

west, which must have been augmented by the fact that they conveyed not only products of the Syrian land to the Euphrates and the Nile, but could also carry the goods which they obtained in exchange in Egypt to Babylonia, and what they obtained beyond the Euphrates to Egypt. At the same time the fabrics of Babylon and Egypt roused them to emulation, and called forth an industry among the Phenicians which we see producing woven stuffs, vessels of clay and metal, ornaments and weapons, and becoming pre eminent in the colouring of stuffs with the liquor of the purple fish which are found on the Phenician coasts. This industry required above all things metals, of which Babylonia and Egypt were no less in need, and when the purple fish of their own coasts were no longer sufficient for their extensive dyeing colouring matter had to be obtained. Large quantities of these fish produced a proportionately small amount of the dye. Copper ore was found in Cyprus, gold in the island of Thasos, and purple fish on the coasts of Hellas. When the fall of the kingdom of the Hittites and the overthrow of the Amorite princes in the south of Canaan augmented the numbers of the population on the coast, these cities were no longer content to obtain those possessions of the islands by merely landing and making exchanges with the inhabitants. Inter course with semi barbarous tribes must be protected by the sword. Good harbours were needed.

Thus arose protecting forts on the distant islands and coasts, which received the ships of the native land. In order to obtain the raw material necessary for their industry no less than to carry off the surplus of population, the Phenicians were brought to colonise Cyprus, Rhodes, Crete, Thera, Melos, Olarus, Samothrace, Imbros, Lemnos and Thasos. In the bays of Laconia and Argos, in the straits of Eubœa purple fish were found in extraordinary quantities.

We may conclude that the Phenicians must have set foot on Cyprus about the year 1250 B. C., and on the islands and coasts of Hellas about the year 1200 B. C. Thucydides observes that in ancient times the Phenicians had occupied the promontories of Sicily and the small islands lying around Sicily, in order to carry on trade with the Sicels. Diodorus Siculus tells us that when the Phenicians extended their trade to the western ocean they settled in the island of Melite (Malta), owing to its situation in the middle of the sea, and excellent harbours, in order to have a refuge for their ships.

On Sardinia also, as Diodorus tells us, the Phenicians planted many colonies. The mountains of Sardinia contained iron, silver, and lead.

The legend of the Greeks makes Heracles, i. e. Baal Melkarth, lord of the whole West. As a fact, the colonies of the Phenicians went beyond Sardinia in this direction. Their first colonies on the north coast of Africa appear to have been planted where the shore runs out nearest Sicily; Hippo was apparently regarded as the oldest colony. In the legends of the coins mentioned above Hippo is named beside Tyre and Citium as a daughter of Sidon. . . . Ityke (atala, settlement, Utica), on the mouth of the Bagradas (Medjerda), takes the next place after this Hippo, if indeed it was not founded before it. Aristotle tells us that the Phenicians stated that Ityke was built 287 years before Carthage, and Pliny maintains that Ityke was founded 1,176

years before his time. As Carthage was founded in the year 846 B. C. [see CARTHAGE] Ityke, according to Aristotle's statement, was built in the year 1138 B. C. With this the statement of Pliny agrees. He wrote in the years 52-77 A. D., and therefore he places the foundation of Ityke in the year 1126 or 1100 B. C. About the same time, i. e. about the year 1100 B. C., the Phenicians had already reached much further to the west.

When their undertakings succeeded according to their desire and they had collected great treasures, they resolved to traverse the sea beyond the pillars of Heracles, which is called Oceanus. First of all on their passage through these pillars they founded upon a peninsula of Europe a city which they called Gadeira.

This foundation of Gades, which on the coins is called Gadir and Agadir, i. e. wall, fortification, the modern Cadix, and without doubt the most ancient city in Europe which has preserved its name, is said to have taken place in the year 1100 B. C. If Ityke was founded before 1100 B. C. or about that time, we have no reason to doubt the founding of Gades soon after that date. Hence the ships of the Phenicians would have reached the ocean about the time when Tiglath Pileser I. left the Tigris with his army, trod the north of Syria and looked on the Mediterranean. — M. Duncker *The History of Antiquity*, bk 3 ch 3 (v 3). — The typical Phenician colony was only a trading station inhabited by dealers, who had not ceased to be counted as citizens of the parent State.

In Phenicia itself the chief object of public interest was the maintenance and extension of foreign trade. The wealth of the country depended on the profits of the merchants and it was therefore the interest of the Government to encourage and protect the adventures of the citizens. Unlike the treasures or curiosities imported by the fleets of royal adventurers, Phenician imports were not intended to be consumed within the country, but to be exchanged for the most part for other commodities. The products of all lands were brought to market there, and the market people, after supplying all their own wants in kind, still had commodities to sell at a profit to the rest of the world. The Government did not seek to retain a monopoly of this profit, on the contrary, private enterprise seems to have been more untrammelled than at any time before the present century. But individuals and the State were agreed in desiring to retain a monopoly of foreign traffic as against the rest of the world, hence the invention of 'Phenician lies' about the dangers of the sea, and the real dangers which 'Tyrian seas' came to possess for navigators of any other nation.

Phenician traders were everywhere first in the field, and it was easy for them to persuade their barbarous customers that foreigners of any other stock were dangerous and should be treated as enemies. They themselves relied more on stratagem than on open warfare to keep the seas, which they considered their own, free from other navigators.

Silver and gold, wool and purple, couches inlaid with ivory, Babylonish garments and carpets, unguents of all sorts, female slaves and musicians, are indicated by the comic poets as forming part of the typical cargo of a Phenician merchantman, the value of which in many cases would reach a far higher figure than a small ship-owner or captain could command.

As a consequence, a good deal of banking or money-lending business was done by the wealthy members of the great Corporation of Merchants and Ship-owners. The Phenicians had an evil reputation with the other nations of the Mediterranean for sharp practices, and the custom of lending money at interest was considered, of course wrongly, a Phenician invention, though it is possible that they led the way in the general substitution of loans at interest for the more primitive use of antichretic pledges. To the Greeks the name Phenician seems to have called up the same sort of association as those which still cling to the name of Jew in circles which make no boast of tolerance; and it is probable enough that the first, like the second, great race of wandering traders was less scrupulous in its dealings with aliens than compatriots. . . . So far as the Punic race may be supposed to have merited its evil reputation, one is tempted to account for the fact by the character of its principal staples. All the products of all the countries of the world circulated in Phenician merchantmen, but the two most considerable, and most profitable articles of trade in which they dealt were human beings and the precious metals. The Phenicians were the slave-dealers and the money-changers of the Old World. And it is evident that a branch of trade, which necessarily follows the methods of piracy, is less favourable to the growth of the social virtues than the cultivation of the ground, the domestication of animals, or the arts and manufactures by which the products of nature are applied to new and varied uses. Compared with the trade in slaves, that in metals—gold silver, copper and tin—must seem innocent and meritorious, yet the experience of ages seems to show that, somehow or other, mining is not a moralizing industry. Sidon was famous in Homer's time for copper or bronze, and Tyre in Solomon's for bronze (the 'brass' of the Authorized Version), and the Phenicians retailed the work of all other metallurgists as well as their own, as they retailed the manufactures of Egypt and Babylonia, and the gums and spices of Arabia. . . . Two things are certain with regard to the continental commerce of Europe before the written history of its northern countries begins. Tin and amber were conveyed by more than one route from Cornwall and the North Sea to Mediterranean ports. In the latter case the traders proceeded up the Rhine and the Aar, along the Jura to the Rhone, and thence down to Marseilles, and also across the Alps, by a track forking off, perhaps at Grenoble, into the valley of the Po, and so to the Adriatic. . . . Apart from the Phenician sea trade, Cornish tin was conveyed partly by water to Armorica and to Marseilles through the west of France, but also to the east of England (partly overland by the route known later as the Pilgrims' Way), and from the east of Kent, possibly to the seat of the amber trade, as well as to a route through the east of France, starting from the short Dover crossing."—E. J. Simcox, *Primitive Civilizations*, v. 1, pp. 387-403.—"The epigraphic texts left us by the Phenicians are too short and dry to give us any of those vivid glimpses into the past that the historian loves. When we wish to make the men of Tyre and Sidon live again, when we try to see them as they moved in those seven or eight centuries during which they were supreme

in the Mediterranean, we have to turn to the Greeks, to Herodotus and Homer for the details of our picture; it is in their pages that we are told how these eastern traders made themselves indispensable to the half-savage races of Europe. . . . The Phenicians carried on their trade in a leisurely way. It consisted for the most part in exchanging their manufactured wares for the natural produce of the countries they visited, it was in conformity with the spirit of the time, and, although it inspired distrust, it was regular enough in its methods. Stories told by both Homer and Herodotus show them to us as abductors of women and children, but in the then state of the world even deeds like those described would soon be forgotten, and after a time the faithless traders would be readmitted for the sake of the wares they brought. . . . Seeing how great their services were to the civilization of Greece and Rome, and how admirable were those virtues of industry, activity, and splendid courage that they brought to their work, how is it that the classic writers speak of the Phenicians with so little sympathy? and why does the modern historian, in spite of his breadth and freedom from bias, find it difficult to treat them even with justice? It is because, in spite of their long relations with them, the peoples of Greece and Italy never learnt to really know the Phenicians or to understand their language, and, to answer the second question, because our modern historians are hardly better informed. Between Greece and Rome on the one hand and Phenicia and Carthage on the other, there was a barrier which was never beaten down. They traded and fought, but they never concluded a lasting and cordial peace; they made no effort to comprehend each other's nature, but retained their mutual, ignorant antipathy to the very end. . . . That full justice has never been done to the Phenicians is partly their own fault. They were moved neither by the passion for truth nor by that for beauty; they cared only for gain, and thanks to the condition of the world at the time they entered upon the scene, they could satisfy that lust to the full. In the barter trade they carried on for so many centuries the advantage must always have been for the more civilized, and the Phenicians used and abused that advantage. Tyre and Sidon acquired prodigious wealth; the minds of their people were exclusively occupied with the useful; they were thinking always of the immediate profit to themselves in every transaction, and to such a people the world readily denies justice, to say nothing of indulgence. . . . No doubt it may be said that it was quite without their goodwill that the Phenicians helped other nations to shake off barbarism and to supply themselves with the material of civilized life. That, of course, is true, but it does not diminish the importance of the results obtained through their means. Phenicia appropriated for herself all the inventions and recipes of the old eastern civilizations and by more than one happy discovery, and especially by the invention of the alphabet, she added to the value of the treasure thus accumulated. Whether she meant it or not, she did, as a fact, devote her energies to the dissemination of all this precious knowledge from the very day on which she entered into relations with those tribes on the Grecian islands and on the continent of Europe which were as yet strangers to political life.

... At the time of their greatest expansion, the true Phœnicians numbered, at the very most, a few hundreds of thousands. It was with such scanty numbers that they contrived to be present everywhere, to construct ports of refuge for their ships, factories for their merchants and warehouses for their goods. These 'English of antiquity,' as they have been so well called, upheld their power by means very similar to those employed by England, who has succeeded for two centuries in holding together her vast colonial empire by a handful of soldiers and a huge fleet of ships. The great difference lies in the fact that Tyre made no attempt to subjugate and govern the nations she traded with"—G. Perrot and C. Chipiez, *Hist. of Art in Phœnicia*, v. 2, ch. 6.—The ascendancy among Phœnician cities passed at some early day from Sidon to Tyre, and the decline of the former has been ascribed to an attack from the Philistines of Ascalon, which occurred about 1250 or 1200 B. C.—G. Rawlinson, *Hist. of Phœnicia*, ch. 14.—See TYRE and TRADE, ANCIENT.

Coinage and Money. See MONEY AND BANKING: PHœNICIA.

B. C. 850-538.—Subjection to Assyria and Babylonia.—About 850 B. C. "the military expeditions of the Assyrians began to reach Southern Syria, and Phœnician independence seems to have been lost. We cannot be sure that the submission was continuous, but from the middle of the ninth till past the middle of the eighth century there occur in the contemporary monuments of Assyria plain indications of Phœnician subjection, while there is no evidence of resistance or revolt. . . . About B. C. 748 the passive submission of Phœnicia to the Assyrian yoke began to be exchanged for an impatience of it, and frequent efforts were made, from this date till Nineveh fell, to re-establish Phœnician independence. These efforts for the most part failed, but it is not improbable that finally, amid the troubles under which the Assyrian empire succumbed, success crowned the nation's patriotic exertions, and autonomy was recovered. . . . Scarcely, however, had Assyria fallen when a new enemy appeared upon the scene. Necho of Egypt, about B. C. 608, conquered the whole tract between his own borders and the Euphrates. Phœnicia submitted or was reduced, and remained for three years an Egyptian dependency. Nebuchadnezzar, in B. C. 605, after his defeat of Necho at Carchemish, added Phœnicia to Babylon; and, though Tyre revolted from him eight years later, B. C. 598, and resisted for thirteen years all his attempts to reduce her, yet at length she was compelled to submit, and the Babylonian yoke was firmly fixed on the entire Phœnician people. It is not quite certain that they did not shake it off upon the death of the great Babylonian king; but, on the whole, probability is in favour of their having remained subject till the conquest of Babylon by Cyrus, B. C. 538."—G. Rawlinson, *Manual of Ancient Hist.*, bk. 1, pt. 1, sect. 6.—"It appears to have been only a few years after Nebuchadnezzar's triumphant campaign against Neco that renewed troubles broke out in Syria. Phœnicia revolted under the leadership of Tyre; and about the same time Jehoiakim, the Jewish king, having obtained a promise of aid from the Egyptians, renounced his allegiance. Upon this, in the seventh year (B. C. 598), Nebuchadnezzar pro-

ceeded once more into Palestine at the head of a vast army, composed partly of his allies, the Medes, partly of his own subjects. He first invested Tyre, but finding that city too strong to be taken by assault, he left a portion of his army to continue the siege, while he himself pressed forward against Jerusalem. . . . The siege of Tyre was still being pressed at the date of the second investment of Jerusalem. . . . Tyre, if it fell at the end of its thirteen years' siege, must have been taken in the very year which followed the capture of Jerusalem, B. C. 585. . . . It has been questioned whether the real Tyre, the island city, actually fell on this occasion (Heeren, *As. Nat.* vol. ii p. 11, E. T., Kenrick, *Phœnicia*, p. 390), chiefly because Ezekiel says, about B. C. 570, that Nebuchadnezzar had 'received no wages for the service that he served against it.' (Ezek. xxix. 18.) But this passage may be understood to mean that he had had no sufficient wages. Berosus expressly stated that Nebuchadnezzar reduced all Phœnicia."—The same, *Five Great Monarchies. Babylonia*, ch. 8, and footnote.

Later commerce.—"The commerce of Phœnicia appears to have reached its greatest height about the time of the rise of the Chaldean power at Babylon. Its monopoly may have been more complete in earlier times, but the range of its traffic was more confined. Nebuchadnezzar was impelled to attempt its conquest by a double motive—to possess himself of its riches and to become master of its harbours and its navy. The prophet Ezekiel (ch. 27), foretelling his siege of Tyre, has drawn a picture of its commerce, which is the most valuable document for its commercial history that has come down to us.

Directly or indirectly, the commerce of Tyre, in the beginning of the sixth century before Christ, thus embraced the whole known world. By means of the Arabian and the Persian gulfs it communicated with India and the coast of Africa towards the equator. On the north its vessels found their way along the Euxine to the frozen borders of Scythia. Beyond the Straits of Gibraltar, its ships, or those of its colony of Gades, visited the British isles for tin, if they did not penetrate into the Baltic to bring back amber. Ezekiel says nothing of the voyages of the Tyrians in the Atlantic ocean, which lay beyond the limits of Jewish geography; but it is probable that they had several centuries before passed the limits of the Desert on the western coast of Africa, and by the discovery of one of the Canaries had given rise to the Greek fable of the Islands of the Blessed."—J. Kenrick, *Phœnicia*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: A. H. L. Heeren, *Hist. Researches*, v. 1.—J. Yeats, *Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce*, ch. 8.—G. Rawlinson, *Hist. of Phœnicia*, ch. 9, and 14, sect. 2.—R. Bosworth Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*, ch. 1.

B. C. 332, and after.—Final history. See TYRE.

PHœNIX CLUBS. See IRELAND: A. D. 1858-1867.

PHœNIX PARK MURDERS, The. See IRELAND: A. D. 1882.

PHOKIANS, The.—"The Phokians [in ancient Greece] were bounded on the north by the little territories called Doris and Dryopis, which separated them from the Mallians,—on the north-

east, east and south-west by the different branches of Lokrians,—and on the south east by the Boeotians. They touched the Eubœan sea . . . at Daphnus, the point where it approaches nearest to their chief town, Elateia; their territory also comprised most part of the lofty and bleak range of Parnassus, as far as its southerly termination, where a lower portion of it, called Kirphis, projects into the Corinthian Gulf, between the two bays of Antikyra and Krissa, the latter, with its once fertile plain, was in proximity to the sacred rock of the Delphian Apollo. Both Delphi and Krissa originally belonged to the Phokian race. But the sanctity of the temple, together with Lacedæmonian aid, enabled the Delphians to set up for themselves, disavowing their connexion with the Phokian brotherhood. Territorially speaking, the most valuable part of Phokis consisted in the valley of the river Kephissus. . . . It was on the projecting mountain ledges and rocks on each side of this river that the numerous little Phokian towns were situated. Twenty two of them were destroyed and broken up into villages by the Amphiktyonic order, after the second Sacred War.—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 3.—See SACRED WARS.

PHORMIO, and the sea victories of. See GREECE B. C. 429–427.

PHRATRIÆ. See PHYLÆ, also, ATHENS B. C. 510–507.

PHRYGIAN CAP OF LIBERTY, The. See LIBERTY CAP.

PHRYGIAN SIBYL. See SIBYLS.

PHRYGIANS.—MYSIANS.—"When the Assyrians in the thirteenth century [B. C.] advanced past the springs of the Euphrates into the western peninsula [of Asia Minor], they found, on the central table-land, a mighty body of native population—the Phrygians. The remains of their language tend to show them to have been the central link between the Greeks and the elder Aryans. They called their Zeus Bagalus ('baga' in ancient Persian signifying God, 'bhaga,' in Sanscrit, fortune), or Sabazius, from a verb common to Indian and Greek, and signifying 'to adore.' They possessed the vowels of the Greeks, and in the terminations of words changed the 'm' into 'n.' Kept off from the sea, they, it is true, lagged behind the coast tribes in civilization, and were regarded by these as men slow of understanding and only suited for inferior duties in human society. Yet they too had a great and independent post of their own, which is mirrored in the native myths of their kings. The home of these myths is especially in the northern regions of Phrygia, on the banks of the springs which feed the Sangarius, flowing in mighty curves through Bithynia into Pontus. Here traditions survived of the ancient kings of the land, of Gordius and Midas."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3.—"As far as any positive opinion can be formed respecting nations of whom we know so little, it would appear that the Mysians and Phrygians are a sort of connecting link between Lydians and Karians on one side, and Thracians (European as well as Asiatic) on the other—a remote ethnical affinity pervading the whole. Ancient migrations are spoken of in both directions across the Hellespont and the Thracian Bosphorus. It was the opinion of some that Phrygians, Mysians and Thracians had immigrated into Asia from Europe. . . . On the other

hand, Herodotus speaks of a vast body of Teukrians and Mysians who, before the Trojan war, had crossed the strait from Asia into Europe. . . . The Phrygians also are supposed by some to have originally occupied an European soil on the borders of Macedonia, . . . while the Mysians are said to have come from the north eastern portions of European Thrace south of the Danube, known under the Roman empire by the name of Mœsia. But with respect to the Mysians there was also another story, according to which they were described as colonists emanating from the Lydians. . . . And this last opinion was supported by the character of the Mysian language, half Lydian and half Phrygian."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 16.—The Mysians occupied the north-western corner of Asia Minor, including the region of the Troad. "In the works of the great Greek writers which have come down to us, notably, in the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, the Phrygians figure but little. To the Greeks generally they were known but as the race whence most of their slaves were drawn, as a people branded with the qualities of slaves, idleness, cowardice, effeminacy. . . . From the Phrygians came those orgiastic forms of religious cult which were connected with the worship of Dionysus and of the Mother of the Gods, orgies which led alike to sensual excess and to hideous self mutilations, to semi-religious frenzy and bestial immoralities, against which the strong good-sense of the better Greeks set itself at all periods, though it could not deprive them of their attractions for the lowest of the people. And yet it was to this race sunk in corruption, except when roused by frenzy, that the warlike Trojan stock belonged. Hector and Aeneas were Phrygians; and the most manly race of the ancient world, the Romans, were proud of their supposed descent from shepherds of Phrygia."—P. Gardner, *New Chapters in Greek History*, ch. 2.

PHUT. See LIBYANS.

PHYLÆ.—PHRATRIÆ.—GENTES.—"In all Greek states, without exception, the people was divided into tribes or Phylæ, and those again into the smaller subdivisions of Phratræ and gentes, and the distribution so made was employed to a greater or less extent for the common organisation of the State."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiquities of Greece: The State*, pt. 2, ch. 4.—The four Attic tribes were called, during the later period of that division, the Geleontes, Hopletes, Ægikoreis, and Argadeis. "It is affirmed, and with some etymological plausibility, that the denominations of these four tribes must originally have had reference to the occupations of those who bore them,—the Hopletes being the warrior-class, the Ægikoreis goat-herds, the Argadeis artisans, and the Geleontes (Teleontes or Gedeontes) cultivators. Hence some authors have ascribed to the ancient inhabitants of Attica an actual primitive distribution into hereditary professions or castes, similar to that which prevailed in India and Egypt. If we should even grant that such a division into castes might originally have prevailed, it must have grown obsolete long before the time of Solon; but there seem no sufficient grounds for believing that it ever did prevail. . . . The four tribes, and the four names (allowing for some variations of reading), are therefore historically verified. But neither the time of their introduction, nor

their primitive import, are ascertainable matters.

... These four tribes may be looked at either as religious and social aggregates, in which capacity each of them comprised three Phratryes and ninety Gentes; or as political aggregates, in which point of view each included three Trittyes and twelve Naukraries. Each Phratry contained thirty Gentes; each Tritty comprised four Naukraries: the total numbers were thus 360 Gentes and 48 Naukraries. Moreover, each gens is said to have contained thirty heads of families, of whom therefore there would be a total of 10,800. ... That every Phratry contained an equal number of Gentes, and every Gens an equal number of families, is a supposition hardly admissible without better evidence than we possess. But apart from this questionable precision of numerical scale, the Phratryes and Gentes themselves were real, ancient and durable associations among the Athenian people, highly important to be understood. The basis of the whole was the house, hearth or family,—a number of which, greater or less, composed the Gens, or Genos. This Gens was therefore a clan, sept, or enlarged, and partly fictitious, brotherhood. ... All these phratric and gentile associations, the larger as well as the smaller, were founded upon the same principles and tendencies of the Grecian mind—a coalescence of the idea of worship with that of ancestry, or of communion in certain special religious rites with communion of blood, real or supposed. The god, or hero, to whom the assembled members offered their sacrifices, was conceived as the primitive ancestor, to whom they owed their origin. ... The revolution of Kleisthenes in 509 B. C. abolished the old tribes for civil purposes, and created ten new tribes,—leaving the Phratryes and Gentes unaltered, but introducing the local distribution according to demes or cantons, as the foundation of his new political tribes. A certain number of demes belonged to each of the ten Kleisthenean tribes (the demes in the same tribes were not usually contiguous, so that the tribe was not coincident with a definite circumscription), and the deme, in which every individual was then registered, continued to be that in which his descendants were also registered. ... The different Gentes were very unequal in dignity, arising chiefly from the religious ceremonies of which each possessed the hereditary and exclusive administration, and which, being in some cases considered as of pre-eminent sanctity in reference to the whole city, were therefore nationalized. Thus the Eumolpidae and Kerykes, who supplied the Hierophant and superintended the mysteries of the Eleusinian Demeter—and the Butadae, who furnished the priestess of Athene Polias as well as the priest of Poseidon Erechtheus in the acropolis—seem to have been revered above all the other Gentes. When the name Butadae was selected in the Kleisthenean arrangement as the name of a deme, the holy Gens so called adopted the distinctive denomination of Eteobutadae, or 'The true Butadae.'—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: Fustel de Coulanges, *The Ancient City*, bk. 8, ch. 2.

PHYLARCH. See TAXIARCH.

PHYLE. See ATHENS: B. C. 404-403.

PHYSICIANS, First English College of. See MEDICAL SCIENCE, 16TH CENTURY.

PIACENZA. See PLACENTIA.

PIAGNONI, The. See FLORENCE: A. D. 1490-1498.

PIANKISHAWS, The. See AMERICAN AB-ORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY, and SACS, &C.

PIASTS, OR PIASSES, The. See POLAND: BEGINNINGS, &C.

PIAVE, Battle on the. See GERMANY: A. D. 1809 (JANUARY-JUNE).

PI-BESETH. See BUBASTIS.

PICARDS, The Religious Sect of the.—“The reforming movement of Bohemia [15th century] had drawn thither persons from other countries whose opinions were obnoxious to the authorities of the church. Among these, the most remarkable were known by the name of Picards,—apparently a form of the word ‘beghards’ [see BEGUINES], which ... was then widely applied to sectaries. These Picards appear to have come from the Low Countries.”—J. C. Robertson, *Hist. of the Christian Church*, v. 8, p. 24.—See, also, PAULICANS.

PICARDY.—PICARDS.—“Whimsical enough is the origin of the name of Picards, and from thence of Picardie, which does not date earlier than A. D. 1200. It was an academical joke, an epithet first applied to the quarrelsome humour of those students in the university of Paris who came from the frontier of France and Flanders.”—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 58, foot-note 1.

PICENIANS, The. See SABINES.

PICHEGRU, Campaign and political intrigues of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1794 (MARCH-JULY); 1794-1795 (OCTOBER-MAY); 1795 (JUNE-DECEMBER); 1797 (SEPTEMBER); and 1804-1805.

PICHINCHA, Battle of (1822). See COLOMBIAN STATES: A. D. 1819-1830.

PICKAWILLANY. See OHIO (VALLEY): A. D. 1748-1754.

PICKENS, FORT, Defense of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1860-1861 (DEC.—FEB.)

PICTAVI. See POITIERS: ORIGINAL NAMES.

PICTONES, The.—The Pictones (of ancient Gaul), whose name is represented by Poitou, and the Santones (Saintonge) occupied the coast between the lower Loire and the Garonne.

PICTS AND SCOTS. See SCOTLAND: THE PICTS AND SCOTS.

PICTURE-WRITING. See AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING; also HIEROGLYPHICS.

PIE-POWDER COURT, The.—“There was one special court [in London, during the Middle Ages], which met to decide disputes arising on market-days, or among travellers and men of business, and which reminds us of the old English tendency to decide quickly and definitely, without entering into any long written or verbal consideration of the question at issue; and this was known as the Pie-powder Court, a corruption of the old French words, ‘pieds poudres,’ the Latin ‘pedes pulverizati,’ in which the complainant and the accused were supposed not to have shaken the dust from off their feet.”—R. Pauli, *Pictures of Old England*, ch. 12.

PIECES OF EIGHT. See SPANISH COINS.

PIEDMONT: Primitive inhabitants. See LIGURIANS.

History. See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT.

PIEDMONT, Va., Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MAY-JUNE: VIRGINIA) THE CAMPAIGNING IN THE SHENANDOAH.

PIEGANS.

PIEGANS. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: BLACKFEET.

PIERCE, Franklin: Presidential election and administration. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1852, to 1857.

PIGNEROL: A. D. 1630-1631.—Siege, capture and purchase by the French. See ITALY A. D. 1627-1631.

A. D. 1648.—Secured to France in the Peace of Westphalia. See GERMANY A. D. 1648

A. D. 1659.—Ceded to France. See FRANCE A. D. 1659-1661

A. D. 1697.—Ceded to the Duke of Savoy. See SAVOY: A. D. 1580-1713.

PIGNEROL, Treaty of. See WALDENSES A. D. 1655

PIKE, FORT, Seizure of. See UNITED STATES OF AM. A. D. 1860-1861 (DEC.—FEB.)

PIKE'S PEAK MINING REGION. See COLORADO A. D. 1806-1876

PILATE, Pontius. See JEWS B. C. 40—A. D. 44; and A. D. 26

PILGRIMAGE OF GRACE, The. See ENGLAND A. D. 1535-1539

PILGRIMS.—PILGRIM FATHERS.—The familiar designation of the little company of English colonists who sailed for the New World in the Mayflower. See INDEPENDENTS, and MASSACHUSETTS A. D. 1620.

PILLOW, Fort: A. D. 1862.—Evacuated by the Confederates. See UNITED STATES OF AM. A. D. 1862 (JUNE ON THE MISSISSIPPI)

A. D. 1864.—Capture and Massacre. See UNITED STATES OF AM. A. D. 1864 (APRIL: TENNESSEE)

PILNITZ, The Declaration of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1791 (JULY—SEPTEMBER).

PILOT KNOB, Attack on. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MARCH—OCTOBER. ARKANSAS—MISSOURI)

PILSEN, Capture by Count Ernest of Mansfeld (1618). See GERMANY. A. D. 1618-1620

PILUM, The.—The Roman spear was called the pilum. "It was, according to [Polybius], a spear having a very large iron head or blade, and this was carried by a socket to receive the shaft. . . . By the soldiers of the legions, to whom the use of the pilum was restricted, this weapon was both hurled from the hand as a javelin, and grasped firmly, as well for the charge as to resist and beat down hostile attacks."—P. Lacombe, *Arms and Armour*, ch. 4

PIMAN FAMILY, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: PIMAN FAMILY.

PIMENTEIRAS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: GUCK OR COCO GROUP.

PINDARIS, OR PINDHARIES, The. See INDIA: A. D. 1816-1819.

PINE TREE MONEY.—Between 1652 and 1684 the colony of Massachusetts coined silver shillings and smaller coins, which bore on their faces the rude figure of a pine tree, and are called "pine tree money." See MONEY AND BANKING: 17TH CENTURY.

PINEROLO. See PIGNEROL.

PINKIE, Battle of (1547). See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1544-1548.

PIPE ROLLS. See EXCHEQUER.

PISA.

PIPPIN, OR PEPIN, of Heristal, Austrasian Mayor of the Palace, and Duke of the Franks, A. D. 687-714 Pippin, or Pepin, the Short, Duke and Prince of the Franks, 741-752; King, 752-768

PIQUETS AND ZINGLINS. See HAYTI. A. D. 1804-1880.

PIRACY. See CILICIA, TRADE, MEDIEVAL: TRADE AND PIRACY, AMERICA: A. D. 1639-1700. BARBARY STATES.

PIRÆUS, The.—This was the important harbor of Athens, constructed and fortified during and after the Persian wars, a work which the Athenians owed to the genius and energy of Themistocles. The name was sometimes applied to the whole peninsula in which the Piræus is situated, and which contained two other harbors—Munychia and Zea Phalerum, which had previously been the harbor of Athens, lay to the east. The walls built by Themistocles "were carried round the whole of the peninsula in a circumference of seven miles, following the bend of its rocky rim, and including the three harbour-bays. At the mouths of each of the harbours a pair of towers rose opposite to one another at so short a distance that it was possible to connect them by means of chains: these were the locks of the Piræus. The walls, about 16 feet thick, were built without mortar, of rectangular blocks throughout, and were raised to a height of 30 feet by Themistocles who is said to have originally intended to give them double that height."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece*, bk. 8, ch. 2.

