means in the history of the social and institutional life of the United States. The nucleus of this new life was a group of philosophers, social reformers, moralists, and other "fanatics," who tried to work out a new ideal of living, not far from Boston, then the American Athens. Theirs should be a life devoted to the cultivation of the spiritual side of man. They should teach men by example that time and energy ought not be wasted in useless social forces, when a truer and better life could be had by freely living it. It was primarily a revolution against the growing social extravagance of that center of music and letters.

The leader of this movement was Ralph Waldo Emerson. The other great figure was Nathaniel Hawthorne. Space forbids characterization of these two notable leaders In literature they represent in their character and in their potentiality, the very kernel and gist of this whole movement. *Transcendentalism*, or Idealism, means the breaking over and away from previous standards, a flooding of the dead level of imitation, a rising of the tide above manner importance, up to the place where the importance of the matter is paramount. The movement looked toward the standard of saying and writing things because they are capable of being something to other men. It was a turning to truth and beauty for their own sakes, and Emerson stood for the truth side, Hawthorne for the beauty side.

1850-1860.—By about 1850 the disciples of the transcendental school became lost among the more numerous writers whose work is characterized by sentimentality. As other lesser reforms disappeared in the all-absorbing question of put-



John C. Calhoun.

ting an end to slavery, so in literature the best known works typical of the period were *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, 1851-1852) and *Neighbor Jackwood* (J. T. Trowbridge, 1857). The abnormal sentiment of the anti-war period vanished as soon as war became a real issue, and when that was over, literature proceeded from healthy sentiment and normal mental conditions.

One event of immense importance, during this period, looked down the lines of development to the present day in a way that can not remain unnoticed. The venture of a new magazine in 1857 was not of itself a great event, because but for one thing, in all probability the magazine would not have survived. The publication in that magazine of the *Autocrat Papers* by Oliver Wendell Holmes made the magazine and his own reputation, and did a far greater thing also. This writer opened the hearts and eyes of American readers and made it possible for them to read Emerson and Hawthorne. Without Holmes, to say the least, the voices of those prophets of idealism would have longer remained uninterpreted, and the ascent of American literary ideals would have been much more gradual.

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Illustrative Extracts—American Literature: The Influence of Puritanism in New England, New York, Northern Ohio, and the Northwest, in the decade we are reviewing, was great Its inestimable value in politics and morals has not been too highly rated. But the picture is not complete unless the unlovely side be shown. The spirit of Puritanism has been hostile to art, partly because art has administered in religion to what is esteemed idolatry, and partly because it appeals to the sensuous nature, which according to the Puritan ideal, should be repressed. It may be questioned whether there is in the life of any other people a period at once so rich in intellectual and literary activity and so unproductive in other forms of art. The Puritan frowned upon anything that was mere diversion, and it was quite in keeping with his character that "Paradise Lost" should be preferred before "Hamlet" and "The Merchant of Venice" . . .

Bunker Hill, Oration, 1825.—We wish that this column, rising toward heaven among the pointed spires of so many temples dedicated to God, may contribute also to produce, in all minds, a pious feeling of dependence and gratitude. We wish, finally, that the last object to the sight of him who leaves his native shore, and the first to gladden him who revisits it, may be something to remind him of the liberty and the glory of his country. Let it rise! let it rise till it meet the sun in his coming; let the earliest light of morning gild it, and parting day linger and play on its summit. . . .

Let the sacred obligations which have devolved on this generation, and on us, sink deep into our hearts. Those who established liberty and our government are daily dropping from among us. The great trust now descends to new hands. Let us apply ourselves to that which is presented to us, as our appropriate object. We can win no laurels in a war for independence. Earlier and worthier hands have gathered them all Nor are there places for us beside Solon and Alfred, and other founders of states. Our fathers have filled them. But here remains to us a great duty of defence and preservation, and there is open to us, also, a noble pursuit to which the spirit of the times strongly invites us. Our proper business is improvement. Let our age be the age of improvement. In a day of peace let us advance the arts of peace and the works of peace. Let us develop the resources of our land, call forth its powers, build up its institutions, promote all its great interests, and see whether we also, in our day and generation, may not perform something to be remembered. Let us cultivate a true spirit of union and harmony. In pursuing the great objects which our condition points out to us, let us act under a settled conviction and an habitual feeling, that these twenty-four states are one country. Let our conceptions be enlarged to the circle of our duties. Let us extend our ideas over the whole of the wide field in which we are called to act. Let our object be OUR COUNTRY, OUR WHOLE COUNTRY, AND NOTHING BUT OUR COUNTRY. And by the blessing of God, may that country itself be a vast and splendid monument, not of oppression and terror, but of Wisdom, of Peace, and of Liberty, upon which the world may gaze with admiration forever.—*Webster, Works, I., 62-78.*

Transcendentalism.—What is popularly called Transcendentalism among us, is Idealism; idealism as it appears in 1842 As thinkers, mankind have ever divided into two sects, materialists and idealists; the first-class founded on experience, the second on consciousness; the first class beginning to think from the data of the senses, the second class perceive that the senses are not final, and say, the senses give us representations of things, but what are the things themselves, they can not tell. The materialist insists upon facts, on history, on the force of circumstances and the animal wants of man; the idealist on the power of thought and of will, on inspiration, on miracle, on individual culture. These two modes of thinking are both natural, but the idealist contends that his way of thinking is in higher nature. . . .

The frivolous make themselves merry with the Ideal theory, as if its consequences were burlesque, as if it affected the stability of nature. It surely does not. God never jests with us, and will not compromise the end of nature by permitting any inconsequence in its procession. . . .

And what is genius but finer love, a love impersonal, a love of the flower and perfection of things, and a desire to draw a new picture copy of the same? It looks to the cause and life; it proceeds from within outward, whilst talent goes from without inward. Talent finds its models, methods, and ends, in society, exists for exhibition, and goes to the soul only for power to work. Genius is its own end, and draws its means and the style of its architecture from within, going abroad only for audience and spectator, as we adapt our voice and phrase to the distance and character of the ear we speak to.—*Emerson, Nature, Addresses and Lectures.*

Autocrat of the Breakfast Table.—Talk about conceit as much as you like, it is to human character what salt is to the ocean; it keeps it sweet, and renders it endurable. Say rather it is like the natural unguent of the sea-fowls plummage, which enables him to shed the rain that falls on him and the waves in which he dips. When one has had all his conceit taken out of him, when he has lost all his illusion, his feathers will soon soak through, and he will fly no more. . . .

Don't you know how hard it is for some people to get out of a room after their visit is really over? They want to be off, and you want to have them off, but they don't know how to manage it. One would think they had been built in your parlor or study, and were waiting to be launched. I have contrived a sort of ceremonial inclined plane for such visitors, which being lubricated with certain smooth phrases, I back them down, metaphorically speaking, stern-foremost, into their "native element," the great ocean of out-doors. . . .

There is no power I envy so much—said the divinity student—as that of seeing analogies and making comparisons. I don't understand how it is that some minds are continually coupling thoughts or objects that seem not in the least related to each other, until all at once they are put in a certain light and you wonder that you did not always see that they were as like as a pair of twins. It appears to me a sort of miraculous gift.

He is a rather nice young man, and I think has an appreciation of the higher mental qualities remarkable for one of his years and training. I try his head occasionally as housewives try eggs—give it an intellectual shake and hold it up, to the light, so to speak, to see if it has life in it, actual potential, or only contains lifeless albumen.—*Holmes in Atlantic Monthly, I., 51, ff.*

Popularity of the Lecture System.—In 1852 Thackeray came to this country and "preached,"

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as he called it, on "The English Humorists of the Eighteenth Century." "The lectures," he wrote, "are enormously *suivies*, and I read at the rate of a pound a minute nearly." The great novelist was pleased to find how much his books were read and liked. He wrote home: "The prettiest girl in Philadelphia, poor soul, has read 'Vanity Fair' twelve times." . . .

In the decade of 1850-60 the lecture system reached its height. As the lecture was instructive and moral, it received the support of religious people; also, it served a good purpose as an entertainment for the long winter evenings. Of the 200 lecturers who were in request in many parts of the country, only a few might boast of eloquence, and still fewer spoke with a voice of power. . . . Yet chief of those who always drew a crowd, and whose utterances in the lyceum are noted for the intellectual and moral development of the time, was Emerson. "I have heard," wrote Lowell, "some great speakers and some accomplished orators, but never any that so moved and persuaded men as he." . . .

Two great orators are identified with the lyceum, Henry Ward Beecher and Wendell Phillips. Beecher, who was looked up to as the apostle of a great congregation, swayed powerfully immense audiences; Phillips, who spoke oftener and more willingly on the slavery question than on any other subject, owed to the lecture system his frequent opportunity to address people in various parts of the country. While Edward Everett was not a lyceum orator, his oration at Washington, heard as it was by vast numbers, deserves mention as one of the events of this character. . . .

"The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table" delivered his oracular discourses at the end of this decade. "The Autocrat," wrote Motley to Holmes, "is an inseparable companion. It is of the small and rare class to which 'Montaigne's Essays,' 'Elia,' and one or two other books belong, which one wishes to have forever under one's thumb." In this same period came "The Scarlet Letter," "The House of the Seven Gables," "The Blithedale Romance," and "The Marble Faun." The teaching of Emerson's long life can be limited to no decade, though he undoubtedly spoke with greatest vigor in the ten years before the war. In those lectures and essays he is speaking still. The Christian, the agnostic, the transcendentalist, the scientific investigator alike learn from him wisdom. The apostle of literature and the apostle of science both do him honor. . . .

"America," wrote De Tocqueville, "is the country of the whole world where the Christian religion has conserved the most real power over the souls of men." . . . Whatever line of investigation, political, social or moral, be pursued, there will appear as salient facts the religious character of the people, the authority of the church, and the influence of the clergy. These in some cases led to asceticism. In the matter of public amusements, New York was the most liberal city of the country; yet a professor of the University of the City of New York told M. Ampère that if he went to the theatre too often he would be in danger of losing his position. The Northern people made of the first day of the week a Puritanical Sabbath. The *Independent* seriously objected to the railroads running Sunday trains, and frowned upon Sunday excursions.—*Rhodes III., pp. 89 ff.*

NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

BY MRS. ELIZABETH A. REED, A.M.

AMERICAN ARCHÆOLOGY AND CHRONOLOGY OF THE DAKOTAS.

Pre-Historic Pottery. — The accompanying illustrations represent the types of pottery found in the Indian Territory. Figure 1 is evidently a water bottle, and there are many of these. The ornamentation on some of them is very simple, while on others it is most elaborate. The one which has been chosen for reproduction shows six turkey feet in bas-relief, which extend around the bottle at the base of the neck. The work has been carefully done, and the toes, nails, and dermic laminæ are shown in detail. Figure 2 is a common cooking pot, which was also used as a receptacle for food after cooking. The carbon coating on the outside indicates that the most of the vessels had been used for cooking. Figure 3 is a vase with a wide mouth, which is adapted for general use, being suitable as a receptacle for either fluids or solids. Figure 4 is a lamp, and this contained carbon on the inside, which was derived possibly from the animal oils which were burned for illuminating purposes. In addition to its use as a lamp, however, it may have been used to temper flint and other silicious material from which to manufacture arrow points, spear heads, and other articles. Hundreds of whole vessels have here been found, and fragments of pottery are so numerous that collectors give them but little heed.

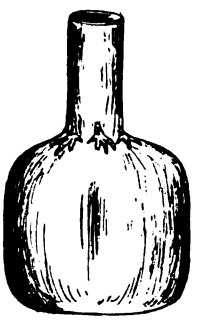

FIG. 1.



FIG. 3.

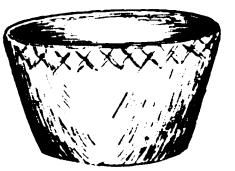

FIG. 2.

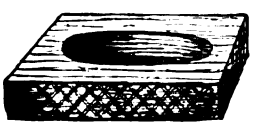

FIG. 4.

Relics of Pre-Historic Races.

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The Chronology of the Dakotas.—The record of events was the only method used by this tribe to designate the passing years, and this record was made by means of pictures painted in black and red, upon the inside of a buffalo skin which was kept for that purpose. Duplicates were sometimes made, however, upon cotton cloth, and it was from one of these, that the government photographs were made. Every intelligent Dakota of full years to whom this record was shown, knew what it meant, and many of them recognized a large number of the years which were thus portrayed.

Winter Counts.—Only the winters were numbered, and the memorable season during which the tribe first saw a white woman, was designated by the picture of a woman whose dress shows that she was not an Indian. This picture represents the winter of 1791-92, and, in speaking of it, they call it, "Saw-a-white-woman-winter."

The winter of 1794-95 was commemorated by the killing of a Pawnee, who is represented with a large body, while his face is long and very narrow. It is called, "Killed-the-little-faced-Pawnee-winter."

The following illustrations of this "Winter Count" are taken, with their interpretations, from the archives of the United States government:

Fig. 5, 1829-30.—"Old-Speckled-Face-clung-to-his-son-in-law-winter." The daughter of Speckled-Face, who was coming out second best in an altercation with her husband, called to her father for help. The latter ran and grabbed his son-in-law around the waist, and, crying, "That is my daughter," stabbed him. The son-in-law fell and the old man fell on top of him, and, clinging to him, begged the onlookers to put an end to him also, as he wished to bear his beloved son-in-law company to the spirit land. No one, however, was in the humor to speed him on the journey, and he remained with the living.



Fig. 5.

Fig. 6, 1830-31.—"Shot-many-white-buffalo-cows winter."



Fig. 6.

Fig. 7, 1832-33.—"Stiff-leg-with-War-Bonnet-on-died winter." He was killed in an engagement with the Pawnees on the Platte river, in which the Brulés killed one hundred Pawnees.



Fig. 7.

Fig. 8, 1833-34 —"Storm-of-stars winter." All the Winter Counts refer to this great meteoric display, which occurred on the night of November 12, 1833, and was seen over most of the United States.



Fig. 8.

Fig. 9, 1835-36.—"Killed-the-two-war-party-leaders winter." A Dakota war party met one of Pawnees and killed two of their leaders, whereupon the rest ran.



Fig. 9.

Fig. 10, 1836-36.—"Fight-on-the-ice winter." They fought with the Pawnees on the ice, on the Platte river, and killed seven of them. The two vertical marks, which are for the banks of the river, and the two opposed arrows, signify that the tribes were on opposite sides of the river.



Fig. 10.

Fig. 11, 1861-62.—"Killed-Spotted-Horse winter." Spotted Horse and another Crow came and stole many horses from the Dakotas, who followed them and recovered their horses.



Fig. 11.

Fig. 12, 1863-64.—"Crows-came-and-killed-eight winter." Some of the eight were Cheyennes. The marks below the arrow represent the killed.



Fig. 12.

Fig. 13, 1863-65.—"Roaster-made-a-commemoration-of-the-dead winter." A piece of roasted meat is shown on the stick in the man's hand. The Dakotas roast meat on a stick held in front of the fire.



Fig. 13.

Fig. 14, 1865-66.—"Deep-snow-used-up-the-horses winter." The horse is obviously in a deplorable condition.



Fig. 14

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

A.D.

1815 January 4, the Hartford Convention adjourned. January 8, Jackson's victory at New Orleans. Unitarian secession from Congregational church.

1816 Second National Bank chartered. Dallas' report on manufactures. Tariff act passed; generally regarded as the first protective tariff. American "Colonization Society" founded. Caucus system for nominating presidential candidates breaking down. National debt, $127,335,000. Calhoun's "bank bonus bill" for internal improvements introduced. Failed to pass. Monroe elected President and Tompkins Vice-President, by 183 electoral votes, to 34 for King. Indiana admitted as a state.

1817 Monroe's tour through New England and the west. All internal taxes repealed. Specie payments resumed. The Seminole war in Florida begins. Madison vetoes an internal improvement bill. Mississippi admitted as a state. The "Savannah" the first steamship to cross the Atlantic.

1817–20 Old party names pass out of use. Local issues take the place of national. Speculation, followed by the first great crisis.

1818 Connecticut adopts a new constitution. Jackson invades Florida. Hangs Ambrister and Arbuthnot; thus involves the United States with England. Clay attacks Jackson in Congress. One of most exciting debates in congressional history. Increase of tariff on iron. Treaty with Great Britain. Fisheries, boundary, Oregon and commercial questions provided for. Illinois admitted as a state.

1819 Florida bought from Spain for $5,000,000 Struggle over the admission of Missouri begins. Arkansas organized as a Territory, with slavery. The crisis of 1819–21 begins. Prices fell 50 to 60 per cent. The National bank investigated. Specie payments again suspended, except in New England. The Supreme Court in McCullough *vs.* Maryland decides the National Bank law constitutional. The Supreme Court in Sturges *vs.* Crowninshield decides that a state bankrupt law discharging the contract as well as the debtor is a law impairing the obligations of contracts, therefore unconstitutional. The famous Dartmouth College case, and Webster's plea; held that charters are contracts. An act against the slave trade. Alabama admitted as a state. University of Virginia chartered.

1820 The slave trade declared piracy. Liberia founded. The first (?) Missouri compromise. In Louisiana territory slavery to be forbidden north of latitude 36° 30′. Missouri enabling act passed. A constitution to be formed with or without slavery as its people wished. Monroe re-elected President and only one opposing vote. Maine admitted as a state. Population, 9,633,822.

A.D.

(1) Free states, 5,132,000.
(2) Slave states, 4 522,000.
Representatives in Congress, 223.
(1) Free states, 133.
(2) Slave states, 90.

1821 The second (?) Missouri compromise, Clay's. Missouri admitted as a state. The Florida treaty ratified by Spain. New York forms a new constitution; extends suffrage. Intrigues for presidency, in 1824, begin. Crawford and Adams most prominent candidates. Jackson governor of Florida.



Samuel F. B. Morse.

Supreme Court in case of Cohms *vs.* Virginia reaffirmed right of appeal from State Supreme Court to Federal Supreme Court; Nationality.

1822 Monroe vetoes the Cumberland road bill. Jackson comes forward as a presidential candidate.

1818–22 The independence of the Spanish-American states recognized by the United States.

1823 The so-called Monroe doctrine set forth. The "Holy Alliance" baffled in its American plans. Monroe's letter against the internal improvement plans and ideas of the times.

1824 The tariff rates increased; protection extended. The great Webster-Clay debate over protection. The last Congressional caucus to nominate presidential candidates. Crawford nominated for president by the caucus; Adams, Clay and Jackson by the state legislatures. Pennsylvania suggests a national nominating convention. Not carried out till 1831. Lafayette visits America. No choice by electors for president.
(1) Jackson 99.
(2) Adams 84.
(3) Crawford 41.
(4) Clay 37.
In Gibbons vs. Ogden Supreme Court held:

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A.D.

that control of commerce between the states rests wholly in hands of Congress.

1825 In Congress Clay's followers support Adams.
(1) Adams 13 states.
(2) Jackson 7 states.
(3) Crawford 4 states.
Cry of "bargain and sale" raised. University of Virginia opened. Clay becomes Secretary of State. Adams urges internal improvements and a national university. The Erie canal opened. Webster's "Bunker Hill" oration. The Panama Congress. The United States delegates do not arrive in time. Clay's "Human Freedom League" to oppose the "Holy Alliance" proposed.

1826 Duel between Clay and Randolph. Trouble with Creek Indians in Georgia. July 4. Adams and Jefferson die. American Temperance Society at Boston.

1827 Congress in opposition to President Adams. Difficulties with England settled by Gallatin. In Martin vs. Mott, held; that the



Lewis Cass.

decision in regard to calling forth the militia vested in the president and not in the state executives.

1828 Candidates for the presidency nominated by state legislatures and mass conventions. The "tariff of abominations." Webster this year, for the first time, supports protection. The triumph of "the people" in the election of Jackson. Anti-Mason excitement. The disappearance of Morgan. South Carolina dissatisfied with the tariff law.

1829 Jackson's inauguration; popular demonstration. Jackson and Biddle begin the bank struggle The "Kitchen cabinet." The "spoils system" introduced into national politics A constitutional convention in Virginia. Madison, Monroe and Marshall members. The real beginning of railroads in the United States.

1830 The Maysville road veto by Jackson. The tariff bill modified; protection retained. Webster-Hayne debate. Jackson and Calhoun begin to become cool towards each other Nullification doctrine set forth. B. & O. railroad opened. Population 12,866,020.

A.D.

1831 Jackson reorganizes his cabinet, and breaks with Calhoun. The Seminole controversy. The Nat Turner insurrection in Virginia. Abolition societies organized. The first national nominating convention. Garrison begins the "Liberator."

1832 The bank veto. Monopoly denounced. Jackson re-elected. Tariff act; again protection sustained. The Anti-Masons enter national politics. The first one-idea party. Nullification ordinance by South Carolina. Jackson issues his proclamation against nullification. Charles Carroll, the last of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, dies.

1833 The "force bill." Clay's compromise tariff bill. South Carolina withdraws her nullification act. The Webster-Calhoun debate. Jackson at his zenith. Jackson's eastern tour. Harvard gives him a degree. October 1 "removal of the deposits." Clay's land-distributon bill vetoed. National abolition society organized.

1834 "Censure" of the president by the senate. The bank investigated again. The hard-money struggle; Benton. The Whig party formed and named. McCormick's reaping machine patented.

1835 Mob spirit everywhere; especially against abolitionists and catholics. National debt paid off. The "loco-focos." Prudence Crandall's school for colored girls closed. Struggle over "incendiary matter" in the mails. France pays the United States the "spoliation claims." Indians of Georgia removed to Indian territory.

1836 "Gag" resolutions in Congress against reception of "abolition" petitions. J. Q. Adams begins his great struggle for the "right of petition." Bill for "distribution of the surplus" $42,000,000, among the states. July 4, death of Madison. Van Buren elected president. Texas wins the victory of San Jacinto. The "specie circular" issued. Arkansas admitted as a state.

1837 The "expunging resolutions" adopted. Texan independence recognized. Th. United States presses for a settlement of her "claims" against Mexico. The great crisis and panic, speculation collapses. Van Buren for the "independent" or "sub-treasury." E. P. Lovejoy murdered. First proposal to annex Texas. Michigan admitted as a state.

1838 Continued troubles on the Canadian frontier. Smithsonian Institution founded.

1839 Trouble in organizing the House. The New Jersey seats. The "Amistad" case. The Daguerreotype first used in the United States.

1835-42 Era of "isms." Fourierism, homœopathy, hydropathy, the Graham diet, phrenology, etc. Transcendentalism. Emerson, Thoreau, Margaret Fuller, Hawthorne, etc.

1840 The "Tippecanoe and Tyler too" campaign. Election of Harrison, on "hard cider and log-cabin cry." Sub-treasury act passed. The Liberty party first appears in a national contest. Population, 17,069,453.

1830-40 A real American literature beginning to appear. Cheap newspapers, the *Sun*, 1833; the *Herald*, 1835; *The Tribune*, 1841, etc.

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A.D.

1841 Utter collapse of the "Second National Bank" and President Harrison's death. Sub-treasury act repealed. Clay and Tyler in opposition. Tyler and his cabinet quarrel over Tyler's bank vetoes.

1842 The Ashburton-Webster treaty. Anti-rent association in New York. Protective tariff law enacted. State debts repudiated. Dickens visits America. Giddings censured; resigns, but re-elected by his constituents. Priggs *vs.* Pennsylvania, 16 Peters, p. 539. The Dorr rebellion in Rhode Island. Dr. Whitman travels by wagon from Oregon to St. Louis.

1843 Webster resigns as Secretary of State.

1844 Treaty of Annexation with Texas, rejected by the Senate. Clay defeated by Polk for president. The telegraph first used, Baltimore to Washington. The Democratic campaign cry, "54″ 40′ or fight."

1845 Joint resolution for annexing Texas. Polk's four great measures announced to Bancroft: Tariff reduction, acquisition of California, the independent or sub-treasury restored, Oregon boundary settled; all accomplished. Florida admitted as a state. Texas admitted as a state.

1846 The independent treasury act passed. The Oregon boundary line settled. A treaty with Great Britain. California and New Mexico seized. The so-called free-trade tariff passed. The "Wilmot-Proviso" proposed. Howe invents the sewing machine. Iowa admitted as a state.

1847 Victories over Mexico. Renown of Taylor and Scott. Scott and Taylor viewed with a jealous eye by the administration. Lincoln first appears in national Politics. Douglass' first time in the Senate.

1848 Taylor elected over Cass. The "Free-Soil" movement: Van Buren its candidate. Treaty of Guadaloupe Hidalgo. February 23, J. Q Adams dies. Calhoun asserts right of slaveholder to take his slave into any territory of the United States. Discovery of gold in California. The Mormons emigrate to Utah. Wisconsin admitted as a state.

1849 Struggle in Congress continues over organization of the territories. Rush to gold fields of California.

1850 Webster's "7th of March" speech. Seward's "Higher Law" speech, March 11. Clay's compromise adopted. California a free state. Slave trade in District of Columbia to end. Texas boundary settled Texas paid $10,000,000. Utah and New Mexico territories without specification as regards slavery. Fugitive slave law. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The Galphin claims. Death of President Taylor. Fugitive slave excitement begins. Population, 23,191,876.

1851 "Filibusters" invade Cuba. Letter postage reduced to three cents. Disunion threatened. Visit of Kossuth. Webster's Hülseman letter. Maine liquor law.

1852 Scott and Pierce. The "Tweedle-Dee and Tweedle-Dum" campaign. Scott carries only four states, Kentucky and Tennessee, Massachusetts and Vermont. Clay and Websier die. "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

A.D

1853 The Koszta difficulty. The Gadsden purchase.

1854 The Kansas-Nebraska bill. Douglas urges his "popular sovereignty" doctrine. "Filibustering" against Cuba. The Know-Nothings come in being. The Republican party organized. The "Ostend Manifesto." The struggle begins in Kansas. Treaty with Japan.

1855 Personal liberty laws in northern states. The "New England Colonization" society. Missouri invades Kansas. Banks elected speaker of the House.

1856 Wm. Walker in Nicaragua. Sumner assaulted by Brooks. Whigs and Americans nominate Fillmore. Republicans nominate Frémont. Democrats nominate and



Horace Greeley.

elect Buchanan. The first geographical party campaign. Sack of Lawrence, Kansas. Threats of disunion should Frémont be elected.

1857 March 6, the Dred Scott decision. The Lecompton constitution. Douglas breaks with Buchanan. The new tariff act. Duties lowered. The panic and crisis.

1858 Rebellion in Utah. Atlantic cable laid. The Lincoln-Douglas debate. Seward's "irrepressible conflict" speech at Rochester. Minnesota admitted as a state.

1859 John Brown invades Virginia. The Covode investigation. Election of speaker. Helper's "Impending Crisis." Great excitement in Congress. Oregon admitted as a state.

1860 Lincoln and the Republicans. No slave extension. Douglas and "Popular Sovereignty" Democrats. Bell and the "Union." Breckenridge and slave extension Secession ordinance passed by South Carolina. Various plans for compromise. J. J. Crittenden. Population, 31,443,321.

1861 The Peace Conference; all plans fail. Davis elected President of the Southern Confederacy. Attack on Sumpter. War. Kansas admitted as a state. Lincoln inaugurated.

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For those who wish to read extensively, the following works, used in the preparation of this number, are especially commended:

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Andrews	History of the United States, vol. ii. Makers of America Series, (1) Schouler—Life Jefferson.
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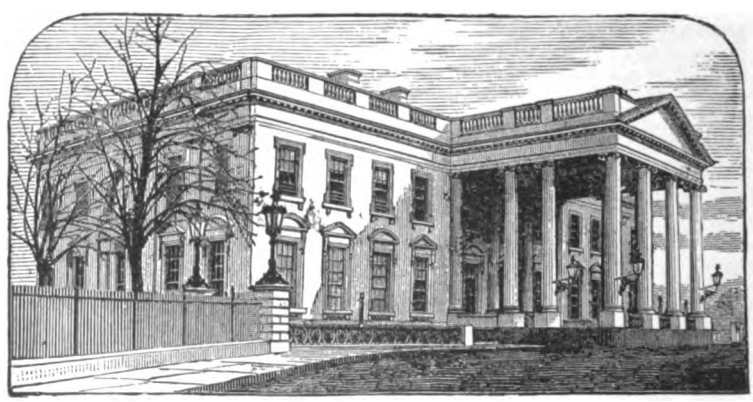

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OF THE

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EXPLANATORY NOTE.

To enable the readers and students of "Progress" to understand the relation between the World's Congresses of 1893 and the work of Educational Extension for which the University Association was formed, the editors of "Progress" have deemed it wise to reproduce from time to time convenient portions of the vast work accomplished by the World's Congress Auxiliary. They accordingly commence in the present number a reproduction of the organization of the Department of Literature of the World's Congresses of 1893. This reprint will be continued and concluded in future numbers of "Progress." A brief examination of the matter printed in the present number will, as the editors believe, make it obvious that a simple reproduction of this matter will occupy less space and be more satisfactory than any descriptive account which can be given. Some of the members of the committees and councils have since deceased, and others, especially in the field of Higher Education, have changed their position and place of residence; but the present occasion does not seem to demand a correction of the lists to show such facts. The historic value of the matter seems to require that it should be given without change. The formation of a world-wide literary fraternity was begun in 1893, and it is the object of the University Association to extend and perfect that fraternity and its work. This is what is meant by the phrase "World's Congress Extension" in the title to "Progress."

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In proportion as society refines, new books must ever become necessary.—*Goldsmith*.

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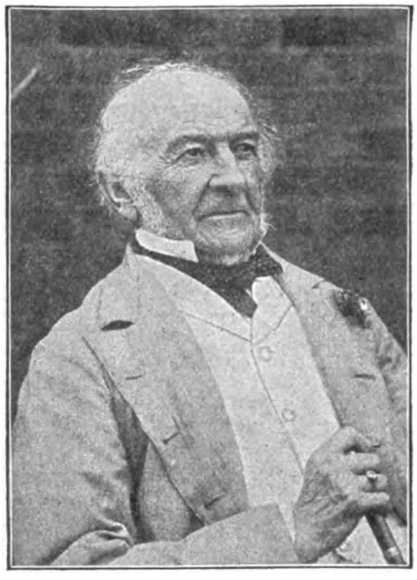

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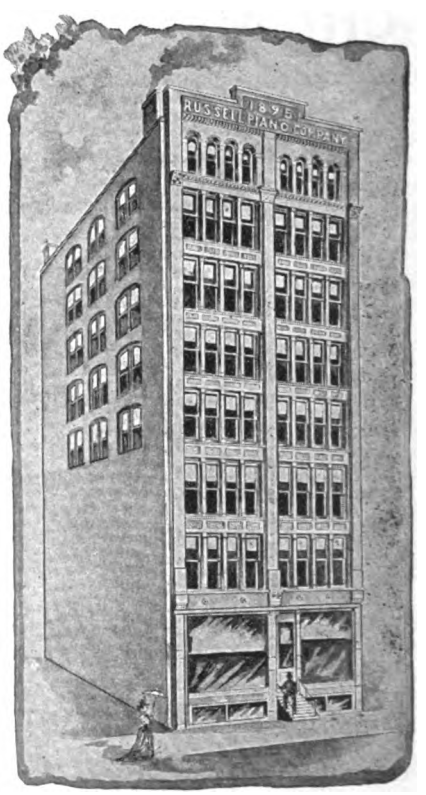

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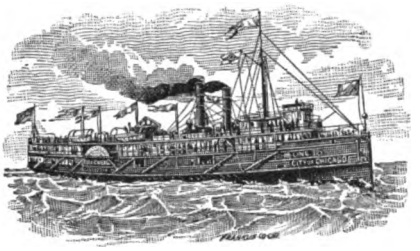

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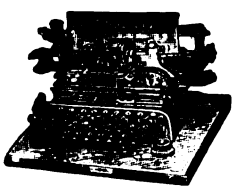

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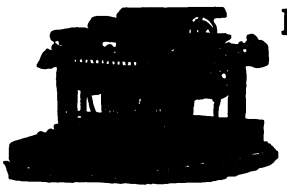

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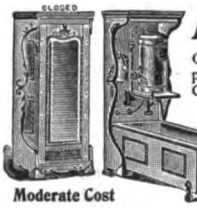

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UNITED STATES HISTORY FROM THE CIVIL WAR TO THE PRESENT TIME

PREPARED BY

W. EDGAR TAYLOR, A.M., M.S., of Monmouth College, Illinois

FULLY ILLUSTRATED

1. THE WAR OF SECESSION.

LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION (1861-65).—The culmination of the slavery question; the split of the Democratic party; the nomination and election of Lincoln; the beginning, leading events and results of the four years of bloody war, are each subjects more or less familiar to all, and worthy of our most careful attention did our space permit such notice.

On April 14, 1861, Fort Sumter surrendered to Confederate attacks. The Emancipation Proclamation was issued September 22, 1862, and went into effect January 1, 1863. Lee surrendered April 9, 1865. April 14, 1865, Abraham Lincoln was assassinated. "He was one of the most remarkable men of any age or country—a man in whom the qualities of genius and common sense were strangely mingled. He was prudent, far-sighted and resolute; thoughtful, calm and just; patient, tender-hearted and great. The manner of his death consecrated his memory." During President Lincoln's term of office, and in addition to war measures, Kansas was admitted into the Union in 1861; Nevada in 1864; Nebraska, Colorado and Dakota were organized into territories; the Morrill Protective tariff was enacted; the building of the transcontinental railway was authorized and the homestead law passed. Among the financial measures adopted were those providing for a paper currency, first by the Legal Tender Act, and later the National Banking Act.

1. THE WAR OF SECESSION.

The Darkest Days for the Republic were between the election of Mr. Lincoln, in November, 1860, and the 13th of April, 1861. The hostility to slavery in the Northern States had been steadily increasing from the date of the repeal of the Missouri compromise. The number of those who were disposed to disturb slavery in the States where it existed was small, but the number opposed to its extension was, throughout the free states, overwhelming. On the other hand, the South demanded that the territories should be open to it without regard to the will of their inhabitants. The southern members of Congress who voted for the repeal of the compromise under which Missouri was admitted into the Union with slavery, did not so vote because they favored popular sovereignty, but to free the South from an odious restriction for which there was, in their opinion, no warrant in the constitution. To them popular sovereignty was only another name for squatter sovereignty, which they held in contempt. That they should not be permitted to take their property into a territory and retain it there after the territory had become a state, merely because there happened to be a majority of the settlers who, having little or nothing to take with them, could move more readily than slave-owners opposed to slavery, seemed to them to be the

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height of injustice and absurdity.—*Hugh McCullough, in Men and Measures of Half a Century, pp. 156-57.*

Lincoln's Election.—The meaning of the election was that the great and powerful North declared slavery an evil, and insisted that it should not be extended; that while the institution would be sacredly respected where it existed, the conduct of the national government must revert to the policy of their fathers and confine slavery within bounds; hoping that, if it were restricted, the time might come when the Southern people would themselves acknowledge that they were out of tune with the enlightened world and take steps gradually to abolish the system. The persistent and emphatic statement by the opposition that the Republicans were the radical party had fixed that idea in the public mind; but in truth they represented the noblest conservatism. They simply advocated a return to the policy of Washington, Jefferson and Madison.—*Rhodes, in History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850, p. 502.*

Statesmanship cannot be judged upon theories. It must be decided by results. When that conclusive test is brought to bear, Mr. Lincoln's administration of the government in the weeks immediately following his inauguration deserves the highest praise; and all the more because it was compelled to disregard the clamor and disappoint the expectations of many who had been conspicuously influential in bringing it into power, and who therefore thought themselves entitled to give counsel.—*James G. Blaine, in Twenty Years of Congress, Vol. 1, p. 291.*

Proclamation of Emancipation. — On New Year's Day, 1863, the President issued a proclamation, freeing all the slaves in those states of the South which were still at war against the Union. Thus by a single stroke of the pen, over three millions of negroes received (so far as the government could then give it) that most precious, yet most perilous of all rights—the ownership of themselves. No greater event is recorded in the pages of American history. After the expiration of nearly a hundred years the nation at last made good, without exception, the words of the Declaration of Independence, which declares that "all men are created equal;" that is, with equal rights to "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness." Many thousands of negroes were now enlisted in the Union army; but the greater part remained quietly at work on the southern plantations. The freedom of the whole body of slaves in the country was not accomplished until after the close of the war. Then an amendment to the constitution declared that slavery should no longer exist in the United States. That final act of emancipation has proved to be as much an advantage to the white race, both North and South, as to the negroes themselves. Free labor has brought a greater degree of prosperity than any section of the country ever obtained under slave labor. Now that the South is no longer hampered by having to hold the negroes in bondage, it has found its real strength and its true and lasting prosperity.—*Montgomery, in Leading Facts of American History, pp. 304-305.*

Financial Credit.—At the outbreak of the civil war the financial credit of the United States had sunk to a very low ebb. By the organization of the army and navy the expenses of the government were at once swelled to an enormous aggregate. The price of gold and silver advanced so rapidly that the redemption of bank notes in coin soon became impossible; and on the 30th of December, 1861, the banks of New York, and afterward those of the whole country, suspended specie payments. Mr. Chase, the secretary of the treasury, first sought relief by issuing treasury notes, receivable as money and bearing seven and three-tenths per cent interest. This expedient was temporarily successful, but by the beginning of 1862 the expenses of the government had risen to more than a million of dollars daily. To meet these tremendous demands other measures had to be adopted. Congress accordingly made haste to provide an INTERNAL REVENUE. This was made up from two general sources—first, a tax on manufactures, incomes and salaries; second, a stamp duty on all legal documents. The next measure was the issuance by the treasury of a hundred and fifty millions of dollars in non-interest bearing legal tender notes of the United States, to be used as money. These are the notes called greenbacks. The third great measure adopted by the government was the sale of United States bonds. These were made redeemable at any time after five and under twenty years from date, and were from that fact called five-twenties. The interest upon them was fixed at six per cent, payable semi-annually in gold. Another important series of bonds, called ten-forties, was afterward issued, being redeemable by the government at any time between ten and forty years from date. In the next place, Congress passed an act providing for the establishment of national banks. The private banks of the country had been obliged to suspend operations, and the people were greatly distressed for want of money. To meet this demand it was provided that new banks might be established, using national bonds, instead of gold and silver, as a basis of their circulation. The currency of these banks was furnished and the redemption of the same guaranteed by the United States. By these measures the means for prosecuting the war were provided. At the end of the conflict the national debt had reached the astounding sum of nearly three thousand millions of dollars.—*Ridpath.*

The Cost of the War is incalculable. To a declared Federal debt of $2,757,000,000 are to be added five years of war taxation, the debts of the several states, and now a pension list of a hundred and forty millions of dollars a year, together with the loss of industry, the ruin of commerce, and the destruction of property, which at the South was immense, and fell ultimately on the restored Union. It is reckoned that between battle and disease a million of men lost their lives, or were crippled in the war. So much did it cost to abolish American slavery.—*Goldwin Smith, in The United States: An Outline of Political History, pp. 291-292.*

With the People of the South all was different. Their ports were blockaded, their business ruined. The country had no money, no manufactures; the negroes had been set free. In their extremity Southern ladies cut up their carpets to make blankets and clothes for the soldiers, and churches gave their bells to be cast into cannon. Long before the final surrender there was sore want everywhere throughout the South, and everywhere there was the suffering necessarily caused by invading armies or the dread of such invasion. The wonder is not that they were forced to yield at last, but that under such discouragements, such hardships, such sufferings, they held out so long and so bravely.—*Montgomery.*

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2. THE BEGINNINGS OF RECONSTRUCTION.

Johnson's Administration (1865–1869).—The nomination of Andrew Johnson for Vice-President on the ticket with Lincoln was brought about by an attempt to conciliate the border states. The important events of Johnson's term of office were: (1) The adoption of three amendments to the constitution, making the negro free, a citizen and a voter; (2) the full pardon of all persons who had fought on the Southern side in the Civil War; (3) the beginning of the discharge of the national debt; (4) the completion of the laying of the Atlantic cable; (5) the purchase of Alaska, and (6) the attempt at impeachment of the President. Early in his administration the President issued a proclamation pardoning the greater portion of the people lately in rebellion "on condition that they would swear to faithfully support, protect and defend the Constitution and the Union." The President even went further and favored allowing these states to send representatives to Congress. The majority of Congress objected to this doctrine, believing that it would not be safe to reinstate the late seceding states until more complete measures were adopted for protecting the freedmen. The differences between the President and Congress now being clearly drawn the latter body proceeded to pass over the President's veto a number of important measures. Among these measures were bills making the freedmen citizens and giving them military protection, and the so-called tenure-of-office law forbidding the President to even remove a member of his own Cabinet without the consent of the Senate. Notwithstanding the tenure-of-office law, the President proceeded to remove Mr. Stanton, the Secretary of War. As a result an effort was made to impeach Mr. Johnson.



Andrew Johnson.

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2. THE BEGINNINGS OF RECONSTRUCTION.

Andrew Johnson.—President Lincoln, who had been re-elected in 1864, had no vindictive feeling toward the South, and it was his earnest desire as soon as possible to heal the wounds of the war and to have the Union restored in a spirit of harmony and mutual concession. But the vast weight of his influence and of his conservative wisdom was lost to the Nation by the hand of an assassin. Only a few days after Lee's surrender a violent sympathizer with the "lost cause" avenged its fall by the dastardly murder of the President, and the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, succeeded to his place. He was a very different man from the great-hearted and patient Lincoln. Where the latter might have led, Johnson merely succeeded in quarreling. At the outset the new President claimed to be following the policy of his predecessor. He offered amnesty to all in the South, a few prominent leaders excepted, who would take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States. He then appointed a provisional governor for each of the seceded states, through whose agency a constitutional convention was called. "Only whites who had taken the amnesty oath could elect delegates, or themselves be elected, to this convention. At the instance of the President the convention adopted a constitution or legislation which forbade slavery, declared the ordinance of secession null and void, and repudiated the Confederate debt. The convention then appointed times and places for the election of a legislature and a permanent governor. In a few months the governmental machinery had been set in motion in all the late Confederate states, and in December senators and representatives from all except Texas were knocking at the doors of Congress." But when Congress met in December, 1865, the Republican majority in both Houses developed immediately a strong dissent from President Johnson's policy.—*Judson, in the Growth of the American Nation, pp. 322-324.*

For Some Time After the War was ended, the southern states were in a disorganized condition. The Confederate government having been overthrown, there was no governing power except the Federal military power, and this did not extend much beyond the territory occupied by the Federal troops. Everywhere else there was an absence of recognized authority to which appeal could be made for the protection of private property or for the protection of the treasury agents in the performance of their legitimate duties. In these circumstances a good deal of Confederate property was undoubtedly "spirited away" (as its disappearance from accessible places was called), and not a little was seized by the agents to which the United States had no claim. . . . When individual claimants were clearly right, the property was surrendered. When there was a reasonable doubt as to the ownership, it was retained, and the claimants were left to prosecute their claims in the courts.—*Hugh McCullough, in Men and Measures of Half a Century, pp. 235-236.*

Military Protection (see SIDE LIGHTS).

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3. THE RECONSTRUCTION.

Grant's First Term (1869-1873).—In 1868 the Democratic party espousing the side of Johnson, demanded the unconditional admission of the states lately in rebellion, and advocated leaving the question of suffrage to the several states. The Republicans taking an opposite view, nominated and elected General Grant for President and Schuyler Colfax for Vice-President. The leading political questions now occupying public attention were the reconstruction of the Southern States; the treatment of the ex-slaves and the amnesty of the rebels lately in arms. In 1871, for the first time since 1860, all of the states were represented in Congress. President Grant's negotiations (1871) for the annexation of Santo Domingo, besides causing considerable misunderstanding between the President and Charles Sumner, resulted in failure. One of the leading events of this administration was the Treaty of Washington made in 1871. This agreement provided for arbitration upon "Alabama claims, upon other claims by citizens of either country against the other for damages during the Rebellion, upon the fisheries, and upon the northwest boundary of the United States." The court to adjust the claim provided for in this treaty, assembled at Geneva, Switzerland, during the summer of 1872, and decided that Great Britain should pay into the treasury of the United States fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars. This is known as the "Geneva Award." In the autumn of 1871 occurred the great Chicago fire, destroying buildings valued at over two hundred million dollars. It was during President Grant's first administration that the Union Pacific Railroad was completed to Ogden, Utah, where it connected with the Central Pacific. The completion of this road changed and stimulated trade relations with Asia and opened up the rich country of the far west to early settlement.



U. S. Grant.

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3. THE RECONSTRUCTION.

General Grant.—That fact is stranger than fiction is illustrated in the life of General Ulysses S. Grant. Few men were ever subject to so great vicissitudes, none ever rose so rapidly from obscurity to fame—from a very low estate to the highest. In the spring of 1861 he was utterly unknown outside of a very limited circle. In 1868 he was elected President of the United States by an overwhelming majority over one of the most distinguished men of the day. Educated at West Point he entered the army as second lieutenant, and for gallantry in the war with Mexico he was brevetted captain. In 1853 he was promoted to a full captaincy, which he resigned the year following to engage in farming, in which he was unsuccessful. At the outbreak of the civil war he was in the employment of his father, at a tannery in Galena, Illinois. To no graduate of West Point could the outlook for life have been more unpromising than it must have been to Captain Grant in the spring of 1861. He had been in all branches, except mathematics, below mediocrity in his class at West Point; his mind had not been improved by study after he graduated; he had no capacity for business; he lacked self-control; he was dependent upon his father for his own support and the support of his family. To him the war was a godsend. It developed qualities which war only could bring out. But for the war, he would have lived in poverty, and died in obscurity.—*Hugh McCullough, in Men and Measures of Half a Century, pp. 318-319.*

The Presidential Election of 1868.—Under these circumstances it was not altogether re-assuring to the ardent loyalists of the country, that the city of New York, whose prosperity depended in so great a degree upon the preservation of the Union, should now give Mr. Seymour a majority of more than sixty thousand over General Grant, and that the Empire State, which would cease to be Imperial if the Union ceased to exist, should in a popular contest defeat General Grant by fully ten thousand votes. New Jersey made an equally discouraging record by giving Mr. Seymour a majority of three thousand. The Pacific coast, whose progress and prosperity depended so largely upon the maintenance of the Union, presented an astonishing result, California giving General Grant a majority of only 514, while Oregon utterly repudiated the great leader and gave her electoral vote for Mr. Seymour. Indiana, in the test vote of the October election for governor, was carried by the Republicans by only 961; Ohio gave a smaller majority in the hour of national victory than she had given during any year of the civil struggle, while Pennsylvania at the same election gave the party but ten thousand majority. In the city and county of Philadelphia the Democrats actually had a majority of nearly two hundred votes. The Republican majorities in the three states were considerably

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increased in the November election by the natural falling off of the Democratic vote, but the critical and decisive battles had been fought in each State in October. It was a very startling fact that if Mr. Seymour had received the electoral vote of the solid South (which afterwards came to be regarded either as the rightful inheritance or the fraudulent prerogative of the Democratic party), he would, in connection with the vote he received in the North, have had a majority over General Grant in in the Electoral College. Considering the time of the election, considering the record and the achievements of the rival candidates, the presidential election of 1868 must be regarded as the most remarkable and the most unaccountable in our political annuls.—*James G. Blaine, Twenty Years of Congress, Vol. II., p. 408.*

Completion of the Pacific Railroad.—A little over two months after President Grant was inaugurated, the last spike of a line of railroad connecting the Atlantic coast with the Pacific was driven at Ogden, Utah (May 10, 1869). The blows of the sledge-hammer which drove that spike—completing the greatest work of the kind in the world—were telegraphed as they fell, throughout the Union. Between Omaha and San Fancisco, the railroad crosses nine mountain ranges, including the Rockies and the Sierras, climbing, and then descending, over eight thousand feet. In point of time, it is now no further from New York to San Francisco than it was in the days of the Revolution from New York to Boston. Then it took our forefathers between five and six days to go by wagon somewhat less than two hundred and fifty miles; now, in that time, we can cross the entire continent. The result of this rapid means of travel is of the greatest important to the republic. Once, members of Congress laughed at the idea that California and Oregon would be added to the United States. They said that it would be practically impossible for such states, if added, to send representatives to the national capital, because it would take them the greater part of a year to get to Washington and back. For that reason, they believed that the people who settled the Pacific coast would form a separate and independent republic. The railroad and the telegraph have changed all that. They have connected the farthest extremities of the country so closely that they have made it possible for us to extend and maintain the Union from ocean to ocean.—*Montgomery.*

Black Friday.—In the autumn of 1869 occurred the most extraordinary money excitement ever known in the United States, or perhaps in the world. A company of unscrupulous speculators in New York city, headed by Jay Gould and James Fisk, jr., succeeded in producing what is known as a "corner" in the gold market and brought the business interests of the metropolis to the verge of ruin. During the civil war the credit of the government had declined to such an extent that at one time a dollar in gold was worth two hundred and eighty-six cents in paper currency. But after the restoration of the authority the value of paper money appreciated, and in the fall of 1869 the ratio of gold to the greenback dollar had fallen to about one hundred and thirty to one hundred. There were at this time, in the banks of New York, fifteen million dollars in gold coin, and in the subtreasury of the United States a hundred millions more. The plan of Gould and Fisk was to get control by purchase of the greater part of the fifteen millions, to prevent the secretary of the treasury from selling any part of the hundred millions under his authority; then, having control of the market, to advance the price of gold to a fabulous figure, sell out all which they held themselves, and retire from the field of slaughtered fortunes with their accumulated millions of spoils! Having carefully arranged all the preliminaries, the conspirators, on the 13th of September, began their work of purchasing gold, at the same time constantly advancing the price. By the 22d of the month they had succeeded in putting up the rate to a hundred and forty. On the next day the price rose to a hundred and forty-four. The members of the conspiracy now boldly avowed their determination to advance the rate to two hundred, and it seemed that on the morrow they would put their threat into exection. On the morning of the 24th, known as BLACK FRIDAY, the bidding in the gold-room began with intense excitement. The brokers



Jefferson Davis.

of Fisk and Gould advanced the price to a hundred and fifty, a hundred and fifty-five, and finally to a hundred and sixty, at which figure they were obliged to purchase several millions by a company of merchants who had banded themselves together with the determination to fight the gold-gamblers to the last. Just at this moment came a dispatch that Secretary Boutwell had ordered the sale of four millions from the subtreasury! There was an instantaneous panic. The price of gold went down twenty per cent in less than as many minutes! The speculators were blown away in an uproar; but they managed, by accumulated frauds and corruptions, to carry off with them more than eleven million dollars as the fruits of their nefarious game. —*Ridpath.*

The Chicago Fire.—This was the greatest and most disastrous conflagration on record. The burning of Moscow, in 1812, caused a loss amounting to £30,000,000; but the loss at Chicago was in excess of this amount. The great fire of London, in 1666, devastated a tract of 436 acres, and destroyed 13,000 buildings; but that of Chicago swept over 1,900 acres, and burned more than 17,000 buildings."—*M. F. Sweetser, Chicago ("Cities of the World," Vol. I.).*

The following is the statement of area burned over, and of property destroyed, made by the Chicago Relief and Aid Society. "The total area burned over in the city, including streets, was 2,124 acres, or nearly three and one-third square miles. This area contained about seventy-three miles of streets, 18 000 buildings, and the homes of 100,000 people."—*A. T. Andreas, History of Chicago-V. II, p. 760.*

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4. POST-RECONSTRUCTION.

Grant's Second Term (1873-1877).—Grant was re-elected (1872) over Horace Greeley, the candidate of the so-called Liberal Republicans. This party advocated "universal amnesty and universal enfranchisement" and received the sympathy of the Democratic party, though they individually by no means endorsed all the political tenets held by Greeley. During Grant's second term the treatment of the ex-slaves and ex-Confederates had become still more vexed questions. The method of reconstruction had ignored the natural prejudice of the whites, many of whom were as loyal as any citizens of the land. This occasioned dreadful evils. The Ku-Klux Klan was organized to intimidate colored voters. Natives of the South, men who during the rebellion were not often heard of, now came forth and assumed to be leaders. These were commonly known as "scalawags." Republican office seekers from the North—the so-called carpet-baggers—"flocked to the South." Too often, the blacks, viewing them as the representatives of the emancipation party, welcomed and followed this numerous class without question. On the other hand, signs of rapid progress were not wanting. In the spring of 1876 the great Centennial Exhibition was opened at Philadelphia. During the two and one-half years beginning with 1871, over twenty thousand miles of railroad were built in the United States, at a cost of over a thousand millions of dollars. It was, also, during this period that the electric light and telephone were brought into use; the phonograph invented by Edison, and astronomical instruments perfected by Alvan G. Clark.

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4. POST-RECONSTRUCTION.

The Ku-Klux Klan.—The chief instrumentality at first used for keeping colored voters from the polls was the Ku-Klux Klan, a secret society organized in Tennessee in 1866. It sprung from the old night patrol of slavery times. Then, every Southern gentleman used to serve on this patrol, whose duty it was to whip severely every negro found absent from home without a pass from his master. Its first post-bellum work was not ill-meant, and its severities came on gradually. Its greatest activity was in Tennessee, Arkansas, and Mississippi, where its awful mysteries and gruesome rites spread utter panic among the superstitious blacks. Men visited negroes' huts and "mummicked" about, at first with sham magic—not with arms at all. One would carry a flesh bag in the shape of a heart and go around "hollering for fried nigger meat." Another would put on an India rubber stomach to startle the negroes by swallowing pailfuls of water. Another represented that he had been killed at Manassas, since which time "some one had built a turnpike over his grave and he had to scratch fearfully to get up through the gravel." Usually the existence of a "den" anywhere was sufficient to render docile every negro in the vicinity. If more was required, a half-dozen "ghouls," making their nocturnal rounds in their hideous masks and long white gowns, frightened all but the most hardy. Any who showed fight were whipped, maimed, or killed, treatment which was extended on occasion to their "carpet-bag" and "scalawag" friends—these titles denoting respectively northern and southern men bold enough to take the negroes' side. The very violence of the order, which it at last turned against the old Southrons themselves, brought it into disrepute with its original instigators, who were not sorry when federal marshals, put up to it by President Grant, hunted den after den of the law-breakers to the death.—*Andrews, in Scribner's Magazine, Vol. XVII., pp. 282-3.*

The Determination to Rule a Good Sign.—The war left the south in indescribable desolation. Great numbers of Confederates came home to find their farms sold for unpaid taxes, perhaps mortgaged to ex-slaves. The best southern land, after the war, was worth but a trifle of its old value. Even city real estate was a drug. Many their ruin rendered insane; in multitudes more it broke down all energy. The braver spirits—men to whom till now toil had been strange—set to work as clerks, depot-masters, and agents of various business enterprises. High-born ladies widowed by northern bullets, became teachers or governesses. In the comparatively few cases where families retained their estates, their effort to keep up appearances was pathetic. One by one domestics were dismissed; dinner parties grew rare; stately coaches lost their paint and became rickety; carriage and saddle horses were worn out at the plough and replaced by mules. At last the master learned to open his own gates, the mistress to do her own cooking. Upon the whites, in many communities, a kind of moral and social stagnation settled down, an unhealthy, hopeless acquiescence in the worst that might come. Politics they long regarded with abhorrence, as the accursed thing that had brought on the war. Whites, as well as negroes, drank recklessly. Few of any class cared much for education. In 1874 Alabama had 380,000 citizens who could neither read nor write, of whom more than 100,000 were white. Yet the year before, the public schools in that state, except in the larger cities, had been closed because the state could not pay the teachers. If, to the Africans, education was freer after the war than before, turmoil and poverty left the young Southerners of paler skin little time or disposition for schooling. The determination, when it came, of the Southern white to rule, sad as were the atrocities to which it led, was a good sign, marking the end of a lethargy which boded naught but ill to any.—*Andrews, in Scribner's Magazine, Vol. XVII, p. 566.*

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5.

Hayes' Administration (1877-1881).— When Mr. Hayes assumed the presidential chair there was great diversity of opinion as to the proper policy to be pursued. In his message he advocated a radical reform in the civil service; a speedy return to specie payment, and by his conciliatory tone did much to quiet the bitter spirit of partisanship, which had arisen over the manner of his election. One of the first acts of the administration was to withdraw the United States troops from South Carolina and Louisiana and to ask for the resignations of the Republican governors. In the summer of 1877 occurred the great railroad strike which except in the cotton growing states, was almost universal. Business was paralyzed and "the scenes in Pittsburg recalled the fiery days of the French Revolution." In 1873-4 a series of acts were passed first abridging and then abolishing the legal tender quality of silver. In January 1875 the so-called Resumption Act was passed. On January 1, 1879, the resumption of specie payment was formally accomplished by the treasury of the United States. In the summer of 1878 the yellow fever epidemic made its appearance in New Orleans, and gradually extending as far north as Kentucky, caused the death of more than twenty thousand people before the appearance of the October frosts.



Rutherford B. Hayes.

5. HAYES' ADMINISTRATION.

The Reconstruction of the Southern States under the plan of Congress meant negro suffrage. The blacks very generally voted and acted in a mass with the Republican party as was natural. Their leaders were in general, adventurers from the North, who saw a chance for prominence in the solid colored vote, though there were some Southern whites who acted with them. But nearly all of the latter class either ignored politics in utter disgust, or voted together against the Republicans The negroes found an eager delight in politics, and the reconstructed state legislatures were full of them. The result was what might have been expected. The Republicans in Congress had given the ballot to the negroes as a weapon for the defense of their freedom, and for the further purpose of keeping the Republican party in power perpetually. But the first result of negro suffrage was a saturnalia of ignorant and corrupt government, such as the world has seldom seen. The debts of the reconstructed states were rolled up to an enormous volume. At the close of the war these debts had aggregated about $87,000,000; the reconstruction era added about $300,000,000, and a great part of this was stolen or squandered.— *Judson, in The Growth of the American Nation, pp. 325-327.*

Some of the Most Noted Strikes which have occurred in this country have had great influence upon economic affairs, in the organization of laborers, in calling attention to the relations of employers and employes, and in other various directions. During the period from 1881 to 1886, as has been stated, 1,323,203 employes were involved. Of this number 88.42 per cent were males and 11.58 per cent females. The number of successful strikes during that period was 46.52 per cent, while 39.95 per cent failed, and 13.47 per cent succeeded partially. A large number of the strikes and lockouts occurring during the years named were by organizations, the percentage being 82.24 of the whole. The causes for which strikes were undertaken were mostly for an increase or against a reduction of wages, four leading causes covering over 77 per cent of them all. These were for increase of wages, for reduction of hours, against reduction of wages, and for increase of wages and reduction of hours.— *Wright, in Industrial Evolution of the United States, p. 299.*

The Railroad Strike of 1877.—The first of these great historic strikes occurred in 1877, although very many severe strikes had taken place prior to that year. The great railroad strike of 1877 began on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad at Martinsburgh, W. Va., the immediate cause of the first strike being a ten per cent reduction in the wages of all employes. This, however, was but one of many grievances. The wages, already low, were made yet lower by irregular employment. Men with families were permitted to work only three or four days per week, and two of three days each week they were forced to spend away from home, at their own expense, often being obliged to pay one dollar per day for board at the company's hotel, leaving them but little money for domestic use. The wages, payable monthly, were often retained two, three, or even four months. The tonnage of trains was increased, and the men were paid only for the number of miles run, irrespective of the time consumed in running. In most instances the strike affected only the freight trains — *Wright, in Industrial Evolution of the United States, p. 301.*

Remonetization of Silver, The Resumption Act (see SIDE LIGHTS).

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6. CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA RECEIVE ATTENTION.

The Garfield-Arthur Administration (1881-1885).—On the morning of July 2 following his inauguration President Garfield was shot by one Guiteau, a miserable miscreant. The President, after lingering for some eighty days, died at Elberon, N. J. On the day following this deplorable event Vice-President Arthur took his oath of office as President. President Arthur concurred with the then late President Garfield in his recommendation of civil service reform, but in modified terms. He inaugurated a series of treaties and settlements with a number of Central and South American countries; advised the establishment of a monetary union of American countries "to secure the adoption of a uniform currency basis, and as a step toward the general remonetization of silver." On the President's recommendation a Central and South American commission was appointed for the purpose of increasing and improving consular representation in the Central American states. A treaty made with the republic of Nicaragua (1884) authorized the United States "to construct a canal, railway and telegraph line" across Nicaraguan territory by way of San Juan river and Lake Nicaragua. However, this treaty was rejected by the Senate, and afterwards withdrawn by President Cleveland. A new naval policy was adopted reducing the number of officers. The rates of letter postage were reduced from three to two cents a half ounce. The President recommended stringent laws against polygamy, and measures for breaking up tribal relations of the Indians. Congress was urged in every annual message to pass "laws establishing safe and certain methods" of ascertaining results of presidential elections. Arthur's administration is known in history as a "business administration."



James A. Garfield.

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6. CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA RECEIVE ATTENTION.

Garfield and the National Bureau of Education.—At its annual meeting held in Washington, D. C., in February, 1866, the National Association of School Superintendents memorialized Congress to establish a National Bureau of Education. A bill was also prepared by the direction of the association, embodying its views. By the request of the association, Mr. Garfield presented the memorial and the bill in the House of Representatives. The bill was read twice, referred to a select committee of seven, and ordered printed. April 3 following, he reported from the committee a substitute for the original bill—changed only in the name. June 8, he closed the debate upon the bill in the following speech. . . . The vote was adverse. Immediately a motion to reconsider was entered. June 19, the motion to reconsider was carried, and the bill passed. At the next session the bill passed the Senate, and the President's approval, March 2, 1867, made it a law. This measure was peculiarly Mr. Garfield's work. He introduced the subject to the House, was the chairman of the special committee, reported the second bill, and was its principal champion on the floor. Both the bureau and his speech attracted the attention of educators and the friends of education beyond the sea.—*B. A. Hinsdale, in Works of Garfield, Vol. I., p. 126.*

Mr. Arthur was drafted into the presidency, and—to my own personal knowledge—with a sadness, reluctance and feeling akin to despair that were well-nigh crushing. But it was a fresh proof of the strength and conservatism of our institutions, that when at last death relieved Garfield and promoted Arthur, the transition was made as easily and as safely as though the latter had been elected President by a unanimous vote. Arthur, like Garfield, was a thorough American. Both illustrated the developing power of American institutions. Arthur was President from the start, not because he loved power or the assertion of authority, but because the presidency had come to him constitutionally, and its functions were to be as jealously maintained as though he had been elected President. But the transaction from the Garfield Cabinet interregum to the Arthur administration was made successfully, and without the slightest disturbance to the public credit or of any branch of the federal administration, because Mr. Arthur had learned statesmanship and public affairs in his close and confidential relations with the great Republican leaders; because he was a man of great natural sagacity, and because he understood the American people and the traditions of the American government, now the oldest unchanged government that bears sway over any great Christian people on earth.—*J. M. Bundy, in Magazine of American History, Vol. XVII., 1887, p. 36.*

The Star Route Conspiracy.—From its predecessor the administration of President Arthur in-

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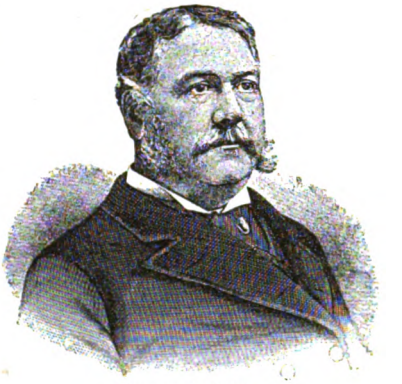
herited not a few complications and troubles. The chief of these was the series of important state trials relating to the alleged Star Route Conspiracy. Under the recent conduct of affairs in the post-office department of the government there had been organized a class of fast mail routes, known as the Star routes, the ostensible purpose being to carry the mails with rapidity and certainty into certain distant and almost inaccessible portions of the western states and territories. The law governing the letting of mail contracts was of such sort as to restrict the action of the postmaster-general and his subordinates to definite limits of expense; but one clause of the law gave to the department the discretionary power to "expedite" such mail routes as seemed to be weaker and less efficient than the service required. This gave to certain officers of the government the opportunity to let the contracts for many mail lines at a minimum, and then under their discretionary power to expedite the same lines into efficiency at exorbitant rates—the end and aim being to divide the spoils with the contractors.—*Ridpath, in History of the United States.*

An Illustration of our steadily growing prosperity and enterprise was given during the spring of 1883 in the completion of the great East River Suspension Bridge, connecting New York city with Brooklyn. This bridge was built at a cost of nearly fifteen million dollars—an amount double that of the entire annual cost of carrying on the government of the United States in the first years of Washington's presidency.—*Montgomery, in Leading Facts of American History, p. 345.*

FIRST WEEKLY REVIEW.

1. **LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION.**—The Darkest Days of the Rupublic, Lincoln's Election, Statesmanship, Emancipation Proclamation, Financial Credit, Total War Debt.
2. **JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION.**—Andrew Johnson, Disbanding the Armies, General Conditions at the Close of the War, Military Protection.
3. **GRANT'S FIRST TERM.**—General Grant, Completion of the Pacific Railroad, Black Friday.
4. **GRANT'S SECOND TERM.**—The Ku-Klux Klan, Determination to Rule a Good Sign.
5. **HAYES' ADMINISTRATION.**—Reconstruction of the Southern States, Some of the Most Noted Strikes, The Railroad Strike of 1877, Remonetization of Silver, Resumption Act.
6. **GARFIELD-ARTHUR ADMINISTRATION.** — Garfield and the National Bureau of Education, Arthur Drafted into the Presidency, The Star Route Conspiracy, An Illustration of Our Constantly Growing Prosperity.



Chester A. Arthur.

QUESTIONS.

1. *Name the most important events of the Civil War? When did the Civil War begin? End? What is the date of the Emancipation Proclamation? The Provisions? Give a brief sketch of the life of Lincoln. Why was he so successful? Aside from war measures what other acts date from his administration? Give an account of the events occurring between November, 1860, and April, 1861? What can you say of the financial measures adopted about this time?*

2. *What was the condition of the country at the beginning of Johnson's administration? Give a sketch of Johnson? Give Judson's statement? What is the substance of McCullough's statement? Name the leading points of difference between Johnson and Congress? What are the important measures of this administration?*

3. *Give a sketch of the life of Grant? In what respect was he different from Lincoln? In what alike? Give McCullough's statement in reference to Grant? Give the leading points in connection with the building of the Pacific railroad? How did western conditions then compare with the present? Give an account of Black Friday?*

4. *What were the conditions of the country politically at the close of Grant's first term? Who was Horace Greeley? What were the leading measures of this term? State what you can of the Klu-Klux Klan? Give Andrews' statement in reference to the condition of the South at this time?*

5. *What were the peculiar difficulties under which Hayes was inaugurated? What were some of his first acts? Give Prof. Judson's statement as to the South? Give an account of the strikes of this period? What is the substance of Ridpath's statement as to remonetization of silver? The Resumption Act?*

6. *Give a sketch of the life of Garfield? Of Arthur? Give the political events just preceding the death of Garfield? Name principal events under Arthur's administration? Give some events showing our steadily growing prosperity?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Prepare a brief sketch of the life of Lincoln or Grant.*
2. *What was the history of the Emancipation Proclamation?*
3. *Give a brief history of the differences between Congress and Johnson.*
4. *Give a number of illustrations showing the condition of the South. The North.*
5. *Give illustrations of the partisan feeling existing then as compared to the present.*
6. *Write out a brief financial history of war times.*
7. *The origin and history of railroad strikes.*
8. *Prepare a brief history and description of the Suspension Bridge, New York.*

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7.

Cleveland's First Administration (1885-1889).—In the campaign of 1884 the Republicans nominated James G. Blaine for President and John A. Logan for Vice-President. The standard bearers of the Democratic party were Grover Cleveland and Thomas A. Hendricks. The Democrats elected their candidates. In the summer of 1885 the army was used to expel certain cattlemen from Indian Territory. In the early part of 1886 the suppression of polygamy in Utah occupied much attention. August 31, 1886, an earthquake visited the eastern United States, destroying the lives of over sixty people at Charleston, S. C., where the shock was the greatest. The year 1886 marked the completion at the entrance of New York harbor of the largest statue ever erected—the great Bartholdi statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World." September 15, 1887, over a million people witnessed at Philadelphia the celebration of the centennial anniversary of the framing of the United States Constitution. The throwing of a bomb at an anarchist meeting held at Chicago in May, 1886, resulted in the death of a number of persons. This act also created a widespread newspaper discussion, and the conviction of the leaders tended to develop a healthy sentiment in favor of the support of law and order. Towards the close of this administration the "Samoan difficulty" assumed a threatening aspect, but after a conference was amicably adjusted. Ex-President Grant, after a lingering illness, died July 23, 1885, universally mourned both North and South. At New York City, where he was temporarily entombed, an imposing funeral pageant was held. In this procession the leading men of the nation—including representatives of both "the blue and the grey"—shared in doing honor to the great warrior and statesman. Funeral services were also held throughout the country.



Statue of Liberty.

7. CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION.

One of Mr. Cleveland's Claims to distinction lies in the fact that he was the first president to take the country entirely away from the prejudices and traditions of the Civil War, while still preserving the great moral lessons that made it so real as an influence on national life and character. It was his good fortune to restore perfect confidence between the elements of a people long widely sundered. This had been talked about by every president and public man for a full score of years; but his predecessors could not escape from their environment, or fully recognize the fact that old things had passed away and that all things had become new.—*Parker, in Writings and Speeches of Grover Cleveland.*

The Statue of Liberty.—Meanwhile, in the autumn of 1886, the colossal statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World" was unveiled and lighted in the harbor of New York. The statue—the largest of the kind ever made—was presented to the United States by a great number of citizens of the Republic of France, as a memorial of their friendly feeling toward the people of this country, and as an expression of their confidence in the stability of the American government. The statue is of bronze, and represents the goddess, or genius, of liberty holding high upraised in one hand a lighted torch, to show the way to those who are seeking the shores of the New World. The figure is of great beauty, and at night the torch serves the purpose of a guiding light to all incoming vessels.—*Montgomery, in Leading Facts of American History, p. 353.*

This is the Largest Statue ever erected, and may be truly called the "eighth wonder of the world." The statue is made of *repousse* copper, one-eighth of an inch thick. This shell is kept in position by iron plates and braces, riveting it to a framework. The frame consists of four angle iron corner posts, united by horizontal and diagonal angle pieces. The statue weighs four hundred and forty thousand pounds, of which one hundred and seventy-six thousand pounds are copper, and the remainder of wrought iron. The torch contains five electric lamps, of thirty thousand candle power. The statue itself is one hundred and fifty-one feet high. The pedestal is eighty-nine feet high. The top of the torch is three hundred and five feet and eleven inches above the mean low-water mark.—*Clare.*

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8.

Harrison's Administration (1889-1893.)—In the campaign of 1888 the Republicans nominated and elected Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, president, over Grover Cleveland, the then incumbent of the presidential chair. The subject of the tariff occupied a prominent place in the campaign. Harrison was elected, though Cleveland received the larger popular vote. Very early the house passed the so-called "Force-Bill," which was finally and after a stubborn fight defeated in the Senate. "The McKinley Bill," a revenue measure, became a law. The most popular feature of the bill was the reciprocity clause providing for special treaties with certain other countries. In 1889 Oklahoma territory was formed. The Johnstown flood, caused by the breaking of a reservoir, occurred May 31, 1889. Over three thousand lives were destroyed by the torrent. Through the tireless energy of Secretary of State Blaine a Pan-American Congress was held at Washington. A few days later the International Maritime Congress assembled at the Federal Capitol. January, 1889, the president recognized the new republic of Brazil. North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Washington, Idaho and Wyoming were admitted into the Union. A treaty for the annexation of Hawaii was prepared and submitted to the Senate but was at a later date withdrawn by President Cleveland.



Benjamin Harrison.

8. HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The Period of Harrison's Administration was notable for the death of many eminent citizens of the republic. George Bancroft, historian and statesman, passed away on January 17, 1891. Benson J. Lossing, the historian, followed on June 3, and James Parton, the biographer, on October 17. Walt Whitman, the "good gray poet," died on March 26, 1892. In August, James Russell Lowell, critic, poet and diplomat, and George William Curtis, critic and editor, were numbered with the illustrious dead. On January 27, 1893, a popular idol disappeared from view. James G. Blaine, whose long and bright political career is phenomenal in the records of statesmen, finished his mortal course, his departure being comparable to that of the beloved Clay of another generation, in the general sorrow which it occasioned.—*Clare.*

The McKinley Act.—Another distinctive feature of the McKinley Act was the sugar bounty. The sugar consumed in the United States in the year 1890 amounted to nearly a million and a half of tons, of which only about a quarter of a million was domestic product. The protective duty on this article, mainly for the benefit of Louisiana planters, served to raise the price of the whole amount consumed by the people, without any apparent likelihood that the domestic product would ever equal the home demand. On the other hand, to remove the duty altogether would have the certain effect to destroy the Louisiana industry, which could not compete in price with the cheap product of Cuba. Accordingly, the McKinley Act put sugar on the free list, thus reducing the price of the commodity and at the same time reducing the surplus in the treasury by many millions. Then to prevent the destruction of the Louisiana interest a bounty was offered from the treasury on all sugars and molasses, whether from cane, beet, maple, or sorghum, produced in the United States. And this was to continue for fifteen years.—*Judson, in the Growth of the American Nation, pp., 338-339.*

The Question of Reciprocity with American nations was injected into the tariff discussion by Secretary Blaine in June. In transmitting to Congress the recommendation of the international American conference for improved commercial relations, the secretary dilated upon the importance of securing the markets of Central and South America for our products, and suggested as a more speedy way than treaties of reciprocity an amendment to the pending tariff bill authorizing the President to open our ports to the free entry of the products of any American nation which should in turn admit free of taxation our leading agricultural and manufactured products. In July Mr. Blaine took up the idea again in a public correspondence with Senator Frye, criticising severely the removal of the tariff on sugar, as that on coffee had been removed before, without exacting trade concessions in return. He complained that there was not a section or a line in the bill, as it came from the House that would open the market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork. The Senate finance committee acted upon the suggestion of the secretary by introducing an amendment to the bill authorizing and directing the President to suspend by proclamation the free introduction of sugar, molasses, coffee, tea and hides from any country which should impose on products of the United States exactions which in view of the free introduction of sugar, etc., he should deem reciprocally unequal and unreasonable. The rates at which the President is to demand duties upon the commodities named are duly fixed. This reciprocity provision passed the Senate and the conference committee and became part of the law. —*Political Science Quarterly: Record of Events, December, 1890.*

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9.

Cleveland's Second Administration (1893-—.)—In the campaign of 1892 Grover Cleveland for the third time was made the nominee of his party for the presidential chair. President Harrison was renominated as the standard bearer of the Republicans. Both were men of normal and conservative tendencies, and of exceptional capacity and patriotic devotion. Cleveland was elected. The proper disposition of the "Hawaiian question" occupied considerable attention during the earlier part of the administration, and gave rise to no little partisan discussion. The coining of silver brought to the attention of the public by the workings of the so-called Sherman Act, began to receive increased discussion. During the year 1893 there was held at Chicago the World's Columbian Exposition commemorating the Four Hundredth Anniversary of the discovery of America. This great exhibition quickened and bettered our educational methods, our philanthropic work, our esthetic life, and greatly added to our scientific spirit and purpose. In July, 1894, Congress enacted the so-called "Wilson Bill," a tariff measure not in accordance with the opinion of either the Lower House or Senate, being a compromise measure. Mr. Cleveland neither signed nor vetoed the bill, but allowed it to become a law without his signature. The World's Fair City in 1894 was the scene of the greatest railroad strike in history. It originated at Pullman, Ill., and was accompanied by bands of "Industrials" being formed for the purpose of marching to the capital of the nation. One of the most interesting events occurring during this administration was the work of the so-called "Lexow Investigation." This inquiry had been instituted by Rev. Charles H. Parkhurst, president of the New York City Society for Prevention of Crime. Secretary of State Olney's firm stand, backed by the president, in connection with the boundary dispute between Venezuela and British Guiana gave rise to no small discussion and met the hearty approval of both political parties. This question was placed in the hands of a committee of inquiry. The Cuban insurrection continued to receive considerable attention and was the subject of no little discussion in both Houses of Congress. June 18, 1896, the Republican party, in National Convention assembled, nominated Wm. McKinley, of Ohio, for president, and Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey, for vice-president. July 7, 1896, the Democratic party assembled in Convention at Chicago, and after adopting a platform in favor of the free coinage of both gold and silver, nominated William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, for president, and Arthur Sewall, of Maine, for vice-president.



Grover Cleveland.

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9. CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION.

Coxeyism.—The purposes of the movement as expressed by Coxey's demands, are: 1, the repeal by Congress of all interest-bearing bonds and the issuance of $500,000,000 in irredeemable paper money; Congress to vest in municipalities the power to issue to the United States government non-interest bearing bonds, these bonds to be repaid at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum; 2, the revenue so authorized and raised is to be expended in the improvement and construction of public roads. Frye's demand is somewhat different--namely, government employment for all her unemployed citizens, the prohibition of foreign immigration for ten years, and the exclusion of aliens from ownership of real estate in the United States.--*Major-General Howard in North American Review, 1894.*

An Historical Parallel.--On the eve of the French Revolution there was a similar movement. It was of "five hundred and seventeen men, with captains of fifteen and tens, well armed all; with musket on shoulder; sabre on thigh; nay, they drive three pieces of cannon; for who knows what obstacles may occur?" This army was organized in Marseilles and then marched to Paris. On their arrival we have this very remarkable speech from these Marseillais: "We have come numbering 500

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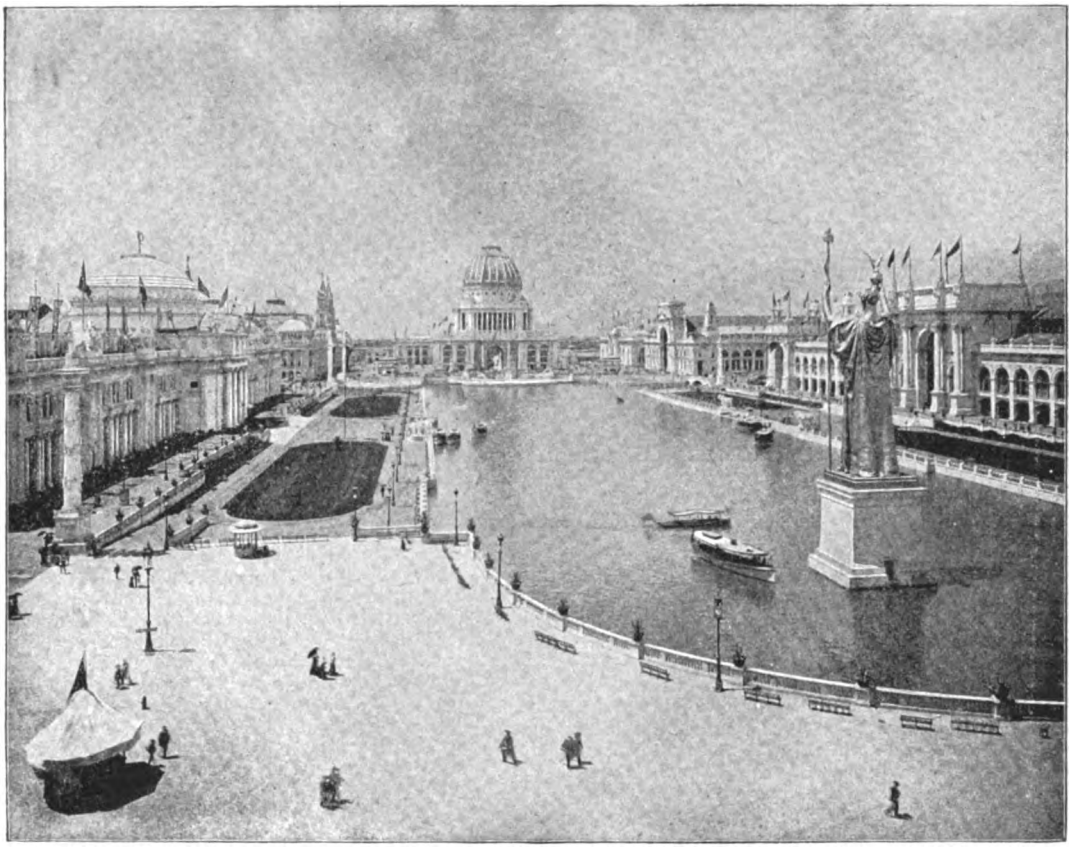
to free ourselves from the oath which Marseilles had taken to fight for liberty; but liberty is not the cause of the king. When we go to shed our blood it is of importance to us to know whether we shed that blood for Louis XVI. or for our country. We ask you legislators to provide for our subsistence." The coming of these men to Paris made the revolution an actuality. They struck the blow against the Swiss guard, and became the nucleus round which all active revolutionists gathered.—*Major-General Howard, in North American Review, 1894.*

The Strike of 1894.—"We may say in closing that the strike would never have been possible without widespread unrest and discontent. This has been increased by the strike and the continuance of the industrial depression. It is rendered serious by the generally admitted lawlessness of some of the wealthy in the west, the inequalities of taxation, and the corrupt character of our city and state governments, and by the absorption of nearly all in money making, to the neglect of civic duties and public spirit. A large portion of the wage-workers, too, are the immigrants, or the children of such from Ireland, Germany, Poland, Italy and all the parts of Europe, and are largely ignorant of American institutions and of their true interests and led in too many cases by unscrupulous demagogues. Yet there is much hope in a wave of municipal reforms, and interest in economic and social problems, that is now rapidly spreading among our professional and middle classes, which may be powerful enough to secure a peaceful and gradual introduction of moderate but greatly needed social reforms and to render less bitter the relations between capital and labor." —*Prof. Bemis, in Review of Reviews, translated from Revue d'Economie Politique.*



The Court of Honor, World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago.

Facts and Figures Regarding the World's Columbian Exposition.

The grounds and buildings were dedicated on October 21, 1892.

Opening day was May 1, and the closing day October 30, 1893.

The total number of admissions, 27,529,401.

The largest attendance was on Chicago Day, October 9th, when 761,942 people were admitted to the grounds.

The average daily attendance during the fair was 153,796.

Receipts from admissions, $10,583,407.96.

Total value of exhibits, about $60,000,000.

Total number of foreign exhibitors, 36,629.

Total number of American exhibitors, 32,863.

Medals awarded to foreign exhibitors, 15,076.

Medals awarded to American exhibitors. 8,681.

The total receipts from all sources, $33,594,147.87.

The main buildings were ten in number, as follows: Administration, Manufactures and Liberal Arts, Machinery Hall, Agricultural, Horticultural, Electricity, Mines and Mining, Transportation, Art Palace, and Woman's Building.

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10. ERA OF PROGRESS.

We live in an age of progress in education, discovery and invention. Since 1860 our population has more than doubled. The total mileage of railroads in 1860 was about 30,000. It is now over 180,000. In improvements, the facilities and capacities for moving freight and for rapid transit have kept pace with the increase in mileage. The following figures, compiled by the United States Bureau of Statistics under the charge of Carroll D. Wright, give us some idea of the rapid increase in certain other lines. In 1860 the capital invested in "mechanical and manufacturing industries" was, in round numbers, $1,010,000,000, against $6,525,000,000 in 1890, an increase of over 540 per cent. In the same time the increase in product was over 390 per cent. From 1860 to 1890 the capital employed in the "textiles" increased 393 per cent.; in the "cotton industries" 259 per cent.; in "wool manufacture" 533 per cent. In 1860 there were 652 establishments for the manufacture of iron and steel, with a capital of less than $48,372,897; in 1890 the capital was $414,044,844. Bessemer steel was first manufactured in considerable quantities in 1867. Wire nails in considerable quantities first appeared in 1884. The typewriter, in modern form, appeared in 1873, and the modern bicycle in 1875. The total production of petroleum since 1859, the date when first used in commercial quantities, amounts to over 600,000,000 barrels. In 1860 the number of printing and publishing establishments was reported as 1,666, against 17,616 in 1890. The progress of the United States in other lines has been equally marvellous. Nearly three hundred thousand patents and inventions, of varying degree of importance, are now in force. Americans have invented the "telegraph, the telephone, the electric light, the sewing-machine, the reaper, and vulcanized rubber," to say nothing of hundreds of other discoveries of great importance.

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10. ERA OF PROGRESS.

The National Debt by August, 1865, had reached the amount of $2,844,649,626. And this was a part of the money cost of maintaining the Union. But the national revenues throughout the contest had been steadily large, amounting for the four years to about $780,000,000. And after peace came the revenues continued to swell. Thus was not only the annual interest on the national bonds promptly paid, but considerable sums were available each year to reduce the principal. The report of the Secretary of the Treasury on the first of December, 1894, showed that the total debt, less cash in the treasury, had been reduced to $837,221,204.22—being a reduction of upwards of two thousands of millions of dollars in less than thirty years.—*Judson, in The Growth of the American Nation, p. 334.*

Manufactures were also stimulated in a vast degree by the Civil War. The necessity of supplying great armies resulted in driving our manufactories to the utmost capacity. The wonderful development of natural resources; the discovery and development of new sources of supply of the metals; the ambition to supply the home demand, ever increasing through immigration, and to send our manufactured goods to foreign markets—all these have made the past generation one of great industrial expansion. The stimulation given through various tariff movements has also had its effect; but all these influences must be taken together when considering the evolution of the industries of our country.—*Wright, in Industrial Evolution of the United States, p. 188.*

Transportation.—Steel, since the decade beginning with 1870, has replaced iron in the rails, the roadbeds are heavier, the roads have fewer curves and lower gradients, bridges are of steel, tracks are double, cars are larger, engines more powerful, trains make much better time, and hundreds of other improvements are supplied. But the most marked result of all is the cheapening of transportation. The average cost of carrying a ton of freight one mile is a little less than one cent. When the Civil War broke out, the cost was upwards of three cents.—*Judson, in The Growth of the American Nation, p. 342.*

Light.—It is less than sixty years since matches have come into common use. Many old men remember the time in this country when a fire could be kindled only with embers from another fire, as there were no such thing as matches. Most of us who have reached the age of forty remember the abominable, clumsy, sulphur-matches of 1860, as bulky as they were unpleasant. And yet the first sulphur-matches, made about 1830, cost ten cents a hundred. Today the safety match, certain and odorless, is sold at one-tenth of this price. The introduction of kerosene was one of the blessings of modern life. It added several hours a day to the useful, intelligent life of man, and who can estimate the influence of these evening hours upon the advance of civilization? The evening, after the day's work is done, has been the only hour when the workingman could read. Before cheap and good lights were given him, reading was out of the question. Gas marked a step in advance, but only for large towns, and now electricity bids fair soon to displace gas; and we hear vague suggestions of a luminous ether that will flood houses with a soft glow like that of sunlight.—*Hubert, in Inventors pp. 272-273.*

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11. EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

Not only has the United States made within the last ten years great progress in scientific and industrial lines, but the present is an age characterized by large gifts to the cause of education, charities and other objects. Among the earlier and leading benefactors are Peter Cooper, the founder of Cooper Union, opened in 1859; and George Peabody, the benefactor of the Peabody Institute, Baltimore, and donor of the "Peabody Fund" for education in the South. Johns Hopkins University, which has done so much for university education, was opened for instruction in 1876. Within the last five or six years, mostly by the gifts of John D. Rockefeller and Chicago capitalists, the University of Chicago possessing over $7,000,000, has been originated, organized and equipped. Within the same time, by the magnificent gift of Leland Stanford, the Pacific slope has been given a school—Leland Stanford Jr. University, possessing an endowment of between ten and twenty million dollars. Among the educational gifts may be noted Clark University, Massachusetts; Drexel Institute, Philadelphia; Armour Institute and Lewis Institute—both of Chicago; Field Columbian Museum, Chicago; and very large and numerous gifts to nearly all of our older and leading schools. Not only is this an age of large and varied benefactions, but it is an age of culture. Our schools, though rapidly increasing in numbers and facilities for doing better work, are nevertheless overcrowded. The great mass of the people are demanding a broader culture. Associations for mutual improvement and the so-called "settlement," like the "Hull House" of Chicago, receive liberal patronage and encouragement from the people. Indeed, the "university spirit" seems to have taken hold of the masses.

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11. EDUCATION AND CULTURE.

Settlements.—The word "settlement" is fast becoming familiar to the American public, although the first settlement, Toyneby Hall, in east London, was established so late as 1885. Canon Barnett, the founder, urged as the primal idea that a group of university men should reside in the poorer quarter of London for the sake of influencing the people there toward better local government and a wider social and intellectual life. Since 1889 more than twenty settlements have been established in America. Some of these are associated with various institutional features, but the original idea of a group of "residents" must always remain the essential factor.—*Jane Addams, in Hull House Maps and Papers. p. VII.*

The Settlement; Slum Boys on a Farm School.—A walk over the 125 acres of the farm (Burnham School) shows the boys at work hauling stone, cutting corn, and storing the stalks away for the winter, tending the cattle, and doing the hundred and one things farmers find to do in the busy autumn months. In the fields they are ever under the eye of the farmer and his assistants, who work with them, teaching them how to take hold. They are required to work steadily rather than hard. The idea is to teach them habits of industry and thrift as the beginning of their new life. A wagon load of apples is coming in from the orchard. On the load behind the ox-team half a dozen of the lads are perched, munching away at the apples and enjoying the ride. One of them has the characteristic features and complexion of the refugee Jew. The sweater's district on the East Side gave him up not long ago. What comparisons he draws in his mind between Ludlow street and life on the farm he does not say as he ducks his head under the low branches that overhang the wagon track, and joyously "fires" a half eaten apple at his chum. Consciously, perhaps, none. Youth is the thoughtless age. But, with or without his knowledge, the comparison is drawn, and fixed upon his mind, between the dark slum and the hills in their autumnal glory, between the filthy gutter and the brook that meanders through the green meadow with murmured speech. He understands without being taught, for all he was born in a tenement. . . . The routine of the house leaves no time or chance for idleness. The boys are rung up at 5 A.M. After breakfast there is a brief season of prayer, in which the superintendent leads; then work, dinner, more work, until the time comes, toward evening, for doing the chores. There are the cattle to feed, the horses to look after, and the oxen to be stalled. Then come supper and another prayer-meeting, in which the help take a hand. The stormy days and the evening hours are spent in the reading-room or in amusements. Saturday afternoon is a holiday. The only complaint made by any of the boys to me was of the school, although the older boys do not attend, and the younger ones only half a day.—*Riis, in Century, 1895.*

Peter Cooper was actively identified with many important enterprises. He established a great glue factory, first between 31st and 34th street, New York City, then in Maspeth Ave., Brooklyn. He saved the Baltimore and Ohio railroad from bankruptcy when in its infancy, and built for it in 1830, from his own designs, the first locomotive engine ever constructed on this continent.

He founded the Ironton Iron Works where the first wrought iron beams for fire-proof buildings were made. The laying of the Atlantic Cable was largely due to his persistent efforts in its behalf. For twelve years he kept investing money in the enterprise when the banks would not lend it to the corporation.—*Edited from Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography.*

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12. ERA OF GOOD FEELING.

While progress in the sciences and industries have been rapid since 1860, growth in other lines has been equally marvellous. At the close of the Civil War the South was poor, distracted, though not discouraged, and partisan strife between the two sections ran high. The loss of the slaves alone amounted to $2,000,000,000, while other property and commerce had been mostly destroyed, to say nothing of the irreparable loss of 300,000 able-bodied men killed during the war. But in the year 1896 the citizen of the North and the dweller of the South vie with each other in good fellowship—each supporting "the Union under one flag." The era of good feeling shows itself in other lines. The trend of the present day is toward "saving man here and now, as a problem of supreme importance." Free schools are being established in every hamlet and all over our large cities. In the slums are found reading rooms, halls for lectures, concerts and healthy amusements. Gymnasiums and kindergartens are everywhere. While teaching, cooking and sewing for the girls and useful trades for the boys, purity, justice and nobleness of heart is inculcated. The capitalist is learning to sympathize with the laborer; the native with the foreigner, and the white man with the black man. It would seem that we are rapidly approaching an era of reforms, and thus by the broadening of the ideals of men we are soon to witness a new order of things.



John A. Logan.

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12. ERA OF GOOD FEELING.

The New South.—But the New West, with its great mines, its cattle ranges, and wheat-fields capable of feeding the world, its busy and crowded cities, its schools and libraries and colleges, is only one of the new sections of the republic. The New South is another. Gradually after the war the patient energy of the impoverished people devoted to their rich natural resources began to ripen into abundant fruits. Capital began to flow southward. Cotton was raised with free labor in much greater quantities even than in the lordly days before the war. Cotton factories began to spring up in the midst of the staple. Mines of coal and iron began to be developed. Manufacturing towns—Birmingham and Chattanooga—great centers of commerce, like Atlanta, sprang up and grew like the great cities of the West. Above all, gradually the old sectional bitterness of the war began to die out. People North as well as South came to learn that the war and its issues were ended. Southern people are once more active and influential in national politics. The North is more and more disposed to realize that the peculiar problems of southern social life can best be worked out by the Southern people themselves. And nowhere is there today more loyalty to the nation than in the New South. A new generation has grown up. Tolerance and kindly feeling are daily growing Those of each section are learning that the others, too, fought for a principle; that both were heroic And all can afford to forget the passions of the struggle and remember only the gallant deeds of the heroes in both armies.—*Judson, in The Growth of the American Nation, pp. 343-344.*

The Twenty Years Between 1861 and 1881 are memorable in the history of the Congress of the United States. Senators and Representatives were called upon to deal with new problems from the hour in which they were summoned by President Lincoln to provide for the exigencies of a great war. They confronted enormous difficulties at every step; and if they had failed in their duty, if they had not comprehended the gravity and the peril of the situation, if they had failed in courage, or had been obscured in vision, the Union of the States might have been lost, the progress of civilization on the American continent checked for generations. With the national arms triumphant, with the Union of the States made strong, the American people, in the quiet of domestic peace, in the enjoyment of wide-spread prosperity, should not forget the dangers and sacrifices which secured to them their great blessings. . . . . The National Government has in these twenty years proved its strength in war, its conservatism in peace. The self-restraint which the citizens of the Republic exhibited in the hour of need, the great burdens which they bore under the inspiration of patriotic duty, the public order which they maintained by their instinctive obedience to the command of law, all attest the good government of a self-governing people. Full liberty to criticise the acts of persons in official station, free agitation of all political questions, frequent elections that give opportunity for prompt settlement of all issues, tend to insure popular content and public safety. No government of modern times has encountered the dangers that beset the United States or achieved the triumphs wherewith the Nation is crowned.—*Jas. G. Blaine, in Twenty Years of Congress, Vol. 2, p. 672 and p. 676.*

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Toleration.—A third thing necessary to the perpetuity of American liberties is TOLERATION—toleration in the broadest and most glorious sense. In the colonial times intolerance embittered the lives of our fathers. Until the present day the baleful shadow has been upon the land. The proscriptive vices of the Middle Age have flowed down with the blood of the race and tainted the life that now is, with a suspicion and a distrust of freedom. Liberty in the minds of men has meant the privilege of agreeing with the majority. Men have desired free thought, but fear has stood at the door. It remains for the United States to build a highway, broad and free, into every field of liberal inquiry, and to make the poorest of men who walks therein, more secure in life and reputation than the soldier who sleeps behind the rampart. Proscription has no part nor lot in the American system. The stake, the gibbet, and the rack, thumb screws, sword, and pillory, have no place on this side of the sea. Nature is diversified; so are human faculties, beliefs and practices. Essential freedom is the right to differ; and that right must be sacredly respected. Nor must the privilege of dissent be conceded with coolness and disdain, but openly, cordially, and with good will. No loss of rank, abatement of character, or ostracism from society must darken the pathway of the humblest of the seekers after truth. The right of free thought, free inquiry, and free speech, is as clear as the noonday and bounteous as the air and ocean. Without a full and cheerful recognition of this right, America is only a name, her glory a dream, her institutions a mockery.—*Ridpath, in History of the United States.*

Energy of the United States.—Here we see that the United States possess almost as much energy as Great Britain, Germany and France collectively, and that the ratio falling to each American is more than what two Frenchmen or Germans have at their disposal. Moreover, the military armaments which keep in forced idleness 4,000,000 men in Europe are happily unknown in the United States. It is not merely that European nations are deprived of the labor, skill and exertions of 4,000,000 men in the prime of life; they have also to set apart 1,000,000 workers of the agricultural and industrial classes to feed and clothe the standing armies and defray the cost of artillery, war-vessels, etc. Thus the average of productive energy in France, Germany, England, etc., is much less than appears in the above statement. Again, if we consider the labor-saving appliances in the United States, we see the perfection of agricultural and other machinery.—*Mulhall, in North American Review, Vol. 160, 1895, p. 643.*

The Intellectual Power of the Great Republic is in harmony with the industrial and mechanical. The census of 1890 showed that eighty-seven per cent of the total population over ten years of age could read and write. It may be fearlessly asserted that in the history of the human race no nation ever before possessed 41,000,000 instructed citizens. European states have certainly made efforts to diffuse popular instruction, and with considerable success, but Americans have left them far behind in generous and wise-minded expenditure on education, as may be seen in the following table:

	Annual school expenditure.	Dollars per inhabitant.
United States	$156,000,000	2 40
Great Britain	48,000,000	1.30
France	31,000,000	0.80
Germany	26,000,000	0.50
Austria	12,000,000	0.30
Italy	7,000,000	0.25

The highest European standard is that of Great Britain, but the average American pays twice as much as the Englishman to endow his fellow-countryman with the blessings of popular instruction. From the earliest time Americans have been solicitous in this particular. The contemporaries of Washington and Franklin were conscious that "Knowledge is Power," and felt that in building up a nation which was destined before long to take a foremost place in the world, the school-



Admiral Farragut.

master would have to play the most important part. Hence they spared no pains to make the school system as liberal and efficient as possible, and the results have fully corresponded to the well directed efforts of each successive generation. —*Mulhall, in North American Review, Vol. 160, 1895, p. 644.*

An Ordinary Farm-hand in the United States raises as much grain as three in England, four in France, five in Germany, or six in Austria, which shows what an enormous waste of labor occurs in Europe, because farmers are not possessed of the same mechanical appliances as in the United States. In order to make the comparison of labor more exact, I may be permitted to reduce all farm products to the common denominator of grain, by supposing ten pounds of meat or two gallons of wine to be equal to a bushel, and then the account will stand thus:

	Bushels of grain per hand.
United States	475
United Kingdom	228
France	188
Germany	118
Italy	115
Austria	97

While the above is the general result for the United States, as compared with other countries, Mr. Atkinson in his book on the *Distribution of Products* shows that, in some of the Western States, the labor of one man, during three hundred days in the year, is equivalent to the production of 4,500 bushels of wheat, while the cutting, threshing, milling and conveyance to market

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represent the annual labor of three other men. Thus four men can produce and deliver to the bakers as much flour as will feed a thousand persons, at twelve ounces of bread daily, for a whole year. In other words, one man can feed two hundred and fifty, whereas in Europe one man feeds only thirty persons. Nor can we hope for a better state of things in Europe soon. So dense is the ignorance of most men, even among the educated classes, that they are convinced that all labor-saving appliances are an evil, and that the more persons there are employed to do any given work the better.—*Mulhall, in North American Review, Vol. 160, p. 643.*

SECOND WEEKLY REVIEW.

7. **CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION.**—Statue of Liberty, Anniversary of the Framing of Constitution, The Anarchist Riot at Chicago, Samoan Difficulty, Agitation of the Tariff, Death of General Grant.
8. **HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION.**—Discussion of the Tariff, The McKinley Act, The Force Bill, Oklahoma, Johnstown Flood, Pan-American Congress, International Maritime Congress, The New Republic of Brazil, New States.
9. **CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION.**—The Hawaiian Question, The Sherman Act, Agitation of the Silver Question, The World's Fair, The Wilson Bill, The Railroad Strike of 1894, The Industrials, Lexow Investigation, Venezuela Affair, The Cuban Question, Campaign of 1896.
10. **ERA OF PROGRESS.**—Decrease of the Public Debt, Mileage of Railroads, Manufactures, Inventions
11. **EDUCATION AND CULTURE.**—Benefactors, Universities, University Extension, The So-called Settlements.
12. **ERA OF GOOD FEELING.**—The North and the South, The East and the West, The West and the South, Free Schools, Gymnasiums and Kindergartens, Toleration, Energy and Intellectual Power of the United States.

QUESTIONS.

7. *Name the leading events of Cleveland's first administration? Give a short account of the Charleston earthquake? The celebration of the framing of the Constitution? The Anarchist riot? The Samoan difficulty? Give a brief history of the condition of the country at the death of General Grant?*
8. *Name the leading events of Harrison's administration? Give a brief outline of the discussions of the tariff during this period? The Force Bill? What were some of the provisions of the McKinley Bill? Give an account of the Johnstown flood? The Pan-American Congress? The International Maritime Congress?*
9. *Name the leading events of Cleveland's second administration? Give a resume of the Hawaiian question? What is the history of the Sherman Act? Give a brief outline of the work of the World's Fair? The World's Congresses? The discussion and passage of the Wilson Bill? The strike of 1894 and the Industrials? What was the Lexow Investigation? The Venezuelan affair? The Cuban question?*
10. *Give statement showing the increase in population? Mileage of railroads? In manufactures. In inventions? Give Prof. Judson's statement as to the national debt? Transportation? Wright's in reference to manufactures? Hubert's in reference to light.*
11. *Name some of the leading benefactors since 1858. How have most of these benefactions been given? Give a sketch of University Extension? The Settlement? The Kindergarten.*
12. *Compare the East, North, South and West with reference to the progress and general tendencies since 1865? Give the substance of Prof. Judson's statement as to the New South? Blaine's for the years between 1861 and 1881? Give the substance of Mulhall's statements?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Name what you consider the strongest evidences of progress since 1861:—*
   (1) *In political lines.*
   (2) *In educational work.*
   (3) *In scientific discoveries.*
   (4) *In scientific progress and growth.*
   (5) *In the culture and intelligence of the masses.*
2. *What are the principal means now being employed for the education of the masses?*
3. *Give the history of the so-called Settlement. (For this Prof. Ely's Hull House maps and papers will be of great help).*
4. *What do you consider the strongest evidences of the social tendencies of the times?*
4. *What do you consider some of the greatest evil tendencies?*
6. *What is the history of the tariff since 1861?*
7. *What is the financial history since 1861?*
8. *Prepare a brief history of the Presidential candidates and issues of the campaign of 1896.*

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THE NORSEMEN AND THEIR CLAIMS TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

PREPARED BY

CARL A. SWENSSON, Ph.D.,

President of Bethany College, Lindsborg, Kansas.

INTRODUCTION.

THE subject is entirely too large for the space allotted. The only thing possible is to compile, from the best authorities, a very meagre outline, in the ambitious hope of exciting the reader to a more extensive study of so interesting and unusual a subject—a subject upon which we Americans in general have so exceedingly small and unsystematic information. For a fuller presentation of the history of the Norsemen as connected with our American life, the general reader is respectfully referred to *The Viking Age* by Paul B. DuChaillu, and the *Universal Histories* of Clare and Ridpath, and especially to the excellent *History of the United States* (in Swedish) and "*The Norsemen in America*" (in Swedish), by Prof. J. A. Enander, LL.D., and "*America Not Discovered by Columbus*," by Prof. Rasmus B. Anderson, the author of several other works in English of much interest and value to the student. I have used these sources very freely, being fully acquainted with the scholarship and standing of the distinguished authors. "*Sweden and the Swedes*," by the Hon. W. W. Thomas, Jr., our ex-minister to Sweden-Norway, and "*Songs from the North*" (Vol. I.), by Mrs. Valborg Hovind Stub, are worthy of unreserved praise, as is also an article on "*Iceland and Its People*," by Ruth Schaffner, in the December issue of *The Chautauquan.*



Carl A. Swensson, Ph.D.