Also in W. M. Lenke, *Topography of Athens*, sect. 10—See also, ATHENS. B. C. 469-480.

PIRMASENS, Battle of (1793). See FRANCE A. D. 1793 (JULY—DECEMBER) PROGRESS OF THE WAR.

PIRNA, Saxon Surrender at. See GERMANY A. D. 1756

PIRU, OR CHONTAQUIROS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES ANDESIANS.

PISA, Greece. See ELIS; and OLYMPIC GAMES.

PISA, Italy: Origin of the city.—Early growth of its commerce and naval power.—Conquest of Sardinia.—Strabo and others have given Pisa a Grecian origin. "Situated near the sea upon the triangle formed in past ages, by the confluence of the two rivers, the Arno and the Serchio: she was highly adapted to commerce and navigation, particularly in times when these were carried on with small vessels. We consequently find that she was rich and mercantile in early times, and frequented by all the barbarous nations. . . . Down to the end of the fifteenth century, almost all the navigation of the nations of Europe, as well as those of Asia and Africa, which kept a correspondence and commerce with the former, was limited to the Mediterranean, Adriatic, Archipelago, and Euxine seas; and the first three Italian republics, Pisa, Genoa, and Venice, were for a long time mistresses of it. Pisa, as far back as the year 925, was the principal city of Tuscany, according to Luitprand. In the beginning of the eleventh century, that is, in the year 1004, we find in the Pisan annals, that the latter waged war with the Lucchese and beat them; this is the first enterprise of one Italian city against another, which proves that she already acted for herself, and was in great part, if not wholly, liberated from the dominion

of the Duke of Tuscany In the Pisan annals, and in other authors, we meet with a series of enterprises, many of which are obscurely related, or perhaps exaggerated Thus we find that in the year 1005, in an expedition of the Pisans against the maritime city of Reggio, Pisa being left unprovided with defenders, Musetto, king, or head, of the Saracens, who occupied Sardinia, seized the opportunity of making an invasion, and having sacked the city, departed, or was driven out of it It was very natural for the

Pisans and Genoese, who must have been in continual fear of the piracies and invasions of the barbarians as long as they occupied Sardinia, to think seriously of exterminating them from that country the pope himself sent the Bishop of Ostia in haste to the Pisans as legate, to encourage them to the enterprise who, joining with the Genoese, conquered Sardinia [1017] by driving out the Saracens, and the pope, by the right he thought he possessed over all the kingdoms of the earth, invested the Pisans with the dominion, not however without exciting the jealousy of the Genoese, who, as they were less powerful in those times, were obliged to yield to force The mutual necessity of defence from the common enemy kept them united, the barbarians having disembarked in the year 1020 in Sardinia under the same leader, they were again repulsed, and all their treasure which remained a booty of the conquerors, was conceded to the Genoese as an indemnity for the expense"—I. Pignotti, *Hist. of Tuscany*, v 1, ch 7

A. D. 1063-1293.—Architectural development.—Disastrous war with Genoa.—The great defeat at Meloria.—Count Ugolino and his fate.—War with Florence and Lucca.—“The republic of Pisa was one of the first to make known to the world the riches and power which a small state might acquire by the aid of commerce and liberty Pisa had astonished the shores of the Mediterranean by the number of vessels and galleys that sailed under her flag, by the succor she had given the crusaders, and by the fear she had inspired at Constantinople, and by the conquest of Sardinia and the Balearic Isles. Pisa was the first to introduce into Tuscany the arts that ennoble wealth: her dome, her baptistery, her leaning tower, and her Campo Santo, which the traveller's eye embraces at one glance, but does not weary of beholding, had been successively built from the year 1068 to the end of the 12th century. These chefs d'œuvre had animated the genius of the Pisans, the great architects of the 13th century were, for the most part, pupils of Nicolas di Pisa But the moment was come in which the ruin of this glorious republic was at hand; a deep-rooted jealousy, to be dated from the conquest of Sardinia, had frequently, during the last two centuries, armed against each other the republics of Genoa and Pisa: a new war between them broke out in 1282 It is difficult to comprehend how two simple cities could put to sea such prodigious fleets as those of Pisa and Genoa. In 1282, Gualcel Sismondi commanded 80 Pisan galleys, of which he lost the half in a tempest, on the 9th of September; the following year, Rosso Sismondi commanded 64; in 1284, Guido Jacia commanded 24, and was vanquished. The Pisans had recourse the same year to a Venetian admiral, Alberto Morosini, to whom they intrusted 103 galleys: but whatever efforts they made, the

Genoese constantly opposed a superior fleet This year [1284], however, all the male population of the two republics seemed assembled on their vessels, they met on the 6th of August, 1284, once more before the Isle of Meloria, rendered famous 43 years before by the victory of the Pisans over the same enemies [when the Ghibelline friendship of Pisa for the Emperor Frederick II induced her to intercept and attack, on the 3d of May, 1241, a Genoese fleet which conveyed many prelates to a great council called by Pope Gregory IX with hostile intentions towards the Emperor, and which the latter desired to prevent] Valor was still the same, but fortune had changed sides, and a terrible disaster effaced the memory of an ancient victory While the two fleets, almost equal in number, were engaged, a reinforcement of 30 Genoese galleys, driven impetuously by the wind, struck the Pisan fleet in flank 7 of their vessels were instantly sunk, 28 taken 5,000 citizens perished in the battle, and 11,000 who were taken prisoners to Genoa preferred death in captivity rather than their republic should ransom them, by giving up Sardinia to the Genoese This prodigious loss ruined the maritime power of Pisa, the same nautical knowledge, the same spirit of enterprise, were not transmitted to the next generation All the fishermen of the coast quitted the Pisan galleys for those of Genoa The vessels diminished in number, with the means of manning them, and Pisa could no longer pretend to be more than the third maritime power in Italy While the republic was thus exhausted by this great reverse of fortune, it was attacked by the league of the Tuscan Guelphs, and a powerful citizen, to whom it had intrusted itself, betrayed his country to enslave it Ugolino was count of the Gherardesca, a mountainous country situated along the coast, between Leghorn and Piombino: he was of Ghibelline origin, but had married his sister to Giovan di Gallura chief of the Guelphs of Pisa and of Sardinia From that time he artfully opposed the Guelphs to the Ghibellines.” The Pisans, thinking him to be the person best able to reconcile Pisa with the Guelph league named Ugolino captain general for ten years and the new commander did, indeed, obtain peace with the Guelph league, but not till he had caused all the fortresses of the Pisan territory to be opened by his creatures to the Lucchese and Florentines . . . From that time he sought only to strengthen his own despotism” In July, 1288, there was a rising of the Pisans against him; his palace was stormed and burned, and he, his two sons and two grandsons, were dragged out of the flames, to be locked in a tower and starved to death—as told in the verse of Dante. “The victory over count Ugolino, achieved by the most ardent of the Ghibellines, redoubled the enthusiasm and audacity of that party; and soon determined them to renew the war with the Guelphs of Tuscany. . . . Guido de Montefeltro was named captain. He had acquired a high reputation in defending Forlì against the French forces of Charles of Anjou; and the republic had not to repent of its choice. He recovered by force of arms all the fortresses which Ugolino had given up to the Lucchese and Florentines. The Pisan militia, whom Montefeltro armed with cross-bows, which he had trained them to use with precision, became the terror of Tuscany. The Guelphs of Florence

and Lucca were glad to make peace in 1298."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Hist. of the Italian Republics*, ch. 5.—In 1290, when Pisa was in her greatest distress, Genoa suddenly joined again in the attack on her ancient rival. She sent an expedition under Conrad d'Oria which entered the harbor of Pisa, pulled down its towers, its bridge and its forts, and carried away the chain which locked the harbor entrance. The latter trophy was only restored to Pisa in recent years.—J. T. Bent, *Genoa*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: H. E. Napier, *Florentine Hist.*, bk. 1, ch. 12 (p. 1).

A. D. 1100-1111.—Participation in the first Crusades. See CRUSADES: A. D. 1104-1111.

A. D. 1135-1137.—Destruction of Amalfi. See AMALFI.

13th Century.—Commercial rivalry with Venice and Genoa at Constantinople. See CONSTANTINOPLE: A. D. 1261-1453.

A. D. 1311-1313.—Welcome to the Emperor Henry VII.—Aid to his war against Florence. See ITALY: A. D. 1310-1313.

A. D. 1313-1328.—Military successes under Uguccione della Faggiuola.—His tyranny and its overthrow.—Subjection to Castruccio Castracani and the deliverance. See ITALY: A. D. 1313-1330.

A. D. 1341.—Defeat of the Florentines before Lucca.—Acquisition of that city. See FLORENCE: A. D. 1341-1343.

A. D. 1353-1364.—Dealings with the Free Companies.—War with Florence. See ITALY: A. D. 1343-1393.

A. D. 1399-1406.—Betrayal to Visconti of Milan.—Sale to the Florentines.—Conquest by them and subsequent decline. See ITALY: A. D. 1402-1406.

A. D. 1409.—The General Council of the Church. See PAPACY: A. D. 1377-1417.

A. D. 1494-1509.—Delivered by the French.—The faithlessness of Charles VIII.—Thirteen years of struggle against Florence.—Final surrender.—The Florentine conquest

was the beginning of 90 years of slavery for Pisa—a terrible slavery, heavy with exaggerated imports, bitter with the tolerated plunder of private Florentines, humiliating with continual espionage. . . . Pisa was the Ireland of Florence, captive and yet unvanquished. . . . At last a favourable chance was offered to the Pisans.

. . . In the autumn of 1494, the armies of Charles VIII. poured into Italy [see ITALY: A. D. 1494-1496]. It had been the custom of the Florentines, in times of war and danger, to call the heads of every Pisan household into Florence, as hostages for the good behaviour of their families and fellow citizens. But in the autumn of 1494, Piero de' Medici who forgot everything, who had forgotten to garrison his frontier, forgot to call the Pisan hostages to Florence, although the French were steadily advancing on Tuscany, and the Pisans eager to rebel. . . . The French army and the hope of liberty entered the unhappy city hand in hand [November 8, 1494]. . . . That night the Florentines in Pisa—men in office, judges, merchants, and soldiers of the garrison—were driven at the sword's point out of the rebellious city. . . . Twenty-four hours after the entry of the French, Pisa was a free republic, governed by a Gonfalonier, six Priors, and a Balla of Ten, with a new militia of its own, and, for the first

time in eight and eighty years, a Pisan garrison in the ancient citadel." All this was done with the assent of the King of France and the promise of his protection. But when he passed on to Florence, and was faced there by the resolute Capponi, he signed a treaty in which he promised to give back Pisa to Florence when he returned from Naples. He returned from Naples the next summer (1495), hard pressed and retreating from his recent triumphs, and halted with his army at Pisa. There the tears and distress of the friendly Pisans moved even his soldiers to cry out in protestation against the surrender of the city to its former bondage. Charles compromised by a new treaty with the Florentines, again agreeing to deliver Pisa to them, but stipulating that they should place their old rivals on equal terms with themselves, in commerce and in civil rights. But Enragues, the French governor whom Charles had left in command at Pisa, with a small garrison, refused to carry out the treaty. He assisted the Pisans in expelling a force with which the Duke of Milan attempted to secure the city, and then, on the 1st of January, 1496, he delivered the citadel which he held into the hands of the Pisan signory. "During thirteen years from this date the shifting fortunes, the greeds and jealousies of the great Italian cities, fostered an artificial liberty in Pisa. Thrown like a ball from Milan to Venice, Venice to Maximilian, Max again to Venice, and thence to Caesar Borgia, the unhappy Republic described the whole circle of desperate hope, agonized courage, misery, poverty, cunning, and betrayal."—A. M. F. Robinson, *The End of the Middle Ages: The French at Pisa*.—In 1509 the Pisans, reduced to the last extremity by the obstinate siege which the Florentines had maintained, and sold by the French and Spaniards, who took pay from Florence (see VENICE: A. D. 1508-1509) for abandoning their cause, opened their gates to the Florentine army.—H. E. Napier, *Florentine History*, bk. 2, ch. 8 (p. 4).

ALSO IN: T. A. Trollope, *Hist. of the Commonwealth of Florence*, bk. 8, ch. 6 and bk. 9, ch. 1-10.

A. D. 1512.—The attempted convocation of a Council by Louis XII. of France. See ITALY: A. D. 1510-1513.

PISISTRATIDÆ, The. See ATHENS: B. C. 560-510.

PISTICS. See GNOSTICS.

PIT RIVER INDIANS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MODOCS, &c.

PITHECUSA.—The ancient name of the island of Ischia.

PITHOM, the store city. See JEWS: THE ROUTE OF THE EXODUS.

PITT, William (Lord Chatham).—The administration of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1757-1760; 1760-1763; and 1765-1768. . . . The American Revolution. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1775 (JANUARY—MARCH).

PITT, William (the Younger). The Administration of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1788-1787, to 1801-1806.

PITTI PALACE, The building of the. See FLORENCE: A. D. 1458-1469.

PITTSBURG LANDING, OR SHILOH, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (FEBRUARY—APRIL: TENNESSEE).

PITTSBURGH: A. D. 1754.—Fort Duquesne built by the French. See OHIO (VALLEY): A. D. 1754.

A. D. 1758.—Fort Duquesne abandoned by the French, occupied by the English, and named in honor of Pitt. See CANADA: A. D. 1758.

A. D. 1763.—Siege of Fort Pitt by the Indians.—Bouquet's relieving expedition. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

A. D. 1794.—The Whiskey Insurrection. See PENNSYLVANIA: A. D. 1794.

A. D. 1877.—Railway Riots.—A passionate and wide spread strike of railway employees, in July, 1877, led to fierce riots in several parts of the country, but nowhere else so seriously as at Pittsburgh. There some two thousand freight cars, besides ware-houses, machine shops, and other property, to the estimated value of \$10,000,000, were pillaged or burnt, with heavy loss of life in the conflicts that occurred.

PIUS II., Pope, A. D. 1458-1464. **Pius III., Pope,** 1503, September to October . . .

Pius IV., Pope, 1559-1565. **Pius V., Pope,** 1566-1572. . . **Pius VI., Pope,** 1775-1799.

Pius VII., Pope, 1800-1823. **Pius VIII., Pope,** 1829-1830. **Pius IX., Pope,** 1846-1878.

PIUTES, PAH UTES, &c. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES. SHOSHONIAN FAMILY.

PIZARRO, Francisco: Discovery and conquest of Peru. See AMERICA: A. D. 1524-1528; and PERU: A. D. 1528-1531, and 1531-1533.

PLACARDS OF CHARLES V., The. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1521-1555.

PLACENTIA (modern Piacenza): The Roman colony.—Its capture by the Gauls. See ROME: B. C. 295-291.

B. C. 49.—Mutiny of Cæsar's Legions. See ROME: B. C. 49.

A. D. 270.—Defeat of the Alemanni. See ALEMANNI: A. D. 270.

14th Century.—Under the tyranny of the Visconti. See MILAN: A. D. 1277-1447.

A. D. 1513.—Conquest by Pope Julius II. See ITALY: A. D. 1510-1513.

A. D. 1515.—Restored to the duchy of Milan, and with it to the king of France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1515-1518.

A. D. 1521.—Retaken by the Pope. See FRANCE: A. D. 1520-1528.

A. D. 1545-1592.—Union with Parma in the duchy created for the House of Farnese. See PARMA: A. D. 1545-1592.

A. D. 1725.—Reversion of the duchy pledged to the Infant of Spain. See SPAIN: A. D. 1718-1725.

A. D. 1735.—Restored to Austria. See FRANCE: A. D. 1733-1735.

A. D. 1746.—Given up by the Spaniards. See ITALY: A. D. 1746-1747.

A. D. 1805.—The duchy declared a dependency of France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1804-1805.

A. D. 1814.—The duchy conferred on Marie Louise, the ex-empress of Napoleon. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (MARCH-APRIL).

PLACILLA, Battle of (1891). See CHILE: A. D. 1885-1891.

PLACITUM.—PLAID. See PARLIAMENT OF PARIS.

PLAGUE.—PESTILENCE.—EPIDEMICS: B. C. 466-463.—At Rome.—See ROME: B. C. 466-468.

B. C. 431-429.—At Athens. See ATHENS: B. C. 430-429.

B. C. 405-375.—Repeated ravages among the Carthaginians.—"Within the space of less than thirty years [from B. C. 405] we read of four distinct epidemic distempers, each of frightful severity, as having afflicted Carthage and her armies in Sicily, without touching either Syracuse or the Sicilian Greeks. Such epidemics were the most irresistible of all enemies to the Carthaginians," G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 83.

A. D. 78-266.—Plague after the destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii.—Plagues of Orosius, Antoninus, and Cyprian.—"On the cessation of the eruption of Vesuvius which began on the 23d of August, A. D. 78, and which buried Herculaneum, Stabiae and Pompeii in ashes, there arose . . . a destructive plague, which for many days in succession slew 10,000 men daily." The plague of Orosius (so called because Orosius, who wrote in the 5th century, described it most fully) began in the year A. D. 125. It was attributed to immense masses of grasshoppers which were swept by the winds, that year, from Africa into the Mediterranean Sea, and which were cast back by the waves to putrefy in heaps on the shore. "In Numidia, where at that time Micipsa was king, 800,000 men perished, while in the region which lies most contiguous to the sea shore of Carthage and Utica, more than 200,000 are said to have been cut down. In the city of Utica itself, 30,000 soldiers, who had been ordered here for the defence of all Africa, were destroyed." . . . The plague of Antoninus (A. D. 164-180) visited the whole Roman Empire, from its most eastern to its extreme western boundaries, beginning at the former, and spreading thence by means of the troops who returned from putting down a rebellion in Syria. In the year 166 it broke out for the first time in Rome, and returned again in the year 168. . . . The plague depopulated entire cities and districts, so that forests sprung up in places before inhabited. . . . In its last year it appears to have raged again with especial fury, so that in Rome . . . 2,000 men often died in a single day. With regard to the character of this plague, it has been considered sometimes small-pox, sometimes petechial typhus, and again the bubo-plague. The third so-called plague, that of Cyprian, raged about A. D. 251-266. . . . For a long time 500 died a day in Rome. . . . After its disappearance Italy was almost deserted. . . . It has been assumed that this plague should be considered either a true bubo-plague, or small-pox."—J. H. Baas, *Outlines of the History of Medicine*, pp. 189-190.—"Niebuhr has expressed the opinion that 'the ancient world never recovered from the blow inflicted upon it by the plague which visited it in the reign of M. Aurelius.'"—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 68, foot-note.

ALSO IN: P. B. Watson, *Marcus Aurelius Antoninus*, ch. 4.

A. D. 542-594.—During the reign of Justinian.—"The fatal disease which depopulated the earth in the time of Justinian and his successors first appeared in the neighbourhood of Pelusium, between the Serbonian bog and the eastern chan-

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nel of the Nile. From thence, tracing as it were a double path, it spread to the east, over Syria, Persia, and the Indies, and penetrated to the west, along the coast of Africa, and over the continent of Europe. In the spring of the second year, Constantinople, during three or four months, was visited by the pestilence; and Procopius, who observed its progress and symptoms with the eyes of a physician, has emulated the skill and diligence of Thucydides in the description of the plague of Athens . . . The fever was often accompanied with lethargy or delirium; the bodies of the sick were covered with black pustules or carbuncles, the symptoms of immediate death; and in the constitutions too feeble to produce an eruption, the vomiting of blood was followed by a mortification of the bowels . . . Youth was the most perilous season, and the female sex was less susceptible than the male . . . It was not till the end of a calamitous period of fifty-two years [A. D. 542-594] that mankind recovered their health, or the air resumed its pure and salubrious quality. During three months, five and at length ten thousand persons died each day at Constantinople, . . . many cities of the east were left vacant; . . . in several districts of Italy the harvest and the vintage withered on the ground. The triple scourge of war, pestilence, and famine, afflicted the subjects of Justinian; and his reign is disgraced by a visible decrease of the human species, which has never been repaired in some of the fairest countries of the globe"—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 43.

ALSO IN: T. Hodgkin, *Italy and Her Invaders*, bk. 5, ch. 17.—J. B. Bury, *Hist. of the Later Roman Empire*, bk. 4, ch. 6 (v. 1).

6-13th Centuries.—Spread of Small-pox.—"Nothing is known of the origin of small pox, but it appears to have come originally from the East, and to have been known in China and Hindostan from time immemorial. . . . 'It seems to have reached Constantinople by way of Egypt about the year 569.' From Constantinople it spread gradually over the whole of Europe, reaching England about the middle of the 13th century."—R. Rollo, *Epidemics, Plagues, and Fevers*, p. 271.

A. D. 744-748.—The world-wide pestilence.—"One great calamity in the age of Constantine [the Byzantine emperor Constantine V., called Copronymus], appears to have travelled over the whole habitable world; this was the great pestilence, which made its appearance in the Byzantine empire as early as 745. It had previously carried off a considerable portion of the population of Syria, and the Caliph Yezid III. perished of the disease in 744. From Syria it visited Egypt and Africa, from whence it passed into Sicily. After making great ravages in Sicily and Calabria, it spread to Greece; and at last, in the year 747, it broke out with terrible violence in Constantinople, then probably the most populous city in the universe. It was supposed to have been introduced, and dispersed through Christian countries, by the Venetian and Greek ships employed in carrying on a contraband trade in slaves with the Mohammedan nations, and it spread wherever commerce extended. . . . This plague threatened to exterminate the Hellenic race." After it had disappeared, at the end of a year, "the capital required an immense influx

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of new inhabitants. To fill up the void caused by the scourge, Constantine induced many Greek families from the continent and the islands to emigrate to Constantinople."—G. Finlay, *Hist. of the Byzantine Empire, from 716 to 1057*, bk. 1, ch. 1, sect. 8.

A. D. 1348-1351.—The Black Death. See BLACK DEATH; also, ENGLAND: A. D. 1348-1349.

A. D. 1360-1363.—The Children's Plague.—"The peace of Brétigni [England and France, A. D. 1360], like the capture of Calais, was followed by a pestilence that turned the national rejoicings into mourning. But the 'Children's Plague,' as it was called, from the fact that it was most deadly to the young, was fortunately not a return of the Black Death, and did not approach it in its effects. It numbered, however, three prelates and the Duke of Lancaster among its victims, and caused such anxiety in London that the courts of law were adjourned from May to October. France felt the scourge more severely. It ravaged the country for three years, and was especially fatal at Paris and at Avignon. In Ireland, where the pestilence lingered on into the next year, and proved very deadly, it was mistaken for scrofula, a circumstance which probably shows that it attacked the glands and the throat."—C. H. Pearson, *Eng. Hist. in the 14th Century*, ch. 7.

A. D. 1374.—The Dancing Mania.—"The effects of the Black Death had not yet subsided, and the graves of millions of its victims were scarcely closed, when a strange delusion arose in Germany. It was a convulsion which in the most extraordinary manner infuriated the human frame, and excited the astonishment of contemporaries for more than two centuries, since which time it has never reappeared. It was called the dance of St. John or of St. Vitus, on account of the Bacchantic leaps by which it was characterized, and which gave to those affected, whilst performing their wild dance, and screaming and foaming with fury, all the appearance of persons possessed. It did not remain confined to particular localities, but was propagated by the sight of the sufferers, like a demoniacal epidemic, over the whole of Germany and the neighbouring countries to the north-west, which were already prepared for its reception by the prevailing opinions of the times. So early as the year 1374, assemblages of men and women were seen at Aix-la-Chapelle who had come out of Germany, and who, united by one common delusion, exhibited to the public both in the streets and in the churches the following strange spectacle. They formed circles hand in hand, and appearing to have lost all control over their senses, continued dancing, regardless of the by-standers, for hours together in wild delirium, until at length they fell to the ground in a state of exhaustion. They then complained of extreme oppression, and groaned as if in the agonies of death, until they were swathed in cloths, bound tightly round their waists, upon which they again recovered, and remained free from complaint until the next attack. This practice of swathing was resorted to on account of the tympany which followed these spasmodic ravings, but the by-standers frequently relieved patients in a less artificial manner, by thumping and trampling upon the parts affected. While dancing they neither saw nor heard, being insensible to external impressions through the

senses, but were haunted by visions, their fancies conjuring up spirits whose names they shrieked out; and some of them afterwards asserted that they felt as if they had been immersed in a stream of blood, which obliged them to leap so high. Where the disease was completely developed, the attack commenced with epileptic convulsions. Those affected fell to the ground senseless, panting and labouring for breath. They foamed at the mouth, and suddenly springing up began their dance amidst strange contortions. Yet the malady doubtless made its appearance very variously, and was modified by temporary or local circumstances.

It was but a few months ere this demoniacal disease had spread from Aix-la-Chapelle, where it appeared in July, over the neighbouring Netherlands. In Liege, Utrecht, Tongres, and many other towns of Belgium, the dancers appeared with garlands in their hair, and their waists girt with cloths, that they might, as soon as the paroxysm was over, receive immediate relief on the attack of the tympany. This bandage was, by the insertion of a stick, easily twisted tight: many, however, obtained more relief from kicks and blows, which they found numbers of persons ready to administer.

A few months after this dancing malady had made its appearance at Aix-la-Chapelle, it broke out at Cologne, where the number of those possessed amounted to more than five hundred, and about the same time at Metz, the streets of which place are said to have been filled with eleven hundred dancers. Peasants left their ploughs, mechanics their workshops, housewives their domestic duties, to join the wild revels, and this rich commercial city became the scene of the most ruinous disorder. . . . The dancing mania of the year 1374 was, in fact, no new disease, but a phenomenon well known in the middle ages, of which many wondrous stories were traditionally current among the people."—J. F. C. Hecker, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages: The Dancing Mania*, ch. 1.

A. D. 1485-1593.—The Sweating Sickness in England.—Plague, Small-pox and Grippe in Europe.—"For centuries no infection had visited England, which in fearful rapidity and malignancy could be compared with the 'sudar Anglicus,' as it was at first called, from the notion that its attacks were confined to Englishmen. People sitting at dinner, in the full enjoyment of health and spirits, were seized with it and died before the next morning. An open window, accidental contact in the streets, children playing before the door, a beggar knocking at the rich man's gate, might disseminate the infection, and a whole family would be decimated in a few hours without hope or remedy. Houses and villages were deserted. . . . Dr. Calus, a physician who had studied the disease under its various aspects, gives the following account of its appearance: 'In the year of our Lord God 1485, shortly after the 7th day of August, at which time King Henry VII. arrived at Milford in Wales out of France, and in the first year of his reign, there chanced a disease among the people lasting the rest of that month and all September, which for the sudden sharpness and unwonted cruelty passed the pestilence. For this commonly giveth in four, often seven, sometime nine, sometime eleven and sometime fourteen days, respite to whom it vexeth. But that immediately killed some in opening their windows,

some in playing with children in their street doors, some in one hour, many in two, it destroyed. . . . This disease, because it most did stand in sweating from the beginning until the ending, was called here The Sweating Sickness; and because it first began in England, it was named in other countries The English Sweat.' From the same authority we learn that it appeared in 1506, again in 1517 from July to the middle of December, then in 1528. It commenced with a fever, followed by strong internal struggles of nature, causing sweat. It was attended with sharp pains in the back, shoulders and extremities, and then attacked the liver. . . . It never entered Scotland. In Calais, Antwerp and Brabant it generally singled out English residents and visitors.

In consequence of the peculiarity of the disease in thus singling out Englishmen, and those of a richer diet and more sanguine temperament various speculations were set afloat as to its origin and its best mode of cure. Erasmus attributed it to bad houses and bad ventilation, to the clay floors, the unchanged and festering rushes with which the rooms were strewn, and the putrid offal, bones and filth which reeked and rotted together in the unswept and unwashed dining halls and chambers."—J. S. Brewer, *Reign of Henry VIII.*, v. 1, ch. 8. —See, also, **SWEATING SICKNESS**—"In the middle of the 16th century the English sweating sickness disappeared from the list of epidemic diseases. On the other hand, the plague, during the whole 16th century, prevailed more generally, and in places more fatally, than ever before. . . . In 1500-1507 it raged in Germany, Italy, and Holland, in 1528 in Upper Italy, 1534 in Southern France, 1562-1568 pretty generally throughout Europe. The disease prevailed again in 1591. It is characteristic of the improvement in the art of observation of this century that the plague was declared contagious and portable, and accordingly measures of isolation and disinfection were put in force against it, though without proving in any degree effectual. With a view to disinfection, horn, gunpowder, arsenic with sulphur or straw moistened with wine, etc., were burned in the streets. . . . Small-pox (first observed or described in Germany in 1493) and measles, whose specific nature was still unknown to the physicians of the West, likewise appeared in the 16th century. . . . The Grippe (influenza), for the first time recognizable with certainty as such, showed itself in the year 1510, and spread over all Europe. A second epidemic, beginning in 1557, was less widely extended. On the other hand, in 1580 and 1593 it became again pandemic, while in 1591 Germany alone was visited."—J. H. Baas, *Outlines of the History of Medicine*, pp. 438-439.

ALSO IN: J. F. Hecker, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*.
A. D. 1665.—In London. See **LONDON: A. D. 1665**.
18th Century.—The more serious epidemics.—"The bubo-plague, 'the disease of barbarism' and especially of declining nations, in the 18th century still often reached the north of Europe, though it maintained its chief focus and headquarters in the south-west [south-east?]. Thus from 1708 forward, as the result of the Russo-Swedish war, it spread from Turkey to Sweden, Denmark, Poland and Prussia, so that in 1799, the coldest year of the 18th century, more than

PLAGUE.

800,000 human beings died in East Prussia in spite of the intense cold, and in Dantzic alone more than 80,000. Obliquing to the west, the plague reached Styria and Bohemia, and was carried by a ship to Regensburg in 1714, but by means of strict quarantine regulations was prevented from spreading to the rest of Germany. A hurricane swept the disease, as it were, out of all Europe. Yet six years later it appeared anew with devastating force in southern France and was recurrent at intervals, in different parts of the continent, throughout the century. "Epidemics of typhus fever . . . showed themselves at the beginning of the century in small numbers, but disappeared before the plague. . . . The first description of typhoid fever—under the designation of 'Schleimfieber' (morbus mucosus)—appeared in the 18th century. . . . Malaria in the last century still gave rise to great epidemics. Of course all the conditions of life favored its prevalence. . . . La Grippe (influenza) appeared as a pandemic throughout almost all Europe in the years 1709, 1729, 1732, 1742, and 1788; in almost all America in 1732, 1737, 1751, 1772, 1781, and 1798; throughout the eastern hemisphere in 1781, and in the entire western hemisphere in 1761 and 1789; throughout Europe and America in 1767. It prevailed as an epidemic in France in the years 1737, 1775, and 1779; in England in 1758 and 1775, and in Germany in 1800. . . . Diphtheria, which in the 17th century had showed itself almost exclusively in Spain and Italy, was observed during the 18th in all parts of the world. . . . Small pox had attained general diffusion. . . . Scarlet fever, first observed in the 17th century, had already gained wide diffusion. . . . Yellow fever, first recognized in the 16th century, and mentioned occasionally in the 17th, appeared with great frequency in the 18th century, but was mostly confined, as at a later period, to America."—J. H. Baas, *Outlines of the History of Medicine*, pp. 727-730.