13. THE NORSEMEN.

Who were the Norsemen?—The name *Norsemen* (Scandinavians, Northmen, Normans, and in English history, Danes) was early given in common to the *Swedes*, *Norwegians*, *Danes* and *Icelanders*. Their ancestors once lived in the regions north of the Black Sea, and belonged to the great Germanic or Teutonic family of the Aryan branch of the Caucasian race. Some centuries before Christ they were forced, for some reason or another, to emigrate, and finally arrived, through Russia and Finland and across the Baltic, in Sweden. As to the time of their arrival in Sweden opinions vary, some claiming that it took place at about the beginning of the Christian era; others saying that they came already in the year 375 B.C., and took possession of the country above the colonies of the Goths. Already in the

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second and third centuries of the Christian era the power of the Norsemen grew very rapidly. The Goths emigrated from Scandinavia, and eventually fought the Romans. The Norsemen became sovereigns of the north. They were acquainted with the use of iron, and by their iron and genius they have ably and successfully defended their independence ever since.

The Country of the Norsemen.—*Scandinavia* (Sweden, Norway and Denmark) comprises two large peninsulas in Northern Europe. The area of *Sweden* is 170,713 square miles. The greatest length of the country from north to south is 986 miles and its greatest breadth 286 miles. The length of its coast line is 1,603 miles. The country is divided into three chief parts: Götaland, Svealand, and Norrland. The area of *Norway* is 122,780 miles, its greatest breadth is 280 miles, and it has an enormous coast line of 3,018 miles. It is divided into eighteen amts (counties), and is the most sparsely settled country in Europe. *Denmark's* area is 14,124 square miles, making the total area of *Scandinavia* 307,617 square miles, or three times larger than Italy, four times larger than our six New England states taken together, larger than France, than Germany, larger than any European country except Russia.

The extreme northern location of Scandinavia, the mountains, forests, and lakes of Sweden-Norway, have in combination made a very large population impossible. And yet the climate is not by far as severe as might be supposed. The Gulf Stream and the ocean temper the cold, and agriculture is possible in regions twelve hundred miles north of Duluth. The long summer days aid nature very materially in maturing the crops. The long winter nights are illumined by the bright Aurora Borealis. The Midnight Sun and the Northern Light combine in producing a climate of weird and unsurpassed beauty—a climate, the character of which could not fail to make lasting impressions upon the people inhabiting such a country.

Have you ever visited Scandinavia in summer? Ah, one can never forget the pleasures of such a trip. Steaming up the lovely fjords, surrounded by everlasting mountain fastnesses; listening to the solemn song of the cascades in the mighty forests, while the summer breeze plays a most fascinating accompaniment in the tops of the stately pine trees; skipping about on the placid lakes in rollicking yachts, amid scenes of ever-changing beauty; forgetting the day and the night in the unsurpassed experience of an ideal existence, "where there is no more night," one feels instinctively that the people of such a country could never be but independent, liberty-loving, romantic, daring, brainy, and invincible.

The Scandinavian countries are to-day probably the best educated, the happiest, and most satisfied on the globe. Illiteracy is reduced to a minimum. The latest statistics show that the per cent of illiteracy in Sweden is but six-tenths of one per cent. The public school systems, the colleges and universities of these countries are not surpassed by any other land. The university at Upsala, Sweden, this year has matriculated 1,459 students, every one of whom was an A.B. or B.S. before entering the university. Our greatest American universities seldom register more than 300 *post graduate* students. Poverty is never found in its hideous aspect. There are no slum districts in the cities in the same sense as among us, nor are there any tramps. Law and order are established more completely than anywhere else, except in Switzerland. The people are, as such, God-fearing nations. Their governments are next to ideal monarchies, and an American traveling in Scandinavia often cannot help wishing in his heart: "Oh, that some of the same conditions existed in our country!"

Railroads, the telegraph, telephone, electric light, and other modern improvements are found even in far-away Norrland. Agriculture, horticulture, dairying, mining, fishing, and home industries of every kind flourish, and are continually being developed into greater perfection. The religious life of the people is sincere and reliable. Such are to-day the countries of the old-time Norsemen and Vikings.

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14. **The Language and Literature of the Norsemen.**—The language spoken in the three Scandinavian countries up to the year A. D. 1200 is called, by Icelandic authorities "Norraena mal," or "Dansk tunga." The Norse language found in far-away Iceland, its most permanent home and refuge, being by very nature protected from undue foreign influences, and "it has there, by its early and settled literature, remained purer than any other modern language." The Swedish, and even more so the Danish and Norwegian, have gradually departed from the mother tongue by the introduction of many words of Roman, Greek, and German extraction. The language of the Norsemen was the true exponent of the people and climate of the ever-memorable North—"hard as the sword of the Viking warrior, expressive as the mandate of the ancient ting (mass meeting), reliable and honest as a northern grasp of the hand, beautiful as the eyes of a Norse maiden, pure as the air of the far-famed Northland, sublime as nature itself in the country of the viks, fjords, lakes, torrents, and the Mignight Sun." It was poetic, it was patriotic, it was self-conscious and independent. Longfellow said: "The Icelandic is as remarkable as the Anglo-Saxon for its abruptness, its obscurity, and the boldness of its metaphors. Poets are called song-smiths; poetry, the language of the gods; gold, the daylight of dwarfs; the heavens, the skull of Ymer; the rainbow, the bridge of the gods; a battle, a bath of blood, the hail of Oden, the meeting of shields; the tongue, the sword of words; a river, the sweat of earth, the blood of the valleys; arrows, the daughters of misfortune; the earth, the vessel that floats on the ages."



Rock Cutting at Tegneby, Bohuslän.

The Norsemen early expressed their thoughts in written language. First of all may be mentioned their rock carvings. Many such "hall-ristningar" were made, preserving to posterity the story of the valor and virtue of great and noble men and women of the people. The Norseman, *Thorfinn Karlsefne*, had an inscription of this kind carved on the *Assonet-stone* (Dighton writing rock), Massachusetts, in the year 1010. Then we next have the "runas" sometimes combined with the above, comprising sixteen signs, afterward complemented by five more. The Swedish "runas" are by Geijer, Strinnholm, and Holmberg, said to be the foundation of the Anglo-Saxon "runas," and these latter the foundation of the German. The oldest written records in the land of the North are the "run-stenar" (stone tablets with runa-inscriptions). Of the 1,500 "run-stenar" found so far about 1,300 are in Sweden. The most of them seem to belong to the years 950–1200.

Poetry was ever looked upon with love and reverence by the Norsemen. The poets were welcome guests in the courts of kings and warriors, and were well paid for their labor. The oldest productions of Norse poetry were distinguished by their warlike rhythm, daring transpositions, and beautiful, unfailing figures of speech. They were transmitted from father to son by verbal tradition. The unsurpassed imagery of these songs can hardly be described. Oden had not less than two hundred appellations. Heaven, earth, the ocean, and every force in nature received their respective names and personifications. The songs were either mythical, semi-mythical, or historical. The first two kinds are the oldest.

The memory of the poets and singers was something remarkable. Geijer mentions an instance. The blind poet *Stuf* sang to *Harald Hardrade* in one evening sixty songs (poems of some length) and said that he could have given thirty more had the occasion permitted it.

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The *Sagas* (saga, from segja, say, relate) were the history of that day, as it lived upon the lips of the people. It is difficult for our age to understand how enthusiastically they were told and retold, and how wonderfully the patriotism of the young was kindled and perpetuated in this manner. This was true especially in *Iceland*. The Norse colonists in that far-away land looked upon their language and the memory of their great and brave forefathers, handed down to them from generation to generation in the "Sagas," as the best and dearest inheritance of everything they had brought along from the old Scandinavian countries. To these Icelanders is due a great deal of credit for preserving unto posterity the story of the life and experience of the Norsemen in the ages gone by. Tradition gave way to literature. In the *Eddas* of *Saemunder* (1333, Iceland) and of *Snorre Sturlesson* (1178-1241, Iceland) is found a most wonderful treasury of historic information, of poetic beauty, and of Norse individuality. "The ancient literature and traditions of Iceland excel anything of their kind in Europe during the Middle Ages. The Icelandic poems have no parallel in all the treasures of ancient literature. There are gigantic proportions about them, and great and overwhelming tragedies in them, which rival those of Greece. The early literature of Iceland is now fast becoming recognized as equal to that of ancient Greece and Rome." "Among no other people of Europe can the conception and birth of historical literature be more clearly traced than amongst the people of Iceland"(1). It would be interesting to sketch in this connection the language and literature up to the present time of the three Scandinavian countries, Sweden, Norway and Denmark. Our present purpose will not admit of that. It is to be regretted, however, that the English-speaking world has access to so few worthy translations of the masterpieces of Scandinavian literature, old and new. Did an opposite condition exist, the beauties of the poets and authors of the North would receive universal homage. Bayard Taylor said: "The Swedish language combines the strong manhood of the German with the delicate beauty of the Italian." Longfellow, who died as Professor of the Scandinavian languages and literature at Harvard University, acknowledged that in his opinion he could never do justice in a translation to *Tegner's Frithiof's Saga*, of which at least twenty-one versions into English exist at the present time. The charming naturalness, the native modesty and delicacy, the conscientious care about the details, the thorough knowledge of things theoretical and practical, exhibited continually by Scandinavian writers, coupled with a most wonderful communion and intimacy with nature, and a spirit of irresistible weirdness and mysticism, give a charm to the best northern writers which in our American literature so far has been equaled only by Longfellow (2).

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(1). William and Mary Howitt: "There is nothing besides the Bible, which sits in a divine tranquillity of unapproachable nobility, like a king of kings amongst all other books, and the poem of Homer himself, which can compare in all of the elements of greatness with the *Edda*. There is a loftiness of stature and a growth of muscle about it which no poets of the same race have ever since reached. The obscurity which hangs over some parts of it, like the deep shadows crouching mid the ruins of the past, is probably the result of dilapidations: but, amid this, stand forth the boldest masses of intellectual masonry. We are astonished at the wisdom which is shaped into maxims, and at the tempestuous strength of passions to which all modern emotions appear puny and constrained. Amid the bright sunlight of a far-off time, surrounded by the densest shadows of forgotten ages, we come at once into the midst of gods and heroes, goddesses and fair women, giants and dwarfs, moving about in a world of wonderful construction, unlike any other worlds or creations which God has founded or man has imaged, but still beautiful beyond conception.

The Icelandic poems have no parallel in all the treasures of ancient literature. They are the expressions of the souls of poets existing in the primeval and uneffeminated earth. They are the limnings of men and women of godlike beauty and endowments, full of the vigor of simple, but impetuous natures. There are gigantic proportions about them. There are great and overwhelming tragedies in them, to which those of Greece only present any parallels.

The Edda is a structure of that grandeur and importance that it deserves to be far better known to us generally than it is. The spirit in it is sublime and colossal."

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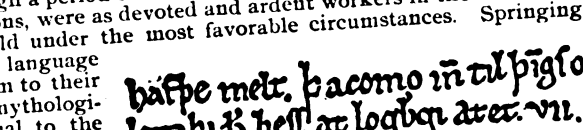
Pliny Miles: "The literary history of Iceland in the early ages of the republic is of a most interesting character. When we consider the limited population of the country, and the many disadvantages under which they labored, *their literature is the most remarkable on record*. The old Icelanders, from the tenth to the sixteenth century, through a period of the history of the world when little intellectual light beamed from the surrounding nations, were as devoted and ardent workers in the fields of history and poetry as any community in the world under the most favorable circumstances. Springing from the Old Norse stock, they carried the language and habits of their ancestors with them to their highland home. The Eddas abound in mythological machinery to an extent quite equal to the writings of Homer and Virgil."



Facsimile of Old Norse Manuscript (12th Century).

Schlegel says, in his "Esthetics and Miscellaneous Works": "If any monument of the primitive northern world deserves a place among the earlier remains of the South, the Icelandic Edda must be deemed worthy of that distinction. The spiritual veneration for Nature, to which the sensual Greek was an entire stranger, gushes forth in the mysterious language and prophetic tradition of the Northern Edda with a fine tide of enthusiasm and inspiration sufficient to endure for centuries, and to supply a whole race of future bards and poets with a precious and animating elixir. The vivid delineations, the rich, glowing abundance and animation of the Homeric pictures of the world, are not more decidedly superior to the misty scenes and shadowy forms of Ossian, than the Northern Edda in its sublimity to the works of Hesiod."

Prof. Dr. Dietrich asserts "that the Scandinavian literature is *extraordinarily* rich in all kinds of writings."

Charles L. Brace, in speaking of Iceland, says:

"The Congress, or 'althing,' of the Icelanders, had many of the best political features which have distinguished parliamentary government in all branches of the Teutonic race since.

"To this remote island (Iceland) came, too, that remarkable profession, who were at once the poets, historians, genealogists and moralists of the Norse race, the Skalds. These men, before writing was much in use, handed down by memory, in familiar and often alliterative poetry, the names and deeds of the brave Norsemen, their victories on every coast of Europe, their histories and passions, and wild deaths, their family ties, and the boundaries of their possessions; their adventures and voyages, and even their law and their mythology. In fact, all that history and legal documents, genealogical records and poetry transmit now, was handed down by these bards of the Norsemen. Iceland became their peculiar center and home. Here, in bold and vivid language, they recorded in works, which posterity will never let die, the achievements of the Vikings, *the conquest of almost every people in Europe by these vigorous pirates;* their wild ventures, their contempt of pain and death, their absolute joy in danger, in combat and difficulty. In these, the oldest records of our (i. e., the Americans') forefathers will be found even among these wild rovers the respect for law which has characterized every branch of the Teutonic race since; *here, and not in the Swiss cantons, is the beginning of Parliament and Congress; here, and not with the Anglo-Saxons, is the foundation of trial by jury; and here, among their most ungoverned wassail, is that high reverence for woman, which has again come forth by inheritance among the Anglo-Norse Americans.* The ancestors (at least morally) of Raleigh and Nelson, and Kane and Farragut, appear in these records, among these sea-rovers, whose passion was danger and venture on the waters. Here, too, among such men as the 'Raven Floki,' is the prototype of those American pioneers who follow the wild birds into pathless wildernesses to found new republics. And it is the Norse 'udal' property, not the European feudal property, which is the model for the American descendants of the ancient Norseman.

"In these Icelandic Sagas, too, is portrayed the deep moral sentiment which characterizes the most ancient mythology of the Teutonic races. Here we have no dissolute Pantheon, with gods revelling eternally in earthly vices, and the evils and wrongs of humanity continued forever. Even the ghosts of the Northmen have the muscle of the race; they are no pale shadows flitting through the Orcus. The dead fight and eat with the vigor of the living. But there comes a dread time when destiny overtakes all, both human and divine beings, and the universe with its evil and wrong must perish (Ragnaroke). Yet even the crack of doom finds not the Norsemen timid or fearing. Gods and men die in the heat of the conflict; and there survives alone, Baldur, the 'God of Love,' who shall create a new heaven and a new earth.

"It is from Iceland that we get the wonderful poetic and mythologic collections of the Elder and Younger Eddas. In this remote island the original Norse language was preserved more purely than it was in Norway or Denmark, and the Icelandic literature shed a flood of light over a dark and barbarous age. Even now the modern Icelanders can read or repeat their most ancient Sagas with but little change of dialect.

"But to an *American*, one of the most interesting gifts of Iceland to the world is the record of the discovery of Northern America by Icelandic rovers (?) near the year 1000.

"We think few scholars can carefully read these Sagas, and the accompanying in regard to Greenland, without a conviction that the Icelandic and Norwegian Vikings did at that early period discover and land on the coast of our eastern states . . . The shortest winter day is stated with such precision as to fix the latitude near the coast of Massachusetts and Rhode Island. . . . Iceland, then, has the honor of having discovered America.

"That volcanic-raised island, with its mountains of ice and valleys of lava and ashes, has played no mean part in the world's history."—*Christian Union, July 15, 1874.*

(2). Benjamin Lossing says: "It is back to the Norwegian (Norse) Vikings we must look for the hardiest elements of progress in the United States."

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16.

The Religion of the Norsemen.—The *Religion* of the Norsemen, or the *Asa-doctrine*, was of a deep, pure, mystic, and contemplative kind (1). In the peculiar, profound, enigmatic, and yet always symbolic, language of the ancients, it relates about the creation of everything, about the representatives of the Evil and the Good, about the continued battle between Spirit and Matter both on earth and in heaven, about the reward of Virtue and punishment of Guilt, and finally about the eventual destruction of the finite gods and the finite world in a great universal conflagration, out of which, however, the Good would come victorious. A new, rejuvenated earth should exist, and its Ruler would be "the One whose name no one dares to speak," a God more powerful than all other gods.



An Ancient Church in Norway.

The *Asa-doctrine* occupies an important place among all the mythologies of the world. It is so comprehensive, and in some respects so difficult of a full and satisfactory explanation —depending on its fertility of beautiful suggestion and a most enchanting symbolism—that a mere outline must suffice for our present purpose.

The Norsemen believed that heaven and earth had been created out of chaos. The present condition of things was the work of the gods, "the merciful and kind powers." Man was also created by them, and lived with them originally, during the Golden Age of Peace before the outbreak of the strifes between light and darkness, the Good and the Evil.

The gods and the goddesses of the Norsemen were from the beginning nothing but the personified forces of nature. After a while, however, the songs of the poets and popular belief transformed them into living beings, endowed with the body and the desires, the faults and virtues, characteristic of the common members of the human family. They were subject to the decrees of fate (the Nornor) and of the unseen and powerful God, "the Powerful One from above, who ordains everything, pronounces judgment, effects reconciliation, and decides the reward which is to be."

The Asa-gods were: Oden, Thor, Frej, Balder, Njord, Heimdall, Tyr, Brage, Hoder, Vidar, Ale, Uller och Forsete.

The goddesses (Asynjor) were: Frigg, Freja, Iduna, Gefion, Sjofn, Vor, Eir, Lofn, Saga, Fulla, Lin och Gna.

The representatives of Evil were: Loke, Hel, the Midgard-dragon, and the Fenris-wolf.

17.

The Story of the Creation is the Following One:—A great abyss (Ginunga-gap) existed in the beginning between the world of light and fire (Muspelhem) to the South and the world of darkness and cold (Niflhem to the North. In the latter was

(1). See Victor Rydberg, Starback or Enander, for a full presentation of this interesting subject.

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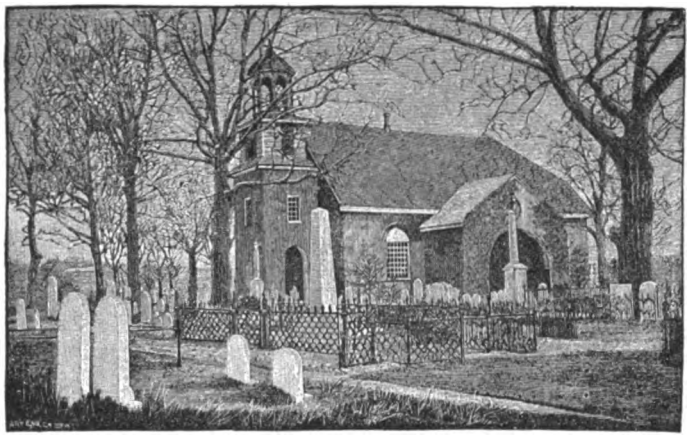
a well (Hvergelmer) from which twelve rivers, Eli-waves, flowed into the Ginungagap. There the frosty ice from Niflhem was thawed out by the heat from Muspelhem, and out of the drops was formed a being (Ymer) who received his life through "the power of Him who sent out the heat." While he slept a man and a woman grew out of his side, and from his two feet came a son. In this manner the *Frost-giants* came into existence. When *Ymer* (matter) was created the Cow, *Audumbla* (organic force) was made out of the drops of the ice. After three days Bure was made; he received a son, Bor, who married the daughter of a giant. They had three sons, Oden, Vile and Ve. These then killed Ymer, and so great was the quantity of blood that all the Frost-giants except Bergelmer were drowned. He became the father of new families of giants. The sons of Bor now took the body of Ymer, and from his flesh created the earth, from his blood the ocean, from his bones the mountains, from his teeth the stones, from his hair the trees, from his skull the heavens, and from his eyebrows the Midgard. The corners of heaven were made to rest upon four dwarfs, called *East*, *West*, *North*, *South*. On the heaven sparks from Muspelhem were fastened so as to give light to heaven and earth. *Night*, of the family of the giants, and *Delling*, of the family of the gods, had a son, *Day*. *Night* and *Day* traveled around the world every twenty-four hours. In their company the Sun and Moon, children of Mundilfor, were regularly to be seen. The home of the giants, *Utgard*, was at the extreme of the ocean, while the domicile of the gods, *Midgard*, was located in the central part of the earth. In Midgard was found the city *Asgard*, with the palaces of *Vin-golf* and *Gladhem*, and the great *Valhall*. From *Midgard* a bridge, *Bifrost* (the rainbow), led to heaven. Upon this bridge the gods daily stepped down to the earth to dispense justice at the well of *Urd*. In the nether world, the "under-ground," was found the home of Hel (the woe, *Ve*, of *Hel* makes the Swedish word *helvete*—hell). All evil persons and all who did not die in the war or by a violent death, came to this place. From two trees, *Ask* and *Embla*, growing on the shores of the ocean, the gods created men. They were allowed to live within the limits of Midgard, the home of the gods.



Old Swedes Church, Wilmington, Del., Built 1698.

The tree, Yggdrasil, an ash, was the holiest meeting-place of the gods. This tree spread its branches over the whole world, and reached into heaven. In the top of the tree was a wise eagle, and between its eyes a hawk. In the tree were four deer, eating its buds, and a squirrel, always running up and down, trying to create bad feelings between the eagle and the great serpent, Nidhogg, in the well, Hvergelmer, in Niflhem, where he kept gnawing upon one of the three roots of Yggdrasil. Another root went out to the giants, and below it was the well of *Mimer*, containing wisdom and insight. The third root proceeded to the gods and to man. There the well of *Urd* was found, and there the three *Nornor* (Fates), *Urd* (the Past), *Verdandi* (the Present), and *Skuld* (the Future) decided the irrevocable fate of both men and gods.

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18.

Oden was the oldest and most respected of the Gods, the All-Father. Wednesday—Oden's day—is named after him. *Thor* was the god of power (Thursday bears his name). *Frej* was the god of the harvest and weather. Friday reminds us of this god. *Balder*, the god of innocence and goodness, was the great favorite among the gods, and the Balder-myth is of undying interest in the history of the Norsemen. Njord was the god of the mariner and fisherman. *Heimdall* was the faithful watchman of the gods. His trumpet, Gjallarhorn, could be heard all over the world. *Tyr* was the god of warfare—so was *Oden*; *Brage* the god of poetry and oratory. *Uller* was the god of the duel, and *Forsete* was the great arbitrator, the lover of good will among men.

Of the goddesses *Frigg* was the wife of Oden. She knew all the fates, but could keep quiet. *Frigga* was the goddess of love, *Iduna* guarded the apples of eternal youth, *Gefion* received all who died as maidens, *Vor* stood up for truth, and punished men and women who did not keep their promises, *Sjofn* made men and women love one another, *Lofn* removed all obstacles for true lovers, *Eir* understood medicine, and *Saga* was the goddess of history.



Golden Horn Discovered at Mögeltönder, 1639

The Norsemen had temples in which they worshiped their gods. The principal one was at *Upsala*, *Sweden*. Ancient authors speak of it as a very costly and impressive edifice. "The walls and roof were covered with gold." The worship of the Norsemen consisted chiefly in sacrifices and sacred promises (1). Three great festivals were annually held at Upsala, October 14, January 12, and April 14. The usual sacrifices were animals, but sometimes when the peril or troubles were exceedingly great, even the king himself was sacrificed (2). Every farmer was a priest; the king was the chief priest.

The Christian religion was introduced into Sweden by *Ansgar*. King Bjorn gave him full permission to preach the gospel of Christ in 830. *Sigfrid* is another of Sweden's most noted Christian pioneers. *Olof Skotkonung* was baptized by *Sigrid* in 1007, and was the first Christian king of Sweden. The author has visited the spring where the ceremony was performed in Vestergothland. In the beginning of the eleventh century *Denmark* had become a Christian country. In *Norway* the kings *Olof Tryggveson* and *Olof Haraldson*, the holy, worked industriously for the conversion of the people. They sometimes used force. This enraged the Viking blood. *Olof* died at *Stiklestad* in 1030. His death accomplished more than his life. Norway soon afterward became a Christian country. The three countries accepted the doctrine of the Lutheran Reformation at an early day, and have since been faithful to the Church of the Reformation. They are to-day pre-eminently the Protestant countries of the world, the per cent of other believers being imperceptibly small (3).

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(1). Adam of Bremen: "Totum ex auro paratum."

(2). Ane the Old is said to have sacrificed nine of his sons. Hakan Jarl sacrificed his son Erling before a great battle in 995.

(3) The relative value of Protestantism, and more especially of Lutheranism, can easily be seen in the comparative statistics of these three northern countries and of the three southern continental countries, Italy, Spain and Portugal. Let us begin with illiteracy. In the three Scandinavian countries the percent has dwindled down to a fraction of one per cent. In Italy it is 53, in Spain 72, and in Portugal probably still larger. In Italy there are 2,470 murders in a year; in Spain, 1,200; in the Scandinavian countries murder is of very rare occurrence, so rare that I can find no statistics thereof. Who has not heard of the multitude of tramps and beggars in the southern European countries mentioned? The writer was a tourist for four months in the three Scandinavian countries, and in that time saw one

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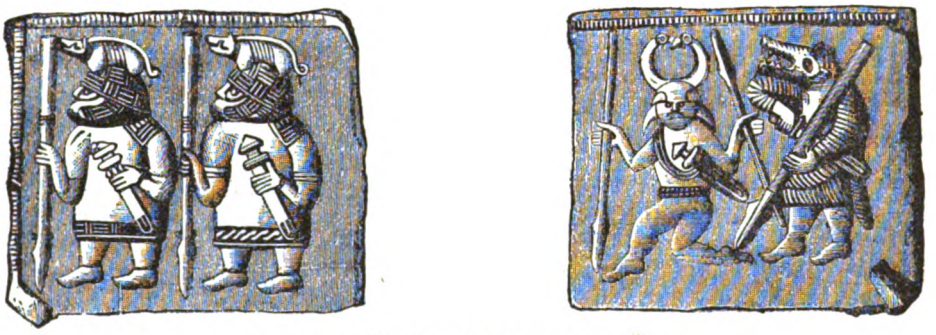
beggar and no tramps. In the Scandinavian countries tramping and begging are not tolerated; Education and Religion flourish; and the general condition is very superior. Let us in free America remember that an open Bible is the condition for all true forms of liberty.

THIRD WEEKLY REVIEW.

13. **WHO WERE THE NORSEMEN?**—The Name Norsemen, Scandinavia, Scandinavian Countries.
14. **THE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE OF THE NORSEMEN.**—The Language of the Three Scandinavian Countries, The Norse Language found in far-away Iceland, Written Language and Poetry.
15. **THE SAGAS.**—How were the Sagas Preserved? Eddas Saemunder and Snorre Sturlesson, Tegner's Frithiof's Saga.
16. **THE RELIGION OF THE NORSEMEN.**—Asa-doctrine, The Gods and Goddesses, Heaven and Earth, Representatives of Evil.
17. **THE STORY OF THE CREATION.**—The Frost-Giants, Ymer, The Corners of the Heavens, Night and Day, The Tree, Yggdrasil.
18. **THEIR GODS AND WORSHIP.**—Oden, Thor, Frej, Balder, Heimdall, Tyr, Brage, Wler, Forsete, Frigg, Frigga, Iduna, Gefion, Vor, Sjofn, Lofn, Eir, Saga, Manner of Worship, Christian Religion.

QUESTIONS.

13. *Who were the Norsemen? Give the origin of the word Norman? To what great branch of the human family did the Norsemen belong? Give a brief sketch of their migration? What countries are included in Scandinavia? Give the area of each? What can you say of the surface features of these countries? Climate? What can you say of education in these countries? What about other improvements?*



Bronze Plates With Raised Figures, Found in Öland.

14. *What name is applied to the three languages of Scandinavia? What can you say of the language of far-away Iceland? In what ways have the languages of Sweden, the Danes and Norwegians become modified? What can you say of the character of these languages? Of the written language? Poetry?*
15. *What were the Sagas? How did they influence the people? How did tradition give way to literature? What can you say of the literature of Iceland? Give Bayard Taylor's statement in reference to the Swedish language? Longfellow's statement in reference to the Scandinavian language?*
16. *What was the character of the Norse religion? What can you say of the place occupied by the Asa-doctrine? What was the Norse belief as to Heaven and Earth? What was the character of the Gods and Goddesses?*
17. *Give the Norse story of the Creation? How does it compare with the Bible account of creation?*
18. *Name the leading gods and the peculiar functions of each? Give a brief statement in reference to the temples of worship? Method of worship? When and how was Christianity introduced into Sweden? What is the nature of the Scandinavian religion of to-day?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *What is known of the Norsemen before the Christian Era?*
2. *Give a careful description of the Scandinavian country, carefully noting how geographical conditions have influenced the people.*
3. *Prepare a brief history of the ancient languages of the Norsemen. Why is it that more is not known of the language?*
4. *Give what you consider the salient features of the Norse religion.*
5. *Carefully review the history of the Middle Ages, as studied, noting the characteristics of the Norsemen.*
6. *How were the Norsemen respected by other nations.*

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19. THE VIKNGS.

The *Vikings* were sea-warriors. Scandinavia is so circumscribed by water that the ocean easily and naturally became the second native country of the sturdy sons of the North. Although agriculture and domestic arts were prized very highly among the Norsemen, the spirit of adventure would not allow the men and youth of the nation only to stay at home in peaceful pursuits. The whole training of the boys and young men rather prepared them for deeds of strength and valor. Their education was athletic. To fence with swords, to throw spears, to shoot with bow and arrow, to throw with slings, to ride, swim, run, jump, climb, wrestle, skate, skee and play ball were the common accomplishments. A life of ease was shunned. The maiden would not marry a man who stayed at home, who had achieved no glory. As warriors the Norsemen had no superiors, and they were especially at home on the sea. The French historian Thierry says: "The Viking could govern a vessel as a good rider manages his horse, running over the oars while they were in motion. He could throw three javelins to the mast-head and catch them alternately in his hand without once missing. Equal under such a chief, supporting lightly their voluntary submission, and the weight of their coat-of-mail, which they promised themselves would soon be exchanged for an equal weight of gold, the pirates held their course gayly, as their old songs express it, along the track of the swans. Often were their fragile barks wrecked and dispersed by the North Sea storm, often did the rallying sign remain unanswered, but this neither increased the cares nor diminished the confidence of the survivors, who laughed at the winds and waves from which they had escaped unhurt. Their song in the midst of the tempest was:



A Viking Warrior.

"The force of the storm helps the arms of our rowers,
The hurricane is carrying us the way which we should go."

The following brief summary, based principally upon Dr. Enander's works, will show how great and widespread was the influence of the Norse Vikings (1). In 449 warriors from the Danish and Saxon shores of the North Sea came to England to assist the Britons against the Picts and Scots. The latter were defeated, but the auxiliary army then turned against the Britons and forced them, after hostilities extending more or less over two centuries, to flee to Wales and Bretagne. The victors, many of whom undoubtedly were Norsemen, called themselves Anglo-Saxons. They divided the vanquished country into seven kingdoms, which were finally united into one, named *England*, in 827. Already in 753 Norse Vikings visited this country, and the Norsemen, in England called *Danes*, afterwards often terrorized the inhabitants. They settled in the northern part of the country and forced *Alfred the Great* and his associates to leave the kingdom. Finally Alfred became victorious, but he was unable to drive the Norsemen away from the northern provinces. They could neither be bribed to leave, nor did a massacre upon them prove successful in accomplishing the same purpose. The Norse Vikings came to *France* already prior to the death of Charles the Great in 814. In 911 *Gange Rolf* from Norway conquered the country of lower Seine, which afterwards was named *Normandie*, and *Bretagne* also became subject to him. The eastern portion of *Ireland* was sub-

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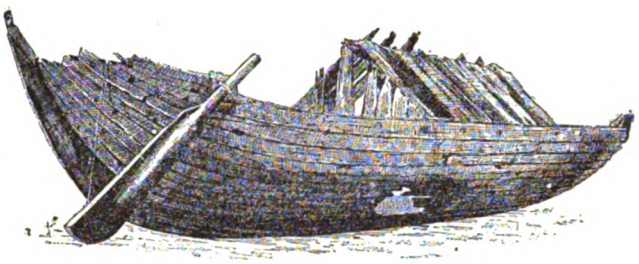
jugated, and the power of the Norsemen lasted until 1172. The *Hebrides*, *Orkney*, *Shetland* and *Faroe Islands* were also vanquished. The shores of *Scotland*, *Belgium* and *Holland* were invaded. *Iceland* was discovered by a Swede, Gardar Svafarsson, in 861, and was settled by Norsemen, 874–934. Not long after the settling of *Iceland*, *Greenland* was also discovered. *Spain* received several visits from the Vikings in the ninth and tenth centuries, and these bold warriors became the terror of the people also on the shores of *Italy* and *Africa*. The great empire of *Russia* was founded in the year 862 by Rurik, a Swedish warrior who emigrated to Russia with his two brothers and founded a kingdom with *Novgorod* as the capital city. The czars reigning before the year 1598 were descendants of Rurik. The fleets of the Russian Norsemen soon threatened even *Constantinople*, where some of their former connections formed the body guard of the emperor. In about 881 some Swedes and Friesians marched along the Rhine into the country of the Alps and founded *Switzerland*. Norsemen from *Normandie* came to *Italy* and *Sicily* in 1017 to assist the Grecian and Longobardian princes in their feuds. After a while these French Norsemen began to acquire possession of the land for their own benefit. Their duke, *Robert Guiscard*, conquered the entire southern half of the country and was recognized by the Pope as Duke of Apulia, Calabria and Sicily in the year 1060. Sicily and Malta were conquered by Roger, the brother of Robert. The latter now was sufficiently powerful to attack the Grecian emperor, threaten Constantinople and storm Rome. The son of Roger was in 1130 made king of these Norse countries, from this on called "the two Sicilys." From the Norse *Normandie* William the Conqueror, the great grandson of Gange Rolf, with 60,000 men in 1066, sailed for England, fought and won the battle of *Hastings*, and vanquished the Anglo-Saxons. The language and customs of Normandie and France were now introduced into England. The name Englishman became an insult, and not until the time of Edward III. (1377) was English again used in the courts of justice of that country.



Viking Ship Found at Gokstad, Norway.

Is it improbable then that a people of such migratory, war-like habits, of such varied and powerful connections, of such undoubted and unparalleled courage, should find the way across the mighty deep to the American continent centuries before Columbus? Let history answer.

20.

The History of the Discovery of America.—The small and numerous kingdoms in the North were by and by merged into larger ones, until only one king ruled in Denmark, one in Sweden and one in Norway. Many of the vanquished princes and mighty men then emigrated, preferring voluntary expatriation to dependence.