19th Century.—The visitations of Asiatic Cholera.—Cholera "has its origin in Asia, where its ravages are as great as those of yellow fever in America. It is endemic or permanent in the Ganges delta, whence it generally spreads every year over India. It was not known in Europe until the beginning of the century; but since that time we have had six successive visitations. . . . In 1817 there was a violent outbreak of cholera at Jessore, India. Thence it spread to the Malay Islands, and to Bourbon (1819); to China and Persia (1821); to Russia in Europe, and especially to St. Petersburg and Moscow (1830). In the following year it overran Poland, Germany, and England [thence in 1832 to Ireland and America], and first appeared in Paris on January 6, 1832. . . . In 1849, the cholera pursued the same route. Coming overland from India through Russia, it appeared in Paris on March 17, and lasted until October. In 1853, cholera, again coming by this route, was less fatal in Paris, although it lasted for a longer time—from November, 1853, to December, 1854. The three last epidemics, 1863, 1873, and 1884, . . . came by the Mediterranean Sea."—E. L. Trouessart, *Microbes, Ferments and Moulds*, ch. 5, sect. 8.—A seventh visitation of cholera in Europe occurred in 1892. Its route on this occasion was from the Punjab, through Afghanistan and Persia into Russia and across the Medi-

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terranean to Southern France. Late in the summer the epidemic appeared in various parts of Austria and Germany and was frightfully virulent in the city of Hamburg. In England it was confined by excellent regulations to narrow limits. Crossing the Atlantic late in August, it was arrested at the harbor of New York, by half-barbarous but effectual measures of quarantine, and gained no footing in America.—*Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia*, 1892.

ALSO IN: C. Macnamara, *History of Asiatic Cholera*.—A. Stillé, *Cholera*, pp. 15-31.

PLAID.—**PLACITUM.**—**PLAIDS DE LA PORTE.** See **PARLIAMENT OF PARIS**, and **FRANCE**: A. D. 1226-1270.

PLAIN, OR MARAIS, The Party of the. See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1792 (SEPTEMBER-NOV.).

PLAINS OF ABRAHAM. See **ABRAHAM**, **PLAINS OF**.

PLAN OF CAMPAIGN, The. See **IRELAND**: A. D. 1886.

PLANTAGENETS, The. See **ENGLAND**: A. D. 1154-1189; and **ANJOU**; **CREATION OF THE COUNTY**.

PLASSEY, Battle of. See **INDIA**: A. D. 1757.

PLATÆA.—Platæa, one of the cities of the Boeotian federation in ancient Greece, under the headship of Thebes, was ill-used by the latter and claimed and received the protection of Athens. This provoked the deep-seated and enduring enmity of Thebes and Boeotia in general towards Athens, while the alliance of the Athenians and Plateans was lasting and faithful.—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 31.

B. C. 490.—Help to Athens at Marathon. See **GREECE**: B. C. 490.

B. C. 479.—Decisive overthrow of the Persians. See **GREECE**: B. C. 479.

B. C. 431.—Surprise of.—The first act in the Peloponnesian War (B. C. 431) was the surprising of the city of Platæa, the one ally of Athens in Boeotia, by a small force from her near neighbor and deadly enemy, Thebes. The Thebans were admitted by treachery at night and thought themselves in possession of the town. But the Plateans rallied before daybreak and turned the tables upon the foe. Not one of the Thebans escaped. See **GREECE**: B. C. 432-431.

B. C. 429-427.—Siege, capture, and destruction by the Peloponnesians. See **GREECE**: B. C. 429-427.

B. C. 335.—Restoration by Alexander. See **GREECE**: B. C. 336-335.

PLATE RIVER, Discovery of the. See **PARAGUAY**: A. D. 1515-1557.

PLATE RIVER, Provinces of the. See **ARGENTINE REPUBLIC**: A. D. 1806-1830.

PLATO, and the Schools of Athens. See **ACADEMY**; also **EDUCATION, ANCIENT**; **GREEK**.

PLATTSBURG, Battle of. See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1814 (SEPTEMBER).

PLAUTIO-PAPIRIAN LAW, The. See **ROME**: B. C. 90-88.

PLEASANT HILL, Battle of. See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1864 (MARCH-MAY; LOUISIANA).

PLEBEIANS, OR PLEBS, Roman.—"We are now prepared to understand the origin of a

distinct body of people which grew up alongside of the patricians of the Roman state during the latter part of the regal period and after its close. These were the plebeians (plebs, 'the crowd,' cf. 'pleo,' to fill) who dwelt in the Roman territory both within and without the walls of the city. They did not belong to the old clans which formed the three original tribes, nor did they have any real or pretended kinship with them, nor, for that matter, with one another, except within the ordinary limits of nature. They were, at the outset, simply an ill-assorted mass of residents, entirely outside of the orderly arrangement which we have described. There were three sources of this multitude: I. When the city grew strong enough, it began to extend its boundaries, and first at the expense of the cantons nearest it, between the Tiber and the Anio. When Rome conquered a canton, she destroyed the walls of its citadel. Its inhabitants were sometimes permitted to occupy their villages as before, and sometimes were removed to Rome. In either case, Rome was henceforth to be their place of meeting and refuge, and they themselves, instead of being reduced to the condition of slaves, were attached to the state as non-citizens. II. The relation of guest-friendship so called, in ancient times, could be entered into between individuals with their families and descendants, and also between individuals and a state, or between two states. Provision for such guest-friendship was undoubtedly made in the treaties which bound together Rome on the one side and the various independent cities of its neighborhood on the other. . . . The commercial advantages of Rome's situation attracted to it, in the course of time, a great many men from the Latin cities in the vicinity, who remained permanently settled there without acquiring Roman citizenship. III. A third constituent element of the 'plebs' was formed by the clients ('the listeners,' 'cluere') [see CLIENTES]. . . . In the beginning of the long struggle between the patricians and plebeians, the clients are represented as having sided with the former. . . . Afterward, when the lapse of time had weakened their sense of dependence on their patrons, they became, as a body, identified with the plebeians." —A. Tighe, *Development of the Roman Constitution*, ch. 8.—Originally having no political rights, the Roman plebeians were forced to content themselves with the privilege they enjoyed of engaging in trade at Rome and acquiring property of their own. But as in time they grew to outnumber the patricians, while they rivalled the latter in wealth, they struggled with success for a share in the government and for other rights of citizenship. In the end, political power passed over to them entirely, and the Roman constitution became almost purely democratic, before it perished in anarchy and revolution, giving way to imperialism.—H. G. Liddell, *Hist. of Rome*, ch. 7, 8, 10, 85.

ALSO IN: B. G. Niebuhr, *Lect's on Hist. of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 2.

SECESSIONS OF THE PLEBS. See SECESSIONS OF THE ROMAN PLEBS.

PLEBISCITA.—Resolutions passed by the Roman plebeians in their Comitia Tributa, or Assembly of the Tribes, were called "plebiscita." See ROME: B. C. 472-471.—In modern France the term "plebiscite" has been applied to a gen-

eral vote of the people, taken upon some single question, like that of the establishment of the Second Empire. See FRANCE: A. D. 1851-1852; also, REFERENDUM.

PLESWITZ, Armistice of. See GERMANY: A. D. 1813 (MAY—AUGUST).

PLEVNA, Siege and capture of. See TURKS: A. D. 1877-1878.

PLOW PATENT, The. See MAINE: A. D. 1629-1681; and 1648-1677.

PLOWDEN'S COUNTY PALATINE. See NEW ALBION.

PLUVIOSE, The month. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (OCTOBER) THE NEW REPUBLICAN CALENDAR.

PLYMOUTH, Mass.: A. D. 1605.—Visited by Champlain, and the harbor named Port St. Louis. See CANADA: A. D. 1603-1605.

A. D. 1620.—Landing of the Pilgrims.—Founding of the Colony. See MASSACHUSETTS: A. D. 1620, and after.

PLYMOUTH, N. C.: A. D. 1864.—Capture and recapture. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (APRIL—MAY: NORTH CAROLINA), and (OCTOBER: NORTH CAROLINA).

PLYMOUTH COMPANY: Formation. See VIRGINIA: A. D. 1606-1607; and MAINE: A. D. 1607-1608.

A. D. 1615.—Unsuccessful undertakings with Captain John Smith. See AMERICA: A. D. 1614-1615.

A. D. 1620.—Merged in the Council for New England. See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1620-1623.

PLYMOUTH BRETHERN, The.—"The rise [in England and Ireland] of Plymouth Brotherism was almost contemporaneous with that of Tractarianism [about 1830]. . . . In both cases there was a dissatisfaction with the state of spiritual life, and a longing for something more real, more elevated in tone, more practical in results. . . . A few men with spiritual affinities, desiring a religious fellowship which they could not find in the ordinary services of their Church, grouped themselves in small companies and held periodical meetings for the study of the Scriptures, for Christian conference, and for prayer. From the very beginning the movement had attractions for devout men of high social position and some culture. Mr. Darby, who was one of the leading spirits in Dublin. . . . was originally a curate of the Church of Ireland. Mr. Benjamin W. Newton, who was one of the principal members of the similar society in Plymouth, which has given its name to the movement, was a fellow of Exeter College, Oxford. Dr. Tregelles, another of the Plymouth company, was a distinguished Biblical scholar. . . . The Brethren despise culture, and yet apart from men of culture it is hard to see how the movement could have had such success."—J. G. Rogers, *The Church Systems of England in the 19th Century*, lect. 10.

PLYMOUTH ROCK. See MASSACHUSETTS: A. D. 1620.

PNYX, The.—"The place of meeting [of the general assemblies of the people in ancient Athens] in earlier times is stated to have been in the market; in the historical period the people

met there only to vote on proposals of ostracism, at other times assembling in the so-called Pnyx. As regards the position of this latter, a point which quite recently has become a matter of considerable dispute, the indications given by the ancient authorities appear to settle this much at any rate with certainty, that it was in the neighbourhood of the market, and that of the streets running out of the market one led only into the Pnyx"—G. F. Schömann, *Antiq. of Greece: The State*, pt. 3, ch. 3—"The Pnyx was an artificial platform on the north eastern side of one of the rocky heights which encircled Athens on the west, and along the crest of which is still traced the ancient enclosure of the Aasty." At one angle rose the celebrated bema, or pulpit, a quadrangular projection of the rock, eleven feet broad. "The area of the platform was capable of containing between 7000 and 8000 persons, allowing a square yard to each"—W. M. Leake, *Topography of Athens*, app. 11. See, also, AGORA.

POCAHONTAS. See VIRGINIA. A. D. 1607-1610; and 1609-1616.

POCKET BOROUGHS. See ENGLAND. A. D. 1830.

PODESTAS.—"About the end of the 12th century a new and singular species of magistracy was introduced into the Lombard cities. During the tyranny of Frederic I [Frederick Barbarossa] he had appointed officers of his own, called podestas, instead of the elective consuls. It is remarkable that this memorial of despotic power should not have excited insuperable alarm and disgust in the free republics. But, on the contrary, they almost universally, after the peace of Constance, revived an office which had been abrogated when they first rose in rebellion against Frederic. From experience, as we must presume, of the partiality which their domestic factions carried into the administration of justice, it became a general practice to elect, by the name of podesta, a citizen of some neighbouring state as their general, their criminal judge, and preserver of the peace. . . . The podesta was sometimes chosen in a general assembly, sometimes by a select number of citizens. His office was annual, though prolonged in peculiar emergencies. He was invariably a man of noble family, even in those cities which excluded their own nobility from any share in the government. He received a fixed salary, and was compelled to remain in the city after the expiration of his office for the purpose of answering such charges as might be adduced against his conduct. He could neither marry a native of the city, nor have any relation resident within the district, nor even, so great

was their jealousy, eat or drink in the house of any citizen. The authority of these foreign magistrates was not by any means alike in all cities. In some he seems to have superseded the consuls, and commanded the armies in war. In others, as Milan and Florence, his authority was merely judicial."—H. Hallam, *The Middle Ages*, ch. 3, pt. 1 (v. 1).

PODIEBRAD, George. King of Bohemia. A. D. 1458-1471.

POETS LAUREATE, English. See LAUREATE, ENGLISH POETS.

POINT PLEASANT, Battle of. See OHIO (VALLEY): A. D. 1774.

POISSY, The Colloquy at. See FRANCE: A. D. 1560-1563.

POITIERS: Original names.—Limonum, a town of the Gauls, acquired later the name of Pictavi, which has become in modern times Poitiers.

A. D. 1569.—Siege by the Huguenots. See FRANCE: A. D. 1563-1570.

POITIERS, Battle of.—A battle was fought September 19, 1356, near the city of Poitiers, in France, by the English, under the "Black Prince," the famous son of Edward III., with the French commanded personally by their king, John II. The advantage in numbers was on the side of the French, but the position of the English was in their favor, inasmuch as it gave little opportunity to the cavalry of the French, which was their strongest arm. The English archers won the day, as in so many other battles of that age. The French were sorely beaten and their king was taken prisoner.—Froissart, *Chronicles*, (tr. by Johnes), bk. 1, ch. 157-166.—See FRANCE: A. D. 1337-1360.

POITIERS, Edict of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1577-1578.

POITOU: Origin of the name. See PICTONES.

The rise of the Counts. See TOULOUSE: 10-11TH CENTURIES.

The Counts become Dukes of Aquitaine or Guienne. See AQUITAINE. A. D. 884-1151.

POKANOKETS, OR WAMPANOAGS, The. See RHODE ISLAND: A. D. 1636, AMERICAN ABORIGINES. ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1674-1675, 1675, 1676-1678.

POLA, Naval battle of (1379). See VENICE: A. D. 1378-1379.

POLAND.

The Name.—"The word Pole is not older than the tenth century, and seems to have been originally applied, not so much to the people as to the region they inhabited; 'polska' in the Slavonic tongue signifying a level field or plain."—S. A. Dunham, *Hist. of Poland*, introd.

The ancestors of the race. See LYGIANS.

Beginnings of national existence.—"The Poles were a nation whose name does not occur in history before the middle of the tenth century: and we owe to Christianity the first intimations that we have regarding this people. Miecislav

[or Mieslaus] I, the first duke or prince of the Poles of whom we possess any authentic accounts, embraced Christianity (966) at the solicitation of his spouse, Dambrowka, sister of Boleslaus II., duke of Bohemia. Shortly after, the first bishopric in Poland, that of Posen, was founded by Otho the Great. Christianity did not, however, tame the ferocious habits of the Poles, who remained for a long time without the least progress in mental cultivation. Their government, as wretched as that of Bohemia, subjected the great body of the nation to the most debasing servitude.

The ancient sovereigns of Poland were hereditary. They ruled most despotically, and with a rod of iron, and, although they acknowledged themselves vassals and tributaries of the German emperors, they repeatedly broke out into open rebellion, asserted their absolute independence, and waged a successful war against their masters. Boleslaus, son of Miecislavus I., took advantage of the troubles which rose in Germany on the death of Otto III., to possess himself of the Marches of Lusatia and Budissin, or Bautzen, which the Emperor Henry II. afterwards granted him as fiefs. This same prince, in despite of the Germans, on the death of Henry II. (1025), assumed the royal dignity. Miecislavus II., son of Boleslaus, after having cruelly ravaged the country situated between the Oder, the Elbe, and the Saal, was compelled to abdicate the throne, and also to restore the provinces which his father had wrested from the Empire. The male descendants of Miecislavus I. reigned in Poland until the death of Casimir the Great (1370). This dynasty of kings is known by the name of the Piasts, or Piasses, so called from one Piast, alleged to have been its founder.—W. Koch, *Hist. of Revolutions in Europe*, ch. 4.

Also in: S. A. Dunham, *Hist. of Poland*, ch. 1-2.

A. D. 1096.—The refuge of the Jews. See JEWS: 11-17th CENTURIES.

A. D. 1240-1241.—Mongol invasion. See MONGOLS: A. D. 1229-1294.

13-14th Centuries.—Growing power and increasing dominion.—Encroachments on Russia. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1237-1480.

A. D. 1333-1572.—The union with Lithuania and the reign of the Jagellon dynasty.—Conquest of Prussia and its grant to Grand-master Albert.—Casimir III., or Casimir the Great, the last Polish king of the Piast line, ascended the throne in 1333. "Polish historians celebrate the good deeds of this king for the internal prosperity of Poland—his introduction of a legal code, his just administration, his encouragement of learning, and his munificence in founding churches, schools, and hospitals. The great external question of his reign was that of the relations of Poland to the two contiguous powers of Lithuania and the Teutonic Knights of Prussia and the Baltic provinces. On the one hand, Poland, as a Christian country, had stronger ties of connexion with the Teutonic Knights than with Lithuania. On the other hand, ties of race and tradition connected Poland with Lithuania; and the ambitious policy of the Teutonic Knights, who aimed at the extension of their rule at the expense of Poland and Lithuania, and also jealously shut out both countries from the Baltic coast, and so from the advantages of commerce, tended to increase the sympathy between the Poles and the Lithuanians. A happy solution was at length given to this question. Casimir, dying in 1370, left no issue . . . and the Crown of Poland passed to his nephew Louis of Anjou, at that time also King of Hungary [see HUNGARY: A. D. 1301-1442]. Louis, occupied with the affairs of Hungary, neglected those of Poland, and left it exposed to the attacks of the Lithuanians. He became excessively unpopular among the Poles; and, after his death in 1384, they proclaimed Hedvige [his daughter] Queen of Poland. In 1386, a marriage was arranged between this

princess and Jagellon, Duke of Lithuania—Jagellon agreeing to be baptized, and to establish Christianity among his hitherto heathen subjects. Thus Poland and Lithuania were united, and a new dynasty of Polish kings was founded, called the dynasty of the Jagellons. The rule of this dynasty, under seven successive kings (1386-1572) constitutes the flourishing epoch of Polish history, to which at the present day the Poles look fondly back when they would exalt the glory and greatness of their country. . . . The effect of the union of Poland and Lithuania was at once felt in Europe. The first Jagellon, who on his baptism took the name of Uladislav II., and whom one fancies as still a sort of rough half heathen by the side of the beautiful Polish Hedvige, spent his whole reign (1386-1434) in consolidating the union and turning it to account. He defended Lithuania against the Tartar hordes then moving westward before the impulse of the conquering Tamerlane. But his chief activity was against the Teutonic Knights. . . . He engaged in a series of wars against the knights, which ended in a great victory gained over them at Tannenburg in 1410. By this victory the power of the knights was broken for the time, and their territories placed at the mercy of the Poles. During the reign of Uladislav III., the second of the Jagellons (1434-1444), the knights remained submissive, and that monarch was able to turn his arms, in conjunction with the Hungarians, against a more formidable enemy—the Turks—then beginning their invasions of Europe. Uladislav III. having been slain in battle against the Turks at Varna, the Teutonic Knights availed themselves of the confusion which followed, to try to recover their power. By this time, however, their Prussian subjects were tired of their rule; Dantzic, Elbing, Thorn, and other towns, as well as the landed proprietors and the clergy of various districts, formed a league against them; and, on the accession of Casimir IV., the third of the Jagellons, to the Polish throne (1447), all Western Prussia revolted from the knights and placed itself under his protection. A terrific war ensued, which was brought to a close in 1466 by the peace of Thorn. By this notable treaty, the independent sovereignty of the Teutonic order in the countries they had held for two centuries was extinguished—the whole of Western Prussia, with the city of Marienburg, and other districts, being annexed to the Polish crown, with guarantees for the preservation of their own forms of administration; and the knights being allowed to retain certain districts of Eastern Prussia, only as vassals of Poland. Thus Poland was once more in possession of that necessity of its existence as a great European state—a seaboard on the Baltic. Exulting in an acquisition for which they had so long struggled, the Poles are said to have danced with joy as they looked on the blue waves and could call them their own. Casimir IV., the hero of this important passage in Polish history, died in 1492; and, though during the reigns of his successors—John Albertus (1492-1501), and Alexander (1501-1506)—the Polish territories suffered some diminution in the direction of Russia, the fruits of the treaty of Thorn were enjoyed in peace. In the reign of the sixth of the Jagellons, however—Sigismund I. (1506-1547)—the Teutonic Knights made an attempt to throw

off their allegiance to Poland. The attempt was made in singular circumstances, and led to a singular conclusion. The grand-master of the Teutonic order at this time was Albert of Brandenburg . . . , a descendant [in the Anspach branch] of that patate Hohenzollern family which in 1411 had possessed itself of the Markisate of Brandenburg. Albert, carrying out a scheme entertained by the preceding grand master, refused homage for the Prussian territories of his order to the Polish king Sigismund, and even prepared to win back what the order had lost by the treaty of Thorn. Sigismund, who was uncle to Albert, defeated his schemes, and proved the superiority of the Polish armies over the forces of the once great but now effete order. Albert found it his best policy to submit, and this he did in no ordinary fashion. The Reformation was then in the first flush of its progress over the Continent, and the Teutonic Order of Knights, long a practical anachronism in Europe, was losing even the slight support it still had in surrounding public opinion, as the new doctrines changed men's ideas. What was more, the grand-master himself imbibed Protestant opinions and was a disciple of Luther and Melancthon. He resolved to bring down the fabric of the order about his ears and construct for himself a secular principality out of its ruins. Many of the knights shared or were gained over to his views; so he married a princess, and they took themselves wives—all becoming Protestants together, with the exception of a few tough old knights who transferred their chapter to Mergentheim in Würtemberg, where it remained, a curious relic, till the time of Napoleon. The secularization was formally completed at Cracow in April, 1525. There, in a square before the royal palace, on a throne emblazoned with the arms of Poland and Lithuania—a white eagle for the one, and a mounted knight for the other—the Polish king Sigismund received . . . the banner of the order, the knights standing by and agreeing to the surrender. In return, Sigismund embraced the late grand-master as Duke of Prussia, granting to him and the knights the former possessions of the order, as secular vassals of the Polish crown. The remainder of Sigismund's reign was worthy of this beginning; and at no time was Poland more flourishing than when his son, Sigismund II., the seventh of the Jagellonidæ, succeeded him on the throne. During the wise reign of this prince (1547-1572), whose tolerant policy in the matter of the great religious controversy then agitating Europe is not his least title to credit, Poland lost nothing of her prosperity or her greatness; and one of its last transactions was the consummation of the union between the two nations of Poland and Lithuania by their formal incorporation into one kingdom at the Diet of Lublin (July 1, 1569). But, alas for Poland, this seventh of the Jagellonidæ was also the last, and, on his death in 1572, Poland entered on that career of misery and decline, with the reminiscences of which her name is now associated."—*Poland: her Hist. and Prospects* (Westminster Rev., January, 1855).

Also in: H. Tuttle, *Hist. of Prussia, to Frederick the Great*, ch. 4.—S. A. Dunham, *Hist. of Poland*, bk. 1, ch. 8.

A. D. 1439.—Election of Ladislaus III. to the throne of Hungary. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1301-1442.

A. D. 1471-1479.—War with Matthias of Hungary. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1471-1487.

A. D. 1505-1588.—Enslavement of the peasantry. See SLAVERY, MEDIEVAL. POLAND.

A. D. 1573.—Election of Henry of Valois to the throne.—The Pacta Conventa.—On the election of Henry of Valois, Duke of Anjou, to the Polish throne (see FRANCE: A. D. 1573-1576), he was required to subscribe to a series of articles, known as the Pacta Conventa (and sometimes called the Articles of Henry), which were intended to be the basis of all future covenants between the Poles and their elective sovereigns. The chief articles of the Pacta Conventa were the following: "1. That the king should not in the remotest degree attempt to influence the senate in the choice of a successor; but should leave inviolable to the Polish nobles the right of electing one at his decease. 2. That he should not assume the title of 'master' and 'heir' of the monarchy, as borne by all preceding kings. 3. That he should observe the treaty of peace made with the dissidents. 4. That he should not declare war, or dispatch the nobles on any expedition, without the previous sanction of the diet. 5. That he should not impose taxes or contributions of any description. 6. That he should not have any authority to appoint ambassadors to foreign courts. 7. That in case of different opinions prevailing among the senators, he should espouse such only as were in accordance with the laws, and clearly advantageous to the nation. 8. That he should be furnished with a permanent council, the members of which (16 in number, viz 4 bishops, 4 palatines, and 8 castellans) should be changed every half year, and should be selected by the ordinary diets. 9. That a general diet should be convoked every two years, or oftener, if required. 10. That the duration of each diet should not exceed six weeks. 11. That no dignities or benefices should be conferred on other than natives. 12. That the king should neither marry nor divorce a wife without the permission of the diet. The violation of any one of these articles, even in spirit, was to be considered by the Poles as absolving them from their oaths of allegiance, and as empowering them to elect another ruler."—S. A. Dunham, *Hist. of Poland*, bk. 2, ch. 1.

A. D. 1574-1590.—Disgraceful abandonment of the throne by Henry of Valois.—Election of Stephen Batory.—His successful wars with Russia, and his death.—Election of Sigismund III., of Sweden.—The worthless French prince, Henry of Valois, whom the Poles had chosen to be their king, and whom they crowned at Cracow, on the 21st of February, 1574, "soon sighed for the banks of the Seine: amidst the ferocious people whose authority he was constrained to recognize, and who despised him for his imbecility, he had no hope of enjoyment. To escape their factions, their mutinies, their studied insults, he shut himself up within his palace, and, with the few countrymen whom he had been permitted to retain near his person, he abandoned himself to idleness and dissipation. . . . By the death of his brother [Charles IX. king of France], who died on the 30th of May, 1574, he was become heir to the crown of the Valois. His first object was to conceal the letters which announced that event, and to flee before the Poles could have any suspicion of his intention. The intelligence, however, transpired

through another channel. His senators advised him to convoke a diet, and, in conformity with the laws, to solicit permission of a short absence while he settled the affairs of his new heritage. Such permission would willingly have been granted him, more willingly still had he proposed an eternal separation, but he feared the ambition of his brother the duke of Alençon, who secretly aspired to the throne; and he resolved to depart without it. He concealed his extraordinary purpose with great art," and achieved a most contemptible success in carrying it out,—stealing away from his kingdom like a thief, on the night of the 18th of June. "Some letters found on a table in his apartment attempted to account for his precipitate departure by the urgency of the troubles in his hereditary kingdom; yet he did not reach Lyons till the following year. In a diet assembled at Warsaw, it was resolved that if the king did not return by the 12th of May, 1575, the throne should be declared vacant. Deputies were sent to acquaint him with the decree. . . . After the expiration of the term, the interregnum was proclaimed in the diet of Stenzycza, and a day appointed for a new election. After the deposition of Henry [now become Henry III of France], no less than five foreign and two native princes were proposed as candidates for the crown. The latter, however, refused to divide the suffrages of the republic, wisely preferring the privilege of electing kings to the honour of being elected themselves. The primate, many of the bishops, and several palatines, declared in favour of an Austrian prince, but the greater portion of the diet (assembled on the plains opposite to Warsaw) were for the princess Anne, sister of Sigismund Augustus, whose hand they resolved to confer on Stephen Batory, duke of Transylvania. Accordingly, Stephen was proclaimed king by Zamoyski, starost of Beltz, whose name was soon to prove famous in the annals of Poland. On the other hand, Uchanski the primate nominated the emperor Maximilian, who was proclaimed by the marshal of the crown: this party, however, being too feeble to contend with the great body of the equestrian order, despatched messengers to hasten the arrival of the emperor; but Zamoyski acted with still greater celerity. While his rival was busied about certain conditions, which the party of the primate forced on Maximilian, Batory arrived in Poland, married the princess, subscribed to every thing required from him, and was solemnly crowned. A civil war appeared inevitable, but the death of Maximilian happily averted the disaster. . . . But though Poland and Lithuania thus acknowledged the new king, Prussia, which had espoused the interests of the Austrian, was less tractable. The country, however, was speedily reduced to submission, with the exception of Dantzic, which not only refused to own him, but insisted on its recognition by the diet as a free and independent republic. . . . Had the Dantzickers sought no other glory than that of defending their city, had they resolutely kept within their entrenchments, they might have beheld the power of their king shattered against the bulwarks below them; but the principles which moved them pushed them on to temerity. . . . Their rashness cost them dear, the loss of 8,000 men compelled them again to seek the shelter of their walls, and annihilated their hope

of ultimate success. Fortunately they had to deal with a monarch of extraordinary moderation. . . . Their submission [1577] disarmed his resentment, and left him at liberty to march against other enemies. During this struggle of Stephen with his rebellious subjects, the Muscovites had laid waste Livonia. To punish their audacity and wrest from their grasp the conquests they had made during the reign of his immediate predecessors, was now his object. . . . Success every where accompanied him. Polotsk, Sakol, Turowla, and many other places, submitted to his arms. The investiture of the duchy (Polotsk, which the Muscovites had reduced in the time of Sigismund I.) he conferred on Gottard duke of Courland. On the approach of winter he returned, to obtain more liberal supplies for the ensuing campaign. Nothing can more strongly exhibit the different characters of the Poles and Lithuanians than the reception he met from each. At Wilna his splendid successes procured him the most enthusiastic welcome, at Warsaw they caused him to be received with sullen discontent. The Polish nobles were less alive to the glory of their country than to the preservation of their monstrous privileges, which, they apprehended, might be endangered under so vigilant and able a ruler. With the aid, however, of Zamoyski and some other leading barons, he again wrung a few supplies from that most jealous of bodies, a diet. . . . Stephen now directed his course towards the province of Novogorod, neither the innumerable marshes, nor the vast forests of these steppes, which had been untrodden by soldier's foot since the days of Witold, could stop his progress, he triumphed over every obstacle, and, with amazing rapidity, reduced the chief fortified towns between Livonia and that ancient mistress of the North. But his troops were thinned by fatigue, and even victory; reinforcements were peremptorily necessary, and though in an enfeebled state of health, he again returned to collect them. . . . The succeeding campaign promised to be equally glorious, when the tsar, by adroitly insinuating his inclination to unite the Greek with the Latin church, prevailed on the pope to interpose for peace. To the wishes of the papal see the king was ever ready to pay the utmost deference. The conditions were advantageous to the republic. If she surrendered her recent conquests—which she could not possibly have retained—she obtained an acknowledgment of her rights of sovereignty over Livonia; and Polotsk, with several surrounding fortresses, was annexed to Lithuania." Stephen Batory died in 1586, having vainly advised the diet to make the crown hereditary, and avert the ruin of the nation. The interregnum which ensued afforded opportunity for a fierce private war between the factions of the Zborowskis and the Zamoyskis. Then followed a disputed election of king, one party proclaiming the archduke Maximilian of Austria, the other Sigismund, prince royal of Sweden—a scion of the Jagellonic family—and both sides resorting to arms. Maximilian was defeated and taken prisoner, and only regained his freedom by relinquishing his claims to the Polish crown.—S. A. Dunham, *Hist. of Poland*, bk. 2, ch. 1.

A. D. 1578-1652.—Anarchy organized by the Nobles.—The extraordinary Constitution imposed by them on the country.—The Liberum

Veto and its effects.—"On the death of the last Jagellon, 1573, at a time when Bohemia and Hungary were deprived of the power of electing their kings, when Sweden renounced this right in favour of its monarchs, Poland renewed its privilege in its most comprehensive form. At a time when European monarchs gradually deprived the great feudal barons of all share in the administration of the law, . . . the Polish nobles destroyed the last vestiges of the royal prerogative. . . . In the year 1578 the kings lost the right of bestowing the patent of nobility, which was made over to the diet. The kings had no share in the legislation, as the laws were made in every interregnum. As soon as the throne became vacant by the death of a king, and before the diet appointed a successor the nobles of the provinces assembled to examine into the administration of the late king and his senate. Any law that was not approved of could be repealed and new arrangements proposed, which became law if the votes of the diet were unanimous. This unanimity was most easily obtained when a law threatened the individual or when the royal prerogative was to be decreased."

. . . The king had no share in the administration, and even the most urgent circumstances did not justify his acting without the co-operation of the senate [which consisted of 17 archbishops and bishops, 33 palatines or voivodes—"war-leaders"—who were governors of provinces or palatinates, and 85 castellans, who were originally commanders in the royal cities and fortresses but who had become "like the voivodes, quite independent of the king"]. The senate deprived the king of the power of making peace or war. . . . If there was a hostile invasion war became a matter of course, but it was carried on, on their own account, by the palatines most nearly concerned, and often without the assistance of the king. Bribery, intrigue and party spirit were the only means of influence that could be employed by a king, who was excluded from the administration, who was without domains, without private property or settled revenue, who was surrounded by officers he could not depose and by judges who could be deposed, and who was, in short, without real power of any sort. The senate itself was deprived of its power, and the representatives of the nobles seized upon the highest authority.

. . . They alone held the public offices and the highest ecclesiastical benefices. They filled the seats of the judges exclusively, and enjoyed perfect immunity from taxes, duties, &c. Another great evil from which the republic suffered was the abuse of the liberum veto, which, dangerous as it was in itself, had become law in 1652." This gave the power of veto to every single voice in the assemblies of the nobles, or in the meetings of the deputies who represented them. Nothing could be adopted without entire unanimity; and yet deputies to the diet were allowed no discretion. "They received definite instructions as to the demands they were to bring forward and the concessions they were to make. . . . One step only was wanting before unanimity of votes became an impossibility, and anarchy was completely organized. This step was taken when individual palatines enjoined their deputies to oppose every discussion at the diet, till their own proposals had been heard and acceded to. Before long, several deputies re-

ceived the same instructions, and thus the diet was in fact dissolved before it was opened. Other deputies refused to consent to any proposals, if those of their own province were not accepted; so that the veto of one deputy in a single transaction could bring about the dissolution of the entire diet, and the exercise of the royal authority was thus suspended for two years [since the diet could only be held every other year, to last no longer than a fortnight, and to sit during daylight, only]. . . . No law could be passed, nothing could be resolved upon. The army received no pay. Provinces were desolated by enemies, and none came to their aid. Justice was delayed, the coinage was debased; in short, Poland ceased for the next two years to exist as a state. Every time that a rupture occurred in the diet it was looked on as a national calamity. The curse of posterity was invoked on that deputy who had occasioned it, and on his family. In order to save themselves from popular fury, these deputies were accustomed to hand in their protest in writing, and then to wander about, unknown and without rest, cursed by the nation."

—(Count Moltke, *Poland: an Historical Sketch*, ch. 3.—) It was not till 1652 . . . that this principle of equality, or the free consent of every individual Pole of the privileged class to every act done in the name of the nation, reached its last logical excess. In that year, the king John Casimir having embroiled himself with Sweden, a deputy in the Diet was bold enough to use the right which by theory belonged to him, and by his single veto, not only arrest the preparations for a war with Sweden, but also quash all the proceedings of the Diet. Such was the first case of the exercise of that liberum veto of which we hear so much in subsequent Polish history, and which is certainly the greatest curiosity, in the shape of a political institution, with which the records of any nation present us. From that time every Pole walked over the earth a conscious incarnation of a power such as no mortal man out of Poland possessed—that of putting a spoke into the whole legislative machinery of his country and bringing it to a dead lock by his own single obstinacy, and, though the exercise of the power was a different thing from its possession, yet every now and then a man was found with nerve enough to put it in practice. . . .

There were, of course, various remedies for this among an inventive people. One, and the most obvious and most frequent, was to knock the vetoist down and throttle him, another, in cases where he had a party at his back, was to bring soldiers round the Diet and coerce it into unanimity. There was also the device of what were called confederations, that is, associations of the nobles independent of the Diet, adopting decrees with the sanction of the king, and imposing them by force on the country. These confederations acquired a kind of legal existence in the intervals between the Diets. —*Poland: her History and Prospects* (Westminster Rev., Jan., 1855).

A. D. 1586-1629.—Election of Sigismund of Sweden to the throne.—His succession to the Swedish crown and his deposition.—His claims and the consequent war. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN). A. D. 1533-1604; and 1611-1629.

A. D. 1590-1648.—Reigns of Sigismund III. and Ladislaus IV.—Wars with the Muscovites, the Turks and the Swedes.—Domestic

discord in the kingdom.—“The new king, who was elected out of respect for the memory of the house of Jaguello (being the son of the sister of Sigismund Augustus), was not the kind of monarch Poland at that time required. . . . He was too indolent to take the reins of government into his own hands, but placed them in those of the Jesuits and his German favourites. Not only did he thereby lose the affections of his people, but he also lost the crown of Sweden, to which, at his father's death, he was the rightful heir. This throne was wrested from him by his uncle Charles, the brother of the late king [see SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1523-1604]. This usurpation by Charles was the cause of a war between Sweden and Poland, which, although conducted with great skill by the illustrious generals Zamoyski and Chodkiewicz, terminated disastrously for Poland, for, after this war, a part of Livonia remained in the hands of the Swedes.” During the troubled state of affairs at Moscow which followed the death, in 1584, of Ivan the Terrible, Sigismund interfered and sent an army which took possession of the Russian capital and remained in occupation of it for some time (see RUSSIA. A. D. 1533-1682).

“As a consequence the Muscovites offered the throne of the Czar to Ladislas, the eldest son of the King of Poland, on condition that he would change his religion and become a member of ‘the Orthodox Church.’ Sigismund III, who was a zealous Catholic, and under the influence of the Jesuits, wishing rather to convert the Muscovites to the Catholic Church, would not permit Ladislas to change his faith—refused the throne of the Czar for his son. . . . By the peace concluded at Moscow, 1619, the fortress of Smolenski and a considerable part of Muscovy remained in the hands of the Poles. . . . Sigismund III, whose reign was so disastrous to Poland, kept up intimate relations with the house of Austria. The Emperor invited him to take part with him in what is historically termed ‘the Thirty Years’ War.’ Sigismund complied with this request, and sent the Emperor of Austria some of his Cossack regiments. . . . Whilst the Emperor was on the one hand engaged in ‘the Thirty Years’ War,’ he was on the other embroiled with Turkey. The Sultan, in revenge for the aid which the Poles had afforded the Austrians, entered Moldavia with a considerable force. Sigismund III. sent his able general Zolkiewski against the Turks, but as the Polish army was much smaller than that of the Turks, it was defeated on the battlefield of Cecora [1621], in Moldavia, [its] general killed, and many of his soldiers taken prisoners. After this unfortunate campaign. . . the Sultan Osman, at the head of 300 000 Mussulmans, confident in the number and valour of his army, marched towards the frontier of Poland with the intention of subjugating the entire kingdom. At this alarming news a Diet was convoked in all haste, at which it was determined that there should be a ‘levée en masse,’ in order to drive away the terrible Mussulman scourge. But before this levée en masse could be organized, the Hetman Chodkiewicz, who had succeeded Zolkiewski as commander-in-chief, crossed the river Dniester with 25,000 soldiers and 80,000 Cossacks, camped under the walls of the fortress of Chocim [or Kotzim, or Khotzim, or Choczim] and there awaited the enemy, to whom, on his appearance,

he gave battle [Sept. 28, 1622], and, notwithstanding the disproportion of the two armies, the Turks were utterly routed. The Moslems left on the battlefield, besides the dead, guns, tents, and provisions. . . . After this brilliant victory a peace was concluded with Turkey; and I think I am justified in saying that, by this victory, the whole of Western Europe was saved from Mussulman invasion. . . . The successful Polish general unhappily did not long survive his brilliant victory. . . . While these events were taking place in the southern provinces, Gustavus Adolphus, who had succeeded to the throne of Sweden, marched into the northern province of Livonia, where there were no Polish troops to resist him (all having been sent against the Turks), and took possession of this Polish province [see SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1611-1629]. Gustavus Adolphus, however, proposed to restore it to Poland on condition that Sigismund III. would renounce all claim to the crown of Sweden, to which the Polish sovereign was the rightful heir. But in this matter, as in all previous ones, the Polish king acted with the same obstinacy, and the same disregard for the interests of the kingdom. He would not accept the terms offered by Gustavus Adolphus, and by his refusal Poland lost the entire province of Livonia with the exception of the city of Dynabourg.” Sigismund III died in 1632, and his eldest son, Ladislas IV., “was immediately elected King of Poland, a proceeding which spared the kingdom all the miseries attendant on an interregnum. In 1633, after the successful campaign against the Muscovites, in which the important fortified city of Smolensk, as well as other territory, was taken, a treaty advantageous to Poland was concluded. Soon afterwards, through the intervention of England and France, another treaty was made between Poland and Sweden by which the King of Sweden restored to Poland a part of Prussia which had been annexed by Sweden. Thus the reign of Ladislas IV. commenced auspiciously with regard to external matters. . . . Unhappily the bitter quarrels of the nobles were incessant; their only unanimity consisted in trying to foil the good intentions of their kings.” Ladislas IV. died in 1648, and was succeeded by his brother, John Casimir, who had entered the Order of the Jesuits some years before, and had been made a cardinal by the Pope, but who was now absolved from his vows and permitted to marry.—K. Wolski, *Poland*, lect. 11-12.

A. D. 1610-1612.—Intervention in Russia.—Occupation of and expulsion from Moscow. See RUSSIA. A. D. 1533-1682.

A. D. 1648-1654.—The great revolt of the Cossacks.—Their allegiance transferred to the Russian Czar.—Since 1820, the Cossacks of the Ukraine had acknowledged allegiance, first, to the Grand Duke of Lithuania, and afterwards to the king of Poland on the two crowns becoming united in the Jagellon family [see COSSACKS]. They had long been treated by the Poles with harshness and insolence, and in the time of the hetman Bogdan Khmelnitaki, who had personally suffered grievous wrongs at the hands of the Poles, they were ripe for revolt (1648). “His standard was joined by hordes of Tatars from Bessarabia and the struggle partook to a large extent of the nature of a holy war, as the Cossacks and Malo-Russians generally were of the

Greek faith, and their violence was directed against the Roman Catholics and Jews. It would be useless to encumber our pages with the details of the brutal massacres inflicted by the infuriated peasants in this jacquerie; unfortunately their atrocities had been provoked by the cruelties of their masters. Bogdan succeeded in taking Lemberg, and became master of all the palatinate, with the exception of Zamosc, a fortress into which the Polish authorities retreated. On the election of John Casimir as king of Poland, he at once opened negotiations with the successful Cossack, and matters were about to be arranged peacefully. Khmelnitski accepted the 'bulava' of a hetman which was offered him by the king. The Cossacks demanded the restoration of their ancient privileges, the removal of the detested Union—as the attempt to amalgamate the Greek and Latin Churches was called—the banishment of the Jesuits from the Ukraine, and the expulsion of the Jews, with other conditions. They were rejected, however, as impossible, and Prince Wisniowiecki, taking advantage of the security into which the Cossacks were lulled fell upon them treacherously and defeated them with great slaughter. All compromise now seemed hopeless, but the desertion of his Tatar allies made Bogdan again listen to terms at Zborow. The peace, however, was of short duration, and on the 28th of June, 1651, at the battle of Beresteczko in Galicia the hosts of Bogdan were defeated with great slaughter. After this engagement Bogdan saw that he had no chance of withstanding the Poles by his own resources, and accordingly sent an embassy to Moscow in 1652, offering to transfer himself and his confederates to the allegiance of the Tsar. The negotiations were protracted for some time, and were concluded at Pereiaslavl, when Bogdan and seven thousand Russian regiments took the oath to Buturlin, the Tsar's commissioner. Quite recently a monument has been erected to the Cossack chief at Kiev, but he seems, to say the least, to have been a man of doubtful honesty. Since this time the Cossacks have formed an integral part of the Russian Empire.—W. R. Morrell, *The Story of Russia*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: Count H. Krasinski, *The Cossacks of the Ukraine*, ch. 1.

A. D. 1652.—First exercise of the *Liberum Veto*. See above. A. D. 1578-1652.

A. D. 1656-1657.—Rapid and ephemeral conquest by Charles X. of Sweden.—Loss of the Feudal overlordship of Prussia. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1644-1697, and BRANDENBURG: A. D. 1640-1688.

A. D. 1668-1696.—Abdication of John Casimir.—War with the Turks.—Election and reign of John Sobieski.—“In 1668, John Casimir, whose disposition had always been that of a monk rather than that of a king, resigned his throne, and retired to France, where he died as Abbé de St Germain in 1672. He left the kingdom shorn of a considerable part of its ancient dominions; for, besides that portion of it which had been annexed to Muscovy, Poland sustained another loss in this reign by the erection of the Polish dependency of Brandenburg [Prussia] into an independent state—the germ of the present Prussian kingdom. For two years after the abdication of John Casimir, the country was in a state of turmoil and confusion, caused partly by the recent calamities, and partly by intrigues

regarding the succession; but in 1670, a powerful faction of the inferior nobles secured the election of Michael Wisniowiecki, an amiable but silly young man. His election gave rise to great dissatisfaction among the Polish grandees and it is probable that a civil war would have broken out, had not the Poles been called upon to use all their energies against their old enemies the Turks. Crossing the south-eastern frontier of Poland with an immense army, these formidable foes swept all before them. Polish valour, even when commanded by the greatest of Polish geniuses, was unable to check their progress; and in 1672 a dishonourable treaty was concluded, by which Poland ceded to Turkey a section of her territories, and engaged to pay to the sultan an annual tribute of 22,000 ducats. No sooner was this ignominious treaty concluded, than the Polish nobles became ashamed of it; and it was resolved to break the peace, and challenge Turkey once more to a decisive death-grapple. Luckily, at this moment Wisniowiecki died; and on the 20th of April 1674, the Polish diet elected, as his successor, John Sobieski—a name illustrious in the history of Poland. . . . He was of a noble family, his father being castellan of Cracow, and the proprietor of princely estates; and his mother being descended from Zalkiewski, one of the most celebrated generals that Poland had produced. . . . In the year 1660, he was one of the commanders of the Polish army sent to repel the Russians, who were ravaging the eastern provinces of the kingdom. A great victory which he gained at Slobadysa over the Muscovite general Sheremetoff, established his military reputation, and from that time the name of Sobieski was known over all Eastern Europe. His fame increased during the six years which followed, till he outshone all his contemporaries. He was created by his sovereign, John Casimir, first the Grand marshal, and afterwards the Grand hetman of the kingdom; the first being the highest civil, and the second the highest military, dignity in Poland, and the two having never before been held in conjunction by the same individual. These dignities, having once been conferred on Sobieski, could not be revoked; for, by the Polish constitution, the king, though he had the power to confer honours, was not permitted to resume them. . . . When John Casimir abdicated the throne, Sobieski, retaining his office of Grand hetman under his successor, the feeble Wisniowiecki, was commander-in-chief of the Polish forces against the Turks. In the campaigns of 1671 and 1672, his successes against this powerful enemy were almost miraculous. But all his exertions were insufficient, in the existing condition of the republic, to deliver it from the terror of the impetuous Mussulmans. In 1672, as we have already informed our readers, a disgraceful truce was concluded between the Polish diet and the sultan. . . . When . . . Sobieski, as Grand-hetman, advised the immediate rupture of the dishonourable treaty with the Turks, [the] approval was unanimous and enthusiastic. Raising an army of 30,000 men, not without difficulty, Sobieski marched against the Turks. He laid siege to the fortress of Kotzim, garrisoned by a strong Turkish force, and hitherto deemed impregnable. The fortress was taken; the provinces of Moldavia and Walachia yielded; the Turks hastily retreated across the Danube; and Europe thanked God for the most

signal success which, for three centuries, Christendom had gained over the Infidel.' While the Poles were preparing to follow up their victory, intelligence reached the camp that Wisniowiecki was dead. He had died of a surfeit of apples sent him from Danzig. The army returned home, to be present at the assembling of the diet for the election of the new sovereign. The diet had already met when Sobieski, and those of the Polish nobles who had been with him, reached Warsaw. The electors were divided respecting the claims of two candidates, both foreigners—Charles of Lorraine, who was supported by Austria; and Philip of Neuburg, who was supported by Louis XIV. of France. Many of the Polish nobility had become so corrupt, that foreign gold and foreign influence ruled the diet. In this case, the Austrian candidate seemed to be most favourably received; but, as the diet was engaged in the discussion, Sobieski entered, and taking his place in the diet, proposed the Prince of Condé. A stormy discussion ensued, in the midst of which the cry of 'Let a Pole rule over Poland,' was raised by one of the nobles, who further proposed that John Sobieski should be elected. The proposition went with the humour of the assembly, and Sobieski, under the title of John III., was proclaimed king of Poland (1674). Sobieski accepted the proffered honour, and immediately set about improving the national affairs, founding an institution for the education of Polish nobles, and increasing the army.

After several battles of lesser moment with his Turkish foes, Sobieski prepared for a grand effort; but before he could mature his plans, the Pasha of Damascus appeared with an army of 300,000 men on the Polish frontier, and threatened the national subjugation. With the small force he could immediately collect, amounting to not more than 10,000 soldiers, Sobieski opposed this enormous force, taking up his position in two small villages on the banks of the Dniester, where he withstood a bombardment of 20 days. Food and ammunition had failed, but still the Poles held out. Gathering the balls and shells which the enemy threw within their entrenchments, they thrust them into their own cannons and mortars, and dashed them back against the faces of the Turks, who surrounded them on all sides at the distance of a musket-shot. The besiegers were surprised, and slackened their fire. At length, early in the morning of the 14th of October 1683, they saw the Poles issue slowly out of their entrenchments in order of battle, and apparently confident of victory. A superstitious fear came over them at such a strange sight. No ordinary mortal, they thought, could dare such a thing; and the Tartars cried out that it was useless to fight against the wizard king. The pasha himself was superior to the fears of his men; but knowing that succours were approaching from Poland, he offered an honourable peace, which was accepted, and Sobieski returned home in triumph. Seven years of peace followed. These were spent by Sobieski in performing his ordinary duties as king of Poland—duties which the constant jealousies and discords of the nobles rendered by no means easy. . . . It was almost a relief to the hero when, in 1683, a threatened invasion of Christendom by the Turks called him again to the field. . . . After completely clearing Austria of the Turks [see HUNGARY: A. D. 1683-1684], Sobieski returned to Poland,

again to be harassed with political and domestic annoyances. . . . Clogged and confined by an absurd system of government, to which the nobles tenaciously clung, his genius was prevented from employing itself with effect upon great national objects. He died suddenly on Corpus Christi Day, in the year 1696; and 'with him,' says the historian, 'the glory of Poland descended to the tomb.' On the death of Sobieski, the crown of Poland was disposed of to the highest bidder. The competitors were James Sobieski, the son of John; the Prince of Conti; the Elector of Bavaria; and Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony. The last was the successful candidate, having bought over one half of the Polish nobility, and terrified the other half by the approach of his Saxon troops. He had just succeeded to the electorate of Saxony, and was already celebrated as one of the strongest and most handsome men in Europe. Augustus entertained a great ambition to be a conqueror, and the particular province which he wished to annex to Poland was Livonia, on the Baltic—a province which had originally belonged to the Teutonic Knights, for which the Swedes, Poles, and Russians had long contended; but which had now, for nearly a century, been in the possession of Sweden."—*Hist. of Poland (Chambers's Miscellany, no. 29 (v. 4))*.

ALSO IN: A. T. Palmer, *Life of John Sobieski*.
A. D. 1683.—Sobieski's deliverance of Vienna from the Turks. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1683-1684.

A. D. 1684-1696.—War of the Holy League against the Turks. See TURKS: A. D. 1684-1696.

A. D. 1696-1698.—Disputed Election of a King.—The crown gained by Augustus of Saxony.—On the death of Sobieski, Louis XIV., of France, put forward the Prince of Conti as a candidate for the vacant Polish throne. "The Emperor, the Pope, the Jesuits and Russia united in supporting the Elector Augustus of Saxony. The Elector had just abjured, in view of the throne of Poland, and the Pope found it quite natural to recompense the hereditary chief of the Lutheran party for having reentered the Roman Church. The Jesuits, who were only too powerful in Poland, feared the Jansenist relations of Conti. As to the young Czar Peter, he wished to have Poland remain his ally, his instrument against the Turk and the Swede, and feared lest the French spirit should come to reorganize that country. He had chosen his candidate wisely: the Saxon king was to begin the ruin of Poland! The financial distress of France did not permit the necessary sacrifices, in an affair wherein money was to play an important part, to be made in time. The Elector of Saxony, on the contrary, exhausted his States to purchase partisans and soldiers. The Prince de Conti had, nevertheless, the majority, and was proclaimed King at Warsaw, June 27, 1697; but the minority proclaimed and called the Elector, who hastened with Saxon troops, and was consecrated King of Poland at Cracow (September 15). Conti, retarded by an English fleet that had obstructed his passage, did not arrive by sea till September 26 at Danzig, which refused to receive him. The Prince took with him neither troops nor money. The Elector had had, on the contrary, all the time necessary to organize his resources. The Russians were threatening

Lithuania. Conti, abandoned by a great part of his adherents, abandoned the undertaking, and returned to France in the month of November . . . In the following year Augustus of Saxony was recognized as King of Poland by all Europe, even by France."—H. Martin, *Hist. of France: Age of Louis XIV.*, v. 2, ch. 4.

A. D. 1699.—The Peace of Carlowitz with the Sultan. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1683-1699

A. D. 1700.—Aggressive league with Russia and Denmark against Charles XII. of Sweden. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN) A. D. 1697-1700.

A. D. 1701-1707.—Subjugation by Charles XII. of Sweden.—Deposition of Augustus from the throne.—Election of Stanislaus Lecinski. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN) A. D. 1701-1707.

A. D. 1709.—Restoration of Augustus to the throne.—Expulsion of Stanislaus Lecinski. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN) A. D. 1707-1718

A. D. 1720.—Peace with Sweden.—Recognition of Augustus.—Stanislaus allowed to call himself king. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN) A. D. 1719-1721

A. D. 1732-1733.—The election to the throne a European question.—France against Russia, Austria and Prussia.—Triumph of the three powers.—The crown renewed to the House of Saxony.—"It became clear that before long a struggle would take place for the Crown of Poland, in which the powers of Europe must interest themselves very closely. Two parties will compete for that uneasy throne: on the one side will stand the northern powers, supporting the claims of the House of Saxony, which was endeavouring to make the Crown hereditary and to restrict it to the Saxon line, on the other side we shall find France alone, desiring to retain the old elective system, and to place on the throne some prince, who, much beholden to her, should cherish French influences, and form a centre of resistance against the dominance of the northern powers. England stands neutral the other powers are indifferent or exhausted. With a view to the coming difficulty, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, made a secret agreement in 1732, by which they bound themselves to resist all French influences in Poland. With this pact begins that system of nursing and interferences with which the three powers pushed the 'sick man of the North' to its ruin; it is the first stage towards the Partition treaties. Early in 1733 Augustus II of Poland died: the Poles dreading these powerful neighbours, and drawn, as ever, by a subtle sympathy towards France, at once took steps to resist dictation, declared that they would elect none but a native prince, sent envoys to demand French help, and summoned Stanislaus Lecinski to Warsaw. Lecinski had been the protégé of Charles XII, who had set him on the Polish throne in 1704; with the fall of the great Swede the little Pole also fell (1712); after some vicissitudes he quietly settled at Weissenburg, whence his daughter Marie went to ascend the throne of France as spouse of Louis XV (1725). Now in 1733 the national party in Poland re-elected him their king, by a vast majority of votes: there was, however, an Austro-Russian faction among the nobles, and these, supported by strong armies of Germans and Russians,

nominated Augustus III of Saxony to the throne; he had promised the Empress Anne to cede Courland to Russia, and Charles VI he had won over by acknowledging the Pragmatic Sanction. War thus became inevitable the French majority had no strength with which to maintain their candidate against the forces of Russia and Austria, and France, instead of affording Stanislaus effective support at Warsaw, declared war against Austria. The luckless King was obliged to escape from Warsaw, and took refuge in Danzig, expecting French help: all that came was a single ship and 1,500 men, who, landing at the mouth of the Vistula, tried in vain to break the Russian lines. Their aid thus proving vain, Danzig capitulated, and Stanislaus, a broken refugee, found his way, with many adventures, back to France; Poland submitted to Augustus III."—G. W. Kitchen, *Hist. of France*, bk. 6, ch. 2 (v. 3).

A. D. 1763-1773.—The First Partition and the events which led to it.—The respective shares of Russia, Austria and Prussia.—"In 1762, Catherine II ascended the throne of Russia. Everybody knows what ambition filled the mind of this woman, how she longed to bring two quarters of the globe under her rule, or under her influence, and how, above all, she was bent on playing a great part in the affairs of Western Europe. Poland lay between Europe and her empire, she was bound, therefore, to get a firm footing in Poland . . . On the death of Augustus III, therefore, she would permit no foreign prince to mount the throne of Poland, but selected a native Polish nobleman, from the numerous class of Russian hirelings, and cast her eye upon a nephew of the Czartoriskys, Stanislaus Poniatowski, a former lover of her own. Above all things she desired to perpetuate the chronic anarchy of Poland, so as to ensure the weakness of that kingdom . . . A further desire in Catherine's mind arose from her own peculiar position in Russia at that time. She had deposed her Imperial Consort, deprived her son of the succession, and ascended the throne without the shadow of a title. During the first years of her reign, therefore, her situation was extremely critical." She desired to render herself popular, and "she could find nothing more in accordance with the disposition of the Russians . . . than the protection of the Greek Catholics in Poland. Incredible as it may seem, the frantic fanaticism of the Polish rulers had begun, in the preceding twenty or thirty years, to limit and partially to destroy, by harsh enactments, the ancient rights of the Nonconformists. . . . In the year 1763 a complaint was addressed to Catherine by Konisky, the Greek Bishop of Mohilev, that 150 parishes of his diocese had been forcibly Romanised by the Polish authorities. The Empress resolved to recover for the dissenters in Poland at least some of their ancient rights, and thus secure their eternal devotion to herself, and inspire the Russian people with grateful enthusiasm. At this time, however, King Augustus III. was attacked by his last illness. A new king must soon be elected at Warsaw, upon which occasion all the European Powers would make their voices heard. Catherine, therefore, in the spring of 1763, first sounded the Cabinets of Vienna and Berlin, in order, if possible, to gain common ground and their support for her diplomatic action. The

reception which her overtures met with at the two courts was such as to influence the next ten years of the history of Poland and Europe . . . At Vienna, ever since Peter III. had renounced the Austrian alliance, a very unfavourable feeling towards Russia prevailed. . . . The result was that Austria came to no definite resolution, but returned a sullen and evasive reply. It was far otherwise with Frederick II of Prussia. That energetic and clear sighted statesman had his faults, but indecision had never been one of them. He agreed with Catherine in desiring that Poland should remain weak. On the other hand, he failed not to perceive that an excessive growth of Russia, and an abiding Russian occupation of Poland, might seriously threaten him. Nevertheless, he did not waver a moment. . . . He needed a powerful ally. . . . Russia alone was left, and he unhesitatingly seized her offered hand. . . . It was proposed to him that six articles should be signed, with certain secret provisions, by which were secured the election of a native for the throne of Poland, the maintenance of the *Liberum Veto* (i. e., of the anarchy of the nobles), and the support of the Nonconformists; while it was determined to prevent in Sweden all constitutional reforms. Frederick, who was called upon to protect the West Prussian Lutherans, just as the aid of Catherine had been sought by the Greek Bishop of Mohilev, made no objection. After the death of King Augustus III. of Poland, in October, 1763, Frederick signed the above treaty, April 11th, 1764. This understanding between the two Northern Powers caused no small degree of excitement at Vienna. It was immediately feared that Prussia and Russia would at once seize on Polish provinces. . . . This anxiety, however, was altogether premature. No one at St. Petersburg wished for a partition of Poland, but for increased influence over the entire Polish realm. Frederick II., for his part, did not aim at any territorial extension, but would abandon Poland for the time to Russia, that he might secure peace for his country by a Russian alliance. . . . Meanwhile, matters in Poland proceeded according to the wishes of Catherine. Her path was opened to her by the Poles themselves. It was at the call of the Czartoriskys [a wealthy and powerful Polish family], that a Russian army corps of 10,000 men entered the country, occupied Warsaw, and put down the opposing party. It was under the same protection that Stanislaus Poniatowsky was unanimously elected King, on September 1st, 1764. But the Czartoriskys were too clever. They intended, after having become masters of Poland by the help of Russia, to reform the constitution, to establish a regular administration, to strengthen the Crown, and finally to bow the Russians out of the kingdom." The Czartoriskys were soon at issue with the Russian envoy, who commanded the support of all their political opponents, together with that of all the religious Nonconformists, both in the Greek Church and among the Protestants. The King, too, went over to the latter, bought by a Russian subsidy. But this Russian confederation was speedily broken up, when the question of granting civil equality to the Nonconformists came up for settlement. The Russians carried the measure through by force and the act embodying it was signed March 5, 1768. "It was just here that the conflagration arose which first brought fear-

ful evils upon the country itself, and then threatened all Europe with incalculable dangers. At Bar, in Podolia, two courageous men, Pulawski and Krasinski, who were deeply revolted at the concession of civil rights to heretics, set on foot a new Confederation to wage a holy war for the unity and purity of the Church. . . . The Roman Catholic population of every district joined the Confederation. . . . A terrible war began in the southern provinces. . . . The war on both sides was carried on with savage cruelty; prisoners were tortured to death; neither person nor property was spared. Other complications soon arose. . . . When . . . the Russians, in eager pursuit of a defeated band of Confederates, crossed the Turkish frontier, and the little town of Balta was burnt during an obstinate fight, . . . the Sultan, in an unexpected access of fury, declared war against Russia in October, 1768, because, as he stated in his manifesto, he could no longer endure the wrong done to Poland [see *TURKS* A D 1768-1774]. Thus, by a sudden turn of affairs, this Polish question had become a European question of the first importance, and no one felt the change more deeply than King Frederick II. He knew Catherine well enough to be sure that she would not end the war now begun with Turkey, without some material gain to herself. It was equally plain that Austria would never leave to Russia territorial conquests of any great extent in Turkey. . . . The slightest occurrence might divide all Europe into two hostile camps, and Germany would, as usual, from her central position, have to suffer the worst evils of a general war. Frederick II. was thrown into the greatest anxiety by this danger, and he meditated continually how to prevent the outbreak of war. The main question in his mind was how to prevent a breach between Austria and Russia. Catherine wanted to gain more territory, while Austria could not allow her to make any conquests in Turkey. Frederick was led to inquire whether greater compliance might not be shown at Vienna, if Catherine, instead of a Turkish, were to take a Polish province, and were also to agree, on her part, to an annexation of Polish territory by Austria?" When this scheme—put forward as one originating with Count Lynar, a Saxon diplomatist—was broached at St. Petersburg, it met with no encouragement; but subsequently the same plan took shape in the mind of the young Emperor Joseph II., and he persuaded his mother, Maria Theresa, to consent to it. Negotiations to that end were opened with the Russian court. "After the foregoing proceedings, it was easy for Russia and Prussia to come to a speedy agreement. On February 17, 1772, a treaty was signed allotting West Prussia to the King, and the Polish territories east of the Dnieper and Duna to the Empress. The case of Austria was a more difficult one. . . . The treaty of partition was not signed by the three Powers until August, 1772. . . . The Prussian and Austrian troops now entered Poland on every side, simultaneously with the Russians. The bands of the Confederates, which had hitherto kept the Russians on the alert, now dispersed without further attempt at resistance. As soon as external tranquillity had been restored, a Diet was convened, in order at once to legalise the cession of the provinces to the three Powers by a formal compact, and to regulate

EASTERN EUROPE IN 1768 A.D.