(1). Montesquieu, L'Esprit de Lois: "The great prerogative of Scandinavia, and what ought to recommend its inhabitants beyond every people upon the earth, is, that they afforded the great resource to the liberty of Europe, that is, to almost all the liberty that is among men. The Goth Jornande," adds he, "calls the north of Europe the forge of mankind. I should rather call it the forge of those instruments which broke the fetters manufactured in the south. It was there those valiant nations were bred who left their native climes to destroy tyrants and slaves, and so teach men that nature having made them equal, no reason could be assigned for their becoming dependent but their mutual happiness."

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Large numbers of the Vikings, for so long a time the terror of all Europe, were just such men. Their numbers sometimes corresponded to their valor. They were not always, by far, only a handful of men. Holmberg estimates the number of Swedish ships apart from the Danish and Norwegian, during the Viking age, at 10,000, each being manned, on an average, by eighty warriors. Olof Tryggveson's ship measured 148 feet in length and carried about 1,000 men (1).

Iceland.—We have already referred to the discovery of Iceland by a Swede, Gardar Svafarsson, in 861. Another Viking, *Flocke Vigerdeson*, gave the island its present name. The colonization was begun in 874, during the reign of Harald Harfager in Norway, Erik Emundson and his son Bjorn in Sweden, and Gorm the Old in Denmark. The usurpation of the first named had displeased many of the best and most powerful of the Norwegians. Rather than be dependent they decided to emigrate. Iceland became their new country. To these Norwegians many Swedes were added. One of them was the ancestor of the great Icelandic historian, Snorre Sturlesson. Iceland became an aristocratic republic with ideal conditions in many respects.

The ocean was the great seat of action of the Icelander. Viking-expeditions and later commerce became his favorite occupations. Icelandic braves and Icelandic poets could be seen at the court of kings and princes in all of Northern Europe. The poets of this interesting little island were in possession of the best education of their age; the warriors were unsurpassed in daring bravery. On their return home to Iceland they brought with them from the many countries visited not only material wealth, but also intellectual. After the introduction of the Christian religion in the year 1000, Iceland soon established not less than four colleges, and many of their alumni and students later attended the best universities of France, Germany and England. The first bishops of Iceland were trained at foreign universities and sustained friendly relations with the most learned men of Europe in their day. Some of the farmers were very scholarly men, "sufficiently learned to be ministers."

From this courageous, well educated, well-disciplined people came the first discoverers of America.

It is interesting to notice the almost Utopian conditions existing in Iceland up to this day as far as education, religion, literature, government and general culture are concerned. It is now as before a veritable little wonderland. Illiteracy is unknown. There are a number of high schools throughout the country, two ladies' seminaries, and the Latin school at Reykjavik with a five years' course, preparing the students for entering the university at Copenhagen. Eight general, several religious and one temperance paper are published, also three magazines. The Icelanders are Protestants and Lutherans. They are probably the most loyal, innocent, pure-minded people of the world. Crime, theft, debauchery and cruelty are almost unknown among them. The annual exports are six million pounds of codfish, seven thousand pounds of eider-down, about five thousand head of ponies, and nearly one-half million sheep. The population numbers 78,000 people (2).

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(1). Enander: "Already in A. D. 98 Tacitus, the Roman historian, says: 'The Swedes were powerful in men, arms and ships'"—Fleets of 600 or 700 ships are frequently mentioned. The fleet of Knut the Great, in his attack on Norway, numbered 1,440 ships.

(2). Ruth Shaffner: "Nothing can be more delightful than a horseback trip of 800 or 1,000 miles through Iceland. The traveler sees thousands of mountains covered with eternal snow outrivaling the Alps in grandeur; great geysers and innumerable hot wells; waterfalls, one of which—the Gullfoss—is second only to Niagara in size and beauty; crystal streams and dashing rivers, lava beds of fantastic figures, covered with moss that glistens in the sun like hoar frost; and as a crowning glory the atmosphere is so brilliant that objects eighty miles distant appear close at hand. The effects of light and shadow are the purest I have ever seen, and the contrast of color is truly astonishing; one square foot of a mountain juts out in a blaze of gold against the flank of another, dyed of the darkest purple, while up against the azure sky beyond rise peaks of glistening snow and ice."

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LINCOLN MONUMENT, CHICAGO.

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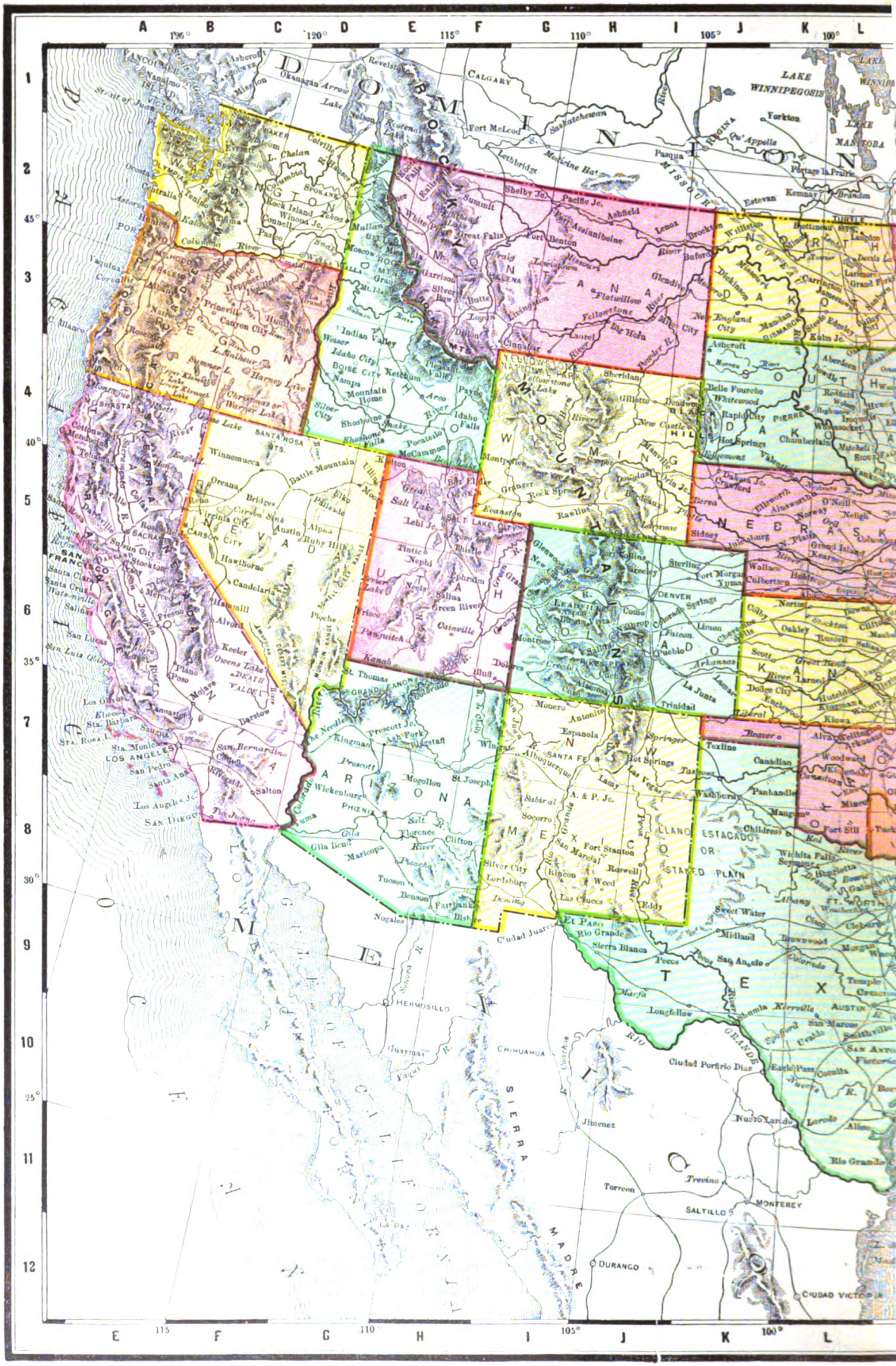

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Longitude West from Greenwich.
CANADA
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
Cat Lake
Albany River
St. Joseph Lake
English R.
Rat Portage
Long Lake
Lake Abitibi
Ruperts River
Mistassini Lake
Roberval
Lake St. John
Chicoutimi
Metapedia
Riviere du Loup
Chaleurs Bay
New Castle
Fredericton
Riviere a Pierre
Three Rivers
Quebec
Levis
Montreal
Richmond
Parslee
Grand Lake Victoria
Nipissing Jc.
Ottawa
Sudbury
Soo Jc.
Sault de Ste. Marie
Algoma Mills
Thessalon
Halfway
Halliburton
Carleton Jc.
Prescott
Kingston
Toronto
Hamilton
Niagara Falls
Buffalo
Rochester
Utica
Albany
Boston
Portland
Augusta
Bangor
Rockland
Mechanics Falls
Newport
Waterville
Lewiston
Portsmouth
Concord
Bellows Falls
Keene
Fitchburg
Worcester
Providence
Newport
Provincetown
New London
Sag Harbor
Long Island
New York
Brooklyn
Trenton
Philadelphia
Camden
Atlantic City
Cape May
Delaware Bay
Pittsburg
Harrisburg
Wheeling
Washington
Baltimore
Annapolis
Chesapeake Bay
Cape Charles
Newport News
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Richmond
Petersburg
Lynchburg
Charlottesville
Staunton
Clifton Forge
Bristol
Knoxville
Asheville
Salisbury
Raleigh
Wilson
Goldsboro
Plymouth
Albemarle Sound
Cape Hatteras
Morehead City
Newbern
Wilmington
Cape Fear
Fayetteville
Hamlet
Charlotte
Chester
Columbia
Augusta
Charleston
Georgetown
Port Royal
Savannah
Brunswick
Jacksonville
Fernandina
Palatka
Gainesville
Daytona
Cedar Keys
Ocala
Sanford
Dade City
Tampa
Bartow
St. Petersburg
Tampa Bay
Lake Okeechobee
Punta Gorda
Charlotte Harbor
Myers
Jupiter
Palm Beach
Miami
Ten Thousand Islands
Bay of Florida
Key West
Florida Keys
Dry Tortugas
Straits of Florida
Great Bahama
Great Abaco
Bahama Islands
New Providence I.
Cat I.
Watlings or S. Salvador
Andros Island
Havana
Matanzas
Cuba
Colon
Santa Clara
Cienfuegos
Pinar del Rio
Mouths of the Mississippi River
New Orleans
Baton Rouge
Pearl R.
Lake Pontchartrain
Biloxi
Bay St. Louis
Pascagoula
Mobile
Pensacola
Tallahassee
St. Marks
Apalachicola
Chattahoochee
Columbus
Montgomery
Selma
Tuscaloosa
Birmingham
Anniston
Rome
Atlanta
Griffin
Macon
Milledgeville
Augusta
Sylacauga
Talladega
Gadsden
Decatur
Huntsville
Tullahoma
Chattanooga
Nashville
Memphis
Grenada
Jackson
Vicksburg
Natchez
Meridian
Tupelo
Corinth
Jasper
Florence
Sheffield
Tuscumbia
Columbus
Aberdeen
Starkville
Greenville
Yazoo City
Hazlehurst
Brookhaven
McComb
Hattiesburg
Laurel
Wiggins
Gulfport



CHASE. WELLS. SMITH. BLAIR.
STANTON. LINCOLN. SEWARD. BATES.

PRESIDENT LINCOLN AND HIS CABINET

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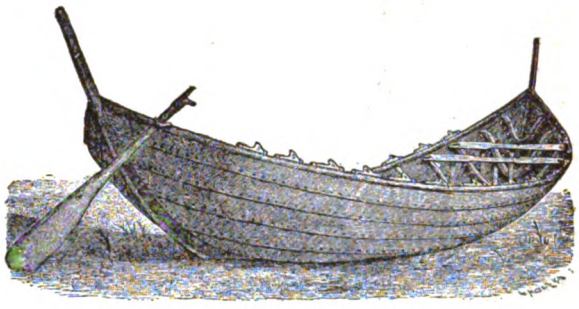
21.

Greenland.—About the year 876 or 878, shortly after the discovery of Iceland, one *Gunbjorn* was driven by untoward winds to a sterile and lonely island. He succeeded in saving himself as well as the ship and returned to Iceland, where he related about seeing a land with great, white mountains north of the little island. Nearly a hundred years later two Icelanders made a successful attempt to find *Gunbjorns-skar*. In 982 or 984 *Erik the Red*, outlawed for murder from Iceland, and hailing either from Norway or probably from Bohus province in Sweden, sailed for this nameless country, deciding to spend his three years of expatriation there. After a journey of about 250 miles, he passed the present *Cape Farewell* and along the west shore of the island to the present *Julianes-haab*. He spent the three years in the new country and named it *Greenland*, in order to attract settlers, as he expressed it himself, and probably also because of its green pastures. In the Spring of 986 Erik returned to Greenland with 25 ships, with a cargo of men, cattle and provisions. Fourteen of these ships reached their destination. The first colony was planted. It prospered greatly. The fisheries were excellent. Ships of commerce soon began to visit Greenland, and the Greenlanders themselves traversed "known and unknown seas." It seems that the climate was milder than now, and the colonies in consequence penetrated quite far into the inland. At the height of their prosperity there existed, according to Icelandic authority, 280 larger or smaller settlements, with, at least, 17 churches and several cloisters. In the year 1000 already *Leif Eriksson* had been sent by King Olof of Norway to proclaim Christianity in Greenland. In the year 1112 one Erik became bishop of this country. This same Erik was in 1121 ordained *bishop of Vinland* by the bishop of Lund, Sweden, and went thither, accompanied by clergymen and colonists. In 1126 Greenland received its own *ordained* bishop in the person of one *Arnold*. He was succeeded by 14 other bishops, known to ecclesiastical history (1). In 1408 *Andreas*, the last bishop of Greenland, was ordained by Bishop Eskil in Norway.



The Nydam Boat Found in Southern Jutland, 1863.

As *Greenland* belongs to the American continent as much as the West Indies, *Gunbjorn* was the first known European who landed in this country. It took place about 876, or 616 years before Columbus discovered the West Indies.

22.

Vinland.—The Icelandic authorities early speak of a *Great-Iceland* (island it mikla.) Several scholars believe this to be the country south of Chesapeake Bay. To this country an Icelander of Swedish origin, *Are Marson*, was storm-driven in 983, afterwards living there until his death. Another Icelander, *Bjorn Asbrandson*, coming there later, contrived to become chief of a tribe of the natives, and 1027 sent word to Iceland through a third Icelander, *Gudlief Gudlogsson*, who had also been storm driven to the shores of our continent.

In 986 an Icelander, *Bjarne Harjulfsson* was storm-driven towards an unknown shore. By the description of the journey he must on the return have sailed by

(1). Torfœus gives a list of seventeen bishops who ruled in Greenland.

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Massachusetts, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, finally arriving at Greenland. Bjarne went to Norway and related the story of his adventure to *Leif Eriksson*, son of Erik the Red, who about the year 1000 sailed to explore the unknown country in company with thirty-five men. After passing Labrador, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, Leif and his associates arrived at the shores of *New England*. They sailed into a sound, then into a river, then into a lake, which is *Mount Hope Bay*, often yet taken by the tourist to be a lake. They remained through the winter, built a large house, found the climate milder than at home, and the days of more equal length, the shortest day being nine hours long, which gives 41° 24′ 10″ as the latitude of the place, or near Fall River, Massachusetts. Leif called the country *Vinland*, because a German, or "Southerner," in one of his extended walks had run across some wild grapes, or "Weintrauben, Weintrauben," as he exclaimed in great excitement on his return to the camp. In the spring Leif loaded his ships with lumber and returned to *Greenland*. Leif Eriksson was the first white man sailing with the avowed purpose of finding land across the Atlantic. He did not discover America by accident. His purpose was as well known to himself, his people and his friends as was that of Columbus in 1492.



Runic Stone, Hallingbo, Götland.

On his return Leif's brother, *Thorvald Eriksson* (1), thought that the land discovered was not sufficiently explored. Leif gave him his own ships, and in 1002 Thorvald sailed with a company of thirty men. He arrived safely and remained over the winter. In the first encounter with the natives, he was wounded and died (2). His associates returned to Greenland. The third brother, *Thorsten*, then decided to journey to Vinland, that he might bring back the remains of his brother and have them buried in consecrated ground. He was tossed about on the deep during all the summer of 1005, and finally landed on the western coast of Greenland, where Thorsten and many of his associates died during the winter.

His beautiful widow, *Gudrid*, married *Thorfinn Karlsefne*. The newly married couple decided to emigrate to Vinland. *Thorfinn* was of noble family, several of his ancestors having been elected kings. Three ships belonged to the expedition. The first was commanded by *Snorre Thorbrandsson*, the second by *Bjarne Grimulfsson* and *Thorhall Gamlason*, and the third by *Thorwald*, married to Leif's sister, the fierce, cold-blooded *Frodis*. The party consisted of 151 men and seven women. On their arrival to America *Torhall* and a few men returned, making the company now number 151 persons. They finally arrived safely at the place where Leif Eriksson had built his house in the year 1000.

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(1). Baldwin: "This, considering the circumstances, was an adventurous voyage, a brave exploring expedition sent from the Arctic regions to make discoveries in the mysterious world at the South. On reading the narrative, one longs for that more ample account of the voyage, which would have been given, if Thorwald himself had lived to return."

(2). Anderson: "Let us remember Thorwald Erikson, the first European and the first Christian who was buried beneath American sod."

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23.

In the spring of 1008 the Norseman made a treaty with the natives (Skraelingar). The same summer a son—the first white child of the new continent, the first native-born New Englander—was born to Thorfinn and Gudrid. In baptism he received the name *Snorre*, and became the ancestor of many distinguished men, among whom may be mentioned the celebrated Icelandic-Danish sculptor, *Albert Thorwaldsen* (1844). The natives soon became inimical, and in 1011, the colonists returned to Greenland. The attempt at colonization was unsuccessful.

The inscription on the *Dighton Writing Rock* on the right bank of Taunton river in Bristol county, Massachusetts, reads: "Thorfinn, with one hundred and fifty-one Norse seafaring men took possession of this land." The form of a woman and the letter S. remind one very forcibly of Gudrid and Snorre.

In the neighborhood of Newport, R. I., is found an ancient stone tower, 25 feet high, resting upon eight round pillars, each over three feet in diameter, and seven feet nine inches in height. The diameter of the building is eighteen feet, nine inches. The peculiar structure is of the same architectural style as many churches of the 12th century, and Rafn believes upon a very strong historical probability that the Newport tower has been a chapel of a cloister or church, built by the Norsemen (1).



Clay Vessel.

Other expeditions to Vinland took place from time to time. Colonies were founded in several places. The expeditions also reached further South, to the Carolinas, Georgia and Florida. The last expedition took place in 1347, or 130 years only before Columbus visited *Iceland*. Columbus himself speaks of his journey in a letter quoted by Washington Irving (2).

The question of the authenticity of the above is well settled. The fact that the Norsemen discovered America can no longer be doubted. Adam of Bremen already in 1075 says that "he had knowledge of Vinland, not by fabulous guesses, but through the most positive information from the Danes." The manuscripts containing the Sagas relating to America are contained in the well-known *Codex Flatoensis*, finished in the year 1387. It is still found in the archives of Copenhagen in its integrity. Ecclesiastical history adds its testimony, and the literature on the subject is very voluminous. (See Bibliography of Pre-Columbian Discoveries of America in Prof. Rasmus B. Anderson's "America Not Discovered by Columbus," pp. 124–140, and also in Dr. Enander's United States History, Vol. 1, p. 52). Alexander von Humboldt in the Cosmos, Vol. 2, pp. 269–272, states among other things: "The discovery of the northern part of America by the Norsemen cannot be disputed. The length of the voyage, the direction in which they sailed, the time of the sun's rising and setting, are accurately given. While the Chalifat of Bagdad was still flourishing under the Abasides and while the rule of Samanides, so favorable to poetry, still flourished in Persia, America was discovered about the year 1000, by Leif, son of Erik the Red, at about 41½° N. L." (3).

As to the practical results of these discoveries, not much can be said. The world was seemingly not at that time ready for America. The enmity of the native Skraelingar, the visitation of the black plague in Europe and her colonies, as well as in other parts of the world, combined to annihilate the efforts of the bold Norsemen.

As noted already, Columbus visited *Iceland* in 1477. It is impossible to suppose that the expeditions to America by the Norsemen were at that day unknown in Southern Europe. Gudrid, who had lived in Vinland for three years, made a pilgrimage to the Holy Father in Rome, after her return to Iceland. She remained in "the eternal city" for quite a time. Is it, then, probable that she never spoke of

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the romantic Vinland expeditions? Can we believe that the descendants of Snorre, who was born in America, three of whom (Brand, Thorlak and Bjorn) became bishops of Iceland, never informed the chief authority of the church concerning the attempts at colonization made by their forefathers in the country in which some of their brethren in the faith were still living? Is it at all probable that the Icelandic Bishop *Jon* left his diocese for Vinland without even informing the Pope whither he went, or that the Archbishop of Lund never reported his ordination of Bishop Erik Upsi for Vinland in 1121? And did not the Pope Paschal II. appoint Erik to this office as early as 1112?—*Anderson.*

Surely, then, Columbus received the impetus for his ambitious expeditions from the previous discoveries by the Norsemen, to whom more credit is due than was ever accorded them either by general history or by American history (4).

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(1). Anderson: "The Newport Tower was, as the Indians told the early settlers, built by the giants, and the Norse discoverers certainly looked like giants to the natives."

Ridpath, History of the World, II., 554: "The Norse remains which have been found at Newport, at Garnet Point and several other places seem to point clearly to continued occasional voyages by the Northmen."

(2). Anderson calls attention to the fact that the son of Columbus, Fernando Columbo, in the biography of his father, Chapter IV,. speaks of the latter's visit to Iceland. Columbus himself based his conviction, so he says, 'on the authority of the learned writers."

(3). Baldwin Ancient America, p. 284: "It appears to be an authenticated fact that the Northmen had a settlement or settlements in New England six hundred years previous to the arrival of English settlers."

Brownell "It has been made evident, that the American continent five centuries before the memorable voyage of Columbus, was discovered and frequently visited by men of European race, by Northmen."

Baldwin: "These narratives are plain, straightforward, business-like accounts of actual voyages made by Northmen in the tenth and eleventh centuries to Greenland, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the coast of Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Within the whole range of the literature of discovery and adventure no volumes can be found which have more abundant internal evidence of authenticity"

Joseph Story Fay: 'It is now well established that in the tenth century the Norsemen visited this country, and coasting down from Greenland, passed along Cape Cod, through Vineyard Sound to Narragansett Bay, where is is believed they settled. In the neighborhood of Assonet and Dighton, inscriptions upon the rocks have been found, and traditions exist that there were others, which have been destroyed."

Adam of Bremen, canon and historian, † 1076. "There is a region which has been visited by many, lying in that ocean (the Atlantic), which is called *Vinland*, because vines grow there spontaneously, producing very good wine; corn likewise springs up there without being sown. This we know not by fabulous conjecture, but from positive statements of the Danes."

Ridpath, History of the World, II., p. 553: "Since 1838, when through the efforts of Rafu and the Royal Society of Copenhagen the Scandinavian Sagas have been submitted to the critical judgment of Europe, all ground of doubt has been removed relative to the Norse discoveries in the West at the close of the tenth and the beginning of the eleventh century. It is now conceded that Labrador, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the northeastern parts of the United States were visited, and, to a limited extent, colonized, before the Norman Conquest of England. . . . . In the year 1000 the actual discovery of America was made by *Leif Erickson.*"

Davis: "Let us praise Leif Erickson for his courage, let us applaud him for his zeal, let us respect him for his motives, for he was anxious to enlarge the boundaries of knowledge. He reached the wished-for land,

'Where now the western sun,
O'er fields and floods,
O'er every living soul
Diffuseth glad repose.'

He opened to view a broad region, where smiling hope invites successive generations from the old world.—Are not the hardy adventurers plowing the briny deep, more attractive than the troops of Alexander and Napoleon?"

(4). Anderson: "I have here given *five* reasons why Columbus must have known the existence of the American continent before he started on his voyage of discovery. 1. Gudrid's visit to Rome. 2. The appointment of Pope Paschal II., of Erik Upsi as Bishop of Vinland. 3. Adam of Bremen's account of Vinland, in his book published 1073. 4 The map procured from the Vatican for the Pinzons. 5. Columbus' own visit to Iceland in the year 1477."

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24. THE NORSEMEN NOW IN AMERICA.

In 1638 Swedish immigrants landed in America again. New Sweden was founded and several other colonies. The present site of Philadelphia was once owned by these Swedish immigrants. As late as 1823 the Swedish language was used in the "Gloria Dei" church in Philadelphia. Many of the best families in the east are descendants of those colonists from the far North. Among them may be mentioned the Bayards, Childs, Springers, Petersons, and others. Senator Ingalls hails from the Norse Ingjald, probably the royal family of that name, and Senator Thurston from the Norse family Thorsten, both belonging to the Norsemen who made England their home centuries ago. In the forties the immigration from the Scandinavian countries (Sweden, Norway, and Denmark) again began. The present Scandinavian-born population in this country was in 1890 as follows: From Sweden, 478,041; Norway, 322,665; Denmark, 132,543; or a total of 933,249. Counting their descendants in the first, second, and third generations, the Scandinavian population of the United States today must be somewhat above two millions and a half, or more probably fully three millions.

These *Swedes*, *Norwegians*, and *Danes* and their children have written proud history in the annals of our nation so far. In the civil war they flocked around the stars and stripes with great enthusiasm. It was a Swede, John Ericson, who with his *Monitor* checked the northward march of the Confederacy. They have been industrious, law-abiding, and loyal; they have built hundreds and hundreds of churches and school-houses; they have founded many academies, colleges and seminaries, crowded by thousands of young people, anxious to procure a liberal and thorough education; they are publishing dozens of newspapers and magazines; they amalgamate easily and have come to stay; they are examples of a devoted patriotism to the country of their adoption; they are full of works of mercy and good deeds in general. The Central States, the great West, would be glad to welcome a million more of such splendid immigrants, who become good American citizens, loyal, intelligent, and law-abiding from the very beginning. They hold many positions of trust already. The Hon. Knute Nelson, a sturdy Norwegian, has been Congressman, Governor, and is now United States Senator. The Hon. John Lind, a Swede; the Hon. N. P. Haugen, a Norwegian; the Hon. Haldor E. Boen, a Norwegian; the Hon. Martin J. Johnson, a Norwegian, and the Hon. K. Halvorsen, a Norwegian, have been or are members of Congress. Congressman Claude A. Swanson, of Virginia, hails from Sweden–England–Ireland, and retains the original Swedish name with only the e changed to a. Many Scandinavians have held or are holding State offices. Prof. Rasmus B. Anderson has served as our Minister to Denmark, and Dr. J. A. Enander was appointed to the same office, resigning the appointment, however, on account of a serious illness. One of the finest private libraries in this country is owned by a Swede, Sir Svante Palm, Ph.D., in Austin, Texas. The multi-millionaire, Swen M. Swensson, of New York, is a Swede. The students at the colleges of these Norsemen in America are very patriotic, and at some of the institutions great patriotic festivals belong to the annual programme. They learn to speak English readily, and in many cases—the late Hjalmar Hjort Boyesen being an illustrious example—become unusually proficient as writers and public speakers. All hail to the Norsemen of our great Republic!



Stone Coffin near Skattened.

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A NORSE EVENNG.

PROGRAMME.

1. Vocal Solo: "The Herdsman's Song." *a.*
2. Recitation: Canto XV., "Frithiof's Saga." *b.*
3. Life of Tegner. *b.*
4. Reading: "Iceland and Its People," December *Chautauquan.*
5. Vocal Solo: "Norwegian Echo Song." *a.*
6. Paper: Sketch of Jenny Lind's Life. *a.*
7. Dialogue for two gentlemen: Canto XVI., "Frithiof's Saga." *b.*
8. Vocal Solo: "The Nix." *a.*
9. Discussion: "The Norsemen," based upon this paper.
10. Vocal Solo: "The Light of the World." One of Jenny Lind's favorite songs. *a.*

FOURTH WEEKLY REVIEW.

19. **THE VIKINGS.**—Early Training of Boys, Their Spirit of Adventure, Summary of War-History.
20. **THE HISTORY OF THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.**—Iceland.
21. **THE HISTORY OF THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA** (Continued).—Greenland.
22. **THE HISTORY OF THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA** (Continued).—*Vinland*, Great Iceland, Leif Ericsson, Thorvald Erickson, Thurfirms.
23. **THE HISTORY OF THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA** (Continued).—*Vinland*, Treaty of 1808, Dighton Writing Rock, Who Discovered America?
24. **THE NORSEMEN NOW IN AMERICA.**—Name leading Americans of Norwegian descent.

QUESTIONS.

19. *Who were the Vikings? How were they trained for their work? Give Thierry's statement? Give the summary showing the influence of the Norse-Vikings?*

20. *How did the merging of numerous kingdoms influence emigration? How many ships were there during the Viking Age? What can you say of the early history of Iceland? Give a sketch of the early education and thrift of the Icelanders about 1000? What does the author say of the Iceland of to-day?*



Rock-Tracing, Representing Reindeer and Probably a Horse in a Boat, Bohuslan.

21. *Give the early history of the discovery of Greenland? What can you say of their culture? What relation does Greenland bear to America?*

22. *What was meant by Great-Iceland? Give the various accounts of the different voyages made to America? What do you consider the improbable features of these voyages? The evidences of their truthfulness?*

23. *Give the substance and conditions of the treaty of 1808? Who was Snorre? What became of this settlement? How far south were settlements made? What may be said of Dighton Writing Rock? How is the authenticity of these settlements known?*

24. *Name some leading Americans of Scandinavian descent? What is true of the character of the Scandinavian people?*

SUBJECTS FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

1. *Debate: Was Columbus the original discoverer of America?*
2. *Carefully review the claims advanced by the Norsemen? What features seem probable? What improbable?*
3. *Are the author's reasons as to why these facts have not been known plausible?*
4. *Is it probable that Columbus had access to the Norsemen records, from which he may have obtained his ideas?* (*See Anderson's "America not Discovered by Columbus."*)
5. *Considered from a geographical standpoint, which would seem the easier, the route followed by the Northmen or the journey of Columbus?*

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a. Found in "Songs from the North," Paul A. Schmidt Publishing Co., Minneapolis.
b. Found in "Viking Tales of the North," Anderson; Scott, Foresman & Co., Chicago, Ill.

NOTE.—The cuts used in this article, with the exception of those on pages 603, 608, 609, and 612, have been reproduced from "The Viking Age," by Paul B. DuChaillu, through courtesy of the publishers, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. This splendid work is especially commended to all desiring further information on the early history of the Norsemen.—EDITOR.

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GAZETTEER AND GLOSSARY.

Alas'ka, called **Aliaska** by the Russians. The natives are partly of Esquimaux stock and partly of the Red Indian race. In 1867 this territory was purchased from Russia for $7,200,000 in gold Previous to this time it had been called Russian America.

Arthur, Chester A. (1830-1886).—Twenty-first President of the United States, and eldest son of Rev. William Arthur, a clergyman of Ireland. He graduated from Union College in 1848. While continuing his law studies he fitted boys for college. In 1851 he was principal of an academy at North Pownal, Vt., where in 1854 James A. Garfield, then a student at Williams College, taught penmanship during his winter vacation.

Bancroft, Geo. (1800-1891).—An eminent historian; born in Massachusetts and graduated at Harvard College in 1817. After studying in Germany he received the degree of Ph.D. from Göttengen. Besides his numerous literary works he was well known in political history, having served as secretary of the navy under President Polk.

Bartholdi.—French sculptor; designer of the Statue of Liberty.

Beauregard, P. G. T. (1818-1893).—Born in New Orleans and graduated at West Point in 1838. He took active part in the Mexican war and the late civil war, besides occupying various other military positions.

Bes'semer, Sir Henry (1813- ——).—An English engineer; inventor of the Bessemer steel process (1856-58).

Blaine, James G. (1830-1893).—Born in West Brownville, Pa., and graduated from Washington College in 1847. After teaching awhile he took up the study of law, later becoming an editor in Maine. In political life he held various positions of honor and trust, being at one time the candidate of his party for the presidency

Boutwell, George Sewall (1818- ——)—Besides various other positions of honor, he in 1869 entered President Grant's cabinet as secretary of the treasury.

British Guiana (ghe-ä'na).—A territory on the north coast of South America under the control of Great Britain. The area is about 86,000 square miles, but the possession of much of this territory is claimed by Brazil and Venezuela, and is now under dispute.

Bryan, William Jennings (1860- ——).—The nominee of the Democrats for the campaign of 1896; born at Salem, Ill.; graduated at Illinois College, 1881, and later from Union College of Law, Chicago, in the meantime studying law with Lyman Trumbull. In 1887 he moved to Lincoln, Neb., and began the practice of law. Bryan was elected to Congress in 1890 and re-elected in 1892. Before the election of 1894 he refused a re-nomination in order to run for United States Senator.

Bryant, William Cullen (1794 1878).—Born in Mass., and after remaining in Williams College two years, he withdrew and began the study of law. Later he devoted himself to journalism and became one of our most noted poets.

Colfax, Schuyler (1823-1885).—He became a lawyer and editor in Indiana. Besides various other positions of honor and trust he was several terms speaker of the House of Representatives and served as Vice-President during President Grant's first term.

Chase, Salmon P. (1808-1873).—A native of New Hampshire, he settled in Cincinnati, Ohio, where he began the practice of law. In addition to other political honors he was governor of Ohio and secretary of the treasury under President Lincoln.

Clark, Alvan G. (1832-). Born in Massachusetts, and son of Alvan Clark, the optician. Noted both as an astronomer and maker of numerous and famous astronomical lenses.

Cleveland, Grover (1837-). The twenty-second President of the United States. Born in Caldwell, N. J., and son of Richard Falley Cleveland, a Presbyterian clergyman and graduate of Yale College.

Cooper, Peter (1791-1883).—A native of New York and well known as a philanthropist. He laid the foundation of "The Cooper Union for the



Gen. W. T. Sherman

Advancement of Science and Art," 1854. In 1876 he was the candidate of the National Independent party for the Presidency and received nearly 100,000 votes.

Curtis, George W. (1824-1892).—Author and orator and a native of Providence, R I. Best known in connection with the Harper publications and as the advocate of civil service reform.

Edison, Thomas Alva (1847-).—The well-known inventor, born in Ohio. Famous for his discoveries in electric light; one of the inventors of the telephone; inventor of the phonograph, etc.

Ericson, Captain John (1803-1889).—A Swedish-American; invented the propeller for steam war-vessels, and also the iron-clad Monitor. The first combat between iron-clad vessels was between the Monitor and the Merrimac in the American civil war.

Freja, or Freyja.—Daughter of Njord and sister of Frey.

Froebel.—The originator of the kindergarten system.

Garfield, James Abram (1831-1881).—Twentieth President of the United States.

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Gefjon.—A goddess. She is a maid, and all those who die maids become her maid servants.

Gould, Jay (1836 1894).—A noted financier, born in Roxbury, N. Y

Grant, Ulysses S. (1822-1885) —Eighteenth President of the United States, and the most noted general of the civil war.

Greeley, Horace (1811-1872) —Journalist and the candidate of the Liberal Republicans for the Presidency in 1872.

Harrison, Benj. H. (1833-).—Twenty-third President of the United States. Of noted family. His great-grandfather, Benjamin Harrison, presided over the Continental Congress, and his grandfather, William Henry Harrison, was President of the United States.

Hawaii (ha-wī'ee).—A government of Polynesia, consisting of a group called Sandwich Islands in the north Pacific Ocean. Area about 8,000 square miles.

Hayes, Rutherford B. (1822-1893).—Nineteenth President of the United States; born in Delaware, Ohio. Graduated from Kenyon College in 1842 and soon afterwards began the study of law. He distinguished himself both as a soldier and statesman.

Hel.—The goddess of death

Hendricks, Thomas A. (1819-1885) — Born near Zanesville, Ohio, but became a citizen of Indiana. In 1884 he was elected Vice-President of the United States.

Holmes, Oliver Wendell (1809-1894).—Born in Cambridge, Mass., and graduated from Harvard College in 1829.

Hopkins, Johns (1795-1873).—Noted philanthropist and native of Maryland. Retiring from the grocery, he engaged in banking and railroad enterprises. In 1873 he gave property valued at $4,500,000 to found a hospital; presented the city of Baltimore a public park and gave $3,500,000 to to found Johns Hopkins University

Johnson, Andrew (1808-1875). — Seventeenth President of the United States; born in North Carolina, and a citizen of Tennessee.

Lamar, L. Q. C. (1825-1893).—A native of Georgia and citizen of Mississippi. Secretary of the Interior under President Cleveland during his first administration. He was in 1888 appointed Associate Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

Lee, Robert Edward (1807-1870).—Native of Virginia, member of the famous Lee family and noted Confederate general of the civil war.

Lincoln, Abraham (1809-1865). — Sixteenth President of the United States and a native of Kentucky. The first Republican President. Signer of the emancipation proclamation. Was assassinated by John Wilkes Booth, April 14, 1865.

Logan, John A. (1826-1886).—Statesman and noted volunteer soldier in the late rebellion. He represented Illinois, his native state, in various official capacities, and in the campaign of 1884 he was the nominee of the Republicans for Vice-President

Loke.—The evil-giant god of the Norse mythology

Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth (1807-1882). —Noted poet, a native of Maine and professor in Harvard College.

Lossing, Benj. J. (1813-1891) —A native of New York Noted as an editor, historian and wood-engraver.

Lowell, James Russell (1819-1891).— Noted poet and essayist. Born in Cambridge, Mass.; he graduated from Harvard College in 1838, and having also graduated from the law department, was in 1840 admitted to the bar. In 1877 Lowell was appointed to the Spanish mission by President Hayes and was later transferred to the Court of St. James.

McKinley, William (1844-).—An American statesman and native of Ohio. He served as major in the civil war, was attorney of Stark county, Ohio. 1869-71, 1877-91, member of Congress, chairman of the Committee on Platform for the Republican National Conventions of 1884 and 1888; chairman of Committee on Ways and Means; for Congress of 1889-91; was defeated as the Republican candidate for Congress, 1890; was elected governor of Ohio in 1891 and re-elected in 1893, was nominated as the standard-bearer of the Republicans for campaign of 1896

Nicaragua (nik-ar-ä'gwa).—A republic of Central America. Name also applied to a town of this republic on the shores of Lake Nicaragua.

Parkhurst, Charles H. (1842-).—Noted clergyman and a native of Massachusetts.

Peabody, Geo. (1795-1869) —Noted philanthropist and native of Massachusetts He was noted for a series of large gifts for various purposes.

Saga.—The Norse goddess of history

Samoan Islands.—A group of islands in the Pacific Ocean. Area about 1,125 square miles

San Juan (San-hoo-an').—A river of Nicaragua.

San'to Domin'go.—A state of the West Indies.

Seymour, Horatio (1810-1886).—Statesman and native of New York He served New York in various official capacities, and in 1868 was the nominee of the Democrats for President of the United States.

Sheridan, Philip Henry (1831-1888).—Noted soldier; a native of New York; graduate of West Point.

Sherman, William T. (1820-1891).—Noted soldier; born in Ohio; graduate of West Point, and in 1866 was made lieutenant-general of the United States army.

Stanford, Leland (1824-1893).—Native of New York and United States Senator from California. He gave property valued at between $10,000,000 and $20,000,000 for the founding of Leland Stanford, Jr., University.

Stanton, Edwin M. (1814-1869).—Noted statesman; native of Ohio. He was made attorney-general under President Buchanan, and on the election of Abraham Lincoln to the Presidency became secretary of war.

Sumner, Charles (1811 1874).—Noted statesman and native of Boston, Mass He represented Massachusetts in various official capacities and became noted as an advocate of the emancipation of the negro.

Toyneby Hall, or Toynbee Hall (toin'bē).—An institution founded in 1885 by Oxford and Cambridge Universities "to provide education and means of recreation" for the poor of London.

Venezuela (ven'ez-wee'la).—A republic occupying the northeastern portion of South America

Vikings (vī'kingz).—The bands of Norsemen who infested the British Isles in eighth, ninth and tenth centuries.

Whitman, Walt (1819-1892).—Noted poet and native of New York.

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SIDE LIGHTS.

Disbanding the Armies.—Now that the war was over, the first thing to be done was to disband the armies. But multitudes wished to see the brave men who had fought to save the Nation, and late in May a grand review of Grant and Sherman's troops took place in Washington. For the first time since the beginning of the war, the triumphant armies of the East and West were united. During the greater part of two days (May 23, 24, 1865), the broad avenue from the Capitol to the White House resounded with martial music, and with the strong, steady tread of a column over thirty miles long The march of these seemingly endless regiments of sunburnt veterans, bearing their glittering muskets and their tattered, smoke-stained battle flags, festooned with flowers, was a magnificent sight. No such spectacle had ever been seen before in America; as one enthusiastic officer declared: "It was worth ten years of a man's life for him to be able to say, 'I was there.'" But grand as the display was, something grander was to come—that was the fact that in the course of a few weeks, all these men, with many hundreds of thousands more, laid down their arms and went quietly to their homes. Neither on the northern nor on the southern side, says a recent writer, was there a single act of lawlessness recorded to stain their proud repute as soldiers and Americans.—*Montgomery.*

Military Protection.— This new law divided the South into districts, each of which was to be governed by a military governor. The "freedmen" were given the right to vote, but that right was denied to all those white inhabitants who had taken a prominent part in the war against the Union. Each state was continued under this form of government until the people of the states—black as well as white—should form a government accepting the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. That amendment declared the negro a citizen; it made it a great disadvantage to a state to deny him the right to vote or to hold office; finally it shut out the chief white men of the South from holding any high office. When these conditions were accepted, but not before, the southern states might send representatives to Congress.—*Montgomery.*

The Remonetization of Silver.—During the year 1877, the public mind was greatly agitated concerning the Remonetization of Silver. By the first coinage regulations of the United States, the standard unit of value was the American silver dollar, containing three hundred and seventy-one and one-fourth grains of pure silver. From the date of the adoption of this standard, in 1792, until 1873, the quantity of pure metal in this standard unit had never been changed, though the amount of alloy contained in the dollar was several times altered. Meanwhile, in 1849, a gold dollar was added to the coinage, and from that time forth the standard unit of value existed in both metals. In the years 1873-74, at a time when, owing to the premium on gold and silver, both metals were out of circulation, a series of acts were adopted by Congress bearing upon the standard unit of value, whereby the legal tender quality of silver was first abridged and then abolished. These enactments were completed by the report of the coinage committee in 1874, by which the silver dollar was finally omitted from the list of coins to be struck at the national mints. The general effect of these acts was to leave the gold dollar of twenty-three and twenty-two-hundreths grains the single standard unit of value in the United States.—*Ridpath.*

The Resumption Act.—In January of 1875, the Resumption Act was passed by Congress, whereby, it was declared that on the first of January, 1879, the Government of the United States should begin to redeem its outstanding legal tender notes in coin As the time for resumption drew near, and the premium on gold fell off, the question was raised as to the meaning of "coin" in the act for resuming specie payments; and now, for the first time, the attention of the people at large was aroused to the fact that by the acts or 1873-74, the privilege of paying debts in silver had been taken away, and that after the beginning of 1879 all obligations must be discharged according to the measure of the gold dollar only. A great agitation followed. The cry for the remonetization of silver was heard everywhere. The question reached the Government, and early in 1878 a measure was passed by Congress for the restoration of the legal tender quality of the old silver dollar, and providing for the compulsory coinage of that unit at the mints at a rate of not less than two millions of dollars a month. The President returned the bill with his objections, but the veto was crushed under a tremendous majority; for nearly three-fourths of the members of Congress, without respect to party affiliations, gave their support to the measure, and the old double standard of values was restored.—*Ridpath.*

Kindergarten.—The usefulness of the kindergarten having been demonstrated wherever it has been introduced, the primary importance of its thorough and immediate extension in connection with the common schools is the phase of the question which concerns us as citizens The right and duty of state interference in the direction of public instruction has never been questioned since once it was fairly tried. There is no enlargement of state activity which will excite less criticism and cause less friction than that one proposed in offering a free kindergarten system. It is by no means an innovation to suggest that a state which was the first in history to place within the reach of every child free instruction meeting the requirements for admission to college should also give free instruction to every child at as early an age as that child may be taken from his mother. In other words, free intermediate schools should be supplemented by free kindergartens. Surely it is stupid to elaborate and carefully devote the whole attention to the superstructure without giving a thought to the foundation. If indeed, as all the great educators from Plato and Froebel teach us, the child's first introduction is the most vitally important, and the formation of his whole character is dependent upon it, so that no subsequent care can make amends for wrong beginnings, how can the state afford to discount its own work by failure to prepare the way for it? It leaves it to a chance hand, or to no hand at all, or to one that will play havoc, to form the mold into which it will pour its fine gold.—*Buffington, in Arena, 1895.*

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NOTES OF RECENT DISCOVERIES.

AMERICAN ARCHÆOLOGY

By Elizabeth A. Reed, A.M.

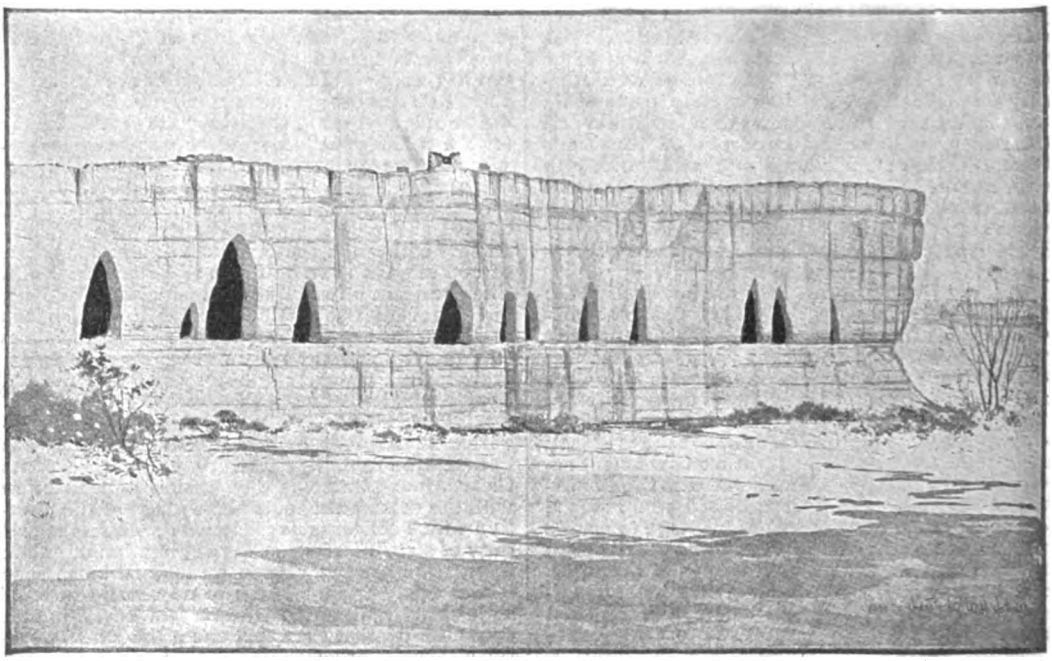
Cliff Dwellings.—Among the most attractive features of American archæology are the cliff dwellings of Arizona and other localities. It appears the early builders were at first forced, as a measure of safety, to take refuge in these cliffs, and here they afterward built their lodges and made their homes.

So limited was the foothold afforded by the scant ledges, or in the sheltered but shallow hollows of the cliffs, that they were obliged to economize space to the utmost; hence, it is thought that at first, only the women and children, being smaller and more in need of protection than the men, were accommodated with such dwellings.

The rooms were so small that theories have been common to the effect that the cliff dwellers were dwarfish in size. As a further measure of economy in building, the rooms were built on top of each other, sometimes to the height of several stories—up, in fact, to the very roof in the rear of the cavern in most cases, and thence terraced toward the front, in order that light and air might be admitted as directly as possible to each story.

Cavate Lodges.—It is a very fine distinction that gives to the cavate lodge a different name and classification, for assuredly these are also "cliff dwellings"; but Major Powell claims that they belong to a slightly different class, because in the one case the homes are built upon the terraces of the cliff, and in the other, they are made only by excavation.

The cliffs where these lodges are found are themselves built of volcanic sand and ashes, and many of the strata are exceedingly light and friable. The specific gravity of some of the rocks is so low that they will float on water.



Open Front Cavate Lodges on the Rio San Juan.

The Excavations.—Into the faces of these cliffs, in the friable and easily worked rock, many chambers have been excavated. There are miles of the cliffs where the face is studded with them, there being thousands in New Mexico alone, while many are found near Flagstaff and other points in Arizona.

Sometimes a chamber or series of chambers was entered from a terrace, but usually they were excavated many feet above any landing or terrace, so that they could be reached only by ladders.

In other places artificial terraces were built by constructing retaining walls and filling the interior next to the cliffs with loose rock and sand. Very often steps were cut into the face of the cliff

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and a rude stairway formed by which chambers could be reached.

These chambers were not only irregular in size and structure, but also irregularly arranged. The apartments occupied by one family sometimes connected with those occupied by another, but usually the communication from one dwelling to another was from the outside.

Contents of the Rooms.—Many of the chambers had evidently been occupied as rooms, and some of them still contained fire-places and evidences of fire.

There were also little caverns or shelves in which various vessels were placed, and many evidences of the handicraft of the people were left in stone, horn, bone, wood and other materials.

Ears of corn and corncobs were also found, and some of the chambers were evidently constructed as storehouses for grain.

Modern Occupancy.—Some of these rooms had been used as stables for goats, sheep and other animals. It is, therefore, evident that these cliff houses have been used in comparatively modern times, since the people owned goats, asses and sheep. It is also true that the rock is of such a character that it will not resist atmospheric degradation for a great length of time, so there is abundant evidence of the fact that these dwellings have been occupied since the coming of the white man.

Walled Fronts.—On the Rio San Juan some of these villages present the appearance of a ruined tower with masonry around the windows. In one place a picturesque, outstanding stone of colossal size has been literally honeycombed by this peculiar race. As one looks from below, the appearance of the village is that of a ruined castle belonging to the middle ages; but a nearer approach quickly dispels these fancies, for the openings which looked like windows prove to be only doorways to shallow and irregular apartments, which are hardly large enough to accommodate a race of pigmies. Neither the outer openings, nor the apertures which communicate between the caves are large enough to allow a person of large stature to enter, and one is led to suspect that these nests were not the real dwellings of the people, but only occasional resorts.

Agricultural Life. — The cliff dwellings and cavate lodges represent the same phase of life, and that life an agricultural one. This conclusion appears to be supported by the remains in the lower Verde valley in Arizona.

The one or the other method of building predominates according to the geological formation of the locality. On the canyon de Chelly there are hundreds of cliff dwellings and no cavate lodges, whereas on the Verde the conditions are reversed and there are multitudes of cavate lodges and no cliff dwellings. An examination and survey of the cliff ruins of canyon de Chelly made some years since, revealed the fact that they were always located with reference to some area of adjacent tillable land, and that the idea of defense was not by any means the only one in the mind of the builders.

This fact gave rise to the theory that the cliff dwellings were merely farming outlooks, and that the villages proper were located on the canyon bottom.

The Kivas, or Council Chambers.—There were large circular chambers which were usually constructed in front of the terraced dwellings of the women and children, and these were apparently used for the double purpose of accommodating the men, and also for assembly rooms for councils and ceremonial functions.

These round-assembly rooms or kivas were often built up from sloping portions of the sheer outer edge of the cliff, in order to be nearly on a level with the narrow ground space between them, and the houses farther back, so that the front, along the lower row of these house cells, might remain unobstructed.

Who Were the Builders?—Linguistically the Zuñi Indians of today stand alone, unrelated to any other Indians either sedentary, like themselves, or unsettled, like the less advanced peoples of the plains.

Nevertheless, they present evidences of being the descendants of two or more peoples. They are the heirs of two cultures, and this is well illustrated in their myths of creation and of migration as interpreted by archæologic and ethnographic research.

Of these, the race which contributed the more peaceful arts of life was the aboriginal branch, while the other claims to be the original Shîwi or Zuñi. This was the dominant race, but, according to their own showing, they were not so advanced as were the peoples whom they "overtook" from time to time as they neared the land of the Zuñi, or the "Middle of the World."

They did not apparently cultivate corn to any considerable extent before they met these peoples, for to use their own words, they were "ever seeking the seeds of the grasses like birds on the mesas."

There is abundant reason for supposing that the "elder nations"—the peoples whom they "overtook," the "People of the Dew," the "Black People," and the "Corn People," of the "towns builded round," were direct and comparatively unchanged descendants of the famous cliff dwellers of the Mancos, San Juan, and other canyons of Utah, Colorado and northern New Mexico.

Costumes.—This ever-shifting and yet semi-settled people wore but little clothing besides their long robes and blankets which were made of shredded bark and rushes or fiber. Sandals were also made of fiber. They wore necklaces of shell-beads. Tha hair was banged to the level of the eyebrows in front, but left long and hanging at the back. The hair of the men was gathered into a bunch with a colored cord, or into a filet of plaited fiber, while gorgeous long feathers of the macaw or eagle were thrust through it and worn upright.

A great bunch of owl or eagle feathers was fastened to the crown of the warrior's heads, and although used in different fashion it is still worn by the Zuñi priests of the Bow.

The warriors also carried targets or shields of yucca or cotton cord, closely netted across a strong round hoop frame and covered with a coarser and larger net.

Their hand-weapons were huge stone-knives and war-clubs shaped like potato-mashers, the name given to these weapons signified to knock down fatally.

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CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EDITED FROM THE BEST SOURCES OF INFORMATION.

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1861 Firing upon the "Star of the West," January 9. Mississippi, Florida and Alabama secede, January 11. Juarez enters City of Mexico in triumph, January 11. Georgia secedes, January 3. Louisiana secedes, January 26. Kansas, the thirty-fourth state, received into the Union, January 29. Texas secedes, February 1. Frovisional Confederate Government erected at Montgomery, Ala. Jefferson Davis elected president, Alexander H. Stephens, vice-president, February 4-9. Abraham Lincoln inaugurated president, Hannibal Hamlin vice-president, March 4. Fort Sumter evacuated April 14. President Lincoln calls for 75,000 troops, April 15. Virginia secedes, April 17. Sixth Massachusetts Regiment on its way to Washington attacked by a mob in Baltimore, three soldiers killed, one wounded, and others injured. Nine Baltimoreans killed by the troops, April 19. 42,000 additional troops called for by the Government, May 3. Tennessee and Arkansas secede, May 6. West Virginia erected into a new State, loyal to the Union, May 13. North Carolina secedes, May 21. Col. Ellsworth killed at Arlington Heights, Va., May 24. Escaped negroes called "Contraband of War" by Gen. B. F. Butler, May 24. Death of Stephen A. Douglas, June 23. Various engagements and battles from June 23 to July 17. Battle of Bull Run, July 21. Retreat of the Federal troops. Grand Army of the Potomac organized, July 21. Various engagements and battles from July 21 to September 13. Battle of Ball's Bluff, October 21. Various battles and engagements from October 21 to November 8. Taking of Messrs. Mason and Slidell from the Trent, November 8. Various engagements and battles from November 9 to December 1. Vassar College founded this year at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., endowed by Matthew Vassar.

National expenses for the year, $85,387,313; the debt, $90,867,828; the imports, $345,650,153; and the exports, $228,699,486.

1862 Release of Mason and Slidell, January 2. Death of Ex-President John Tyler, aged 71 years. January 18. Various engagements and battles from January 18 to February 6. Capture of Fort Henry, February 6 Capture of Fort Douglas by Gen Grant, February 16. Various engagements and battles from February 16 to March 8. Battle between the Merrimac and Monitor, March 9. France declares war upon Mexico, April 16. Various engagements and battles from April 16 to June 30. Battle of Malvern Hills, July 1. Colored persons authorized by Congress to be received into the United States service for various duties, July 17. First exchange of Federal and Confederate prisoners, July 22 Various engagements and battles from July 22 to September 14. Battle of Antietam, September 17. Battle of Iuka, September 19. Battle of Corinth, October 3-4. Various engagements and battles from October 5 to December 28. Battle of Chickasaw Bluffs, December 27. Battle of Murfreesboro, December 31 to January 2. During this year "greenbacks" were first issued. The Gatling gun invented by Mr. Richard J. Gatling, of Indianapolis. The Department of Agriculture formally organized.

The national expenses for the year, $570,841,700; the debt, $514,211,371; the imports. $205,771,729; and the exports, $213,069,519.

1863 President Lincoln issues his Emancipation Proclamation (which in 1862 had been announced) January 1. Death of Rev. Lyman Beecher, D.D., aged 87 years, Jan-January 10. Various engagements and battles from January 10 to February 3. Execution of hostile Sioux Indians, February 28. Various engagements and battles, February 28 to May 1. Battle of Chancellorsville, May 2-3. Stoneman's Cavalry Raid, May 3. Arrest of Clement L. Vallandigham, May 4. Organization of the "Credit Mobilier of America," May 8. Death of Thomas J. Jackson, called "Stonewall Jackson," May 10. Battle of Jackson, Miss., May 14. Of Champion Hills, May 16, of Big Black River, May 17. Invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania by Gen. Lee, and the battle of Winchester, June 15. Admission of West Virginia into the Union, June 20. Battle of Gettysburg, July 1 to July 3. Capture of Vicksburg by Gen. Grant, July 4. Surrender of Port Hudson, July 9. Great Draft Riot in New York, July 13-15 Death of Gen. Sam Houston, aged 77, July 25. Quantrell's raid and massacre at Lawrence, Kan., August 13. Siege of Charleston, S. C., September 7. Battle of Chickamauga (River of Death), September 19-20. Famous speeches of Henry Ward Beecher in England during the month of October. Delivery of Lincoln's famous Gettysburg speech, November 19. Battle of Chattanooga, November 23-25. Establishment of the Andersonville Prison, November 27.

The national expenses for the year, $895,796,630; the debt, $1,098,793,181; the imports, $252,919,920; and the exports. $305,884,998.

1864 Sherman's march through Mississippi, February 3. First lodge of the Knights of Pythias organized in Washington, D.C., February 10. Kilpatrick's raid, February 28. First accident insurance company organized in Hartford, Conn., March to June. Death of Rev. Thomas Starr King, aged 40 years, March 4. Grant made a Lieutenant-General, March 4. Massacre

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at Fort Pillow, April 13. Battle of the the Wilderness, May 5-6. Battle of Spottsylvania Court House, May 10-12. Death of Nathaniel Hawthorne, aged 59 years, May 19. Battle of Cold Harbor, June 3. Naval battle between the Alabama and Kearsarge, June 14. Attempts at peace by Horace Greeley, July. Mine explosion at Petersburg, July 30. Nomination of George B. McClellan for president and Geo. H. Pendleton for vice-president by the Democratic National Convention, August 29. Capture of Atlanta by Gen. Sherman, September 1. Death of Roger B. Taney, Chief Justice of the United States, October 12. Abraham Lincoln elected president, and Andrew Johnson vice-president, November 8. Gen. Sherman begins his great march from Atlanta to the sea, November 16. Battle of Nashville, December 14-16.

National expenses for the year, including payments of loans, $1,298,144.656; the debt, $1,740,690,489; the imports, $329,-562,895; and the exports, $320,035.199.

1865 Death of Edward Everett, aged 70 years, January 15. Capture of Fort Fisher, January 16. Passage of the thirteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, January 31. Peace conference in Hampton Roads, February 3. Columbia, S. C., surrendered to Sherman, February 17. Organization of the Freedman's Bureau, March 3. Inauguration of Abraham Lincoln and Andrew Johnson, March 4. Capture of Fort Steadman by Gen. Grant, March 25. Battle of Five Forks, April 1. Capture of Petersburg and Richmond, April 2-3. Visit of President Lincoln to Richmond, April 4. Surrender of Gen. Lee at Appomattox court house, April 9. Lincoln's last speech, April 11. Shooting of President Lincoln by J Wilkes Booth, April 14. Death of President Lincoln, April 15. Andrew Johnson assumes office as president, April 15. Jefferson Davis captured, April 10 J. Wilkes Booth shot, April 26. Amnesty proclaimed by President Johnson, May 29. Execution of Payne, Atzerott, Harold and Mrs. Surratt for complicity in the assassination of President Lincoln, July 7. Execution of Capt. Wirz, keeper of the Andersonville prison, Nov. 10. Meeting of the Thirty-ninth Congress, December 4. Death of Thomas Corwin, aged 71 years, December 18. Total enlistments in the Union army, 2,678,967. Number in the Confederate cause has been estimated at nearly two millions. The number of casualties in the volunteer and regular armies of the United States, during the war of 1861-65, was reported by the Provost Marshal General in 1866: killed in battle, 61,362; died of wounds, 34,727; died of disease, 183,287; total died, 279,376; total deserted, 199,105. Number of soldiers in the Confederate service who died of wounds or disease (partial statement), 133,821. Deserted (partial statement), 104,428. Number of United States troops captured during the war, 212.608; Confederate troops captured, 476,169. Number of United

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States troops paroled on the field, 16,431; Confederate troops paroled on the field, 48,599 Number of United States troops who died while prisoners, 29,725; Confederate troops who died while prisoners, 26,774. The pay department of the United States army up to the mustering out of the soldiers, paid out $1,100,000,000. The Sanitary Christian Commission organized June 9, 1861, with Henry W. Bellows, D.D., as president. It expended $5,000,000 in money and $15,000,000 in supplies. The Christian Commission was organized through the suggestion of Vincent Colyer of the Y. M. C. A., of New



Gen. Philip H. Sheridan.

York, and the formal organization took place November 14, 1861, in New York at a convention called from all the north. Geo. H. Stewart, Esq , of Philadelphia, was made president, and continued president throughout the war. It expended in money and supplies, including food, clothing, delicacies, bibles, and other literature, $6.000,000. During this year the different states of the south repealed their ordinances of secession. During this year Congress arranged for homes for disabled soldiers, which at first were called asylums.

The national expenses for the year, including payments on loans, $1,897,674,224; the debt, $2,682,593,026; the imports, $248,-555,652, and the exports, $323,743,187.

1866 Death of Eliphalet Nott, aged 92 years, president of Union College of New York, January 29. Celebration of the Centenary of American Methodism begins in January and continues until November. Over $8,000,000 collected for church purposes. Fenian invasion of Canada, April to June. Death of Gen. Winfield Scott, aged 80 years, May 29. Passage of the Fourteenth Amendment, June 16 Death of Lewis Cass, aged 84 years, June 17. Great fire at Portland, Me., July 4. Laying of the

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Atlantic cable, July 27. National Temperance Society organized this year.
The national expenses for the year, $520,809,416; the debt, $2,783,425,879; the imports, $445,512,158, and the exports, $550,684,377.

1867 Death of N. P. Willis, aged 61 years, January 21. Evacuation of the City of Mexico by Maximilian, February 8. Peabody Fund, founded by George Peabody, with a gift of $2,100,000, February 7. Nebraska admitted, March 1. Maximilian shot, June 19. Proclamation of Amnesty by President Johnson, September 7. Death of Elias Howe, aged 48 years, October 3. Election of Juarez, president of Mexico, October 6. Death of Gen. John A. Andrew of Massachusetts, aged 49 years, October 6. First Parliament of the Dominion of Canada, opened at Ottawa, November 6. Death of Fitz-Greene Halleck, aged 77 years, November 17. Organization of The National Grange, December 4. Howard University of Washington, D. C., was organized this year.
National expenses for the year, $357,542,675; the debt, $2,692,199,215; the imports, $417,831,571, and the exports, $440,722,228.

1868 "Ku-Klux Klan" organized in January. Impeachment court organized for trial of President Johnson, March 5. Treaty with China signed, July 4.
National expenses for the year, $377,340,284; the debt, $2,636,320,964; the imports, $371,624,808, and the exports, $454,301,713.

1869 Fifteenth Amendment passed, February 26. U. S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax inaugurated president and vice-president of the United States, March 4. Opening of the Pacific Railroad, May 10. Exploration of the Colorado river by Major J. W. Powell, May 24. First Peace Jubilee under P. S. Gilmore of Boston June 15-20. Death of Henry J. Raymond, journalist, aged 49 years, June 18. Death of William Pitt Fessenden, aged 62 years, September 8. Famous Black Friday, September 24.
National expenses for the year, $322,865,277; the debt, $2,588,452,213; the imports, $437,314,255, and the exports, $413,961,115.

1870 The first colored senator, H. R. Revels, of Mississippi, sworn in February 25. Death of Admiral David G Farragut, aged 69 years, August 15. Death of Gen. Robert E. Lee of the Confederate army, aged 62 years, October 12. J. H. Rainey of South Carolina, first colored representative in Congress, sworn in Dec. 12. Death of Rev. Albert Barnes, aged 72 years, December 25.
National expenses for the year, $309,653,560; the debt, $2,480,304,797; the imports, $460,377,587, and the exports, $490,092,143.

1871 Death of Geo. Ticknor, aged 60 years, January 26. Death of Alice Cary, aged 50 years, February 12. Meeting at Washington of the Joint High Commission for the settlement of the Alabama question, February 27. "Legal tender" act declared constitutional by the Supreme Court, May 1. Death of Phoebe Cary, aged 47 years, July 31. Great forest fires in Wisconsin,

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October 8. Great Chicago fire, October 8-9. Death of Major-General Robert Anderson, of Fort Sumter, aged 66 years, October 26. Death of Thomas Ewing, aged 81 years, October 26. Visit of the Grand Duke Alexis to the United States, October 18.
National expenses for the year, $292,177,188; the debt, $2,353,211,332; the imports, $541,493,708, and the exports, $562,518,651.

1872 Death of S. F. B. Morse, aged 81 years, April 2. Death of James Gordon Bennett, aged 77 years, June 1. Death of B P. Juarez, President of the Mexican Republic, aged 66 years, July 18. Death of Lowell Mason, musician, aged 81 years, August 11. Alabama claims awarded September 14. Death of Rev. Peter Cartwright, aged 87 years, September 25. Death of Mrs. Sarah Payson Willis Parton, known as "Fanny Fern," aged 61 years, October 10. Death of Wm. H. Seward. aged 71 years, October 10. Death of Gen. Geo. G. Meade, aged 56 years, November 6. Great Boston fire, November 9. Death of Horace Greeley, 61 years, November 29. Death of Edwin Forrest, aged 66 years, December 12. Death of Geo Catlin, writer on the Indians, aged 76 years, December 23.
National expenses for the year, $277,517,962; the debt, $2,253,251,328; the imports, $640.338,766; the exports, $549.219.718.

1873 Extreme cold wave throughout New England, January 30. Death of Lieut. M. Maury, aged 67 years, February 1. Credit Mobilier exposure, February 27. "Salary Grab" law passed March 3. U. S. Grant and Henry Wilson inaugurated president and vice-president of the United States, March 4. Modoc massacre, February 11. Loss of 100 lives at Dixon, Ill., through falling off an iron bridge, May 4. Death of Chief-justice Salmon P. Chase, aged 65 years, May 7. Death of Oakes Ames, May 8. Death of Hiram Powers, sculptor, aged 67 years, June 27. Great panic of 1873, failure of Jay Cook & Co., September 19. Capture of the Virginius by Spanish man-of-war named Tornado, October 30. Death of John P. Hale, aged 67 years, November 19. Conviction of Wm. A. Tweed of New York, November 19. Completion of the Hoosac Tunnel, November 27. Death of Prof. Louis John Rudolf Agassiz, aged 67 years. December 14.
National expenses for the year, $290,345,245; the debt, $2,234,482,993; the imports, $663,617,147; and the exports, $649.132,563.

1874 Temperance Crusade begun in Ohio by the women, led by "Mother Stewart," February 10. Death of Ex-president Millard Fillmore, aged 74 years, March 8. Death of Chas. Sumner, aged 63 years, March 11. Death of Ezra Cornell, founder of Cornell University, aged 69 years, December 9. James Lick of San Francisco deeds his immense estate to educational and charity purposes this year.
National expenses for the year, $287,133,873; the debt, $2,251,690,468; the imports, $595,861,248; and the exports, $693,039,054.

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1875 Death of Wm. H. Aspinwall, aged 67 years, January 18 Death of Prof. S. R. Wells, aged 55 years, April 13. Death of Henry Wilson, vice-president of the United States, aged 62 years, November 22

National expenses for the year, $274,623,392; the debt, $2,180,305,067; the imports, $553,906,153; and the exports $643,094,767.

1876 Death of Dr. Samuel G. Howe, aged 75 years, January 8. Death of Hon Reverdy Johnson, aged 79 years, February 9. Death of Charlotte Cushman, aged 50 years, February 18. Death of Alex. T. Stewart, aged 73 years, April 10. Visit of Dom Pedro, second Emperor of Brazil, to the United States in April. Opening of the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia, Pa., May 10. Colorado admitted into the union, July 4. Death of Ex-governor Henry A. Wise of Virginia, aged 70 years, September 12. Death of Bishop Edmund S. Janes of the M. E. Church, aged 69 years, September 18

National expenses for the year, $258.459,797; the debt, $2,180,395,067; the imports, $476,677,871; and the exports, $644,956,406.