SHOWING SUBSEQUENT CHANGES DURING THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

PARTITION OF POLAND ETC.

HOHENZOLLERN (PRUSSIA)

HABSBURG (AUSTRIA)

RUSSIAN

POLISH

TURKISH

VENETIAN

THE TERRITORY WON BEFORE THE CLOSE OF THE CENTURY BY THE THREE POWERS PRUSSIA, AUSTRIA AND RUSSIA SHOWN IN BORDER LINE OF THEIR RESPECTIVE COLORS

CENTRAL EUROPE

AT THE PEACE OF CAMPO FORMIO (1797)

AUSTRIAN

PRUSSIAN

RUSSIAN

FRENCH

DANISH

ECCLASIAL STATES OF THE EMPIRE

THE BOUNDARY OF THE EMPIRE IS SHOWN BY THE HEAVY RED LINE

SWEDISH

PAPAL STATES

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the constitutional questions which had been unsettled since the revolt of the Confederation of Bar. It took some time to arrive at this result, and many a bold speech was uttered by the Poles; but it is sad to think that the real object of every discussion was the fixing the amount of donations and pensions which the individual senators and deputies were to receive from the Powers for their votes. Hereupon the act of cession was unanimously passed. . . . The *Liberum Veto*, the anarchy of the nobles, and the impotence of the Sovereign, were continued."—H. von Sybel, *The First Partition of Poland* (*Fortnightly Rev.*, July, 1874, v. 22).—"One's clear belief . . . is of two things: First, that, as everybody admits, Friedrich had no real hand in starting the notion of Partitioning Poland;—but that he grasped at it with eagerness as the one way of saving Europe from War: Second, what has been much less noticed, that, under any other hand, it would have led Europe to War; and that to Friedrich is due the fact that it got effected without such accompaniment. [Carlyle's statement of the sharing of the Polish territory in the several partitions is incorrect. The following, from Witzleben, is more trustworthy: Russia, 8782 German square miles; Prussia, 2641; Austria, 2205] . . . Friedrich's share . . . as filling up the always dangerous gap between his Ost-Preussen and him, has, under Prussian administration, proved much the most valuable of the Three; and, next to Silesia, is Friedrich's most important acquisition. September 13th, 1772, it was at last entered upon,—through such wasteweltering confusions, and on terms never yet unquestionable. Consent of Polish Diet was not had for a year more; but that is worth little record."—T. Carlyle, *Hist. of Frederick the Great*, bk. 21, ch. 4 (v. 6).

ALSO IN: W. Coxe, *Hist. of the House of Austria*, ch. 119 (v. 3).

A. D. 1791-1792.—The reformed Constitution of 1791 and its Russian strangulation.—"After the first Partition of Poland was completed in 1776, that devoted country was suffered for sixteen years to enjoy an interval of more undisturbed tranquillity than it had known for a century. Russian armies ceased to vex it. The dispositions of other foreign powers became more favourable. Frederic II now entered on that spotless and honourable portion of his reign, in which he made a just war for the defence of the integrity of Bavaria, and of the independence of Germany. . . . Attempts were not wanting to seduce him into new enterprises against Poland. . . . As soon as Frederic returned to counsels worthy of himself, he became unfit for the purposes of the Empress, who, in 1780, refused to renew her alliance with him, and found a more suitable instrument of her designs in the restless character, and shallow understanding, of Joseph II, whose unprincipled ambition was now released from the restraint which his mother's scruples had imposed on it. . . . Other powers now adopted a policy, of which the influence was favourable to the Poles. Prussia, as she receded from Russia, became gradually connected with England, Holland, and Sweden; and her honest policy in the care of Bavaria placed her at the head of all the independent members of the Germanic Confederacy. Turkey declared war against Russia; and the Austrian Government was disturbed by the discontent

and revolts which the precipitate innovations of Joseph had excited in various provinces of the monarchy. A formidable combination against the power of Russia was in process of time formed. . . . In the treaty between Prussia and the Porte, concluded at Constantinople in January, 1790, the contracting parties bound themselves to endeavour to obtain from Austria the restitution of those Polish provinces to which she had given the name of Galicia. During the progress of these auspicious changes, the Polish nation began to entertain the hope that they might at length be suffered to reform their institutions, to provide for their own quiet and safety, and to adopt that policy which might one day enable them to resume their ancient station among European nations. From 1778 to 1788, no great measures had been adopted; but no tumults disturbed the country: reasonable opinions made some progress, and a national spirit was slowly reviving. The nobility patiently listened to plans for the establishment of a productive revenue and a regular army; a disposition to renounce their dangerous right of electing a king made perceptible advances; and the fatal law of unanimity had been so branded as an instrument of Russian policy, that in the Diets of these ten years no *nuncio* was found bold enough to employ his negative. . . . In the midst of these excellent symptoms of public sense and temper, a Diet assembled at Warsaw in October 1788, from whom the restoration of the republic was hoped, and by whom it would have been accomplished, if their prudent and honest measures had not been defeated by one of the blackest acts of treachery recorded in the annals of mankind. . . . The Diet applied itself with the utmost diligence and caution to reform the State. They watched the progress of popular opinion, and proposed no reformation till the public seemed ripe for its reception." On the 3d of May, 1791, a new Constitution, which had been outlined and discussed in the greater part of its provisions, during most of the previous two years, was reported to the Diet. That body had been doubled, a few months before, by the election of new representatives from every Dietine, who united with the older members, in accordance with a law framed for the occasion. By this double Diet, the new Constitution was adopted on the day of its presentation, with only twelve dissentient voices. "Never were debates and votes more free: these men, the most hateful of apostates, were neither attacked, nor threatened, nor insulted." The new Constitution "confirmed the rights of the Established Church, together with religious liberty, as dictated by the charity which religion inculcates and inspires. It established an hereditary monarchy in the Electoral House of Saxony; reserving to the nation the right of choosing a new race of Kings, in case of the extinction of that family. The executive power was vested in the King, whose ministers were responsible for its exercise. The Legislature was divided into two Houses, the Senate and the House of Nuncios, with respect to whom the ancient constitutional language and forms were preserved. The necessity of unanimity [the *Liberum Veto*] was taken away, and, with it, those dangerous remedies of Confederation and Confederate Diets which it had rendered necessary. Each considerable town received new rights, with a restoration of all their

ancient privileges. The burgesses recovered the right of electing their own magistrates. All the offices of the State, the law, the church, and the army, were thrown open to them. The larger towns were empowered to send deputies to the Diet, with a right to vote on all local and commercial subjects and to speak on all questions whatsoever. All these deputies became noble, as did every officer of the rank of captain, and every lawyer who filled the humblest office of magistracy, and every bourgeois who acquired a property in land paying £5 of yearly taxes. . . . Industry was perfectly unfettered. Numerous paths to nobility were thus thrown open. Every art was employed to make the ascent easy. Having thus communicated political privileges to hitherto disregarded freemen, . . . the constitution extended to all serfs the full protection of law, which before was enjoyed by those of the Royal demesnes, and it facilitated and encouraged voluntary manumission. . . . The storm which demolished this noble edifice came from abroad. The remaining part of the year 1791 passed in quiet, but not without apprehension. On the 9th of January, 1792, Catharine concluded a peace with Turkey at Jassy, and, being thus delivered from all foreign enemies, began once more to manifest intentions of interfering in the affairs of Poland. . . . A small number of Polish nobles furnished her with that very slender pretext with which she was always content. Their chiefs were Rzewuski . . . and Felix Potocki. These unnatural apostates deserted their long suffering country at the moment when, for the first time, hope dawned on her. They were received by Catharine with the honours due from her to the betrayers of their country. On the 12th of May, 1792, they formed a Confederation at Targowitz. On the 18th, the Russian minister at Warsaw declared that the Empress, 'called on by many distinguished Poles who had confederated against the pretended constitution of 1791, would, in virtue of her guarantee, march an army into Poland to restore the liberties of the Republic.' The hope, meantime, of help from Prussia, which had been pledged to Poland by a treaty of alliance in March, 1790, was speedily and cruelly deceived. "Assured of the connivance of Prussia, Catharine now poured an immense army into Poland, along the whole line of frontier, from the Baltic to the neighbourhood of the Euxine. The spirit of the Polish nation was unbroken. . . . A series of brilliant actions [especially at Polonna and Dubienka] occupied the summer of 1792, in which the Polish army [under Poniatowski and Kosciuszko], alternately victorious and vanquished, gave equal proofs of unavailing gallantry. Meantime Stanislaus . . . on the 4th of July published a proclamation declaring that he would not survive his country. But, on the 23d of the same month . . . [he] declared his accession to the Confederation of Targowitz; and thus threw the legal authority of the republic into the hands of that band of conspirators. The gallant army, over whom the Diet had intrusted their unworthy King with absolute authority, were now compelled, by his treacherous orders, to lay down their arms. . . . Such was the unhappy state of Poland during the remainder of the year 1792," while the Empress of Russia and the King of Prussia were secretly arranging the terms of a new Treaty of

Partition.—Sir J. Mackintosh, *Account of the Partition of Poland* (Edinburgh Rev., Nov., 1822; reprinted in *Miscellaneous Works*).

ALSO IN: H. Von Sybel, *Hist. of the French Rev.*, bk. 2, ch. 1 and 6, bk. 4, ch. 1, and bk. 6 (v. 1-2).—A. Gielgud, *The Centenary of the Polish Constitution* (Westminster Rev., v. 186, p. 547).—F. C. Schlosser, *Hist. of the 18th Century*, v. 6, div. 1, ch. 2, sect. 4.—See, also, GERMANY: A. D. 1791-1792.

A. D. 1793-1796.—The Second and Third Partitions.—Extinction of Polish nationality.—"The Polish patriots, remaining in ignorance of the treaty of partition, were unconscious of half their misfortunes. The King of Prussia in his turn crossed the western frontier [January, 1793], announcing in his manifesto that the troubles of Poland compromised the safety of his own States, that Dantzic had sent corn to the French revolutionaries, and that Great Poland was infested by Jacobin clubs, whose intrigues were rendered doubly dangerous by the continuation of the war with France. The King of Prussia affected to see Jacobins whenever it was his interest to find them. The part of each of the powers was marked out in advance. Russia was to have the eastern provinces, with a population of 3,000,000, as far as a line drawn from the eastern frontier of Courland, which, passing Pinsk, ended in Gallicia, and included Borissof, Minsk, Sloutsk, Volhynia, Podolia, and Little Russia. Prussia had the long coveted cities of Thorn and Dantzic, as well as Great Poland, Posen, Gnezen, Kalisch, and Czenstochovo. If Russia still only annexed Russian or Lithuanian territory, Prussia for the second time cut Poland to the quick, and another million and a half of Slavs passed under the yoke of the Germans. It was not enough to despoil Poland, now reduced to a territory less extensive than that occupied by Russia, it was necessary that she should consent to the spoliation—that she should legalise the partition. A diet was convoked at Grodno, under the pressure of the Russian bayonets," and by bribery as well as by coercion, after long resistance, the desired treaty of cession was obtained. "The Polish troops who were encamped on the provinces ceded to the Empress, received orders to swear allegiance to her; the army that remained to the republic consisted only of 15,000 men." Meantime, Kosciuszko, who had won reputation in the war of the American Revolution, and enhanced it in the brief Polish struggle of 1792, was organizing throughout Poland a great revolt, directing the work from Dresden, to which city he had retired. "The order to disband the army hastened the explosion. Madalinski refused to allow the brigade that he commanded to be disbanded, crossed the Bug, threw himself on the Prussian Provinces, and then fell back on Cracow. At his approach, this city, the second in Poland, the capital of the ancient kings, rose and expelled the Russian garrison. Kosciuszko hastened to the scene of action, and put forth the 'act of insurrection,' in which the hateful conduct of the co-partitioners was branded, and the population called to arms. Five thousand scythes were made for the peasants, the voluntary offerings of patriots were collected, and those of obstinate and lukewarm people were extracted by force." On the 17th of April, 1794, the inhabitants of Warsaw rose and expelled the Russian troops, who left behind

on retreating, 4,000 killed and wounded, 2,000 prisoners, and 12 cannon. "A provisional government installed itself at Warsaw, and sent a courier to Kosciuszko." But Russian, Prussian and Austrian armies were fast closing in upon the ill-armed and outnumbered patriots. The Prussians took Cracow; the Russians mastered Wilna; the Austrians entered Lublin; and Kosciuszko, forced to give battle to the Russians, at Maciowice, October 10, was beaten, and, half dead from many wounds, was left a prisoner in the hands of his enemies. Then the victorious Russian army, under Souvorof, made haste to Warsaw and carried the suburb of Praga by storm. "The dead numbered 12,000; the prisoners only one." Warsaw, in terror, surrendered, and Poland, as an independent state, was extinguished. "The third treaty of partition, forced on the Empress by the importunity of Prussia, and in which Austria also took part, was put in execution [1795-1796]. Russia took the rest of Lithuania as far as the Niemen (Wilna, Grodno, Kovno, Novogrodek, Slonim), and the rest of Volhynia to the Bug (Vladimir, Loutsk, and Kremenetz). . . . Besides the Russian territory, Russia also annexed the old Lithuania of the Jagellons, and finally acquired Courland and Samogitia. Prussia had all Eastern Poland, with Warsaw; Austria had Cracow, Sandomir, Lublin, and Chelm."—A. Rambaud, *Hist. of Russia*, v. 2, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: R. N. Bain, *The Second Partition of Poland* (*Eng. Historical Rev.*, April, 1891).—H. von Sybel, *Hist. of the French Rev.*, bk. 7, ch. 5, bk. 9, ch. 3 (v. 3); and bk. 10, ch. 2-4 (v. 4).—See, also, FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (MARCH—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1806.—False hopes of national restoration raised by Napoleon. See GERMANY: A. D. 1806 (OCTOBER—DECEMBER); and 1806-1807.

A. D. 1807.—Prussian provinces formed into the grand duchy of Warsaw, and given to the king of Saxony. See GERMANY: A. D. 1807 (JUNE—JULY).

A. D. 1809.—Cession of part of Bohemia, Cracow, and western Galicia, by Austria, to the grand duchy of Warsaw. See GERMANY: A. D. 1809 (JULY—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1812.—Fresh attempt to re-establish the kingdom, not encouraged by Napoleon. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1812 (JUNE—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1814-1815.—The Polish question in the Congress of Vienna.—The grand duchy of Warsaw given to Russia.—Constitution granted by the Czar. See VIENNA, THE CONGRESS OF.

A. D. 1830-1832.—Rising against the Russian oppressor.—Courageous struggle for independence.—Early victories and final defeat.—Barbarity of the conqueror.—"Poland, like Belgium and the Romagna, had felt the invigorating influence of the Revolution of July [in France]. The partition of Poland had been accomplished in a dark period of the preceding century. It was almost universally regarded in Western Europe as a mistake and a crime. It was a mistake to have removed the barrier which separated Russia from the West; it was a crime to have sacrificed a free and brave people to the ambition of a relentless autocrat. . . . The cause of freedom was identified with the cause of Poland, and freedom abridged when Poland's champions fell." The statesmen, however, who

parcelled out Europe amongst the victorious autocrats in 1815 were incapable of appreciating the feelings which had inspired the Scotch poet. Castlereagh, indeed, endeavoured to make terms for Poland. But he did not lay much stress on his demands. He contented himself with obtaining the forms of constitutional government for the Poles. Poland, constituted a kingdom, whose crown was to pass by hereditary succession to the Emperors of Russia, was to be governed by a resident Viceroy, assisted by a Polish Diet. Constantine, who had abdicated the crown of Russia in his brother's favour, was Viceroy of Poland. . . . He was residing at Warsaw when the news of the glorious days of July reached Poland. The Poles were naturally affected by the tidings of a revolution which had expelled autocracy from France. Kosciuszko—the hero of 1794—was their favourite patriot. The cadets at the Military School in Warsaw, excited at the news, drank to his memory. Constantine thought that young men who dared to drink to Kosciuszko deserved to be flogged. The cadets, learning his decision, determined on resisting it. Their determination precipitated a revolution which, perhaps, under any circumstances, would have occurred. Every circumstance which could justify revolt existed in Poland. The Constitution provided for the regular assembly of the Diet: the Diet had not been assembled for five years. The Constitution declared that taxes should not be imposed on the Poles without the consent of their representatives: for fifteen years no budget had been submitted to the Diet. The Constitution provided for the personal liberty of every Pole: the Grand Duke seized and imprisoned the wretched Poles at his pleasure. The Constitution had given Poland a representative government; and Constantine, in defiance of it, had played the part of an autocrat. The threat of punishment, which Constantine pronounced against the military cadets, merely lighted the torch which was already prepared. Eighteen young men, armed to the teeth, entered the Grand Duke's palace and forced their way into his apartments. Constantine had just time to escape by a back staircase. His flight saved his life. . . . The insurrection, commenced in the Archduke's palace, soon spread. Some of the Polish regiments passed over to the insurgents. Constantine, who displayed little courage or ability, withdrew from the city; and, on the morning of the 30th of November [1830], the Poles were in complete possession of Warsaw. They persuaded Chlopicki, a general who had served with distinction under Suchet in Spain, to place himself at their head. . . . Raised to the first position in the State, his warmest counsellors urged him to attack the few thousand men whom Constantine still commanded. Chlopicki preferred negotiating with the Russians. The negotiation, of course, failed. . . . Chlopicki—his own well-intentioned effort having failed—resigned his office; and his fellowcountrymen invested Radziwil with the command of their army, and placed Adam Czartoryski at the head of the Government. In the meanwhile Nicholas was steadily preparing for the contest which was before him. Diebitsch, who had brought the campaign of 1829 to a victorious conclusion, was entrusted with the command of the Russian army. . . . Three great military roads converge from the

east upon Warsaw. The most northerly of these enters Poland at Kovno, crosses the Narew, a tributary of the Bug, at Ostrolenka, and runs down the right bank of the first of these rivers, the central road crosses the Bug at Brzesc and proceeds almost due west upon Warsaw, the most southerly of the three enters Poland from the Austrian frontier, crosses the Vistula at Gorn, and proceeds along its west bank to the capital. Diebitsch decided on advancing by all three routes on Warsaw.

Diebitsch on the 20th of February, 1831, attacked the Poles; on the 25th he renewed the attack. The battle on the 20th raged round the village of Grochow, it raged on the 25th round the village of Praga. Fought with extreme obstinacy, neither side was able to claim any decided advantage. The Russians could boast that the Poles had withdrawn across the Vistula. The Poles could declare that their retreat had been conducted at leisure and that the Russians were unable or unwilling to renew the attack. Diebitsch himself, seriously alarmed at the situation into which he had fallen, remained for a month in inaction at Grochow. Before the month was over Radziwiłł who had proved unequal to the duties of his post was superseded in the command of the Polish army by Skrzynecki. On the 30th of March, Skrzynecki crossed the Vistula at Praga and attacked the division of the Russian army which occupied the forest of Waver, near Grochow. The attack was made in the middle of the night. The Russians were totally defeated, they experienced a loss of 5,000 in killed and wounded and 6,000 prisoners. Crippled by this disaster Diebitsch fell back before the Polish army. Encouraged by his success, Skrzynecki pressed forward in pursuit. The great central road by which Warsaw is approached crosses the Koszczyn, a tributary of the Bug, near the little village of Iganie, about half way between Russia and Warsaw. Eleven days after the victory of the 30th of March the Russians were again attacked by the Poles at Iganie. The Poles won a second victory. The Russians, disheartened at a succession of reverses, scattered before the attack, and the cause of Poland seemed to have been already won by the gallantry of her children and the skill of their generals. Diebitsch, however, defeated at Grochow and Iganie, was not destroyed.

Foregoing his original intention of advancing by three roads on Warsaw, he determined to concentrate his right on the northern road at Ostrolenka, his left, on the direct road at Siedlice. It was open to Skrzynecki to renew the attack, where Diebitsch expected it, and throw himself on the defeated remnants of the Russian army at Siedlice. Instead of doing so he took advantage of his central situation to cross the Bug and throw himself upon the Russian right at Ostrolenka. . . . Skrzynecki had reason to hope that he might obtain a complete success before Diebitsch could by any possibility march to the rescue. He failed. Diebitsch succeeded in concentrating his entire force before the destruction of his right wing had been consummated. On the 28th of May, Skrzynecki found himself opposed to the whole Russian army. Throughout the whole of that day the Polish levies gallantly struggled for the victory. When evening came they remained masters of the field which had been the scene of the contest. A negative victory of this character, however, was not the

object of the great movement upon the Russian right. The Polish general, his army weakened by heavy losses, resolved on retiring upon Warsaw. Offensive operations were over, the defensive campaign had begun. Victory with the Poles had, in fact, proved as fatal as defeat. The Russians, relying upon their almost illimitable resources, could afford to lose two men for every one whom Poland could spare. . . . It happened, too, that a more fatal enemy than even war fell upon Poland in the hour of her necessity. The cholera, which had been rapidly advancing through Russia during 1830 broke out in the Russian army in the spring of 1831. The prisoners taken at Iganie communicated the seeds of infection to the Polish troops. Both armies suffered severely from the disease, but the effects of it were much more serious to the cause of Poland than to the cause of Russia.

A fortnight after the battle of Ostrolenka, Diebitsch who had advanced his head quarters to Pultusk, succumbed to the malady. In the same week Constantine, the Viceroi of Poland, and his Polish wife also died. Diebitsch was at once succeeded in the command by Paskievitch an officer who had gained distinction in Asia Minor.

On the 7th of July, Paskievitch crossed the Vistula at Plock and threatened Warsaw from the rear. Slowly and steadily he advanced against the capital. On the 6th of September he attacked the devoted city. Inch by inch the Russians made their way over the earthworks which had been constructed in its defence. On the evening of the 7th the town was at their mercy, on the 8th it capitulated.

The news of its fall reached Paris on the 15th of September. The news of Waterloo had not created so much consternation in the French capital. Business was suspended, the theatres were closed. The cause of Poland was in every mind, the name of Poland on every tongue.

On the 26th of February, 1832 Nicholas promulgated a new organic statute for the government of Poland which he had the insolence to claim for Russia by the right of conquest of 1815. A draft of the statute reached Western Europe in the spring of 1832. About the same time stories were received of the treatment which the Russians were systematically applying to the ill fated country. Her schools were closed, her national libraries and public collections removed, the children of the Poles were carried into Russia, their fathers were swept into the Russian army; whole families accused of participation in the rebellion were marched into the interior of the empire, columns of Poles, it was stated, could be seen on the Russian roads linked man to man by bars of iron, and little children, unable to bear the fatigues of a long journey, were included among them, the dead bodies of those who had perished on the way could be seen on the sides of the Russian roads. The wail of their wretched mothers—'Oh, that the Czar could be drowned in our tears!'—resounded throughout Europe"—S. Walpole, *Hist. of England*, ch. 16 (v. 8).

Also in: J. Hordynski, *Hist. of the late Polish Rev.*—A. Rambaud, *Hist. of Russia*, v. 2, ch. 14.—Sir A. Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, 1815-32, ch. 26.

A. D. 1846.—Insurrection in Galicia suppressed.—Extinction of the republic of Cracow.—Its annexation to Austria. See Austria: A. D. 1815-1846.

A. D. 1860-1864.—The last insurrection.—"In 1860 broke out the last great Polish insurrection, in all respects a very ill-advised attempt. On the 29th of November of that year, on the occasion of the 80th anniversary of the revolution of 1830, national manifestations, taking a religious form, took place in the Warsaw churches. . . . On the 25th of February, 1861, on the anniversary of the battle of Grochow, the Agricultural Society of that city, presided over by Count Zamojski, held a meeting for the purpose of presenting a petition to the Emperor to grant a constitution. Although the Tsar did not concede this demand, he decreed by an ukase of the 26th of March a council of state for the kingdom, elective councils in each government, and municipal councils in Warsaw and the chief cities. Moreover, the Polish language was to be adopted in all the schools of the kingdom. . . . On the 8th of April the people appeared in crowds in front of the castle of the Viceroy, and when they refused to disperse, were fired upon by the soldiers. About 200 persons were killed in this unfortunate affair, and many more wounded. The viceroyalty of Count Lambert was not successful in conciliating the people, he was succeeded by Count Lüders, who was reactionary in his policy. An attempt was made in June, 1862, on the life of the Count in the Saxon Garden (Saksonski Sad), and he was soon afterwards recalled, his place being taken by the Grand Duke Constantine, who was chiefly guided by the Marquis Wielopolski, an unpopular but able man. Two attempts were made upon the life of the Grand Duke, the latter of which was nearly successful; the life of Wielopolski was also several times in danger. . . . On the night of June 15, 1863, a secret conscription was held, and the persons considered to be most hostile to the Government were taken in their beds and forcibly enlisted. Out of a population of 180,000 the number thus seized at Warsaw was 2,000; soon after this the insurrection broke out. Its proceedings were directed by a secret committee, styled Rząd (Government), and were as mysterious as the movements of the celebrated Fehmgerichte. The Poles fought under enor-

mous difficulties. Most of the bands consisted of undisciplined men, unfamiliar with military tactics, and they had to contend with well-organised troops. Few of them had muskets; the generality were armed only with pikes, scythes, and sticks. . . . The bands of the insurgents were chiefly composed of priests, the smaller landowners, lower officials, and peasants who had no land, but those peasants who possessed any land refused to join. Many showed but a languid patriotism on account of the oppressive laws relating to the poorer classes, formerly in vigour in Poland, of which the tradition was still strong. The war was only guerilla fighting, in which the dense forests surrounding the towns were of great assistance to the insurgents. The secret emissaries of the revolutionary Government were called *stiletcziki*, from the daggers which they carried. They succeeded in killing many persons who had made themselves obnoxious to the national party. . . . No quarter was given to the chiefs of the insurgents; when captured they were shot or hanged. . . . When the Grand Duke Constantine resigned the viceroyalty at Warsaw he was succeeded by Count Berg.

. . . By May, 1864, the insurrection was suppressed, but it had cost Poland dear. All its old privileges were now taken away, henceforth all teaching, both in the universities and schools, must be in the Russian language. Russia was triumphant, and paid no attention to the demands of the three Great Powers, England, France, and Austria. Prussia had long been silently and successfully carrying on her plan for the Germanisation of Posen, and on the 8th of February, 1863, she had concluded a convention with Russia with a view of putting a stop to the insurrection. Her method throughout has been more drastic, she has slowly eliminated or weakened the Polish element, carefully avoiding any of those reprisals which would cause a European scandal."—W. R. Morfill, *The Story of Poland*, ch. 12.

A. D. 1868.—Complete incorporation with Russia.—By an imperial ukase, February 28, 1868, the government of Poland was absolutely incorporated with that of Russia.

POLAR EXPLORATION.—A Chronological Record.

1500-1502.—Discovery and exploration of the coast of Labrador and the entrance of Hudson Strait by the Corte Reals.

1553.—Voyage of Willoughby and Chancellor from London, in search of a northeast passage to India. Chancellor reached Archangel on the White Sea and learned that he was in the dominions of the sovereign of Muscovy or Russia. With much difficulty he obtained permission to visit the court at Moscow, and made the long journey to that city by sledge over the snow. There he was admitted to an interview with the Tsar, and returned with a letter which permitted the opening of trade between England and Russia. Willoughby, with two vessels and their crews, was less fortunate. His party, after wintering on a desolate shore, perished the next year in some manner, the particulars of which were never known. The two ships, with their dead crews, were found long afterwards by Russian sailors, and their log-book recovered, but it told nothing of the tragical end of the voyage. The chartered company of London merchants

which sent out these expeditions is believed to have been the first joint stock corporation of shareholders formed in England. As the Russia Company, it afterwards became a rich and powerful corporation, and its success set other enterprises in motion.

1556.—Exploring voyage of Stephen Burroughs to the northeast, approaching Nova Zembla.

1576-1578.—Voyages of Frobisher to the coast of Labrador and the entrance to Davis Strait, discovering the bay which bears his name, and which he supposed to be a strait leading to Cathay, afterwards entering Hudson Strait. Having brought from his first voyage a certain glittering stone which English goldsmiths concluded to be ore of gold, his second and third voyages were made to procure cargoes of the imagined ore, and to found a colony in the frozen region from which it came. The golden ore proved delusive; the colony was never planted.

1580.—Northeastern voyage of Pet and Jackman, passing Nova Zembla.

1585-1587.—Three voyages of John Davis from Dartmouth, in search of a northwestern

passage to India, entering the strait between Greenland and Baffinland which bears his name and exploring it to the 72nd degree north latitude.

1594-1595.—Dutch expeditions (the first and second under Barreitz) to the northeast, passing to the north of Nova Zembla, or Novaya Zemlya, but making no progress beyond it.

1596-1597.—Third voyage of Barentz, when he discovered and coasted Spitzbergen, wintered in Nova Zembla with his crew, lost his ship in the ice, and perished, with one third of his men, in undertaking to reach the coast of Lapland in open boats.

1602.—Exploration for a northwest passage by Captain George Weymouth, for the Muscovy Company and the Levant Company, resulting in nothing but a visitation of the entrance to Hudson Strait.

1607.—Polar voyage of Henry Hudson, for the Muscovy Company of London, attaining the northern coast of Spitzbergen.

1608.—Voyage of Henry Hudson to Nova Zembla for the Muscovy Company.

1610.—Voyage of Henry Hudson, in English employ, to seek the northwest passage, being the voyage in which he passed through the Strait and entered the great Bay to which his name has been given and in which he perished at the hands of a mutinous crew.

1612-1614.—Exploration of Hudson Bay by Captains Button, Bylot, and Baffin, practically discovering its true character and shaking the previous theory of its connection with the Pacific Ocean.

1614.—Exploring expedition of the Muscovy Company to the Greenland coast, under Robert Fotherby, with William Baffin for pilot, making its way to latitude 80°.

1616.—Voyage into the northwest made by Captain Baffin with Captain Bylot, which resulted in the discovery of Baffin Bay, Smith Sound, Jones Sound, and Lancaster Sound.