1877 Death of Commodore Cornelius Vanderbilt, aged 82 years, January 4. Great railroad riots begin July 1. Gen. Grant begins his famous tour around the globe, May 17.

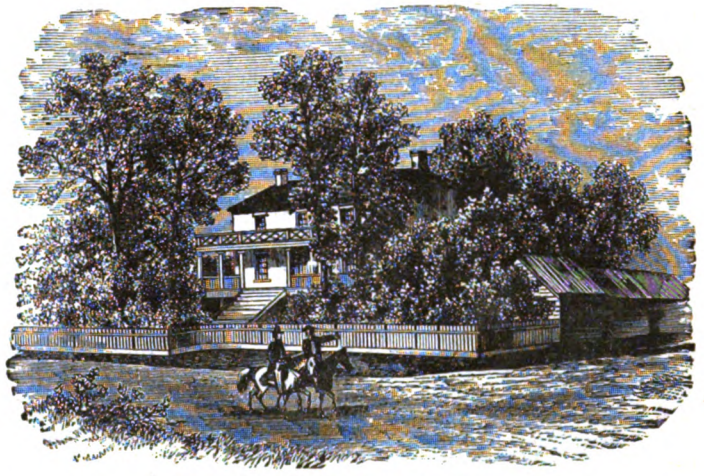
National expenses for the year, $238,660,008; the debt, $2,205,301,392; the imports, $492,097,540; and the exports, $676,115,592

1878 Death of Samuel Bowles, editor, aged 52 years, January 16. Death of Hon Gideon Welles, aged 75 years, February 11. Silver bill vetoed by the President, passed over veto, February 28. Death of Benjamin F. Wade, aged 78 years, March 2. End of Cuban war in March. Death of Wm. M. Tweed, aged 55 years, April 12. Death of Catherine E. Beecher, 77 years, May 12. Death of Wm. Cullen Bryant, aged 84 years, June 12. Title of President Hayes, confirmed by the House of Representatives, June 14. Unprecedented heat term in July. Yellow fever in Southern States in August. Death of Bayard Taylor, aged 53 years, December 19. Financial failure of Archbishop Purcell, in December.

National expenses for the year, $236,964,326; the debt, $2,256,025,892; the imports, $466,872,846; and the exports, $722,811,815.

1879 Resumption of specie payment, January 1. Death of Caleb Cushing, aged 79 years, Jannary 2. Memorial services of Prof. Joseph Henry, January 16. Death of Geo. S. Hillard, aged 70 years, January 21. Death of Richard Henry Dana, aged 91 years, February 2. Bill allowing women to practice law in United States Supreme Court passed by senate, February 7. Death of Elihu Burritt "the learned blacksmith," aged 69 years, March 7. Negro Exodus, in March Death of Gen. John A. Dix, aged 81 years, April 21. Death of Wm. Lloyd Garrison, aged 75 years, May 24. Reform of Oneida Community, August 28. Return of Gen. Grant, September 20. Death of Gen. Joseph Hooker, aged 64 years, October 31. Death of Zachariah Chandler, aged 66 years, November 1. Death of Erastus B. Bigelow, inventor, aged 65 years, December 6.

National expenses for the year, $226,947,883; the debt, $2,219,782,408; the imports, $466,073,775; and the exports, $717,093,777.



McLean's House, Where Lee Surrendered.

1880 Edison's electric light made known in January. Fearful cyclone in many western states, April 18. Famous fast of Dr. Tanner for 40 days, August 7. Death of Prof. Benjamin Peirce, aged 71 years, October 6. Death of Lydia M. Child, aged 78 years, October 20. Death of Lucretia Mott, aged 88 years, November 11. New Chinese Treaty, November 18. Death of Rev. Dr. Chapin, aged 66 years, December 27.

National expenses for the year, $267,642,957; the debt, $2,121,481,475; the imports, $760,989,056; and the exports, $833,294,246.

1881 Egyptian Obelisk erected in Central Park, New York, January 22. Death of Matthew H. Carpenter of Wisconsin, aged 57 years, February 24. James A. Garfield and Chester A. Arthur inaugurated president and vice-president, March 4. Death of James T. Fields, aged 64 years, April 24. Revised New Testament issued May 21. Death of Col. Thomas A. Scott, great railroad king, May 21. Assassination of President Garfield, by Chas. Guiteau, July 2. Death of Sidney Lanier, a southern poet, aged 39 years, September 8. Death of Gen. Burnside, aged 57 years, September 13. Death of President Garfield, September 19. Great Michigan forest fires in September. Death of Dr. J. G. Holland,

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aged 62 years, October 12. Yorktown Centennial, October 12. Death of Col. John W. Forney, December 9. Death of Dr. Isaac Israel Hayes, Arctic explorer, aged 78 years, December 17. Death of Rev. Dr. Leonard Bacon, aged 80 years, December 24. Great cotton exposition at Atlanta, December 31.

National expenses for the year, $254,817,363; the debt, $2,018,869,697; the imports; $733,240,125; and the exports, $898,153,891.

1882 Death of Prof. John Wm. Draper, aged 71 years, January 4. Death of Richard Henry Dana, aged 67 years, January 6. Death of Rev. John Cotton Smith, aged 55 years, January 9. Blaine's Eulogy on Garfield. January 27. Death of Rev. Dr Henry W. Bellows, aged 68 years, January 30. Death of Henry W. Longfellow, aged 75 years, March 24 Death of Ralph Waldo Emerson, aged 79 years, April 27.

National expenses for the year, $254,009,448, the debt, $1,920,467,693; the imports, $767,-111,964; and the exports, $776,720,003.

1883 Burning of Newhall House at Milwaukee, Wis , 100 lives lost, January 10 Death of Wm. E. Dodge, aged 77 years, February 9. Death of Hon. Marshall Jewell, of Connecticut, February 10. Death of Hon. Edwin D. Morgan, aged 72 years, February 14. Death of Hon. A'ex. H Stephens, vice-president Southern Confederacy, aged 72 years, March 4. Death of Peter Cooper, aged 92 years. April 4. Formal opening of the great Suspension Bridge between New York and Brooklyn, May 24. Reduction of letter postage from 3 to 2 cents goes into effect October 1. Centennial Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church at Philadelphia, October 3. Death of Dr. J. Marion Sims, aged 70 years, November 13.

National expenses for the year, $258,570,-604; the debt, $1,873,415,924; the imports, $751,670,305, and the exports, $825,846,813.

1884 Death of Wendell Phillips, aged 72 years, February 2. Treaty between the United States and Mexico ratified May 15 by the Mexican Congress, and by the United States Senate March 1. Death of Chas. O'Conor, aged 80 years, May 12.

National expenses for the year, $254,228,-263; the debt, $1,915,647,059; the imports, $695,123,955, and the exports, $807,646,-922.

1885 Death of Hon. Schuyler Colfax, ex-vice-president of the United States, aged 61 years. January 13. Grover Cleveland inaugurated twenty-second President of the United States March 4. Death of Gen. U. S. Grant, aged 63 years, July 23. Death of Geo. B McClellan, aged 58 years, October 29. Death of Hon. Thomas A. Hendricks, vice-president of the United States, aged 66 years. Death of Wm. H. Vanderbilt, aged 64 years, December 8. He leaves a fortune of $200,000,000. Death of Prof. John C. Draper, aged 50 years, December 20.

National expenses for the year, $255,859,012; the debt, $1,907,540,580; the imports, $620,-719,173, and the exports, $784,406,414.

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1886 Death of Gen. Winfield Scott Hancock, aged 62 years, February 9. Death of Samuel J. Tilden, ex-governor of New York, aged 75 years, February 12. Death of John B. Gough, aged 68 years, February 17. Conviction of the Chicago Anarchists of murder, August 20. Unveiling of Bartholdi's statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," October 28. Death of Ex-President Chester A. Arthur, aged 56 years, November 18. Death of Gen. John Alex. Logan, aged 60 years, December 26.

1887 Death of Bishop Horatio Potter, aged 84 years, February 2. Death of Edward Livingston Youmans, aged 65 years, January 18. Death of Henry Ward Beecher, aged 73 years, March 8. Death of John G. Saxe, aged 71 years, April 17. Jubilee of Queen Victoria, June 21. Death of E. B. Washburne, October 22. Hanging of four condemned Anarchists in Cook county jail, Chicago, on November 11: August Spies, Adolph Fischer, A. R. Parsons and George Engel.

1888 Death of A. Bronson Alcott, aged 89 years, March 4, and Louisa M. Alcott, his daughter, March 6. Terrific storm and blizzard in New York, March 11-12-13. Death of Hon. Roscoe Conkling through this blizzard, April 18. Death of James Freeman Clarke, June 14. Death of Gen. Philip Sheridan, July 6. Death of Edward B. Roe, July 23. Death of Professor Richard A. Proctor, September 11.

1889 Gen. Benjamin Harrison inaugurated President of the United States, March 4. Oklahoma becomes a territory April 22. Celebration of the centennial of the inauguration of George Washington throughout the whole country, April 30.

1890 Great heat July 1-8. Death of Gen. George Crook, U. S. A., March 19. The Pan-American Conference adjourns April 19. Death of Gen Julius White and Rev. Dr. Joseph Cummings, May 12. Anniversary of granting of first patent in the U. S, which was issued to Samuel Hopkins for making pot and pearl ashes (433-432 patents since then have been issued), July 31. Death of John Boyle O'Reilly, August 11. Death of Gen. W. W. Belknap, October 13. President issues World's Fair proclamation, December 24. Death of Dr. H. M. Dexter, November 13. Death of August Belmont, November 24.

1891 International Monetary Convention held at Washington, D. C., January 17. Death of George Bancroft, January 17. Death of Admiral D. Porter, February 13. Death of Gen. W. T. Sherman, February 14. Hanging of the Mafia murderers by a mob, New Orleans, March 15. Death of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, March 21. Death of Howard Crosby, March 29. Death of Gen. Albert Pike, May 2. Heavy frosts May 18. American University organized at Washington, May 28. Death of Benjamin J. Lossing, June 3. Recognition of the new government of Chili by the U. S., September 7. Death of James Parton, October 17.

1892 John A. Rockefeller tenders gift of $1,000,-000 to the University of Chicago, Febru-

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ary 26. Death of Walt Whitman, March 26. Death of Rev. M. L. Weakley, the oldest Methodist minister in the country, aged 95 years, April 30. Homestead strike, July 6 to November 19. Death of Cyrus W. Field, July 12. Death of James Russell Lowell, August. Death of George William Curtis, August 31. Celebration of the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America on grounds of the World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago, October 22. Grover Cleveland re-elected President of the United States, November 8. Armour Institute, costing $1,000 000, and to be endowed with $1,400,000, presented to the city of Chicago by P. D. Armour. December 12. Dr. McGlynn restored as President by Mgr. Satolli, December 23. Death of Orange Judd, December 27.

1893 Death of James G. Blaine, January 27. Death of Gen. P. T. Beauregard, February 20. Death of Gen. Benjamin F. Butler, January 11. Death of Justice L. Q. C. Lamar, January 23. Death of Ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes, January 17. The World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago, May 1 to December 1. Death of Leland Stanford, June 20. Death of Gen. J. M. Rusk, November 21.

1894 Death of David Dudley Field, April 13. Coxey's army enters Washington, May 1. Great strike of the American Railway Union against the Pullman company, June 26 to July 12. Death of Prof. David Swing, October 3. Death of Robert C. Winthrop, November 16. Eugene V. Debs sentenced to six months in jail by Judge Woods, December 14.

1895 Eugene V. Debs and others in jail, Chicago, January 8. Sweat shop law of Illinois declared unconstitutional by Supreme Court, March 14. Death of Gen. Adam Badeau, March 20. Strike of 10,000 miners, West Virginia, May 1. Death of Prof. James D. Dana, April 12. Death of Secretary Walter Q. Gresham, May 28.

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Dedication of Confederate monument, Oakwoods cemetery, Chicago, May 30. Death of Philip Phillips, June 25. Meeting of International Christian Endeavor Convention, Boston, July 10. Death of Prof. H. H. Boyesen, October 4. Decision in favor of the Leland Stanford estate by the U. S. Supreme Court, October 12. Death of Prof. A. C. Kendrick, October 21. Death of Eugene Field, November 4. Death of Rev. Dr. S. F. Smith, author of "America," November 16. Cotton States



General Robert E. Lee.

International Exposition, Atlanta, September 18, December 30. Great tidal wave in Japan, nearly 40,000 lives lost, June 15.

1896 National Republican Convention, St. Louis, June. National Democratic Convention, Chicago, July 8-11. National People's Party Convention, St. Louis, July. Death of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, July 1. International Christian Endeavor Convention, Washington, D. C., July 8-13. President Cleveland issues proclamation of neutrality in case of Cuba, July 30.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

For those who wish to read extensively, the following works, used in the preparation of this number, are especially commended:

AUTHOR.	TITLE OF WORK.
Blaine, James G.	Twenty Years of Congress.
Carroll D. Wright	Industrial Evolution of the United States.
DuChaillu, Paul B.	The Viking Age.
Judson	The Growth of American Nation.
McCullough, Hugh	Men and Measures of Half a Century.
Montgomery	Leading Facts of American History.
Smith, Goldwin	The United States; An Outline of Political History.

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A BRIEF SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF HUNGARY.*

By Rudolph M. Binder, A.B.

PREVIOUS to the ninth century Hungary was inhabited by a number of races, each of which gained possession of the soil by force of arms. Between 880 and 950 A. D., a new race pushed out from the Ural mountains, and settled after different wars and some skilful diplomacy in Pannonia or Hungary. This race was the Magyars and their leaders during this time were: Alom, Arpad and Geisa. At the end of the first millenium of our era the settling was about finished and the nation entered upon the eleventh century under new prospects. Wait, who was chosen leader



Hungarian Peasants.

by the nobles at the age of fifteen, became a convert to Christianity was crowned king as Stephen I. He introduced Christianity. When he died in 1036 he left the country with many churches. He is looked upon as the father of the country, and was canonized on account of his piety.

His successor, Peter, inherited his uncle's superstitious veneration for the church, without his political wisdom or virtue. He offended the Christians by the inconsistencies of his life, and the Hungarians in general by surrounding himself with foreigners. And when in 1045 he invited the German Emperor, Henry III., to visit him, and declared before the nobles that he wanted to hold his kingdom as a fief of the German empire, the people at once determined to depose him. They called his cousin Andrew to the throne after he had promised the free exercise of the pagan religion. The new king promised well, but he soon threw off the mask by punishing those guilty of paganism and by rebuilding the destroyed churches. From 1047 to 1095 we have in Hungary a number of wars concerning the succession of the crown, which were brought about by the descendants of Andrew who wished to make the crown either hereditary or a fief of the German empire.

We merely mention the names of these kings, Bela I., Solomon, Geisa I., Ladislaus I., and pass over to Colomon.

The reign of Colomon is remarkable for four facts: First, that he gave free passage to six bands of Crusaders through his territory, although the first few, being composed mostly of a lower class of people, had committed many outrages; second, he reconquered Croatia and Dalmatia; third, by his remarkable concern about the welfare of the people manifested in his travels through the country in order to administer the laws; and fourth, by his prohibition to try and sentence witches on the express ground, "that there are no such persons." From the death of Colomon, the kings of the house of Arpad degenerated in wisdom and valor; the weakness of the monarchs, however, was conducive to the growth of self-dependence in the people, and prevented the central power acquiring an undue share of influence in the state. This brief characterization may account for the omission of several names of kings, since it is impossible in a mere sketch to give even the names. This period extends from 1114-1301.

Leaving aside numerous wars caused through the ambitious desire of the kings after increasing their territory, or by pretenders to the crown, we will call attention to three very interesting facts. Geisa (1142-1162) wanted to secure Transylvania for Hungary by settling it with a people who were able to defend it against the numerous attacks of invaders from Moldavia and Walachia, and so he sent messengers to Germany to invite settlers into Transylvania. This country abounded in thick forests and luxuriant pastures in which wild horses, buffaloes and the aurochs grazed, while the chamois ranged on the rocky summits of the mountains undisturbed by the hunter. This invitation found a willing ear along the lower Rhine and the northern part of the Netherlands, where the constant task of keeping up the dams and dykes made life a burden, and where only recently the inroad of the Zuider Sea had deprived thousands of home and property. How many thousands of these Germans traveled across Europe cannot be stated, but their number must have been quite large, since only about sixty years afterwards King Andrew II. found their services so effective that he not only invited a number of German Knights Templar into a particularly exposed part of the country, but gave valuable privileges to all these settlers. These privileges, although now cancelled, have enabled them to maintain their German language and customs up to the present time.

Another incident of far-reaching importance occurred from 1240-42 under Bela IV. A large horde of Mongols, from Tartary, pushed forward into Europe, and since the Magyars were slow to assist their king in raising an army, the little band of the king was utterly routed by the invaders. The whole country was then overrun by the Mongols; property was destroyed, people were killed not only in battle and the villages, but

* Note.—This article, while somewhat out of place, it is believed will be of timely interest owing to the fact that Hungary is now celebrating the One Thousandth Anniversary of its national existence.—Editor.

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by the strategem of issuing a manifesto, sealed with the king's stolen signet, that the enemy had withdrawn, the Mongols succeeded in alluring the fugitives out of the mountains and strongholds, and then insidiously slaughtered them. Hungary and Transylvania were laid waste; but the misery was completed when a few years afterwards a swarm of locusts descended upon the plains and devoured the fruits, ripe for the harvest. The people murdered each other in despair, and human flesh was publicly sold in the markets. King Bela sent emissaries to foreign countries to buy food, and attempted to relieve the distress by administering justice and renewing the charters of the cities and the privileges of the German colonists on his travels through the country.

But the most important and interesting incident from this period is the issuing of the Golden Bull (Bulla Aurea), in 1222, by Andrew II. The Magyars had always been jealous of their independence. The king was chosen, and already Stephen I. had, in 1001, given a constitution by appointing a Palatine or umpire between himself and the Diet. The Magnates, consisting of the holders of high offices in the state or church, and the "inferior nobiles," including all the freeholders of the kingdom, formed the National Diet, where all great questions of the state were decided, the king having only the right of annulling or ratifying their acts. Under Colomon the soldiers or freemen were added to the list of "nobiles." The Golden Bull now fixed these relations and added new rights.

The Magnates were to lead their own troops into the field at their own expense at home or abroad. The "inferior nobiles" were to serve directly under the king at their own expense at home, but were to be paid when serving in a foreign war. All the "nobiles" were free from taxation. No man was to be arrested without a summons, or sentenced without a trial. The king could not give away any part of his dominion; nor was he allowed to farm his domains, the taxes, coinage or salt mines to Jews and Ishmaelites. This constitution existed not merely on parchment, but several kings found out that the people held them down to it by refusing obedience, and deposing them whenever they violated its statutes. And not only against their kings, but against the popes, likewise, the people guarded their independence jealously, and generally succeeded, since under the house of Arpad the interests of king and nation were identical. A new era was opening, however, with the accession of the first king of the house of Anjou and later of that of Hapsburg. The Arpads were natives, the Anjous and Hapsburgs were foreigners. Under her own kings Hungary had prospered and attained a constitutional liberty unequaled at that time; under foreign kings she was almost constantly engaged in wars, either for the succession on the throne or for the increase of the power of the dynasty.

The next period extends from 1301 to 1457, and marks the entering of the house of Anjou upon the throne and that of the Turks into Hungary. Under the last king of this house, Louis the Great, Hungary flourished in every respect. Many schools were founded, and commerce extended as far as Egypt. Louis betrothed his only daughter to Sigismund of Austria, and in this way the Hapsburg dynasty entered into Hungary. After the death of Ladislaus IV., in 1457, Matthias Corvinus, son of John Hunyady, was elected king by the Diet at Buda. In 1479 the Turks were signally defeated by Paul Kiniszy and Stephen Bathory on the "Breadfield" in Transylvania; 30,000 of them were killed in the battle. But they did not leave Hungary alone, and after different invasions they completely defeated the small Hungarian army at Mohacz in 1526. King Louis II. was killed, and the whole country ransacked.

A new era of misery began for Hungary. The Hapsburg dynasty endeavored to make the throne hereditary, and to increase the power of their family; and since Romanism was in harmony with their despotic power, they favored this religion. A part of Hungary, however, and the whole of



King Matthias Corvinus.

Transylvania, did not submit to Austria, and was ruled by native princes who favored Protestantism. Since these princes were often unable to hold their own against the superior forces of Austria, they called in the Turks, and were thus, by holding their position as a fief from the Porte, directly chargeable of giving these enemies of Christendom cause to disturb Europe for more than one hundred and fifty years longer. The political combinations between the Hapsburg dynasty, the princes of Transylvania and the Turks, and the religious conflict between Protestantism and Romanism varied constantly during this period, and make the history of Hungary a very interesting tangle. The outcome was that in 1687, a few years after the Turks had been finally driven out of the country, Austria had gained her object, since the Magnates, demoralized by the incessant wars, and probably moved by the misery of their devastated country, offered to make the crown of Hungary hereditary in the house of Hapsburg; that Protestantism was greatly weakened, and that the subjection of Hungary became so firmly established that the bold attempts of Francis Rakockzy to make her independent again, were nipped in the bud. The policy of making all Austria and Hungary one vast empire with one language and religion under the despotic power of the Hapsburgs, was continued by all the kings of this house. Maria Theresa (1740-1780), too, followed in these footsteps, although she was twice saved from sheer

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destruction by the gallant patriotism and noble self-sacrifice of her Hungarian subjects. For these people were loyal to the cause once espoused, notwithstanding the flagrant breaches of promise to alleviate the burdens of the country, and the constant violations of the Constitution by Austria. So loyal were they, that when Napoleon I. issued a manifesto in 1808 and offered therein to restore the liberty of Hungary, they stood by their not too much loved emperor Francis I. In this generosity they were rewarded in the usual way: by new oppressions.

We must say a few words now about the condition of Hungary at the beginning of our century in order to understand at least partly the Revolution of 1848. Politically the condition of the country was much the same as when the Golden Bull was issued. The Diet was still composed of the House of Magnates or Lords, but the House of Deputies, representing the towns and counties, had been added. The latter had the initiative, and the acts passed through the House of Magnates to the king for ratification. The Hungarians received their political training in the county meetings. The latter were as famous as the English town meetings They chose their own officers, and decided all internal matters independently. The decrees of the kings had to be submitted to these meetings for approval; but if they were found unconstitutional, they were respectfully laid on the table. This evidences a strong love for independence.

Now the ambition of the Hapsburg dynasty was to ignore or set aside this constitution, to reduce Hungary to a province of Austria, and to exterminate Protestantism. It is a miracle indeed, that the Magyars bore all these oppressions so long, and never extended their dislike of Austria to the person of the emperor. The cause for a revolution must, therefore, have been very grave to induce them to rise in arms against Austria in 1848. And so it was

After the Hungarians had with great difficulty obtained a promise from the emperor Ferdinand for Liberty of Press, Trial by Jury, Annual Diets and an independent ministry at Pesth in accordance with the constitution, the fulfillment of these promises was not only put off indefinitely in such a manner as to give good reason to the opinion that they were not meant to be ever fulfilled, but the Austrian government directly enticed the Croatians to revolt against the Hungarians. This treachery being clearly proved, it opened the eyes of even the most optimistic, and an outburst of indignation arose all over Hungary. The great drama began. It is absolutely impossible to give here even a cursory view of the Hungarian Revolution, so rich in romantic incidents and deeds of valor. I simply state that the raw recruits of the Magyars held their own, from the very beginning, against the regular troops of Austria, and later on often defeated armies by far their superiors in respect to numbers and equipment. The names of Klapka, Bem, Perczel and others will go down to posterity as brave soldiers and able generals. And had it not been for the large Russian armies assisting Austria, and the more or less doubtful behavior of the commander-in-chief, Görgey, the outcome of the war would certainly have been different. While Görgey cannot be charged directly with treachery during the war, it is certain that he told the soldiers that they were to join the Russians for united action against Austria, and thus led 24,000 men to an unconditional surrender in August, 1849, at Vilagos; and that he afterwards received a pension of 60,000 florins annually from Austria. Had Görgey had the nobility of character which Louis Kossuth, the soul of the revolution, manifested throughout his political career, Austria would never have established her supremacy in Hungary again.

Probably the only mistake of Kossuth was that his magnanimity led him to believe that the interests of the country required his abdication as dictator in favor of Görgey. The result, a few days afterward, was the ignominious capitulation at Vilagos. Kossuth, with thousands of others, had to flee, but England and America and other nations honored him as one of their own when he came to visit them. With many others he was offered amnesty, but he resolutely refused to live in his beloved country as long as she had any political union with Austria. He preferred to be an exile on Italian soil. But when in 1892, he celebrated his ninetieth anniversary, his countrymen showed him their deep affection; and when he died at Turin shortly afterwards his body was taken to Hungary and a funeral was granted him by the State, as if he had been their king.

The Revolution, then, was put down by Russian armies, and Austria ruled with an iron hand. But she had learned a lesson. What Hungary had done, she might do again, and the outcome might be very different since Russia had been greatly weakened by the Crimean war, and especially since Prussia had, in 1866, ousted Austria from Germany. So she finally listened to the voice of justice. In 1867 prolonged negotiations led to the "Compromise," which is still the basis of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. The relation of the two partners is briefly this: Toward other states they form a unit, having the army, diplomatic and consular service in common. The union consists, however, chiefly in the fact that the same person, Francis Joseph, is Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary. He reigns over Hungary not as emperor of Austria, but as king under the Hungarian constitution. For the regulation of their common affairs there exists a special body, the Reichsrath, consisting of members from both Austria and Hungary.

In all other matters each partner is entirely independent; so much so that Hungary maintains an army of her own for the defense of the country, and has her own treasury. A ministry chosen by and responsible to the Diet, governs the affairs of the country. She has changed her old constitution so as to fit modern needs. All classes have to pay taxes and must bear arms. Suffrage is practically universal.

Industries and manufacturing are increasing, agriculture is conducted on a more rational basis than formerly; commerce is facilitated by an excellent system of railroads. Education and enlightenment are spreading very rapidly. A good test was made last year when the ministry of Weckerle proposed a Civil Marriage law and other reforms. The king objected, of course, and caused Weckerle to resign, but his successor was elected with express instructions from the Diet to carry out all the proposed reforms.

Hungary, then, celebrates her Millenium under favorable auspices. As far as is known at present the festivities planned for the six months from May to October have been and are going to be a success, and every admirer of bravery and undaunted adherence to liberty bids Hungary a hearty Godspeed as she enters upon her second millenium.

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Yours sincerely,

THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION.

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1. **No member of The University Association is compelled to take an examination, but all are entitled to the privilege.**

2. Any member of a center desiring an examination for a diploma will make the request to the secretary of the center.

3. Any member of the course in History desiring the examination who is not connected with a center, **in active operation,** will make the request direct to The University Association.

4. Ten questions will be prepared on each month's course of study. These questions will be sent to the Leaders of Centers and the committee of three associated with them in the examination (such committee being appointed by The University Association, on the recommendation of the officers of the class), or in the case of individuals not connected with a center, to an Examining Committee appointed by The University Association.

5. The examinations will be conducted after the manner of examinations for Teachers' Certificates and thus will be thorough and impartial.

6. The questions propounded will have the approval of the professors who have prepared the courses of instruction.

7. SPECIAL. The questions will be given out at the time of examination, and no one examined will be allowed to see or know the answers of his associates, or to hold consultation during the examination.

8. After the examinations are closed, the answers will be certified to and sealed by the committee and forwarded to The University Association to be reviewed and passed upon by The University Examiners.

9. Diplomas will be issued to those whose correct answers average **80 per cent** of the questions propounded. Questions will be based upon Universal History and upon the subject matter contained in the twelve lessons.

For further information, address,

THE UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION,
Association Building, CHICAGO, U. S. A.

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Organization of the Department of Literature

OF THE

WORLD'S CONGRESS AUXILIARY.

(*Continued from No. 11.*)

PARTIAL LIST OF THE

Advisory Council of the World's Congress Auxiliary on a Congress of Historians and Historical Students.

The following have accepted membership of this Council.

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Mr. Edward Mills Barton, Worcester, Mass.
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Mr Edward Eggleston, Lake George, N. Y.
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Hon. William H. English, Indianapolis, Ind.
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Gen. Manning B. Force, Sandusky, Ohio.
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Paul Leicester Ford, Esq., Brooklyn, N. Y.
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Dr. G. Brown Goode, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.
Hon. Samuel A. Green, Boston, Mass.
Arthur Gilman, Esq., Cambridge, Mass.
A. A. Graham, Esq., Columbus, Ohio.
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James Schouler, Esq., Boston, Mass.
Rev. Philip Schaff, New York City.
F. C. Sessions, Esq , Columbus, Ohio.
Prof Robert D. Sheppard, Evanston, Ill
William Henry Smith, Esq., New York City.
Dr. Freeman Snow, Cambridge, Mass.
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William P. Upton, Esq., Newtonville, Mass
Hon. Andrew D. White, Ithaca, N. Y.
Prof. Arthur M. Wheeler, New Haven, Conn.
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Talcott Williams, Esq., Philadelphia, Pa.
Gen. James Grant Wilson, New York City.

PARTIAL LIST OF

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Miss Agnes Repplier, Boston, Mass.
Mrs. Margaret Deland, New York City.
Mrs. W. G. Rose, Cleveland, Ohio.

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THE several Committees of Organization issued their Preliminary Addresses and conducted an extensive correspondence with leaders in the various departments in the different participating countries; and, in due course, prepared the following Programmes, which are here given as printed for the respective Congresses.

NOT THINGS, BUT MEN.

The World's Congress Auxiliary

OF THE

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION OF 1893.

PRESIDENT, CHARLES C. BONNEY. VICE-PRESIDENT, THOMAS B. BRYAN TREASURER, LYMAN J. GAGE.
SECRETARIES, BENJ. BUTTERWORTH, CLARENCE E. YOUNG.

WOMAN'S BRANCH OF THE AUXILIARY.

MRS. POTTER PALMER, PRESIDENT. MRS. CHARLES HENROTIN, VICE-PRESIDENT.

DEPARTMENT OF LITERATURE.

GENERAL DIVISION OF AUTHORS.

PROGRAMME OF THE CONGRESS OF AUTHORS.

To Convene in the Art Institute, Chicago, during the Week beginning July 10, 1893.

American Committee of Co-operation:

Oliver Wendell Holmes, *Chairman.* George E. Woodberry, *Secretary.*
Edmund Clarence Stedman, Charles Eliot Norton, Charles Dudley Warner, William Dean Howells,
Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Horace Howard Furness, Richard Watson Gilder, Thomas Bailey Aldrich,
George W. Cable, Maurice Thompson, Thomas Nelson Page. Frank Dempster Sherman,
Hjalmar H. Boysen.

Committee of Organization:

Francis F. Browne, *Chairman.* George E. Woodberry, *Secretary.*
Joseph Kirkland, Franklin H. Head, David Swing.

Woman's Auxiliary Committee:

Mrs. Katherine Donaldson, *Chairman.*
Miss Harriet Monroe, Mrs. Mary H. Catherwood, Mrs. Lindon W. Bates, Mrs. Alice A. Abbott,
Mrs. Clara Doty Bates, Mrs. Clara C. Becker, Mrs. Amelia Gere Mason.

CONGRESS OF AUTHORS

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, JULY 11, 10 A. M. AND 3 P. M.

HALL VII. (Mr. A. L. SPOFFORD to preside.)

General Subject: LITERARY COPYRIGHT.

1. Practical Workings of the Copyright Law.....Mr. A. L. Spofford, Librarian of Congress, Washington, D C.
2. *International Copyright Union: The Berne Conference of 1887.....Sir Henry Bergne, G.C.M.G., one of the British Commissioners at the Conference.
3. *The British Society of Authors, and the Copyright Questions.....Dr. S. S. Sprigge, M.B., late Secretary of the Society, and Mr. W. Oliver Hodges, Barrister-at-Law, London, England.
4. Future Copyright Legislation in the United States.....Hon. George E Adams, Chicago, Ill.
5. The Limitations of Copyright.....Mr. R. R. Bowker, New York City.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12 10 A. M. AND 3 P. M.

HALL VII. (Mr. WALTER BESANT to preside.)

General Subject: THE RIGHTS AND INTERESTS OF AUTHORS.

1. Author and Publisher, and the British Society of Authors.....Mr. Walter Besant, late Chairman of the Society, London, England.
2. *Some Considerations on Publishing.....Sir Frederick Pollock, Bart., LL.D., Corpus Professor of Jurisprudence, Oxford University; present Chairman of the British Society of Authors, London, England.
3. Authors and Publishers in the United States.....Mr. Maurice Thompson, Crawfordsville, Ind.
4. *Notes on Publishing.....Mr. J. M. Lely, Barrister-at-Law, London, England.
5. *The Principles of an Authors' and Journalists' Union.....Mr. J. Stuart-Glennie, M.A., London, Eng.
6. The Business Side of Authorship.....Mr. Stanley Waterloo, Chicago, Ill.
7. *Syndicate Publishing.....Mr. W. Morris Colles, Barrister-at-Law, Hon. Editor of Authors' Syndicate, London, England.
8. A Collection of Notes and Opinions by Various Members of the British Society of Authors.....Presented by the Delegates of the Society—Mr. Walter Besant and Dr. S. S. Sprigge, London, England.

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THURSDAY, JULY 13, 10 A. M. AND 3 P. M.

HALL OF COLUMBUS. Mr. CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER to preside.)

General Subject: CRITICISM AND LITERATURE.

1. *The Function of Literary Criticism in the United States.....Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, Hartford, Conn.
2. *The Excess of Art over Life in Recent Literature.....Mr. John Burroughs, West Park, N. Y.
3. *The Future of English Drama.....Mr. Henry Arthur Jones, London, England
4. *The Relations of Literature and Journalism.....Mr. H. D. Traill, D.C.L. (Oxon.), London, England
5. Woman's Mission in Literature in Italy.....Mrs. Fanny Zampini Salazar, Italy.
6. The Note of Expectancy in American Literature...Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, Cornell Univ., Ithaca, N. Y.
7. (*Subject not announced*).....Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie, New York City.
8. (*Subject not announced*).....Mrs. C. E. Terhune (Marion Harland), New York City.
9. The Literary Person, and the Drama .....Miss Molly Elliot Sewell, Washington, D. C.

THURSDAY, JULY 13, 10 A. M.

HALL XX.

General Subject: LITERATURE FOR CHILDREN.

1. Companionship in Literature of Mother and Child..Mrs D. Lathrop (Margaret Sidney), Boston, Mass.
2. The Future of Young People's Literature.....Mr. Hezekiah Butterworth, Boston, Mass
3. The Children of Yesterday and To-day.....Mrs. Elia W. Peattie, Omaha, Neb.