1619-1620.—Voyage of Jens Munk, sent by the King of Denmark to seek the northwest passage; wintering in Hudson Bay, and losing there all but two of his crew, with whom he succeeded in making the voyage home.

1632.—Voyages of Captains Fox and James into Hudson Bay.

1670.—Grant and charter to the Hudson Bay Company, by King Charles II. of England, conferring on the Company possession and government of the whole watershed of the Bay, and naming the country Prince Rupert Land.

1676.—Voyage of Captain John Wood to Nova Zembla, seeking the northeastern passage.

1728.—Exploration of the northern coasts of Kamtschatka by the Russian Captain Vitus Behring, and discovery of the Strait which bears his name.

1741.—Exploration of northern channels of Hudson Bay by Captain Middleton.

1743.—Offer of £20,000 by the British Parliament for the discovery of a northwest passage to the Pacific.

1746.—Further exploration of northern channels of Hudson Bay by Captains Moor and Smith.

1753-1754.—Attempted exploration of Hudson Bay by the colonial Captain Swaine, sent out from Philadelphia, chiefly through the exertions of Dr. Franklin.

1765.—Russian expedition of Captain Tchitschakoff, attempting to reach the Pacific from Archangel.

1768-1769.—Exploration of Nova Zembla by a Russian officer, Lieutenant Rosmysloff.

1769-1770.—Exploring journey of Samuel Hearne, for the Hudson Bay Company, from Churchill, its most northern post, to Coppermine River and down the river to the Polar Sea.

1773.—Voyage of Captain Phipps, afterwards Lord Mulgrave, toward the North Pole, reaching the northeastern extremity of Spitzbergen.

1779.—Exploration of the Arctic coast, east and west of Behring Strait, by Captain Cook, in his last voyage.

1789.—Exploring journey of Alexander MacKenzie, for the Northwest Company, and discovery of the great river flowing into the Polar Sea, which bears his name.

1806.—Whaling voyage of Captain Scoresby to latitude 81° 30' and longitude 19° east.

1818.—Unsatisfactory voyage of Commander John Ross to Baffin Bay and into Lancaster Sound.

1818.—Voyage of Captain Buchan towards the North Pole, reaching the northern part of Spitzbergen.

1819-1820.—First voyage of Lieutenant Parry, exploring for a northwest passage, through Davis Strait, Baffin Bay, Lancaster Sound, and Barrow Strait, to Melville Island.

1819-1822.—Journey of Captain (afterwards Sir John) Franklin, Dr. Richardson, and Captain (afterwards Sir George) Back, from Fort York, on the western coast of Hudson Bay, by the way of Lake Athabasca, Great Slave Lake, and Coppermine River, to Coronation Gulf, opening into the Arctic Ocean.

1819-1824.—Russian expeditions for the survey of Nova Zembla.

1820-1824.—Russian surveys of the Siberian Polar region by Wrangel and Anjou.

1821-1823.—Second voyage of Captain Parry, exploring for a northwest passage to the Pacific Ocean, through Hudson Strait and Fox Channel, discovering the Fury and Hecla Strait, the northern outlet of the Bay.

1821-1824.—Russian surveying expedition to Nova Zembla, under Lieutenant Lutke.

1822.—Whaling voyage of Captain Scoresby to the eastern coast of Greenland, which was considerably traced and mapped by him.

1822-1823.—Scientific expedition of Captain Sabine, with Commander Clavering, to Spitzbergen and the eastern coast of Greenland.

1824-1825.—Third voyage of Captain Parry, exploring for a northwest passage, by way of Davis Strait, Baffin Bay, and Lancaster Sound, to Prince Regent Inlet, where one of his ships was wrecked.

1825-1827.—Second journey of Franklin, Richardson, and Back, from Canada to the Arctic Ocean; Franklin and Back by the Mackenzie River and westward along the coast to longitude 140° 37'; Richardson by the Mackenzie River and the Arctic coast eastward to Coppermine River.

1826.—Voyage of Captain Beechey through Behring Strait and eastward along the Arctic coast as far as Point Barrow.

1827.—Fourth voyage of Captain Parry, attempting to reach the North Pole, by ship to Spitzbergen and by boats to 66° 45' north latitude.

1829-1833.—Expedition under Captain Ross, fitted out by Mr. Felix Booth, to seek a north-west passage, resulting in the discovery of the position of the north magnetic pole, southwest of Boothia, not far from which Ross' ship was ice-bound for three years. Abandoning the vessel at last, the explorers made their way to Baffin Bay and were rescued by a whale-ship.

1833-1835.—Journey of Captain Back from Canada, via Great Slave Lake, to the river which he discovered and which bears his name, flowing to the Polar Sea.

1836-1837.—Voyage of Captain Back for surveying the straits and channels in the northern extremity of Hudson Bay.

1837-1839.—Expeditions of Dease and Simpson, in the service of the Hudson Bay Company, determining the Arctic coast line as far east as Boothia.

1845.—Departure from England of the government expedition under Sir John Franklin, in two bomb vessels, the *Erebus* and the *Terror*, which entered Baffin Bay in July and were never seen afterward.

1848.—Expedition of Sir John Richardson and Mr. John Rae down the Mackenzie River, searching for traces of Sir John Franklin and his crews.

1848-1849.—Expedition under Sir James Clarke Ross to Baffin Bay and westward as far as Leopold Island, searching for Sir John Franklin.

1848-1851.—Searching expedition of the *Herald* and the *Plover*, under Captain Kellett and Commander Moore, through Behring Strait and westward to Coppermine River, learning nothing of the fate of the Franklin party.

1850.—Searching expedition sent out by Lady Franklin, under Captain Forsyth, for the examination of Prince Regent Inlet.

1850-1851.—United States Grinnell Expedition, sent to assist the search for Sir John Franklin and his crew, consisting of two ships, the *Advance* and the *Rescue*, furnished by Mr. Henry Grinnell and officered and manned by the U. S. Government, Lieutenant De Haven commanding and Dr. Kane surgeon. Frozen into the ice in Wellington Channel, in September, 1850, the vessels drifted helplessly northward until Grinnell Land was seen and named, then southward and westward until the next June, when they escaped in Baffin Bay.

1850-1851.—Franklin search expedition, sent out by the British Government, under Captain Penny, who explored Wellington Channel and Cornwallis Island by sledge journeys.

1850-1851.—Discovery of traces of Franklin and his men at Cape Riley and Beechey Island, by Captain Ommaney and Captain Austin.

1850-1852.—Franklin search expedition under Captain Collinson, through Behring Strait and eastward into Prince of Wales Strait, sending sledge parties to Melville Island.

1850-1854.—Franklin search expedition under Captain McClure, through Behring Strait and westward, between Banks Land and Prince Albert Land, attaining a point within 25 miles of Melville Sound, already reached from the East; thus demonstrating the existence of a northwest passage, though not accomplishing the navigation of it. McClure received knighthood, and a reward of \$20,000 was distributed to the officers and crew of the expedition.

1851.—Expedition of Dr. Rae, sent by the British Government to descend the Coppermine River and search the southern coast of Wollaston Land, which he did, exploring farther along the coast of the continent eastward to a point opposite King William's Land.

1851-1852.—Franklin search expedition sent out by Lady Franklin under Captain Kennedy, for a further examination of Prince Regent Inlet and the surrounding region.

1852-1854.—Franklin search expedition of five ships sent out by the British Government under Sir Edward Belcher, with Captains McClintock, Kellett, and Sherard Osborn under his command. Belcher and Osborn, going up Wellington Channel to Northumberland Sound, were frozen fast; McClintock and Kellett experienced the same misfortune near Melville Island, where they had received Captain McClure and his crew, escaping from their abandoned ship. Finally all the ships of Belcher's fleet except one were abandoned. One, the *Resolute*, drifted out into Davis Strait in 1855, was rescued, bought by the United States Government and presented to Queen Victoria.

1853-1854.—Hudson Bay Company expedition by Dr. Rae, to Repulse Bay and Pelly Bay, on the Gulf of Boothia, where Dr. Rae found Eskimos in possession of articles which had belonged to Sir John Franklin, and his men, and was told that in the winter of 1850 they saw white men near King William's Land, traveling southward, dragging sledges and a boat, and, afterwards saw dead bodies and graves on the mainland.

1853-1855.—Grinnell expedition, under Dr. Kane, proceeding straight northward through Baffin Bay, Smith Sound and Kennedy Channel, nearly to the 79th degree of latitude, where the vessel was locked in ice and remained fast until abandoned in the spring of 1855, the party escaping to Greenland and being rescued by an expedition under Lieutenant Hartstein which the American Government had sent to their relief.

1855.—Cruise of the U. S. ship *Vincennes*, Lieutenant John Rodgers commanding, in the Arctic Sea, via Behring Strait to Wrangel Land.

1855.—Expedition of Mr. Anderson, of the Hudson Bay Company, down the Great Fish River to Point Ogle at its mouth, seeking traces of the party of Sir John Franklin.

1857-1859.—Search expedition sent out by Lady Franklin, under Captain McClintock, which became ice bound in Melville Bay, August, 1857, and drifted helplessly for eight months, over 1,200 miles; escaped from the ice in April, 1858; refitted in Greenland and returned into Prince Regent Inlet, whence Captain McClintock searched the neighboring regions by sledge journeys, discovering, at last, in King William's Land, not only remains but records of the lost explorers, learning that they were caught in the ice somewhere in or about Peel Sound, September, 1846; that Sir John Franklin died on the 11th of the following June; that the ships were deserted on the 22d of April, 1848, on the northwest coast of King William's Land, and that the survivors, 105 in number, set out for Back or Great Fish River. They perished probably one by one on the way.

1860-1861.—Expedition of Dr. Hayes to Smith Sound; wintering on the Greenland side at lati-

tude $78^{\circ} 17'$; crossing the Sound with sledges and tracing Grinnell Land to about $82^{\circ} 45'$.

1860-1862.—Expedition of Captain Hall on the whaling ship *George Henry*, and discovery of relics of Frobenius.

1864-1869.—Residence of Captain Hall among the Eskimos on the north side of Hudson Strait and search for further relics of the Franklin expedition.

1867.—Tracing of the southern coast of Wrangel Land by Captains Long and Raynor, of the whaling ships *Nile* and *Reindeer*.

1867.—Transfer of the territory, privileges and rights of the Hudson Bay Company to the Dominion of Canada.

1868.—Swedish Polar expedition, directed by Professor Nordenskiöld, attaining latitude $81^{\circ} 42'$, on the 18th meridian of east longitude.

1869.—Yacht voyage of Dr Hayes to the Greenland coasts.

1869-1870.—German Polar expedition, under Captain Koldewey, one vessel of which was crushed, the crew escaping to an ice floe and drifting 1,100 miles, reaching finally a Danish settlement on the Greenland coast, while the other explored the east coast of Greenland to latitude 77° .

1871-1872.—Voyage of the steamer *Polaris*, fitted out by the U S Government, under Captain Hall, passing from Baffin Bay, through Smith Sound and Kennedy Channel, into what Kane and Hayes had supposed to be open sea, but which proved to be the widening of a strait, called Robeson Strait by Captain Hall, thus going beyond the most northerly point that had previously been reached in Arctic exploration. Wintering in latitude $81^{\circ} 38'$ (where Captain Hall died), the *Polaris* was turned homeward the following August. During a storm, when the ship was threatened with destruction by the ice, seventeen of her crew and party were left helplessly on a floe, which drifted with them for 1,500 miles, until they were rescued by a passing vessel. Those on the *Polaris* fared little better. Forced to run their sinking ship ashore, they wintered in huts and made their way south in the spring, until they met whale ships which took them on board.

1872-1874.—Austro-Hungarian expedition, under Captain Weyprecht and Lieutenant Payer, seeking the northeast passage, with the result of discovering and naming Franz Josef Land, Crown Prince Rudolf Land and Petermann Land, the latter (seen, not visited) estimated to be beyond latitude 88° . The explorers were obliged to abandon their ice-locked steamer, and make their way by sledges and boats to Nova Zembla, where they were picked up.

1875.—Voyage of Captain Young, attempting to navigate the northwest passage through Lancaster Sound, Barrow Strait and Peel Strait, but being turned back by ice in the latter.

1875-1876.—English expedition under Captain Nares, in the *Alert*, and the *Discovery*, attaining by ship the high latitude of $82^{\circ} 27'$, in Smith Sound, and advancing by sledges to $83^{\circ} 20' 28''$, while exploring the northern shore of Grinnell Land and the northwest coast of Greenland.

1876-1878.—Norwegian North-Atlantic expedition, for a scientific exploration of the sea between Norway, the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Jan Mayen, and Spitzbergen.

1878.—Discovery of the island named "Ein-samkeit," in latitude $77^{\circ} 40' N.$ and longitude $86^{\circ} E.$, by Captain Johannessen, of the Norwegian schooner *Nordland*.

1878-1879.—Final achievement of the long-sought, often attempted northeast passage, from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, by the Swedish geographer and explorer, Baron Nordenskiöld, on the steamer *Vega*, which made the voyage from Gothenburg to Yokohama, Japan, through the Arctic Sea, coasting the Russian and Siberian shores.

1878-1883.—Six annual expeditions to the Arctic Seas of the ship *Willem Barentz*, sent out by the Dutch Arctic Committee.

1879.—Cruise of Sir Henry Gore-Booth and Captain Markham, R N, in the cutter *Isbjorn* to Nova Zembla and in Barentz Sea and the Kara Sea.

1879-1880.—Journey of Lieutenant Schwatka from Hudson Bay to King William Island, and exploration of the western and southern shores of the latter, searching for the journals and logs of the Franklin expedition.

1879-1882.—Polar voyage of the *Jeannette*, fitted out by the proprietor of the New York Herald and commanded by Commander De Long, U S N. The course taken by the *Jeannette* was through Behring Strait towards Wrangel Land and then northerly, until she became ice-bound when she drifted helplessly for nearly two years, only to be crushed at last. The officers and crew escaped in three boats, one of which was lost in a storm, the occupants of the other two boats reached different mouths of the river Lena. One of these two boats, commanded by Engineer Melville, was fortunate enough to find a settlement and obtain speedy relief. The other, which contained commander De Long, landed in a region of desolation, and all but two of its occupants perished of starvation and cold.

1880-1882.—First and second cruises of the United States Revenue Steamer *Corwin* in the Arctic Ocean, via Behring Strait, to Wrangel Land seeking information concerning the *Jeannette* and searching for two missing whaling ships.

1880-1882.—Two voyages of Mr Leigh Smith to Franz Josef Land, in his yacht *Eira*, in the first of which a considerable exploration of the southern coast was made, while the second resulted in the loss of the ship and a perilous escape of the party in boats to Nova Zembla, where they were rescued.

1881.—Expedition of the steamer *Rodgers* to search for the missing explorers of the *Jeannette*; entering the Arctic Sea through Behring Strait, but abruptly stopped by the burning of the *Rodgers*, on the 30th of November, in St. Lawrence Bay.

1881.—Cruise of the U S Alliance, Commander Wadleigh, via Spitzbergen, to $79^{\circ} 8' 36''$ north latitude, searching for the *Jeannette*.

1881-1884.—International undertaking of expeditions to establish Arctic stations for simultaneous meteorological and magnetic observations: by the United States at Smith Sound and Point Barrow; by Great Britain at Fort Rae; by Russia at the mouth of the Lena and in Nova Zembla; by Denmark at Godthaab, in Greenland; by Holland at Dickson's Haven, near the mouth of the Yenisei; by Germany in Cumberland Sound, Davis Strait; by Austro-Hungary on

Jan Mayen Island; by Sweden at Mussel Bay in Spitzbergen. The United States expedition to Smith Sound, under Lieutenant Greeley, established its station on Discovery Bay. Exploring parties sent out attained the highest latitude ever reached, namely $83^{\circ} 24'$. After remaining two winters and failing to receive expected supplies, which had been intercepted by the ice, Greeley and his men, twenty-five in number, started southward, and all but seven perished on the way. The survivors were rescued, in the last stages of starvation, by a vessel sent to their relief under Captain Schley, U. S. N.

1882-1883.—Danish Arctic expedition of the *Dijmphna*, under Lieutenant Hovgaard, finding the Varna of the Dutch Meteorological Expedition beset in the ice; both vessels becoming frozen in together for nearly twelve months, the *Dijmphna* escaping finally with both crews.

1883.—Expedition of Lieutenant Ray, U. S. N., from Point Barrow to Mende River.

1883.—Expedition of Baron Nordenskiöld to Greenland making explorations in the interior.

1883-1885.—East Greenland expedition of Captain Holm and Lieutenant Garde.

1884.—Second cruise of the U. S. Revenue Marine Steamer *Corwin* in the Arctic Ocean.

1886.—Reconnaissance of the Greenland inland ice by Civil Engineer R. E. Peary, U. S. N.

1888.—Journey of Dr. Nansen across South Greenland.

1890.—Swedish expedition to Spitzbergen, under G. Nordenskiöld and Baron Klinkowström.

1890.—Danish scientific explorations in North and South Greenland.

1890.—Russian exploration of the Malo Zemelskaya, or Timanskaya tundra in the far north of European Russia, on the Arctic Ocean.

1891-1892.—Expedition of Lieutenant Peary, U. S. N., with a party of seven, including Mrs. Peary, establishing headquarters on McCormick Bay, northwest Greenland, thence making sledge journeys. The surveys of Lieutenant Peary have gone far toward proving Greenland to be an island.

1891-1892.—Danish East Greenland expedition of Lieutenant Ryder.

1891-1893.—Expeditions of Dr. Drygalski to Greenland for the study of the great glaciers.

1892.—Swedish expedition of Björning and Kallstenius, the last records of which were found on one of the Cary Islands, in Baffin Bay.

1892.—French expedition under M. Ribot to the islands of Spitzbergen and Jan Mayen.

1893.—Expedition of Dr. Nansen, in the *Fram* from Christiania, aiming to enter a current which flows, in Dr. Nansen's belief, across the Arctic region to Greenland.

1893.—Russian expedition, under Baron Toll, to the New Siberian Islands and the Siberian Arctic coasts.

1893.—Danish expedition to Greenland, under Lieutenant Garde, for a geographical survey of the coast and study of the inland ice.

1893-1894.—Expedition of Lieutenant Peary and party (Mrs. Peary again of the number), landing in Bowdoin Bay, August, 1893; attempting in the following March a sledge journey to Independence Bay, but compelled to turn back. An auxiliary expedition brought back most of the party to Philadelphia in September, 1894; but Lieutenant Peary with two men remained.

1893-1894.—Scientific journey of Mr. Frank

Russell, under the auspices of the State University of Iowa, from Lake Winnipeg to the mouth of Mackenzie River and to Herschel Island.

1894.—Expedition of Mr. Walter Wellman, an American journalist, purposing to reach Spitzbergen via Norway, and to advance thence towards the Pole, with aluminum boats. The party left Tromsø May 1, but were stopped before the end of the month by the crushing of their vessel. They were picked up and brought back to Norway.

1894.—Departure of what is known as the Jackson-Harmsworth North Polar Expedition planned to make Franz Josef Land a base of operations from which to advance carefully and persistently towards the Pole.

1895.—Preparations of Herr Julius von Payer, for an artistic and scientific expedition to the east coast of Greenland, in which he will be accompanied by landscape and animal painters, photographers and savants.

POLAR STAR, The Order of the.—A Swedish order of knighthood, the date of the founding of which is uncertain.

POLEMARCH. See GREECE FROM THE DORIAN MIGRATION to B. C. 683.

POLETÆ. — POLETERIUM.—"Every thing which the state [Athens] sold, or leased; revenues, real property, mines, confiscated estates, in which is to be included also the property of public debtors, who were in arrear after the last term of respite, and the bodies of the aliens under the protection of the state, who had not paid the sum required for protection, and of foreigners who had been guilty of assuming the rights of citizenship, or of the crime called apostasion—all these, I say, together with the making of contracts for the public works at least in certain cases and periods, were under the charge of the ten poletæ although not always without the cooperation of other boards of officers. Each of the tribes appointed one of the members of this branch of the government, and their sessions were held in the edifice called the Poletarium."—A. Boeckh, *Public Economy of Athens* (Lamb's tr.), bk. 2, ch. 3.

POLITIKES, The Party of the. See FRANCE A. D. 1573-1578.

POLK, James K.: Presidential election and administration. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1844, to 1848.

POLKOS, The. See MEXICO A. D. 1846-1847.

POLLENTIA, Battle of. See GOTHs: A. D., 400-403.

POLLICES. See FOOT, THE ROMAN.

POLO, Marco, The travels of.—"This celebrated personage was not, in the strict sense of the word, a traveller. He was one of those professional politicians of the Middle Ages who are familiar to the student of Italian history. The son of a travelling Venetian merchant, who had already passed many years in Tartary, and been regarded with welcome and consideration by the Grand Khan himself, he was taken at an early age to the Grand Khan's court, and apprenticed, as it were, to the Grand Khan's service. The young adventurer possessed in a high degree that subtlety and versatility which opinion attributes to his nation. Profiting by his opportunities, he soon succeeded in transmuting himself into a

Tartar. He adopted the Tartar dress, studied the Tartar manners, and mastered the four languages spoken in the Grand Khan's dominions. Kublai appears first to have employed him as a secretary, and then to have sent him on confidential missions, and during a service of seventeen years Marco was engaged in this way, in journeys by land and sea, in every part of the Grand Khan's empire and dependencies. More than this, he travelled on his own account, everywhere, it would appear, recording his notes and observations partly for his own use, and partly for the information or entertainment of his master. These notes and observations were given to the world of Europe under the following circumstances. After a residence of seventeen years, Marco obtained permission to revisit Venice, accompanied by his father and uncle. Not long after his return, he was taken in a sea fight with the Genoese and committed to prison. To relieve the annoy of his confinement, he procured his rough notes from Venice, and dictated to a fellow prisoner the narrative which passes under his name. This narrative soon became known to the world and from its publication may be dated that intense and active interest in the East which has gone on steadily increasing ever since. The rank and dignified character of this famous adventurer, the romance of his career, the wealth which he amassed, the extent of his observations, the long series of years they had occupied, the strange and striking facts which he reported, and the completeness and perspicuity of his narrative, combined to produce a marked effect on the Italian world. Marco Polo was the true predecessor of Columbus. From an early time we find direct evidence of his influence on the process of exploration. . . . Wherever the Italian captains went, the fame of the great Venetian's explorations was noised abroad, and as we shall presently see, the Italian captains were the chief directors of navigation and discovery in every seaport of Western Europe. The work dictated by Marco Polo to his fellow-captive, though based upon his travels both in form and matter, is no mere journal or narrative of adventure. A brief account of his career in the East is indeed prefixed, and the route over which he carries his reader is substantially that chronologically followed by himself, for he takes his reader successively overland to China, by way of the Black Sea, Armenia, and Tartary, backwards and forwards by land and sea, throughout the vast dominions of the Grand Khan, and finally homeward by the Indian Ocean, touching by the way at most of those famous countries which bordered thereon. Yet the book is no book of travels. It is rather a Handbook to the East for the use of other European travellers, and was clearly compiled as such, and nothing more. Perhaps no compiler has ever laid down a clearer or more practical plan, adopted a more judicious selection of facts, or relieved it by a more attractive embroidery of historical anecdote. . . . It is not here to the purpose to dwell on his notices of Armenia, Turcomania, and Persia: his descriptions of the cities of Bagdad, Ormus, Tabriz, and many others, or to follow him to Kashmir, Kashghar, and Samarkhand, and across the steppes of Tartary. The main interest of Marco Polo lies in his description of the Grand Khan's Empire, and of those wide-spread shores, all washed by the

Indian Ocean, which from Zanzibar to Japan went by the general name of India. . . . The Pope alone, among European potentates of the 15th century, could be ranked as approaching in state and dignity to the Tartar sovereign of China. For any fair parallel, recourse must be had to the Great Basileus of Persia, and in the eyes of his Venetian secretary the Grand Khan appeared much as Darius or Cyrus may have appeared to the Greek adventurers who crowded his court, and competed for the favour of a mighty barbarian whom they at once flattered and despised.—E. J. Payne, *Hist. of the New World*, bk. 1.

ALSO IN: *The Book of Ser Marco Polo*; ed. by Colonel H. Yule.—T. W. Knox, *Travels of Marco Polo for Boys and Girls*.—G. M. Towle, *Marco Polo*.—See, also, CHINA. A. D. 1259-1294.

POLONNA, Battle of (1792). See POLAND: A. D. 1791-1792.

POLYNESIA.—The term Polynesia is applied to a division of the Pacific island world which comprises a number of distinct archipelagos and some smaller groups. Among the former are the Tonga or Friendly Islands, the Samoa or Navigator Islands, the Society Islands, the Paumotu or Low Archipelago and the Marquesas group, both under French control, and the Hawaiian or Sandwich Islands. Of smaller or more scattered groups are the Tokelau, the Ellice or Lagoon, and the Hervey or Cook Islands, all of which England has annexed, also Easter Island, west of Chile. The Mahoris or Brown Polynesians are, physically, a fine race.—See also SAMOA, TONGA ISLANDS, HAWAIIAN ISLANDS, and TAHITI.

POLYPOTAMIA, The proposed State of. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY. A. D. 1784.

POMERANIANS, The.—A Slavonic people who dwelt in early times between the Prussians and the Oder and who have left descendants.

POMERIUM, The Roman.—The pomerium was a hallowed space, along the whole circuit of the city, behind the wall, where the city auspices were taken, over which the augurs had full right, and which could never be moved without their first consulting the will of the gods. The pomerium which encircled the Palatine appears to have been the space between the wall and the foot of the hill.—H. M. Westropp, *Early and Imperial Rome* p. 40.

POMPADOUR, Madame de, Ascendancy of. See FRANCE. A. D. 1723-1774.

POMPÆ.—The solemn processions of the ancient Athenians, on which they expended great sums of money, were so called.—A. Boeckh, *Public Economy of Athens*, bk. 2, ch. 13.

POMPEII.—Pompeii was a maritime city at the mouth of the river Sarnus, the most sheltered recess of the Neapolitan Crater. Its origin was lost in antiquity, and the tradition that it was founded by Hercules, together with the other spot [Herculaneum] which bore the name of the demigod, was derived perhaps from the warm springs with which the region abounded. The Greek plantations on the Campanian coast had been overrun by the Oscans and Samnites; nevertheless the graceful features of Grecian civilization were still everywhere conspicuous, and though Pompeii received a Latin name, and though Sulla, Augustus, and Nero had successively endowed it with Roman colonists, it retained the manners and to a great extent the

language of the settlers from beyond the sea."—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 60.—Pompeii, and the neighboring city of Herculaneum, were overwhelmed by a volcanic eruption from Mount Vesuvius, on the 23d of August, A. D. 79. They were buried, but did not perish; they were death-stricken, but not destroyed, and by excavations, which began at Pompeii A. D. 1748, they have been extensively uncovered, and made to exhibit to modern times the very privacies and secrets of life in a Roman city of the age of Titus—Pliny the Younger, *Letters*, bk. 6, ep. 16 and 20.

ALSO IN T. H. Dyer, *Pompeii*

POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM, Exhausted Libraries of. See **LIBRARIES**, ANCIENT.

POMPEIUS, the Great, and the first Triumvirate. See **ROME**. B. C. 78–68, to B. C. 48, and **ALEXANDRIA**. B. C. 48–47.

PONAPE. See **CAROLINE ISLANDS**

PONCAS, PONKAS, OR PUNCAS, The. See **AMERICAN ABORIGINES**. SIOUAN FAMILY, and **PAWNEE** (CADDOAN) FAMILY.

PONDICHERY: A. D. 1674–1697.—Founded by the French—Taken by the Dutch.—Restored to France. See **INDIA**. A. D. 1685–1743.

A. D. 1746.—Siege by the English. See **INDIA**. A. D. 1743–1752.

A. D. 1761.—Capture by the English. See **INDIA**. A. D. 1758–1761.

PONIATOWSKY, Stanislaus Augustus, King of Poland, A. D. 1764–1795.

PONKAS. See **PONCAS**

PONS ÆLII.—A Roman bridge and military station on the Tyne, where Newcastle is now situated.—H. M. Searth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 8.

PONS SUBLICIUS, The. See **SUBLICIAN BRIDGE**.

PONT ACHIN, Battle of. See **FRANCE**. A. D. 1794 (MARCH–JULY).

PONTCHARRA, Battle of (1591). See **FRANCE**. A. D. 1591–1593.

PONTE NUOVO, Battle of (1769). See **CORSICA**. A. D. 1720–1780.