THURSDAY, JULY 13, 3 P. M.

HALL OF WASHINGTON.

CHILDREN'S AFTERNOON.

1. Poem (to be sung by the Children) .....Mrs Clara Doty Bates, Chicago, Ill.
2. A Little Brother of Long Ago: A Short Story.....Miss Nora Smith, San Francisco, Cal.
3. A Fable of the Stars.....Miss Mary Proctor, St. Joseph, Mo.
4. Readings: Long Ago. A Dutch Lullaby.....Mr. Eugene Field, Chicago, Ill.
5. What a Few Little Girls Did: A Story .....Mrs. Elizabeth W. Champney, New York City.
6. Poem.....Mr. Hezekiah Butterworth, Boston, Mass.

FRIDAY, JULY 14, 10 A. M. AND 3 P. M.

HALL OF COLUMBUS (Mr. GEORGE W. CABLE to preside.)

ASPECTS OF MODERN FICTION.

1. (*Subject not announced*.....Mr. George W. Cable, Northampton, Mass.
2. Form and Construction in the Novel.....Mrs. Mary Hartwell Catherwood, Hoopston, Ill.
3. *Realism in Fiction.....Mr. Douglas Sladen, London, England.
4. The Short Story.....Miss Alice French (Octave Thanet), Davenport, Iowa.
5. The Worth of the Novel.....Mrs. Anna Katherine Green Rohlfs, Buffalo, N. Y.
6. The New Motive in Fiction.....Mrs. Anna B. McMahan, Quincy, Ill.
7. (*Subject not announced*).....Thomas Nelson Page, Richmond, Va.
8. The Ethics of Realism.....Miss Mary Elizabeth Blake, Boston, Mass.
9. Ebb-Tide in Realism .....Major Joseph Kirkland, Chicago, Ill.

*Not expected to be read by the author.

PROGRAMME OF THE WORLD'S CONGRESS OF HISTORIANS AND HISTORICAL STUDENTS CONVENED IN CHICAGO DURING THE WEEK BEGINNING JULY 10, 1893.

William F. Poole, LL.D., *Chairman*. Lewis H. Boutell, LL.D., Hugh M. Scott, D.D., Franklin MacVeagh, Esq.
Committee of the World's Congress Auxiliary on a Congress of Historians and Historical Students.

Mrs. Charles Henrotin,
Chairman Woman's Committee on Literature, World's Congress Auxiliary.

PROGRAMME.

TUESDAY, JULY 11. Morning Session—10 a. m.—Hall 3.

1. The Organization of the Historical Congress.
2. The Inadequate Recognition of Diplomatists by Historians.....By Dr. James B. Angell, President University of Michigan.
3. The Moravians in America.....By Dr. Ethelbert D. Warfield, President Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
4. The Value of National Archives to a Nation's Life and Progress.....By Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth, of Saratoga, N. Y.
5. American Historical Nomenclature.....By Hon. Ainsworth R. Spofford, Librarian of Congress.
6. The Time-Element in American History.....By Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, of Cornell University.

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Evening Session—8 p. m.—Hall 3.

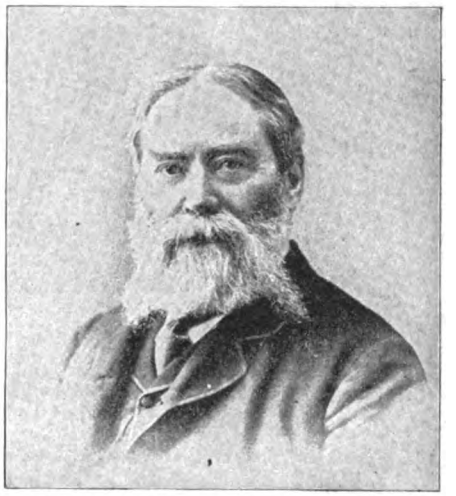
1. The Definition of History.....By Col. Wm. Preston Johnston, President Tulane University, New Orleans, La.
2. The Methods of Historical Investigation.....By Dr. James Schouler, of Boston.
3. The Historical Method of Writing the History of Christian Doctrine.....By Prof. Charles J. Little, of Northwestern University, Evanston.
4. The Historical Doctorate in America.....By Prof. Ephraim Emerton, of Harvard University.
5. Early Slavery in Illinois.....By Hon. Wm. Henry Smith, The Associated Press, Lake Forrest, Ill.
6. Mr. Seward's Position toward the South, November, 1860, to March 4, 1861.....By Dr. Frederic Bancroft, Washington, D. C.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12. Morning Session—10 a. m.—Hall 3.

1. The Present Status of Pre-Columbian Discovery.....By Hon. James Phinney Baxter, Portland, Me.
2. Prince Henry, the Navigator.....By Prof. Edward G. Bourne, of Adelbert College, Cleveland, O.
3. Personal Explorations of Watling Island, and at the Tomb of Columbus at Santo Domingo.....By Dr. Rudolph Cronau, of Leipzig, Germany.
4. The Economic Conditions of Spain in the Sixteenth Century .....By Prof. Bernard Moses, of the University of California.
5. The Union of Utrecht.....By Prof. Lucy M. Salmon, of Vassar College.

Evening Session—8 p. m.—Hall 3.

1. *The Intellectual Development of the Canadian People; a Historical and Critical Study.....By Dr. John George Bourinot, Clerk of the Canadian House of Commons.
2. English Popular Uprisings of the Middle Ages.....By Dr. George Kriehn, of Johns Hopkins University.
3. The Social Compact and Mr. Jefferson's Adoption of it.....By Prof. George P. Fisher, of Yale University.
4. The Relation of History to Politics.....By Prof. Jesse Macy, of Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa.
5. Lead Mining in Illinois and Wisconsin.....By Reuben G. Thwaites, Esq., Secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society.
6. The Significance of the Frontier in American History.....By Prof. Frederick J. Turner, of the University of Wisconsin.



James Russell Lowell.

THURSDAY, JULY 13. Morning Session—10 a. m.—Hall 3.

1. Roger Sherman in the National Constitutional Convention....By Dr. Lewis H. Boutell, Chicago.
2. The Eleventh Amendment of the Constitution ....By Prof. Chas. H. Haskins, of the University of Wisconsin.
3. The Historical Significance of the Missouri Compromise.....By Prof. James A. Woodburn, of the University of Indiana.
4. The First Legislative Assembly in America.....By Hon. Wm Wirt Henry, Richmond, Va.
5. Naturalization in the English Colonies of America.....By Miss Cora Start, Worcester, Mass.
6. The Thirty-first Parallel in American History.....By Prof. B. A. Hinsdale, of the University of Michigan.

Evening Session—8 p. m.—Hall 3.

1. The Historical Policy of the United States as to Annexation.....By Prof. Simeon E. Baldwin, of Yale University.
2. Colonial Virginia and its Part in Molding American Civilization.....By Miss Mary Mann Page Newton, of Richmond, Va.
3. The Origin of the Standing Committee System in American Legislative Bodies.....By Prof. J. Franklin Jameson, of Brown University.
4. General Joseph Martin and the War of the Revolution in the West.....By Prof. Stephen B. Weeks, of Trinity College, Durham, N. C.
5. The Annals of an Historic Town.....By Prof. F. W. Blackmar, of the University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

PROGRAMME OF THE LITERARY CONGRESS OF THE WOMAN'S BRANCH SECTION OF HISTORICAL LITERATURE.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12th, at 10 a. m., Room 20.

SOCIAL ASPECT OF HISTORY

Mrs. Mary Newberry Adams, *Chairman.*

Committee:

Mrs. Z. M. Humphrey — Mrs. Ralph Emerson, Mrs. D. B. Lyman, — Mrs. Annabel A. Goan, Mrs. R. P. Jennings. — Mrs. E. R. Underhill,

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PROGRAMME.

History of Central America, its Relation to Civilization; Woman's Aid to the Industrial and Social Life There.....Mrs. Cecil Charles, New York City.
History of Yucatan, an Insight in the General History, and of Woman's Relation to the Primitive Civilization.....Mme. Alice D. LePlongeon, Brooklyn, L. I. Read by Mrs. Mary Newberry Adams.
Holland as the Educator of the World from 1400 to 1700.....Mrs. Clara A. Warner, Johnson, Mich.
National Unity Dependent on National Literature; Power of Literature in Holding Nations Together. .....Mrs. Louise Mannheimer, Cincinnati.
Vita Nuova in Italy.....Miss Katherine Merrill Graydon, Oakland, Cal.
History of Swedish Women ....Dr. Ellen Fries, Sweden. Read by title only.
Influence of History on Spanish California..... .....Mrs. Jessie Freemont Perry, Los Angeles, Cal.
The Real Man Who Crossed the Plains.....Miss Cordelia Kirkland, San Francisco.
Influence of the Imagination on History. .....Abbess Augusta Theodosia Drane, Stone, England.

THE LITERARY CONGRESS OF THE WOMAN'S BRANCH SECTION OF COLONIAL HISTORY.

TUESDAY JULY 11th, 10 a. m., Room 20.

Mrs. James H. Walker, *Chairman.*
Committee:
Mrs. N. H. Blatchford. Miss Nina Lunt.

PROGRAMME.

MUSIC.
ROMEISS SISTERS.
Introductory Remarks..... Mrs. Benjamin Fessenden, D. A. R., Chicago.
ESSAY.
Prominent Women of the American Colonies.....Mrs. Eleanor H. Walworth, New York City. Read by Miss Nina Gray Lunt.
MUSIC.
ROMEISS SISTERS.
ESSAY.
Prominent Women of the American Republic..... Miss Laura P. Bucklin, Providence, R. I.
MUSIC.
ROMEISS SISTERS.
ESSAY.
Within the Homes of the American Colonists.....Miss Charlotte M. Halloway, New London, Conn.
Mothers and Wives of American Patriots.....Mrs. Mary H. Catherwood, Hoopeston, Ill.

PROGRAMME OF THE CONGRESS OF LIBRARIANS, JULY 12-15, 1893.

Frederick H. Hild, *Chairman*, Public Library Chicago. Daniel L. Shorey, Norman Williams.
General Committee of the World's Congress Auxiliary, on a Congress of Librarians.
Elizabeth A. Young, *Chairman.* Edith E. Clarke, Mrs. Eulora M. Jennings, Mary Imogen Crandall.
Women's Committee on a Congress of Librarians.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12th. Hall 6, 10 a. m.

1. Opening Address—Charles C. Bonney, President World's Congress Auxiliary.
2. Address—Mrs. Charles Henrotin, Vice-President Woman's Branch of the World's Congress Auxiliary.
3. Address—Melvil E. Dewey, President American Library Association.
4. C. A. Cutter, Formerly Librarian Boston Athenæum, Boston, "The Note of the American Library."
5. Frederick M. Crunden, Librarian Public Library, St. Louis, "The Librarian as Administrator."
6. Peter Cowell, Librarian Free Public Libraries, Liverpool, "How to Popularize the Public Library."
7. Miss M. S. R. James, Librarian People's Palace, London. "The People's Palace and Its Library."

THURSDAY, JULY 13th. Hall 6, 11 a. m.

1. Samuel S. Green, Librarian Public Library, Worcester Mass., "State Library Commission."
2. R. R. Bowker, *Library Journal*, New York City, "National Bibliography."
3. Richard Garnett, Keeper of Printed Books; British Museum, "The British Museum Catalogue and the United States."
4. William I. Fletcher, Librarian Amherst College, "Library Catalogues in the 20th Century."
5. Prof. R. C. Davis, Librarian University of Michigan, "An Overuse of Books "
6. Miss C. M. Hewins, Librarian Hartford Library Association, "The Pictorial Resources of a Small Library.

FRIDAY, JULY 14th. Hall 6, 10 a. m.

1. E. H. Woodruff, Librarian Leland Stanford University, Cal., "Present Tendencies in University Libraries."
2. Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, President Board of Directors, Chicago Public Library, "The Public Library in Its Relation to Education."

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3. Dr. Carl Dziatzko, Librarian University Library, Göttingen, "The International Mutual Relations of Libraries."
4. Miss Jessie Allan, Librarian Public Library, Omaha, "The Library as a Teacher of Literature."
5. Miss T. Kelso, Librarian Public Library, Los Angeles, "Some Economic Features of a Library."
6. Dr. O. Hartwig, Chief Librarian, Royal University Library, Halle, Germany, on "The Direct Interchange of Manuscripts Between Libraries."

SATURDAY, JULY 15th. Hall 6, 11 a. m.

1. Miss Katherine L. Sharp, Librarian Armour Institute, Chicago, "The Library Exhibit at the World's Fair."
2. Miss S. A. Cattell, Librarian Young Women's Christian Association, of New York, "The Y. W. C. A. Libraries as a Special Type of Library."
3. E. C. Richardson, Librarian College of New Jersey, Princeton, N. J., "Library Science and Other Sciences."
4. Miss M. W. Plummer, Librarian Pratt Institute Brooklyn, "The Library as a Factor in Social Development."
5. Giulia Sacconi-Ricci, Sub-Librarian at the Marucellian Library, Florence, "Observations on the Various Forms of Catalogues Used in Modern Libraries."
6. Jules Steeg, Délégué du Gouvernement Français, "School Libraries of France."
7. Giuseppe Fumagalli, Bibl. Nazionale di Brera, Milano, "On the Present Organization of Italian Libraries."

PROGRAMME OF THE CONGRESS OF PHILOLOGISTS.

Including the regular annual meeting of the American Philological Association, and special meetings of the Modern Language Association of America and the American Dialect Society; to be held in the Art Institute, Michigan Ave. and Adams St., Chicago, July 11-15, 1893, under the auspices of the World's Congress Auxiliary.

Committees of Arrangements.

William Morton Payne, *Chairman*, 1601 Prairie Avenue, Chicago.
Daniel Bonbright, Wm. Gardner Hale, James T. Hatfield,

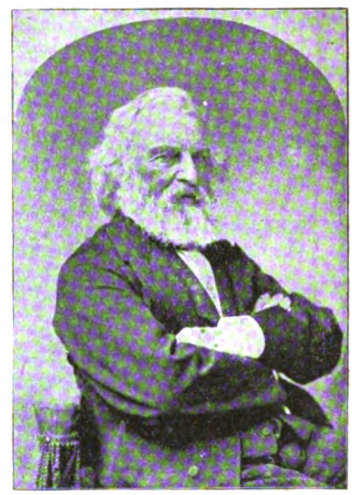
Committee on Philology of the World's Congress Auxiliary.

Mrs. Elizabeth A. Reed, *Chairman.* Miss Mary E. Burt, Miss Mary E. Vaughan,

Committee of the Woman's Branch of the World's Congress Auxiliary.

PRELIMINARY PROGRAMME.

An asterisk before title indicates that the author of the paper is not expected to be present.



Henry W. Longfellow.

TUESDAY, JULY 11, 9:30 a. m.—Hall 4.

1. *Social Status of Woman in Ancient Egypt.....Mrs. Helen Mary Tirard, London, England.
2. *Position of Woman in Ancient Greece and Rome.....Dr. James Grant Bey, Cairo, Egypt.
3. Domestic Life of the Early Egyptians.....Miss Georgia Louise Leonard, Washington, D. C.

There will be no other session at this hour.

TUESDAY, JULY 11, 3 p. m.—Hall 24.

AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

1. Critical Notes on Sophocles.....Dr. Mortimer Lamson Earle, Barnard College, New York, N. Y.
2. An Attempt to Throw Light on Certain Uses of the Latin Perfect Subjunctive.....Professor H. C. Elmar, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
3. On the Meaning of the Word *Satura*, and its Interpretations in Livy VII. 2.....Professor George L. Hendricksen, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
4. On Certain Aristotelian Terms in the Criticism of Tragedy.....Professor Horatio M. Reynolds, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
5. Note on Plautus, *Captivi*, 442 (*hunc inventum inveni*).....Professor W. S Scarborough, Wilberforce University.

Hall 4. 3 p. m.

1. *A Romance of Archæology.....Miss Mary Brodrick, College Hall, London, England.
2. *Greek Ceramography in relation to Greek Mythology.....Miss Jane Harrison, London, England.
3. *Schliemann's Excavations at Troy.....Mrs. Sophie Schliemann, Athens, Greece.

TUESDAY, JULY 11, 8 p. m.—Hall 4.

AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

Democracy and Education—Annual Address by the President .....Professor William Gardner Hale, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

An informal reception will occupy the remainder of the evening.

There will be no other session at this hour.

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WEDNESDAY, JULY 12, 9:30 a. m.—General Session, Hall 4.

1. *Canons of Etymological Investigation.....Professor Michel Bréal, Collège de France, Paris, France.
2. *The Connection between Indian and Greek Philosophy.....Professor Richard Garbe, University of Königsberg, Germany.
3. *Vedic Studies.....Professor M. Bloomfield, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

There will be no other session at this hour.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12, 3 p. m.—Hall 24.

AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

1. The Language of the Law.....Mr. H. L. Baker, Detroit, Mich.
2. Report of the Committee on the Reform of English Spelling.....Professor Francis A. March, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
3. Attraction in English.....Mr. Charles P. G. Scott, Philadelphia, Pa.
4. The Hebrew Names in the English Bible.....Professor W. O. Sproull, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Hall 4. 3 p. m.

1. The Book of the Dead and Other Religious Literature of the Early Egyptians.....Dr. Charles H. S. Davis, Meriden, Conn.
2. *The Civilization of Egypt—Its Place in History.....Mrs. Sara Y. Stevenson, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.
3. *The Great Altar at Dagr el Bahareé (Thebes).....Dr. Edouard Naville, Malagny, Switzerland. Presenting the hitherto unpublished results of the author's latest excavations.)

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12, 8 p. m.—Hall of Columbus.

1. *Assyrian Tablet Libraries.....Professor A. H. Sayce, University of Oxford, England.
2. *Babylonian and Assyrian Archæology.....Mr. Hormuzd Rassam, London, England.
3. The Archæology of Cyprus (with Lantern Illustrations)....Dr. Max Ohnefalsch Richter, Berlin, Ger.

There will be no other session at this hour.

THURSDAY, JULY 13, 9:30 a. m.—Hall 24.

AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

1. Some Suggestions Derived from a Comparison of the Histories of Thucydides and Procopius.....Dr. W. H. Parks, Denver, Colo.
2. The Ethical and Psychological Implications of the Style of Thucydides.....Professor Paul Shorey, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
3. The Remote Deliberative.....Professor William Gardner Hale, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
4. On the Origin of the So-called Root-determinatives.....Professor M. Bloomfield, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
5. Indo-European *sta* "*stand*" in Italic.....Professor Carl D. Buck, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Hall 26. 9:30 a. m.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.

1. The Language of the Sciences and a Universal Language.....Professor Francis A. March, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., President of the Association.
2. The Physiological Basis of Phonetic Law and Analogy.....Professor Gustaf E. Karsten, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Ind.
3. German Philology in America....Professor M. D. Learned, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

THURSDAY, JULY 13, 3. p. m.—Hall 24.

AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

1. *Fastigium* in Pliny, *N. H. xxxv*, 152.....Professor Harold N. Fowler, University of Texas, Texas.
2. Etymological Notes.....Professor Edwin W. Fay, University of Texas, Texas.
3. Librations in the Periods of Cicero.....Professor W. B. Owen, Lafayette College, Eaton, Pa.
4. On Greek Nouns in—ις—ιδος .....Professor B. I. Wheeler, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
5. (*a*) Plutarch as a Philologist. (*b*) Chrysippus and Varro as Sources of the *Dialogus* of Tacitus. (*c*) Solution of Some Problems in the *Dialogus*.....Professor Alfred Gudeman, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Penn.

Hall 26. 3 p. m.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.

1. On the Source of the Italian and English Idioms Meaning "To Take Time by the Forelock," with Special Reference to Bojardo's "Orlando Innamorato," Bk. ii. Cantos 7-9.....Professor John E. Matzke, Leland Stanford Junior University, Palo Alto, Cal.
2. Pedagogical Question in Germany.....Professor Emil Hausknecht, Victoria Lyceum, Berlin, Ger.
3. *A Survey of the Teaching of English Literature in America.....Professor Charles W. Kent, University of Virginia, Charlottsville, Va
4. On the Training of College and University Professors.....Professor A. Rambeau, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

THURSDAY, JULY 13, 8 p. m.—Hall of Columbus.

1. Old Testament History in the Light of Recent Discoveries..... .Dr. Wm. C. Winslow, Vice-President of Egypt Exploration Fund, Boston, Mass.

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2. *Resumé of Personal Explorations.....Professor W. M. Flinders Petrie, London University, London, England.
3. *The Bronze Age and Its Pattern Ornament. Being a Cotribution to the New Theory of the European Origin of the Aryan Races. (With Lantern Illustrations)..... .Professor William H. Goodyear, Brooklyn, N. Y.

There will be no other session at this hour.

FRIDAY, JULY 14, 9:30 a. m.—General Session, Hall 4.

1. (Title of paper to be announced).....Professor Hermann Osthoff, University of Heidelberg, Germany.
2. Unpublished Manuscript Treasures.....Mr. Theo. G. Pinches, British Museum, London, England.
3. The Scientific Emendation of Classical Texts.....Professor E. A. Sonnenschein, Mason's College, Birmingham, England.
4. Indogermanische Ablautprobleme..Professor Wilhelm Streitberg, University of Freiburg, Switzerland.

There will be no other session at this hour.

Hall 24. 3 p. m.

AMERICAN DIALECT SOCIETY.

1. The Language Used to Domestic Animals.....Professor W. H. Carruth, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.
2. (*a*) Loss of *R* in English through Dissimilation. (*b*) *Squint* and *Squinny*.....Professor George Hempl, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
3. Specimens of an Acadian Dialect Spoken about the North Shore of the Bay of Chaleur.....Professor J. Geddes, Jr., Boston University, Boston, Mass.
4. **Haf* and *Hæf*.....Mr. C. H Grandgent, Cambridge, Mass.

FRIDAY, JULY 14, 3 p. m.—Hall 4.

1. *Twenty Years' Gleaning in Roman Fields.....Miss Marie Molineux, Boston, Mass.
2. *Comparative Philology.....Professor Helen L. Webster, Wellesley College, Massachusetts.
3. *History of Christianity in Egypt During the First Century.....Miss Edith Floyer, Cairo, Egypt.

SATURDAY, JULY 15, 8 p. m.—Hall of Columbus.

4. *Koptic Art and Its Relation to Early Christian Ornament.....Professor Georg Ebers, Munich, Ger.
2. Cleopatra (with Chalk Illustrations).....Dr. Samuel A. Binion, New York, N. Y.

PROGRAMME OF THE WORLD'S FOLK-LORE CONGRESS, TO CONVENE IN CHICAGO DURING THE WEEK COMMENCING JULY 10, 1893.

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Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch. Joseph Kirkland.

Mrs. Potter Palmer, *Chairman.* Mrs. Fletcher S. Bassett, *Vice-Chairman.* Miss Elizabeth Head.
Mrs Nelson A. Miles. Dr. Sarah Hackett Stevenson.

Committees of the World's Congress Auxiliary on a Folk-Lore Congress.

MONDAY, JULY 10, 8 p. m.—Hall of Washington.

General Reception and Opening of the Literary Congresses, President C. C. Bonney.

TUESDAY, JULY 11, 10 a. m.

Honorary American President, Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, Vice-Pres. Chicago Folk-Lore Society. Honorary Foreign President,

Introductory Address—The Folk-Lore Congress .....Lieutenent F. S. Bassett, Chairman Folk-Lore Committee.
Address of Welcome, on behalf of the Chicago Folk-Lore Society..... Professor Wm. I. Knapp, Ph.D., LL.D., President Chicago Folk-Lore Society, University of Chicago.
Pennsylvania German Folk-Lore.....Dr. W. J. Hoffmann, U. S. Ethnologist, Washington, D. C.
Remarks.....Surgeon D N. Bertolette, U. S. Navy.
Cairene Beliefs..... Professor A. H. Sayce, Oxford, England, Vice-President English Folk-Lore Society.
The Fatality of Certain Places to Certain Persons.....Miss C. S. Hawkins-Dempster, London, England.
Remarks.....
Indian Love Songs.....Mrs. M. F. Severance. St. Paul, Minn.
Remarks..... Captain E. L. Huggins, U S. Army, Vice-President Chicago Folk-Lore Society.
"Unspoken".....Rev. Walter Gregor, Pitsligo, Aberdeenshire, Scotland.
Notes on Cinderella..... E. S. Hartland, F.S.A., Gloucester, England.
The Superstitions, Customs and Burial Rites of the Tribes of Northwestern America.....James Deans, Ass't of Dep't of Anthropology, World's Fair, Chicago.
Remarks.....Mr. Julian Ralph.
Canadian French Folk-Lore ..... Mons. H. Bergrand, Montreal, Canada.
Remarks .....

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TUESDAY, JULY 11, 2 p. m.—Hall Eight.

Honorary American President, Mrs. Mary Hartwell Catherwood. Honorary Foreign President, Walter Besant, Esq.

Legends from the North Frisian Islands, the Cradle of the Anglo-Saxon Race.....William George Black, F.R.S. (Scotland), Hon. Sec'y Archæological Society, Glasgow, Scotland
The Superstitions and Legends of the Wild Tribes of the Irrawaddy Valley ..... Monsieur Louis Vossion, French Consul, Philadelphia, Pa.
Remarks .....Monsieur T. Bilbaut, Special Commissioner for French Colonies.
The Northern Trolls..... David McRitchie, Edinburg, Scotland.
Remarks..... Prof. Frederick Starr, Vice-President Folk-Lore Society.
Myths, Symbols and Magic of East Africans, Illustrated by Objects Personally Collected.....Mrs. M. French Sheldon, London, England.
Remarks .....
The Cliff Dwellers of Southwestern America .....Mrs. Palmer Henderson, Minneapolis, Minn.
Remarks .....
Modern Greek Mythology..... Miss Lucy M. J. Garnett, London, England.

TUESDAY, JULY 11, 8 p. m.—Hall of Washington.

Honorary American President, Eugene Field. Honorary Foreign President, Hon. J. Abercromby, Vice-President English Folk-Lore Society, Edinburg.

Some Sacred Objects of Navajo Rites, Illustrated by Paraphernalia.....Surgeon Washington Matthews, U. S. Army, Vice-President Chicago Folk-Lore Society.
Comparative Afro-American Folk-Lore.....Mrs. Annah R. Watson, President Tennessee Branch Chicago Folk-Lore Society, Memphis, Tenn.
Remarks .....
The True Hiawatha.....Hon. Horatio Hale, President American Folk-Lore Society, Clinton, Ontario, Canada.
Remarks .....
Sioux Mythology.....Dr. Chas. A. Eastman, President Minnesota Branch Chicago Folk-Lore Society, St. Paul, Minn.
Sepulchres and Funeral Rites Among the Ancient and Modern South Slaves, Illustrated by Sketches and Engravings .....Vid Vulletic Vucasovic, Curzola, Dalmatia, Austria.
Creole Folk-Songs.....Geo. W. Cable, Vice-President Chicago Folk-Lore Society, Northampton, Mass.
Remarks .....

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12, 10 a. m.—Hall of Washington.

Honorary American President, Dr. S. H. Peabody, LL.D., Chief Department Liberal Arts, World's Fair. Honorary Foreign President, Marquis Ungaro, Italian Royal Commissioner-General.

Folk-Lore of South American Indians .....Marquis A. Colocci, Gesi, Italy.
The Symbolism of the Vase in Mythology, Ideography, Language, Hagiography, Literature and Folk-Lore.....Dr. Stanislas Prato, Professor Royal Lycée Agostino Nisso, Sessa, Aurunca, Italy.
Remarks .....
Bibliography of Italian Folk-Lore..... Dr. Guiseppe Pitre, Palermo, Sicily.
Bibliography of Folk-Lore.....Henry Carnoy, Director "La Tradition," Paris, France.
Remarks .....
Walloon Folk-Lore..... Dr. Eugene Mounseer, Director "Bulletin de Folk-Lore," Liege, Belgium.
Remarks .....
Superstitions, Taboo or Fady, Proverbs, Myths and Burial Rites of the Malagazy.....Frederick Taylor, New York.
Remarks .....Mr. Thomas Wilkinson, Tanarivo, Madigascar.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 12, 8 p. m.—Hall of Washington.

Honorary American President, Major General Nelson A. Miles, U. S. Army. Honorary Foreign President, Monsieur Chas Ploix, President Société des Traditions Populaires, Paris, France.

The Sign Language of the Plains Indians, Demonstrated by Chiefs.....First Lieutenant H. L. Scott, U. S. A., Fort Riley, Kan.
The Magic Poetry of the Finns, and its Application in Practice.....Hon. John Abercromby, Vice-President English Folk-Lore Society, Edinburg, Scotland.
Remarks .....
Voodooism..... .....Miss Mary A. Owen, St. Joseph, Mo.
Remarks .....
Venezuelan Folk Songs ..... Dr. A. Ernst, Commissioner from Venezuela, Caracas.
Remarks .....
Swedish Folk-Song ....Miss Concordia Löfving, Stockholm, Sweden.
Bulgarian Wedding Ceremonies, with Costumed Figures .....Prof. Vulko I. Shopoff, Commissioner General from Bulgaria, Sofia, Bulgaria.
Remarks ....L. J. Vance, New York.

(*To be continued.*)

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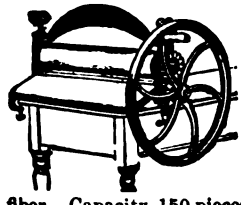

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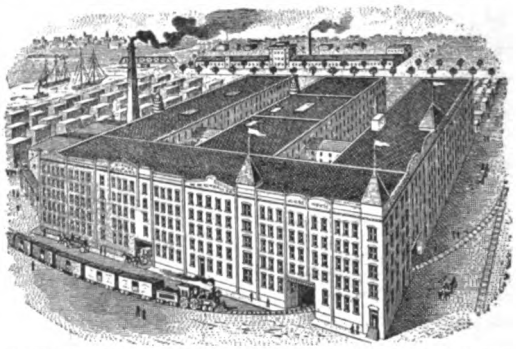

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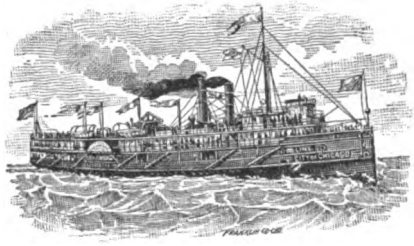

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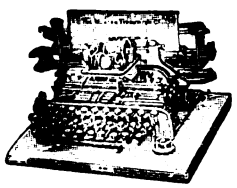

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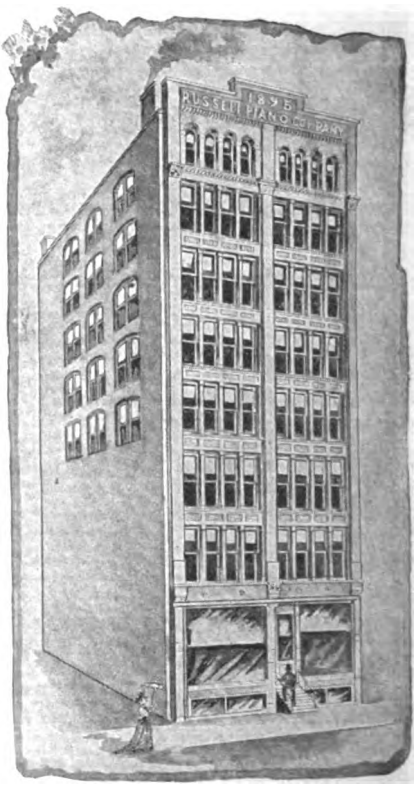

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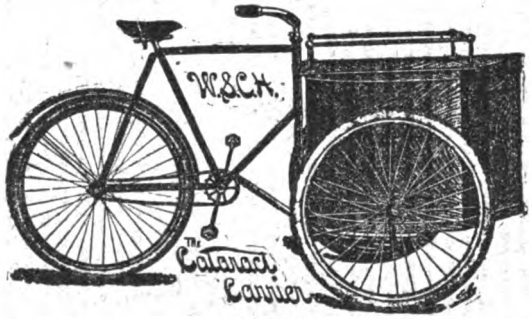

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The University Association

And World's Congress Extension

Its Plans, Purpose and Cost to Members

Origin. This Educational movement is the outgrowth of the famous World's Congresses, held in Chicago during the World's Columbian Exposition. These Congresses were attended by the leaders of thought from ninety-seven Countries. Thousands of lectures, essays, etc., were prepared by representative educators of the Nineteenth Century, bearing upon every department of human thought and progress.

It is the purpose of this Association to give the public an opportunity to participate in a series of intellectual entertainments founded upon the results of the World's Congresses. These valuable papers will be edited and presented to the members of the University Association, with their lessons.

Object. The object of the University Association is: To interest the people in the pursuit of useful knowledge. To bring to their homes and firesides the result of the profound study and investigation of the trained specialists in the different branches taught by them in the promi-
colleges and universities of the country.
carry on the work of self-culture by individual effort, or in local centers or organiza-
ng the lines of Normal School, University and World's Congress Extension.
us bring our Public Schools and the higher institutions of learning into close relation-
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These objects will be carried out by lessons carefully prepared, as above indicated, college and University professors, enriched by notes, side-lights, incidents, biogit discoveries, etc. These lessons will be issued monthly in large quarto form, containing the lessons for one month, with weekly review, aids, suggestions, etc., (same size and style as this issue), beautifully printed and illustrated, and will cd regularly to all members of the Association. Copious questions will accompany each lesson.

Where Association Centers are formed, a resident instructor will be selected by the Center, who will meet the members at stated times, and discuss and review the subjects studied. Quarterly examinations will be held by the local instructor.

At the close of each course of Study an examination will be held on questions furnished by the instructors. These questions will be sent from the Central office of the University Association to Local Deputy Examiners, who will conduct such examinations after the manner of the London University Examiners, or after that followed by Examiners for State Teachers' Certificates. Papers will then be sent to the home office where they will be passed upon by an Educational Committee.

Honors. Each Subscriber to the lessons of the Association will be presented with a handsome Certificate of Membership, duly signed by the officers of The University Association.

On passing a satisfactory examination at the close of each Study, members will be entitled to a Diploma, setting forth the work accomplished.

The knowledge and discipline gained will result in a most desirable culture, and will be of invaluable service to all, and especially to the student, wishing afterwards to enter any School, College or University.

History. As the knowledge of History is fundamental and thus of the highest importance, it will be the first topic presented for study. The different periods of Universal History will be so fully set forth that an intelligent view may be gained of the whole subject without the purchase of reference books. This plan will be followed in the succeeding courses of Study. It will, however, clearly be to the advantage of all to consult reference books, if able to do so.

Other courses. General Literature will follow that of Universal History. Other popular subjects, such as Astronomy, Geology, Civics and Political Economy, covering the field of important knowledge will follow in due order. Each course will be taught by eminent instructors connected with leading universities and colleges.

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