PONTIAC'S WAR (A. D. 1763–1764).—"With the conquest of Canada and the expulsion of France as a military power from the continent, the English colonists were abounding in loyalty to the mother country, were exultant in the expectation of peace, and in the assurance of immunity from Indian wars in the future, for it did not seem possible that, with the loose system of organization and government common to the Indians, they could plan and execute a general campaign without the co-operation of the French as leaders. This feeling of security among the English settlements was of short duration. A general discontent pervaded all the Indian tribes from the frontier settlements to the Mississippi, and from the great lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. The extent of this disquietude was not suspected, and hence no attempt was made to gain the goodwill of the Indians. There were many real causes for this discontent. The French had been politic and sagacious in their intercourse with the Indian. They gained his friendship by treating him with respect and justice. They came to him with presents, and, as a rule, dealt with him fairly in trade. They came with missionaries,

unarmed, heroic, self-denying men. . . . Many Frenchmen married Indian wives, dwelt with the native tribes, and adopted their customs. To the average Englishman, on the other hand, Indians were disgusting objects, he would show them no respect, nor treat them with justice except under compulsion. The French had shown little disposition to make permanent settlements, but the English, when they appeared, came to stay, and they occupied large tracts of the best land for agricultural purposes. The French hunters and traders, who were widely dispersed among the native tribes, kept the Indians in a state of disquietude by misrepresenting the English, exaggerating their faults, and making the prediction that the French would soon recapture Canada and expel the English from the Western territories. Pontiac, the chief of the Ottawas [see **CANADA**. A. D. 1760] was the Indian who had the motive, the ambition, and capacity for organization which enabled him to concentrate and use all these elements of discontent for his own malignant and selfish purposes. After the defeat of the French he professed for a time to be friendly with the English, expecting that, under the acknowledged supremacy of Great Britain, he would be recognized as a mighty Indian prince, and be assigned to rule over his own, and perhaps a confederacy of other tribes. Finding that the English government had no use for him, he was indignant and he devoted all the energies of his voracious mind to a secret conspiracy of uniting the tribes west of the Alleghenies to engage in a general war against the English settlements. [The tribes thus banded together against the English comprised, with a few unimportant exceptions, the whole Algonquin stock, to whom were united the Wyandots, the Senecas and several tribes of the lower Mississippi. The Senecas were the only members of the Iroquois confederacy who joined in the league, the rest being kept quiet by the influence of Sir William Johnson.—F. Parkman, *Conspiracy of Pontiac*, v. 1, p. 187.] His scheme was to make a simultaneous attack on all the Western posts in the month of May, 1763; and each attack was assigned to the neighboring tribes. His summer home was on a small island at the entrance of Lake St. Clair, and being near Detroit, he was to conduct in person the capture of that fort. On the 6th of May, 1763, Major Gladwin in command at Detroit, had warning from an Indian girl that the next day an attempt would be made to capture the fort by treachery. When Pontiac, on the appointed morning, accompanied by 60 of his chiefs, with short guns concealed under their blankets, appeared at the fort, and, as usual, asked for admission, he was startled at seeing the whole garrison under arms, and that his scheme of treachery had miscarried. For two months the savages assailed the fort, and the sleepless garrison gallantly defended it, when they were relieved by the arrival of a schooner from Fort Niagara, with 60 men, provisions, and ammunition. Fort Pitt, on the present site of Pittsburgh, Pa., was in command of Captain Ecuyer, another trained soldier, who had been warned of the Indian conspiracy by Major Gladwin in a letter written May 5th. Captain Ecuyer, having a garrison of 330 soldiers and backwoodsmen, immediately made every preparation for defence. On May 27th, a party of Indians appeared at the fort under the pretence of wish-

ing to trade, and were treated as spies. Active operations against Fort Pitt were postponed until the smaller forts had been taken. Fort Sandusky was captured May 16th; Fort St. Joseph (on the St. Joseph River, Mich.), May 25th, Fort Ouatanon (now Lafayette, Ind.), May 31st; Fort Michillimackinac (now Mackinaw, Mich.), June 2d; Fort Presqu' Isle (now Erie, Pa.), June 17th; Fort Le Boeuf (Erie County, Pa.), June 18th, Fort Venango (Venango County, Pa.), June 18th, and the posts at Carlisle and Bedford, Pa., on the same day. No garrison except that at Presqu' Isle had warning of danger. The same method of capture was adopted in each instance. A small party of Indians came to the fort with the pretence of friendship, and were admitted. Others soon joined them, when the visitors rose upon the small garrisons, butchered them, or took them captive. At Presqu' Isle the Indians laid siege to the fort for two days, when they set it on fire. At Venango no one of the garrison survived to give an account of the capture. On June 22d, a large body of Indians surrounded Fort Pitt and opened fire on all sides, but were easily repulsed. . . . The Indians departed next day and did not return until July 26th, when they laid siege to the fort for five days and nights, with more loss to themselves than to the garrison. They "then disappeared, in order to intercept the expedition of Colonel Bouquet, which was approaching from the east with a convoy of provisions for the relief of Fort Pitt. It was fortunate for the country that there was an officer stationed at Philadelphia who fully understood the meaning of the alarming reports which were coming in from the Western posts. Colonel Henry Bouquet was a gallant Swiss officer who had been trained in war from his youth, and whose personal accomplishments gave an additional charm to his bravery and heroic energy. He had served seven years in fighting American Indians, and was more cunning than they in the practice of their own artifices. General Amherst, the commander-in-chief, was slow in appreciating the importance and extent of the Western conspiracy; yet he did good service in directing Colonel Bouquet to organize an expedition for the relief of Fort Pitt. The promptness and energy with which this duty was performed, under the most embarrassing conditions, make the expedition one of the most brilliant episodes in American warfare. The only troops available for the service were about 500 regulars recently arrived from the siege of Havana, broken in health." At Bushy Run, 25 miles east of Fort Pitt, Bouquet fought a desperate battle with the savages, and defeated them by the stratagem of a pretended retreat, which drew them into an ambush. Fort Pitt was then reached in safety. "On the 29th of July Detroit was reinforced by 280 men under Captain Dalzell, who in June had left Fort Niagara in 22 barges, with several cannon and a supply of provisions and ammunition. The day after his arrival, Captain Dalzell proposed, with 250 men, to make a night attack on Pontiac's camp and capture him. Major Gladwin discouraged the attempt, but finally, against his judgment, consented. Some Canadians obtained the secret and carried it to Pontiac, who waylaid the party in an ambush [at a place called Bloody Bridge ever since]. Twenty of the English were killed and 39 wounded. Among the killed was Cap-

tain Dalzell himself. Pontiac could make no use of this success, as the fort was strongly garrisoned and well supplied. . . . Elsewhere there was nothing to encourage him." His confederation began to break, and in November he was forced to raise the siege of Detroit. "There was quietness on the frontiers during the winter of 1768-64. In the spring of 1764 scattered war parties were again ravaging the borders. Colonel Bouquet was recruiting in Pennsylvania, and preparing an outfit for his march into the valley of the Ohio. In June, Colonel Bradstreet, with a force of 1,200 men, was sent up the great lakes," where he made an absurd and unauthorized treaty with some of the Ohio Indians. He arrived at Detroit on the 26th of August. "Pontiac had departed, and sent messages of defiance from the banks of the Maumee." Colonel Bouquet had experienced great difficulty in raising troops and supplies and it was not until September, 1764, that he again reached Fort Pitt. But before two months passed he had brought the Delawares and Shawanones to submission and had delivered some 200 white captives from their hands. Meantime, Sir William Johnson, in conjunction with Bradstreet, had held conferences with a great council of 2,000 warriors at Fort Niagara, representing Iroquois, Ottawas, Ojibways, Wyandots and others, and had concluded several treaties of peace. By one of these, with the Senecas, a strip of land four miles wide on each side of Niagara River, from Erie to Ontario, was ceded to the British government. "The Pontiac War, so far as battles and campaigns were concerned, was ended, but Pontiac was still at large and as untamed as ever. His last hope was the Illinois country, where the foot of an English soldier had never trod," and there he schemed and plotted without avail until 1765. In 1769 he was assassinated, near St. Louis.—W. F. Poole, *The West, 1763-1783* (*Narrative and Critical Hist. of Am.*, v. 6, ch. 9).

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Conspiracy of Pontiac*.—S. Farmer, *Hist. of Detroit and Mich.*, ch. 38.—*Historical Account of Bouquet's Expedition*.—A. Henry, *Travels and Adventures in Canada*, pt. 1, ch. 9-23.—W. L. Stone, *Life and Times of Sir Wm. Johnson*, v. 2, ch. 9-12.—J. R. Brodhead, *Docs. Relative to Col. Hist. of N. Y.*, v. 7.

PONTIFEX MAXIMUS.—**PONTIFICES**, Roman. See **AUGURS**.

PONTIFF, The Roman.—The Pope is often alluded to as the Roman Pontiff, the term implying an analogy between his office and that of the Pontifex Maximus of the ancient Romans.

PONTIFICAL INDICATIONS. See **INDICATIONS**.

PONTUS. See **MITHRIDATIC WARS**.

PONTUS EUXINUS, OR EUXINUS PONTUS.—The Black Sea, as named by the Greeks.

PONZA, Naval Battle of (1435). See **ITALY**: A. D. 1412-1447.

POOR LAWS, The English.—"It has been often said and often denied that the monasteries supplied the want which the poor law, two generations after the dissolution of these bodies, enforced. That the monasteries were renowned for their almsgiving is certain. The duty of aiding the needy was universal. Themselves the creatures of charity, they could not deny to others that on which they subsisted. . . . It is possible that these institutions created the men-

dicancy which they relieved, but it cannot be doubted that they assisted much which needed their help. The guilds which existed in the towns were also found in the country villages. . . . They were convenient instruments for charity before the establishment of a poor law, and they employed no inconsiderable part of their revenues, collected from subscriptions and from lands and tenements, in relieving the indigent and treating poor strangers hospitably. Before the dissolution of the monasteries, but when this issue was fairly in view, in 1536, an attempt was made to secure some legal provision for destitution. The Act of this year provides that the authorities in the cities and boroughs should collect alms on Sundays and holy days, that the ministers should on all occasions, public and private, stir up the people to contribute to a common fund, that the custom of giving doles by private persons should be forbidden under penalty, and that the church-wardens should distribute the alms when collected. The Act, however, is strictly limited to free gifts, and the obligations of monasteries, almshouses, hospitals, and brotherhoods are expressly maintained. There was a considerable party in England which was willing enough to see the monasteries destroyed, root and branch, and one of the most obvious means by which this result could be attained would be to allege that all which could be needed for the relief of destitution would be derived from the voluntary offerings of those who contributed so handsomely to the maintenance of indolent and dissolute friars. The public was reconciled to the Dissolution by the promise made that the monastic estates should not be converted to the king's private use, but be devoted towards the maintenance of a military force, and that therefore no more demands should be made on the nation for subsidies and aids. Similarly when the guild lands and chantry lands were confiscated at the beginning of Edward's reign, a promise was made that the estates of these foundations should be devoted to good and proper uses, for erecting grammar schools, for the further augmentation of the universities, and the better provision for the poor and needy. They were swept into the hands of Seymour and Somerset, of the Dudleys and Cecils, and the rest of the crew who surrounded the throne of Edward. It cannot, therefore, I think, be doubted that this violent change of ownership, apart from any considerations of previous practice in these several institutions, must have aggravated whatever evils already existed. . . . The guardians of Edward attempted, in a savage statute passed in the first year of his reign, to restrain pauperism and vagabondage by reducing the landless and destitute poor to slavery, by branding them, and making them work in chains. The Act, however, only endured for two years. In the last year of Edward's reign two collectors were to be appointed in every parish, who were to wait on every person of substance and inquire what sums he will give weekly to the relief of the poor. The promises are to be entered in a book, and the collectors were authorized to employ the poor in such work as they could perform, paying them from the fund. Those who refused to aid were to be first exhorted by the ministers and church wardens, and if they continued obstinate were to be denounced to the bishop, who is to remonstrate with such unchari-

table folk. . . . In the beginning of Elizabeth's reign (5, cap. 3) the unwilling giver, after being exhorted by the bishop, is to be bound to appear before the justices, in quarter sessions, where, if he be still obdurate to exhortation, the justices are empowered to tax him in a weekly sum, and commit him to prison till he pays. . . . There was only a step from the process under which a reluctant subscriber to the poor law was assessed by the justices and imprisoned on refusal, to the assessment of all property under the celebrated Act of 43 Elizabeth [1601], cap. 3. The law had provided for the regular appointment of assessors for the levy of rates, for supplying work to the able bodied, for giving relief to the infirm and old, and for binding apprentices. It now consolidates the experience of the whole reign, defines the kind of property on which the rate is to be levied, prescribes the manner in which the assessors shall be appointed, and inflicts penalties on parties who infringe its provisions. It is singular that the Act was only temporary. It was, by the last clause, only to continue to the end of the next session of parliament. It was, however, renewed, and finally made perpetual by 16 Car I, cap 4. The economical history of labour in England is henceforward intimately associated with this remarkable Act.

The Act was to be tentative, indeed, but in its general principles it lasted till 1835. . . . The effect of poor law relief on the wages of labour was to keep them hopelessly low, to hinder a rise even under the most urgent circumstances."—J E Thorold Rogers, *Six Centuries of Work and Wages*, ch 15 (v 2).—"In February 1834 was published perhaps the most remarkable and startling document to be found in the whole range of English, perhaps, indeed, of all, social history. It was the Report upon the administration and practical operation of the Poor Laws by the Commissioners who had been appointed to investigate the subject. . . . It was their rare good fortune not only to lay bare the existence of abuses and trace them to their roots, but also to propound and enforce the remedies by which they might be cured."—T W Fowle, *The Poor Law*, ch 4—"The poor rate had become public spoil. The ignorant believed it an inexhaustible fund which belonged to them. To obtain their share, the brutal bullied the administrators, the profligate exhibited their bastards which must be fed, the idle folded their arms and waited till they got it, ignorant boys and girls married upon it, poachers, thieves, and prostitutes extorted it by intimidation; country justices lavished it for popularity, and guardians for convenience. This was the way the fund went. As for whence it arose—it came, more and more every year, out of the capital of the shopkeeper and the farmer, and the diminishing resources of the country gentleman. . . . Instead of the proper number of labourers to till his lands—labourers paid by himself—the farmer was compelled to take double the number, whose wages were paid partly out of the rates; and these men, being employed by compulsion on him, were beyond his control—worked or not as they chose—let down the quality of his land, and disabled him from employing the better men who would have toiled hard for independence. These better men sank down among the worse; the rate-paying cottager, after a vain struggle, went to the pay-table to seek relief; the modest girl

might starve, while her bolder neighbour received 1s. 6d. per week for every illegitimate child. Industry, probity, purity, prudence—all heart and spirit—the whole soul of goodness—were melting down into depravity and social ruin, like snow under the foul internal fires which precede the earthquake. There were clergymen in the commission, as well as politicians and economists; and they took these things to heart, and laboured diligently to frame suggestions for a measure which should heal and recreate the moral spirit as well as the economical condition of society in England. To thoughtful observers it is clear that the . . . grave aristocratic error . . . of confounding in one all ranks below a certain level of wealth was at the bottom of much poor-law abuse, as it has been of the opposition to its amendment. . . . Except the distinction between sovereign and subject, there is no social difference in England so wide as that between the independent labourer and the pauper; and it is equally ignorant, immoral, and impolitic to confound the two. This truth was so apparent to the commissioners, and they conveyed it so fully to the framers of the new poor-law, that it forms the very foundation of the measure. . . . Enlightened by a prodigious accumulation of evidence, the commissioners offered their suggestions to government; and a bill to amend the poor-law was prepared and proposed to the consideration of parliament early in 1834. . . . If one main object of the reform was to encourage industry, it was clearly desirable to remove the impediments to the circulation of labour. Settlement by hiring and service was to exist no longer; labour could freely enter any parish where it was wanted, and leave it for another parish which might, in its turn, want hands. In observance of the great principle that the independent labourer was not to be sacrificed to the pauper, all administration of relief to the able-bodied at their own homes was to be discontinued as soon as possible; and the allowance system was put an end to entirely. . . . Henceforth, the indigent must come into the workhouse for relief, if he must have it. . . . The able-bodied should work—should do a certain amount of work for every meal. They might go out after the expiration of twenty-four hours; but while in the house they must work. The men, women, and children must be separated; and the able-bodied and infirm. . . . In order to a complete and economical classification in the workhouses, and for other obvious reasons, the new act provided for unions of parishes. . . . To afford the necessary control over such a system . . . a central board was indispensable, by whose orders, and through whose assistant-commissioners, everything was to be arranged, and to whom all appeals were to be directed. . . . Of the changes proposed by the new law, none was more important to morals than that which threw the charge of the maintenance of illegitimate children upon the mother. . . . The decrease of illegitimate births was what many called wonderful, but only what the framers of the law had anticipated from the removal of direct pecuniary inducement to profligacy, and from the awakening of proper care in parents of daughters, and of reflection in the women themselves. . . . On the 14th of August 1834, the royal assent was given to the Poor-law Amendment Act, amidst prognostications of utter failure from the timid,

and some misgivings among those who were most confident of the absolute necessity of the measure. . . . Before two years were out, wages were rising and rates were falling in the whole series of country parishes; farmers were employing more labourers; surplus labour was absorbed; bullying paupers were transformed into steady working-men; the decrease of illegitimate births, chargeable to the parish, throughout England, was nearly 10,000, or nearly 13 per cent.; . . . and, finally, the rates, which had risen nearly a million in their annual amount during the five years before the poor-law commission was issued, sank down, in the course of the five years after it, from being upwards of seven millions to very little above four."—H. Martineau, *A History of the Thirty Years Peace*, bk. 4, ch. 7 (v. 2). —In 1838 the Act was extended to Ireland, and in 1845 to Scotland.—T. W. Fowle, *The Poor Law*, ch. 4.—"The new Poor Law was passed by Parliament in 1834; and the oversight of its administration was placed in the hands of a special board of commissioners, then known as the Central Poor Law Board. This board, which was not represented in Parliament, was continued until 1847. In that year it was reconstructed and placed under the presidency of a minister with a seat in the House of Commons—a reconstruction putting it on a political level with the Home Office and the other important Government Departments at Whitehall. The Department was henceforward known as the Poor Law Board, and continued to be so named until 1871, when there was another reconstruction. This time the Poor Law Board took over from the Home Office various duties in respect of municipal government and public health, and from the Privy Council the oversight of the administration of the vaccination laws and other powers, and its title was changed to that of the Local Government Board. Since then hardly a session of Parliament has passed in which its duties and responsibilities have not been added to, until at the present time the Local Government Board is more directly in touch with the people of England and Wales than any other Government Department. There is not a village in the land which its inspectors do not visit or to which the official communications of the Board are not addressed."—E. Porritt, *The Englishman at Home*, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: Sir G. Nicholls, *Hist. of the English Poor-Law*.—F. Peck, *Social Wreckage*.

POOR MEN OF LYONS.—POOR MEN OF LOMBARDY. See WALDENBERG.

POOR PRIESTS OF LOLLARDY, The. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1360-1414.

POPE, General John.—Capture of New Madrid and Island Number Ten. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MARCH—APRIL: ON THE MISSISSIPPI). . . . Command of the Army of the Mississippi. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (APRIL—MAY: TENNESSEE—MISSISSIPPI). . . . Virginia campaign. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (JULY—AUGUST: VIRGINIA); (AUGUST: VIRGINIA); and (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER: VIRGINIA).

POPE, The. See PAPACY.

POPHAM COLONY, The. See MAINE: A. D. 1697-1698.

POPIISH PLOT, The. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1678-1679.

POPOL VUH, The. See AMERICAN AND AMERICAN QUICHUA.

POPOLOCAS, The. See AMERICAN ABO-
RIGINES: CHONTALS.

'POPULARES. See OPTIMATES.

PORNOCRACY AT ROME. See ROME:
A. D. 908-964.

PORT GIBSON, Battle of. See UNITED
STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (APRIL—JULY ON
THE MISSISSIPPI).

PORT HUDSON, Siege and capture of.
See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (MAY—
JULY ON THE MISSISSIPPI).

**PORT JACKSON: A. D. 1770-1788.—The
discovery.—The naming.—The first settle-
ment.** See AUSTRALIA: A. D. 1801-1800.

PORT MAHON. See MINORCA.

PORT PHILLIP DISTRICT. See AUS-
TRALIA: A. D. 1800-1840, and 1839-1855.

PORT REPUBLIC, Battle of. See UNITED
STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MAY—JUNE VIR-
GINIA).

**PORT ROYAL, and the Jansenists: A. D.
1602-1660.—The monastery under Mère An-
gelique and the hermits of the Port Royal
Valley.—Their acceptance of the doctrines of
Jansenius.—Their conflict with the Jesuits.**
—“The monastery of Port Royal was
founded in the beginning of the 13th century, in
the reign of Philip Augustus, and a later tradi-
tion claimed this magnificent monarch as the
author of its foundation and of its name.
But this is the story of a time when, as it has
been said, ‘royal founders were in fashion’.
More truly, the name is considered to be derived
from the general designation of the fic or dis-
trict in which the valley lies, Porrois—which,
again, is supposed to be a corruption of Porra
or Boria, meaning a marshy and woody hollow.
The valley of Port Royal presents to this day the
same natural features which attracted the eye of
the devout solitary in the seventeenth century.”

It lies about eighteen miles west of Paris,
and seven or eight from Versailles, on the road
to Chevreuse. The monastery was founded,
not by Philip Augustus, but by Matthew, first
Lord of Marli, a younger son of the noble house
of Montmorency. Having formed the design of
accompanying the crusade proclaimed by In-
nocent III to the Holy Land, he left at the dis-
posal of his wife, Mathilde de Garlande, and his
kinsman, the Bishop of Paris, a sum of money
to devote to some pious work in his absence.
They agreed to apply it to the erection of a mon-
astery for nuns in this secluded valley, that had
already acquired a reputation for sanctity in
connection with the old chapel dedicated to St.
Lawrence, which attracted large numbers of
worshippers. The foundations of the church
and monastery were laid in 1204. They were
designed by the same architect who built the
Cathedral of Amiens, and ere long the graceful
and beautiful structures were seen rising in the
wilderness. The nuns belonged to the Cistercian
order. Their dress was white woollen, with a
black veil; but afterwards they adopted as their
distinctive badge a large scarlet cross on their
white scapular, as the symbol of the ‘Institute
of the Holy Sacrament.’ The abbey underwent
the usual history of such institutions. Disting-
uished at first by the strictness of its discipline
and the piety of its inmates, it became gradually
corrupted with increasing wealth, till, in the end
of the sixteenth century, it had grown notorious

for gross and scandalous abuses . . . But at
length its revival arose out of one of the most
obvious abuses connected with it. The patron-
age of the institution, like that of others, had
been distributed without any regard to the fit-
ness of the occupants, even to girls of immature
age. In this manner the abbey of Port Royal
accidentally fell to the lot of one who was des-
tined by her ardent piety to breathe a new life
into it, and by her indomitable and lofty genius
to give it an undying reputation. Jacqueline
Marie Arnauld—better known by her official
name, La Mère Angélique—was appointed
abbess of Port Royal when she was only eight
years of age. She was descended from a dis-
tinguished family belonging originally to the old
noblesse of Provence, but which had migrated to
Auvergne and settled there. Of vigorous
healthiness, both mental and physical, the Ar-
naulds had already acquired a merited position
and name in the annals of France. In the begin-
ning of the sixteenth century it found its way to
Paris in the person of Antoine Arnauld, Seigneur
de la Mothe, the grandfather of the heroine of
Port Royal. Antoine Arnauld married the
youthful daughter of M. Marion, the Avocat-
général. The couple had twenty children,
and felt, as may be imagined, the pressure of
providing for so many. Out of this pressure
came the remarkable lot of two of the daughters.
The benefices of the Church were a fruitful field
of provision, and the avocat général, the ma-
ternal grandfather of the children, had large
ecclesiastical influence. The result was the ap-
pointment not only of one daughter to the abbey
of Port Royal, but also of a younger sister,
Agnès, only six years of age to the abbey of St.
Cyran about six miles distant from Port Royal.

At the age of eleven, in the year 1602,
Angélique was installed Abbess of Port Royal.
Her sister took the veil at the age of seven. . .
The remarkable story of Angélique’s conversion
by the preaching of a Capucin friar in 1608, her
strange contest with her parents which followed,
the strengthening impulses in different directions
which her religious life received, first from the
famous St. Francis de Sales, and finally, and
especially, from the no less remarkable Abbé de
St. Cyran, all belong to the history of Port
Royal.—J. Tulloch, *Pascal*, ch. 4.—“The num-
bers at the Port Royal had increased to eighty,
and the situation was so unhealthy that there
were many deaths. In 1626 they moved to
Paris, and the abbey in the fields remained for
many years deserted. M. Zamet, a pious but
not a great man, for a while had the spiritual
charge of the Port Royal, but in 1634 the abbé
of St. Cyran became its director. To his in-
fluence is due the position it took in the coming
conflict of Jansenism, and the effects of his teach-
ings can be seen in the sisters, and in most of the
illustrious recluses who attached themselves to
the monastery. St. Cyran had been an early
associate of Jansenius, whose writings became
such a fire-brand in the Church. As young men
they devoted the most of five years to an intense
study of St. Augustine. It is said Jansenius
read all of his works ten times, and thirty times
his treatises against the Pelagians. The two
students resolved to attempt a reformation in the
belief of the Church, which they thought was
falling away from many of the tenets of the
father. Jansenius was presently made bishop of

Ypres by the Spanish as a reward for a political tract, but he pursued his studies in his new bishopric. In 1640, the Augustinus appeared, in which the bishop of Ypres sought, by a full reproduction of the doctrines of St. Augustine, to bring the Church back from the errors of the Pelagians to the pure and severe tenets of the great father. The doctrine of grace, the very corner stone of the Christian faith, was that which Jansenius labored to revive. Saint Augustine had taught that, before the fall of our first parents, man, being in a state of innocence, could of his own free will do works acceptable to God, but after that his nature was so corrupted, that no good thing could proceed from it, save only as divine grace worked upon him. This grace God gave as He saw fit, working under his eternal decrees, and man, except as predestined and elected to its sovereign help, could accomplish no righteous act, and must incur God's just wrath. But the Pelagians and semi Pelagians had departed from this doctrine and attributed a capacity to please God, to man's free will and the deeds proceeding from it—a belief which could but foster his carnal pride and hasten his damnation. The Jesuits were always desirous to teach religion so that it could most easily be accepted, and they had inclined to semi Pelagian doctrines, rather than to the difficult truths of St. Augustine. Yet no one questioned his authority. The dispute was as to the exact interpretation of his writings. Jansenius claimed to have nothing in his great book save the very word of Augustine, or its legitimate result. The Jesuits replied that his writings contained neither the doctrine of Augustine nor the truth of God. They appealed to the Pope for the condemnation of these heresies. Jansenius had died before the publication of his book, but his followers, who were soon named after him, endeavored to defend his works from censure. . . . It was not until 1653 that the influence of the Jesuits succeeded in obtaining the condemnation of the offending book. In that year, Innocent X. issued a bull, by which he condemned as heretical five propositions contained in the Augustinus. The members of the Port Royal adopted the Jansenist cause. Saint Cyran had been a fellow worker with Jansenius, and he welcomed the Augustinus as a book to revive and purify the faith of the Church. . . . The rigid predestinarianism of Jansen had a natural attraction for the stern zeal of the Port Royal. The religion of the convent and of those connected with it bordered on asceticism. They lived in the constant awe of God, seeking little communion with the world, and offering to it little compromise. . . . An intense and rigorous religious life adopts an intense and rigorous belief. The Jansenists resembled the English and American Puritans. They shared their Calvinistic tenets and their strict morality. A Jansenist, said the Jesuits, is a Calvinist saying mass. No accusation was more resented by those of the Jansenist party. They sought no alliance with the Protestants. Saint Cyran and Arnauld wrote prolifically against the Calvinists. They were certainly separated from the latter by their strong devotion to two usages of the Catholic Church which were especially objectionable to Protestants—the mass and the confessional. . . . In 1647, Mother Angelique with some of the sisters returned to Port

Royal in the Fields. The convent at Paris continued in close relations with it, but the abbey in the fields was to exhibit the most important phases of devotional life. Before the return of the sisters, this desolate spot had begun to be the refuge for many eminent men, whose careers became identified with the fate of the abbey. 'We saw arrive,' writes one of them, 'from diverse provinces, men of different professions, who, like mariners that had suffered shipwreck, came to seek the Port.' M. le Maitre, a nephew of Mother Angelique, a lawyer of much prominence, a counsellor of state, a favorite of the chancellor and renowned for his eloquent harangues, abandoned present prosperity and future eminence, and in 1638 built a little house, near the monastery, and became the first of those who might be called the hermits of the Port Royal. Not taking orders, nor becoming a member of any religious body, he sought a life of lonely devotion in this barren place. Others gradually followed, until there grew up a community, small in numbers, but strong in influence, united in study in penance, in constant praise and worship. Though held together by no formal vows, few of those who put hand to the plough turned back from the work. They left their beloved retreat only when expelled by force and with infinite regret. The monastery itself had become dilapidated. It was surrounded by stagnant waters, and the woods near by were full of snakes. But the recluses found religious joy amid this desolation. As their numbers increased they did much however, to improve the desolate retreat they had chosen.

Some of the recluses cultivated the ground. Others even made shoes, and the Jesuits dubbed them the cobblers. They found occupation not only in such labors and in solitary meditation, but in the more useful work of giving the young an education that was sound in learning and grounded in piety. The schools of the Port Royal had a troubled existence of about fifteen years. Though they rarely had over fifty pupils, yet in this brief period they left their mark. Racine, Tilletmont, and many others of fruitful scholarship and piety were among the pupils who were watched and trained by the grave anchorites with a tender and fostering care. . . . The judicious teachers of the Port Royal taught reading in French, and in many ways did much to improve the methods of French instruction and scholarship. The children were thoroughly trained also in Greek and Latin, in logic and mathematics. Their teachers published admirable manuals for practical study in many branches. 'They sought,' says one, 'to render study more agreeable than play or games.' The jealousy of the Jesuits, who were well aware of the advantages of controlling the education of the young, at last obtained the order for the final dispersion of these little schools, and in 1660 they were closed for ever. Besides these manuals for teaching, the literature of the Port Royal comprised many controversial works, chief among them the forty-two volumes of Arnauld. It furnished also a translation of the Bible by Saci, which, though far from possessing the merits of the English version of King James, is one of the best of the many French translations. But the works of Blaise Pascal were the great productions of the Port Royal, as he himself was its chief glory. The famous Provincial Letters

originated from the controversy over Jansenism, though they soon turned from doctrinal questions to an attack on the morality of the Jesuits that permanently injured the influence of that body."—J. B. Perkins, *France under Mazarin*, ch. 20 (p. 2).

ALSO IN: M. A. Schimmelpenninck, *Select Memoirs of Port Royal*.

A. D. 1702-1715. — Renewed persecution.—

Suppression and destruction of the Monastery.—The odious Bull *Unigenitus*, and its tyrannical enforcement.—"The Jesuits had been for

some time at a low ebb, in the beginning of the 18th century, the Cardinal de Noailles, Archbishop of Paris, then ruling the King through Madame de Maintenon, and himself submitting to the direction of Bossuet. The imprudence of the Jansenists, their indefatigable spirit of dispute, restored to their enemies the opportunity to retrieve their position. In 1702, forty Sorbonne doctors resuscitated the celebrated question of fact concerning the five propositions of Jansenius, and maintained that, in the presence of the decisions of the Church on points of fact and not of dogma, a respectful silence sufficed without internal acquiescence. Some other propositions of a Jansenistic tendency accompanied this leading question. Bossuet hastened to interfere to stifle the matter, and to induce the doctors to retract. . . . Thirty nine doctors retracted out of forty. The King forbade the publication thenceforth of anything concerning these matters, but, in his own name, and that of Philip V. [of Spain, his grandson], entreated Pope Clement XI to renew the constitutions of his predecessors against Jansenism. . . . Clement XI. responded to the King's wishes by a Bull which fell in the midst of the assembly of the clergy in 1705. Cardinal de Noailles, who presided, made reservations against the infallibility of the Church in affairs of fact. The assembly, animated with a Gallican spirit, accepted the Bull, but established that the constitutions of the Popes bind the whole Church only 'when they have been accepted by the bodies of the pastors,' and that this acceptance on the part of the bishops is made 'by way of judgment.' The court of Rome was greatly offended that the bishops should claim to 'judge' after it, and this gave rise to long negotiations: the King induced the bishops to offer to the Pope extenuating explanations. The Jesuits, however, regained the ascendancy at Versailles, and prepared against Cardinal de Noailles a formidable engine of war." The Cardinal had given his approval, some years before, to a work—"Moral Reflections on the New Testament"—published by Father Queuel, who afterwards became a prominent Jansenist. The Jesuits now procured the condemnation of this work, by the congregation of the Index, and a decree from the Pope prohibiting it. "This was a rude assault on Cardinal de Noailles. The decree, however, was not received in France, through a question of form, or rather, perhaps, because the King was then dissatisfied with the Pope, on account of the concessions of Clement XI. to the House of Austria. The Jansenists gained nothing thereby. At this very moment, a terrible blow was about to fall on the dearest and most legitimate object of their veneration."

The nuns of Port-Royal of the Fields having refused to subscribe to the royal constitution of

1705, the Pope had subjected them to the Abbess of Port-Royal of Paris, "who did not share their Augustinian faith (1708). They resisted. Meanwhile, Father La Chaise [the King's confessor] died, and Le Tellier succeeded him. The affair was carried to the most extreme violence. Cardinal de Noailles, a man of pure soul and feeble character, was persuaded, in order to prove that he was not a Jansenist, to cruelty, despite himself, towards the rebellious nuns. They were torn from their monastery and dispersed through different convents (November, 1709). The illustrious abbey of Port Royal, hallowed, even in the eyes of unbelievers, by the name of so many great men, by the memory of so much virtue, was utterly demolished, by the order of the lieutenant of police, D'Argenson. Two years after, as if it were designed to exile even the shades that haunted the valley, the dead of Port Royal were exhumed, and their remains transferred to a village cemetery (at Magny). Noailles, while he entered into this persecution, took the same course, nevertheless, as the nuns of Port Royal, by refusing to retract the approbation which he had given to the 'Moral Reflections' Le Tellier caused him to be denounced to the King. . . . The King prohibited Queuel's book by a decree in council (November 11, 1711), and demanded of the Pope a new condemnation of this book, in a form that could be received in France. The reply of Clement XI was delayed until September 8, 1713, this was the celebrated *Unigenitus* Bull, the work of Le Tellier far more than of the Pope, and which, instead of the general terms of the Bull of 1708, expressly condemned 101 propositions extracted from the 'Moral Reflections'. The Bull dared condemn the very words of St. Augustine and of St. Paul himself; there were propositions, on other matters than grace, the condemnation of which was and should have been scandalous, and seemed veritably the triumph of Jesuitism over Christianity, for example, those concerning the necessity of the love of God. It had dared to condemn this. 'There is no God, there is no religion, where there is not charity.' This was giving the pontifical sanction to the Jesuitical theories most contrary to the general spirit of Christian theology. It was the same with the maxims relative to the Holy Scriptures. The Pope had anathematized the following propositions: 'The reading of the Holy Scriptures is for all. Christians should keep the Sabbath-day holy by reading the Scriptures, it is dangerous to deprive them of these.' And also this: 'The fear of unjust excommunication should not prevent us from doing our duty.' This was overturning all political Gallicanism." The acceptance of the Bull was strongly but vainly resisted. The King and the King's malignant confessor spared no exercise of their unbridled power to compel submission to it. "It was endeavored to stifle by terror public opinion contrary to the Bull: exiles, imprisonments, were multiplied from day to day." And still, when Louis XIV. died, on the 1st day of September 1715, the struggle was not at an end.—H. Martin, *Hist. of France: Age of Louis XIV.*, v. 2, ch. 6.—"It is now time that I should say something of the infamous bull *Unigenitus*, which by the unsurpassed audacity and scheming of Father Le Tellier and his friends was forced upon the Pope and the world. I need not

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enter into a very lengthy account of the celebrated Papal decree which has made so many martyrs, depopulated our schools, introduced ignorance, fanaticism, and misrule, rewarded vice, thrown the whole community into the greatest confusion, caused disorder everywhere, and established the most arbitrary and the most barbarous inquisition; evils which have doubled within the last thirty years. I will content myself with a word or two, and will not blacken further the pages of my Memoirs. . . . It is enough to say that the new bull condemned in set terms the doctrines of St. Paul, . . . and also those of St. Augustin, and of other fathers; doctrines which have always been adopted by the Popes, by the Councils, and by the Church itself. The bull, as soon as published, met with a violent opposition in Rome from the cardinals there, who went by sixes, by eights, and by tens, to complain of it to the Pope. . . . He protested . . . that the publication had been made without his knowledge, and put off the cardinals with compliments, excuses, and tears, which last he could always command. The constitution had the same fate in France as in Rome. The cry against it was universal."—Duke of Saint Simon, *Memoirs* (abridged trans. by St. John), v. 3, ch. 6.—"Jansenism . . . laid hold upon all ecclesiastical bodies with very few exceptions, it predominated altogether in theological literature: all public schools that were not immediately under the Jesuits, or, as in Spain, under the Inquisition, held Jansenist opinions, at least so far as the majority of their theologians were concerned. In Rome itself this teaching was strongly represented amongst the cardinals." Fenelon declared "that nobody knew—now that the controversy and the condemnations had gone on for sixty years—in what the erroneous doctrine exactly consisted; for the Roman court stuck fast to the principle of giving no definition of what ought to be believed, so that the same doctrine which it apparently rejected in one form, was unhesitatingly accepted at Rome itself when expressed in other though synonymous terms. . . . The same thing which under one name was condemned, was under another, as the teaching of the Thomists or Augustinians, declared to be perfectly orthodox. . . . Just because nobody could tell in what sense such propositions as those taken from the works of Jansenius or Quesnel were to be rejected, did they become valuable; for the whole question was turned into one of blind obedience and submission, without previous investigation. The Jesuit D'Aubenton, who as Tellier's agent in Rome had undertaken to procure that the passages selected from Quesnel's book should be condemned, repeatedly informed his employer that at Rome everything turned upon the papal infallibility; to get this passed whilst the king was ready to impose, by force of arms, upon the bishops and clergy the unquestioning acceptance of the papal constitution, was the only object."—J. I. von Dollinger, *Studies in European Hist.*, ch. 12.

Also in: W. H. Jarvis, *Hist. of the Church of France*, v. 2, ch. 5-7.—F. Rocquain, *The Revolutionary Spirit preceding the French Revolution*, ch. 1.

PORT ROYAL, Nova Scotia: A. D. 1603-1613.—Settled by the French, and destroyed

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by the English. See CANADA: A. D. 1603-1605; 1606-1608; and 1610-1613.

A. D. 1690.—Taken by an expedition from Massachusetts. See CANADA: A. D. 1689-1690.

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PORTO RICO.—The island of Porto Rico is at the entrance of the Gulf of Mexico, east of Hayti. It is 95 miles long, 35 broad, and has an area of about 3600 square miles. Its name, meaning "rich port," is significant of its wealth in mineral and agricultural resources. The population numbers about 900,000, 300,000 being blacks. Porto Rico was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and occupied in 1509 by the Spaniards, who speedily exterminated the native population. The island is governed under a constitution voted by the Spanish Cortes in 1869. Slavery was abolished in 1873.

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A. D. 1740.—Capture by Admiral Vernon. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1739-1741.

PORTUGAL: Early history.—Mistaken identification with ancient Lusitania.—Roman, Gothic, Moorish and Spanish conquests.—The county of Henry of Burgundy.—"The early history of the country, which took the name of Portugal from the county which formed the nucleus of the future kingdom, is identical with that of the rest of the Iberian peninsula, but deserves some slight notice because of an old misconception, immortalized in the title of the famous epic of Camoens, and not yet entirely eradicated even from modern ideas. Portugal, like the rest of the peninsula, was originally inhabited by men of the prehistoric ages. . . . There seems to be no doubt that the Celts, the first Aryan immigrants, were preceded by a non-Aryan race, which is called by different writers the Iberian or Euskaldunac nation, but this earlier race speedily amalgamated with the Celts, and out of the two together were formed the five tribes inhabiting the Iberian peninsula, which Strabo names as the Cantabrians, the Vasconians, the Asturians, the Gallicians and the Lusitanians. It is Strabo, also, who mentions the existence of Greek colonies at the mouth of the Tagus, Douro, and Minho, and it is curious to note that the old name of Lisbon, Oliſſipo, was from the earliest times identified with that of the

hero of the *Odyssey*, and was interpreted to mean the city of Ulysses. . . . The Carthaginians, though they had colonies all over the peninsula, established their rule mainly over the south and east of it, having their capital at Carthagera or Nova Carthago, and seem to have neglected the more barbarous northern and western provinces. It was for this reason that the Romans found far more difficulty in subduing these latter provinces.

In 189 B. C. Lucius *Emilius Paullus* defeated the Lusitanians, and in 185 B. C. *Gaius Calpurnius* forced his way across the Tagus. There is no need here to discuss the gradual conquest by the Romans of that part of the peninsula which includes the modern kingdom of Portugal, but it is necessary to speak of the gallant shepherd *Viriathus*, who sustained a stubborn war against the Romans from 149 B. C. until he was assassinated in 139 B. C., because he has been generally claimed as the first national hero of Portugal. This claim has been based upon the assumed identification of the modern Portugal with the ancient Lusitania [see *Lusitania*], an identification which has spread its roots deep in Portuguese literature, and has until recently been generally accepted.

The Celtic tribe of Lusitanians dwelt, according to Strabo, in the districts north of the Tagus, while the Lusitania of the Latin historians of the Republic undoubtedly lay to the south of that river though it was not used as the name of a province until the time of Augustus, when the old division of the peninsula into *Hispania Citerior* and *Hispania Ulterior* was superseded by the division into *Betica*, *Tarraconensis*, and *Lusitania*. Neither in this division, nor in the division of the peninsula into the five provinces of *Tarraconensis*, *Carthaginensis*, *Betica*, *Lusitania*, and *Gallicia*, under *Hadrian*, was the province called *Lusitania* coterminous with the modern kingdom of Portugal. Under each division the name was given to a district south of the Tagus.

It is important to grasp the result of this misconception, for it emphasizes the fact that the history of Portugal for many centuries is merged in that of the rest of the Iberian peninsula, and explains why it is unnecessary to study the wars of the Lusitanians with the Roman Republic, as is often done in histories of Portugal. Like the rest of the peninsula Portugal was thoroughly Latinized in the days of the Roman Empire. Roman 'colonie' and 'municipia' were established in places suited for trade, such as Lisbon and Oporto. . . . Peaceful existence under the sway of Rome continued until the beginning of the 5th century, when the Goths first forced their way across the Pyrenees [see *Goths* (*Visigoths*) A. D. 410-419]. . . . The Visigothic Empire left but slight traces in Portugal. "The Mohammedan conquest by the Arab-Moors, which began early in the 8th century, extended to Portugal, and for a general account of the struggle in the peninsula between Christians and Moslems during several succeeding centuries the reader is referred to SPAIN: A. D. 711-718, and after. "In 897 *Bermudo II.*, king of Gallicia, won back the first portion of modern Portugal from the Moors by seizing Oporto and occupying the province now known as the *Entre Minho e Douro*.

In 1095 *Ferdinand 'the Great'*, king of Leon, Castile, and Gallicia, invaded the Beira; in 1082 he took Lamego and Viseu; and in 1084 Coimbra, where he died in the following year.

He arranged for the government of his conquests in the only way possible under the feudal system, by forming them into a county, extending to the Mondego, with Coimbra as its capital. The first count of Coimbra was *Sesnando*, a recreant Arab vizir, who had advised *Ferdinand* to invade his district and had assisted in its easy conquest. . . . But though *Sesnando's* county of Coimbra was the great frontier county of Gallicia, and the most important conquest of *Ferdinand 'the Great'*, it was not thence that the kingdom which was to develop out of his dominions was to take its name. Among the counties of Gallicia was one called the 'comitatus Portucalensis,' because it contained within its boundaries the famous city at the mouth of the Douro, known in Roman and Greek times as the *Portus Cale*, and in modern days as *Oporto*, or 'The Port.' This county of Oporto or Portugal was the one destined to give its name to the future kingdom and was held at the time of *Ferdinand's* death by *Nuno Mendes*, the founder of one of the most famous families in Portuguese history. *Ferdinand 'the Great'* was succeeded in his three kingdoms of Castile, Leon, and Gallicia by his three sons, *Sancho*, *Alfonso*, and *Garcia*, the last of whom received the two counties of Coimbra and Oporto as fiefs of Gallicia, and maintained *Nuno Mendes* and *Sesnando* as his feudatories. Wars between the three sons ensued, as the result of which "the second of them, *Alfonso of Leon*, eventually united all his father's kingdoms in 1073, as *Alfonso VI.*" This *Alfonso* was now called upon to encounter a new impulse of Mohammedan aggression, under a new dynasty, that of the *Almoravides*—see *ALMORAVIDES*.

The new dynasty collected great Moslem armies, and in 1086 *Yusuf Ibn Tashfin* routed *Alfonso* utterly at the battle of Zalaca, and reconquered the peninsula up to the Ebro. . . . *Alfonso* tried to compensate for this defeat and his loss of territory in the east of his dominions by conquests in the west, and in 1093 he advanced to the Tagus and took Santarem and Lisbon, and made *Suero Mendes*, count of the new district. But these conquests he did not hold for long. In 1093 *Sevr*, the general of the *Almoravide* caliph *Yusuf*, took Evora from the Emir of Badajoz, in 1094 he took Badajoz itself, and killed the emir, and retaking Lisbon and Santarem forced his way up to the Mondego. To resist this revival of the Mohammedan power, *Alfonso* summoned the chivalry of Christendom to his aid. Among the knights who joined his army eager to win their spurs, and win dominions for themselves, were Count *Raymond of Toulouse* and Count *Henry of Burgundy*. To the former, *Alfonso* gave his legitimate daughter, *Urraca*, and Gallicia, to the latter, his illegitimate daughter *Theresa*, and the counties of Oporto and Coimbra, with the title of Count of Portugal. The history of Portugal now becomes distinct from that of the rest of the peninsula, and it is from the year 1095 that the history of Portugal commences. The son of *Henry of Burgundy* was the great monarch *Afonso Henriques*, the hero of his country and the founder of a great dynasty."—H. M. Stephens, *The Story of Portugal*, ch. 1.

A. D. 1095-1325.—The county made independent and raised to the rank of a kingdom.—Completion of conquests from the Moors.—Limits of the kingdom established.—Count

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enter into a very lengthy account of the celebrated Papal decree which has made so many martyrs, depopulated our schools, introduced ignorance, fanaticism, and misrule, rewarded vice, thrown the whole community into the greatest confusion, caused disorder everywhere, and established the most arbitrary and the most barbarous inquisition; evils which have doubled within the last thirty years. I will content myself with a word or two, and will not blacken further the pages of my Memoirs. . . . It is enough to say that the new bull condemned in set terms the doctrines of St. Paul, . . . and also those of St. Augustin, and of other fathers; doctrines which have always been adopted by the Popes, by the Councils, and by the Church itself. The bull, as soon as published, met with a violent opposition in Rome from the cardinals there, who went by sixes, by eights, and by tens, to complain of it to the Pope. . . . He protested . . . that the publication had been made without his knowledge, and put off the cardinals with compliments, excuses, and tears, which last he could always command. The constitution had the same fate in France as in Rome. The cry against it was universal."—Duke of Saint Simon, *Memoirs* (abridged trans. by St. John), v. 3, ch. 6. —"Jansenism . . . laid hold upon all ecclesiastical bodies with very few exceptions, it predominated altogether in theological literature; all public schools that were not immediately under the Jesuits, or, as in Spain, under the Inquisition, held Jansenist opinions, at least so far as the majority of their theologians were concerned. In Rome itself this teaching was strongly represented amongst the cardinals." Fenelon declared "that nobody knew—now that the controversy and the condemnations had gone on for sixty years—in what the erroneous doctrine exactly consisted; for the Roman court stuck fast to the principle of giving no definition of what ought to be believed, so that the same doctrine which it apparently rejected in one form, was unhesitatingly accepted at Rome itself when expressed in other though synonymous terms. . . . The same thing which under one name was condemned, was under another, as the teaching of the Thomists or Augustinians, declared to be perfectly orthodox. . . . Just because nobody could tell in what sense such propositions as those taken from the works of Jansenius or Quesnel were to be rejected, did they become valuable; for the whole question was turned into one of blind obedience and submission, without previous investigation. The Jesuit D'Aubenton, who as Tellier's agent in Rome had undertaken to procure that the passages selected from Quesnel's book should be condemned, repeatedly informed his employer that at Rome everything turned upon the papal infallibility; to get this passed whilst the king was ready to impose, by force of arms, upon the bishops and clergy the unquestioning acceptance of the papal constitution, was the only object."—J. I. von Dollinger, *Studies in European Hist.*, ch. 12.

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PORTUGAL: Early history.—Mistaken identification with ancient Lusitania.—Roman, Gothic, Moorish and Spanish conquests.—The county of Henry of Burgundy.—The early history of the country, which took the name of Portugal from the county which formed the nucleus of the future kingdom, is identical with that of the rest of the Iberian peninsula, but deserves some slight notice because of an old misconception, immortalized in the title of the famous epic of Camoens, and not yet entirely eradicated even from modern ideas. Portugal, like the rest of the peninsula, was originally inhabited by men of the prehistoric ages. . . . There seems to be no doubt that the Celts, the first Aryan immigrants, were preceded by a non-Aryan race, which is called by different writers the Iberian or Euskaldunac nation, but this earlier race speedily amalgamated with the Celts, and out of the two together were formed the five tribes inhabiting the Iberian peninsula, which Strabo names as the Cantabrians, the Vasconians, the Asturians, the Gallicians and the Lusitanians. It is Strabo, also, who mentions the existence of Greek colonies at the mouth of the Tagus, Douro, and Minho, and it is curious to note that the old name of Lisbon, Olisipo, was from the earliest times identified with that of the

hero of the Odyssey, and was interpreted to mean the city of Ulysses. . . . The Carthaginians, though they had colonies all over the peninsula, established their rule mainly over the south and east of it, having their capital at Carthagera or Nova Carthago, and seem to have neglected the more barbarous northern and western provinces. It was for this reason that the Romans found far more difficulty in subduing these latter provinces.

. . . In 189 B. C. Lucius Æmilius Paullus defeated the Lusitanians, and in 185 B. C. Gaius Calpurnius forced his way across the Tagus. There is no need here to discuss the gradual conquest by the Romans of that part of the peninsula which includes the modern kingdom of Portugal, but it is necessary to speak of the gallant shepherd Viriathus, who sustained a stubborn war against the Romans from 149 B. C. until he was assassinated in 139 B. C., because he has been generally claimed as the first national hero of Portugal. This claim has been based upon the assumed identification of the modern Portugal with the ancient Lusitania [see LUSITANIA], an identification which has spread its roots deep in Portuguese literature, and has until recently been generally accepted. . . . The Celtic tribe of Lusitanians dwelt, according to Strabo, in the districts north of the Tagus, while the Lusitania of the Latin historians of the Republic undoubtedly lay to the south of that river, though it was not used as the name of a province until the time of Augustus, when the old division of the peninsula into Hispania Citerior and Hispania Ulterior was superseded by the division into Bætica, Tarraconensis, and Lusitania. Neither in this division, nor in the division of the peninsula into the five provinces of Tarraconensis, Carthaginensis, Bætica, Lusitania, and Gallicia, under Hadrian, was the province called Lusitania coterminous with the modern kingdom of Portugal. Under each division the name was given to a district south of the Tagus. . . . It is important to grasp the result of this misconception, for it emphasizes the fact that the history of Portugal for many centuries is merged in that of the rest of the Iberian peninsula, and explains why it is unnecessary to study the wars of the Lusitanians with the Roman Republic, as is often done in histories of Portugal. Like the rest of the peninsula Portugal was thoroughly Latinized in the days of the Roman Empire, Roman 'coloniæ' and 'municipia' were established in places suited for trade, such as Lisbon and Oporto. . . . Peaceful existence under the sway of Rome continued until the beginning of the 5th century, when the Goths first forced their way across the Pyrenees [see GOTHS (VISIGOTHS), A. D. 410-419]. . . . The Visigothic Empire left but slight traces in Portugal. . . . The Mohammedan conquest by the Arab-Moors, which began early in the 8th century, extended to Portugal, and for a general account of the struggle in the peninsula between Christians and Moslems during several succeeding centuries the reader is referred to SPAIN: A. D. 711-718, and after. "In 997 Bermudo II., king of Gallicia, won back the first portion of modern Portugal from the Moors by seizing Oporto and occupying the province now known as the Entre Minho e Douro. . . . In 1065 Ferdinand 'the Great,' king of Leon, Castile, and Gallicia, invaded the Beira; in 1067 he took Lamego and Viseu; and in 1064 Coimbra, where he died in the following year.

He arranged for the government of his conquests in the only way possible under the feudal system, by forming them into a county, extending to the Mondego, with Coimbra as its capital. The first count of Coimbra was Sessando, a recreant Arab vizir, who had advised Ferdinand to invade his district and had assisted in its easy conquest. . . . But though Sessando's county of Coimbra was the great frontier county of Gallicia, and the most important conquest of Ferdinand 'the Great,' it was not thence that the kingdom which was to develop out of his dominions was to take its name. Among the counties of Gallicia was one called the 'comitatus Portucalensis,' because it contained within its boundaries the famous city at the mouth of the Douro, known in Roman and Greek times as the Portus Cale, and in modern days as Oporto, or 'The Port.' This county of Oporto or Portugal was the one destined to give its name to the future kingdom and was held at the time of Ferdinand's death by Nuno Mendes, the founder of one of the most famous families in Portuguese history. Ferdinand 'the Great' was succeeded in his three kingdoms of Castile, Leon, and Gallicia, by his three sons, Sancho, Alfonso, and Garcia, the last of whom received the two counties of Coimbra and Oporto as fiefs of Gallicia, and maintained Nuno Mendes and Sessando as his feudatories. Wars between the three sons ensued, as the result of which "the second of them, Alfonso of Leon, eventually united all his father's kingdoms in 1073, as Alfonso VI." This Alfonso was now called upon to encounter a new impulse of Mohammedan aggression, under a new dynasty, that of the Almoravides—see ALMORAVIDES. "The new dynasty collected great Moslem armies, and in 1086 Yusuf Ibn Tashfin routed Alfonso utterly at the battle of Zalaca, and reconquered the peninsula up to the Ebro. . . . Alfonso tried to compensate for this defeat and his loss of territory in the east of his dominions by conquests in the west, and in 1093 he advanced to the Tagus and took Santarem and Lisbon, and made Suero Mendes, count of the new district. But these conquests he did not hold for long. . . . In 1093 Seyr, the general of the Almoravide caliph Yusuf, took Evora from the Emir of Badajoz, in 1094 he took Badajoz itself, and killed the emir, and retaking Lisbon and Santarem forced his way up to the Mondego. To resist this revival of the Mohammedan power, Alfonso summoned the chivalry of Christendom to his aid. Among the knights who joined his army eager to win their spurs, and win dominions for themselves, were Count Raymond of Toulouse and Count Henry of Burgundy. To the former, Alfonso gave his legitimate daughter, Urraca, and Gallicia, to the latter, his illegitimate daughter Theresa, and the counties of Oporto and Coimbra, with the title of Count of Portugal. The history of Portugal now becomes distinct from that of the rest of the peninsula, and it is from the year 1095 that the history of Portugal commences. The son of Henry of Burgundy was the great monarch Affonso Henriques, the hero of his country and the founder of a great dynasty."—H. M. Stephens, *The Story of Portugal*, ch. 1.

A. D. 1095-1225.—The county made independent and raised to the rank of a kingdom.—Completion of conquests from the Moors.—Limits of the kingdom established.—Count

Henry of Burgundy waged war for seven years with his Moorish neighbors; then went crusading to Palestine for two years. On his return in 1105 he made common cause with his brother-in-law and brother-adventurer, Count Raymond of Galicia, against the suspected intention of King Alfonso to declare his bastard, half-Moorish son, Sancho, the heir to his dominions. "This peaceful arrangement had no result, owing to the death of Count Raymond in 1107, followed by that of young Sancho at the battle of Uclés with the Moors, in 1108, and finally by the death of Alfonso VI. himself in 1109. The king's death brought about the catastrophe. He left all his dominions to his legitimate daughter, Urraca, with the result that there was five years of fierce fighting between Henry of Burgundy, Alfonso Ramundes, the son of Count Raymond, Alfonso I. of Aragon, and Queen Urraca. . . . While they fought with each other the Mohammedans advanced. . . . On May 1, 1114, Count Henry died, . . . leaving his wife Theresa as regent during the minority of his son Alfonso Henriques, who was but three years old. Theresa, who made the ancient city of Guimaraens her capital, devoted all her energies to building up her son's dominions into an independent state; and under her rule, while the Christian states of Spain were torn by internecine war, the Portuguese began to recognize Portugal as their country, and to cease from calling themselves Gallicians. This distinction between Portugal and Galicia was the first step towards the formation of a national spirit, which grew into a desire for national independence." The regency of Theresa, during which she was engaged in many contests, with her half-sister Urraca and others, ended in 1128. In the later years of it she provoked great discontent by her infatuation with a lover to whom she was passionately devoted. In the end, her son headed a revolt which expelled her from Portugal. The son, Alfonso Henriques, assumed the reins of government at the age of seventeen years. In 1180 he began a series of wars with Alfonso VII. of Castile, the aim of which was to establish the independence of Portugal. These wars were ended in 1140 by an agreement, "in consonance with the ideas of the times, to refer the great question of Portuguese independence to a chivalrous contest. In a great tournament, known as the Tourney of Valdevez, the Portuguese knights were entirely successful over those of Castile, and in consequence of their victory Alfonso Henriques assumed the title of King of Portugal. This is the turning-point of Portuguese history, and it is a curious fact that the independence of Portugal from Galicia was achieved by victory in a tournament and not in war. Up to 1136, Alfonso Henriques had styled himself Infante, in imitation of the title borne by his mother; from 1136 to 1140 he styled himself Principe, and in 1140 he first took the title of King." A little before this time, on the 25th of July, 1139, Alfonso had defeated the Moors in a famous and much magnified battle—namely that of Orik or Ourique—"which, until modern investigators examined the facts, has been considered to have laid the foundations of the independence of Portugal. Chroniclers, two centuries after the battle, solemnly asserted that five kings were defeated on this occasion, that 200,000 Mohammedans were slain, and that after the victory the Portuguese soldiers raised Af-

fonso on their shields and hailed him as king. This story is absolutely without authority from contemporary chronicles, and is quite as much a fiction as the Cortes of Lamego, which has been invented as sitting in 1143 and passing the constitutional laws on which Vertot and other writers have expended so much eloquence. . . . It was not until the modern school of historians arose in Portugal, which examined documents and did not take the statements of their predecessors on trust, that it was clearly pointed out that Alfonso Henriques won his crown by his long struggle with his Christian cousin, and not by his exploits against the Moors."—H. M. Stephens, *The Story of Portugal*, ch. 2-3.—"The long reign of Alfonso I., an almost uninterrupted period of war, is the most brilliant epoch in the history of the Portuguese conquests. Lisbon, which had already under its Moorish masters become the chief city of the west, was taken in 1147, and became at once the capital of the new kingdom. The Tagus itself was soon passed. Large portions of the modern Estremadura and Alemtejo were permanently annexed. The distant provinces of Algarve and Andalucia were overrun, and even Seville trembled at the successes of the Portuguese. It was in vain that Moorish vessels sailed from Africa to chastise the presumption of their Christian foes: their ships were routed off Lisbon by the vessels of Alfonso; their armies were crushed by a victory at Santarem [1184], the last, and perhaps the most glorious of the many triumphs of the King. . . . Every conquest saw the apportionment of lands to be held by military tenure among the conquerors; and the Church, which was here essentially a militant one, received not only an endowment for its religion but a reward for its sword. The Orders of St. Michael and of Avis [St. Benedict of Avis] which were founded had a religious as well as a military aspect. Their members were to be distinguished by their piety not less than by their courage, and were to emulate the older brotherhoods of Jerusalem and of Castile. . . . Sancho I. [who succeeded his father Alfonso in 1185], though not adverse to military fame, endeavoured to repair his country's wounds; and his reign, the complement of that of Alfonso, was one of development rather than of conquest. . . . The surname of El Povoador, the Founder, is the indication of his greatest work. New towns and villages arose, new wealth and strength were given to the rising country. Alfonso II. [1211] continued what Sancho had begun; and the enactment of laws, humane and wise, are a testimony of progress, and an honourable distinction to his reign." But Alfonso II. provoked the hostility of an arrogant and too powerful clergy, and drew upon himself a sentence of excommunication from Rome. "The divisions and the weakness which were caused by the contest between the royal and ecclesiastical authority brought misery upon the kingdom. The reign of Sancho II. [who succeeded to the throne in 1223] was more fatally influenced by them even than that of his father. . . . The new familiar terrors of excommunication and interdict were followed [1245] by a sentence of deposition from Innocent IV.; and Sancho, weak in character, and powerless before a hostile priesthood and a disaffected people, retired to end his days in a cloister of Castile. The successor to Sancho was Alfonso III. He had inherited

for his brother's crown; he had received the support of the priesthood, and he had promised them their reward in the extension of their privileges"; but his administration of the government was wise and popular. He died in 1279. "The first period of the history of Portugal is now closed. Up to this time, each reign, disturbed and enfeebled though it may have been, had added something to the extent of the country. But now the last conquest from the Moors had been won. On the south, the impassable barrier of the ocean, on the east, the dominions of Castile, confined the kingdom. . . . The crusading days were over. The reign of Denis, who ruled from 1279 to 1325, is at once the parallel to that of Alfonso I in its duration and importance, the contrast to it in being a period of internal progress instead of foreign conquest. That Denis should have been able to accomplish as much as he did, was the wonder even of his own age. Successive reigns still found the country progressing"—C. F. Johnstone, *Historical Abstracts*, ch. 4.

ALSOIN E. McMundo, *Hist. of Portugal*, v. 1, bk. 1-4, and v. 2, bk. 1.

A. D. 1383-1385.—The founding of the new dynasty, of the House of Avis.—"The legitimate descent of the kings of Portugal from Count Henry, of the house of Burgundy, terminated with Ferdinand (the son of Peter I) in 1383. After wasting the resources of his people in the vain support of his claims to the crown of Castile, exposing Lisbon to a siege and the whole country to devastation, this monarch gave his youthful daughter in marriage to the natural enemy of Portugal, John I, at that time the reigning king of Castile. It was agreed between the contracting parties that the male issue of this connection should succeed to the Portuguese sceptre, and, that failing, that it should devolve into the hands of the Castilian monarch. Fortunately, however, the career of this Spanish tyrant was short, and no issue was left of Beatrix, for whom the crown of Portugal could be claimed, and therefore all the just pretensions of the Spaniard ceased. The marriage had scarcely been concluded, when Ferdinand died. It had been provided by the laws of the constitution, that in a case of emergency, such as now occurred, the election of a new sovereign should immediately take place. The legal heir to the crown, Don Juan [the late king's brother], the son of Pedro and Ignes de Castro, whose marriage had been solemnly recognised by an assembly of the states, was a prisoner at this time in the hands of his rival, the king of Castile. The necessity of having a head to the government appointed without delay, opened the road to the throne for John, surnamed the Bastard, the natural son of Don Pedro, by Donna Theresa Lorenzo, a Galician lady. Availing himself of the natural aversion by which the Portuguese were influenced against the Castilians, he seized the regency from the hands of the queen-dowager, . . . successfully defended Lisbon, and forced the Spaniards to retire into Spain after their memorable defeat on the plain of Aljubarrota. . . . This battle . . . completely established the independence of the Portuguese monarchy. John was, in consequence, unanimously elected King by the Cortes, assembled at Coimbra in 1385. . . . In aid of his natural talents John I. had received an excellent educa-

tion from his father, and during his reign exhibited proofs of being a profound politician, as well as a skilful general. . . . He became the founder of a new dynasty of kings, called the house of 'Avis,' from his having been grand master of that noble order. The enterprises, however, of the great Prince Henry, a son of John I., form a distinguishing feature of this reign"—W. M. Kinsey, *Portugal Illustrated*, pp. 34-35.

A. D. 1415-1460.—The taking of Ceuta.—The exploring expeditions of Prince Henry the Navigator down the African coast.—"King John [the First] had married an English wife, Philippa Plantagenet—a grand daughter of our King Edward III, thoroughly English, too, on her mother's side, and not without a dash of Scottish blood, for her great great grandmother was a Comyn of Broghlan. King John of Portugal was married to his English wife for twenty-eight years, they had five noble sons and a daughter (who was Duchess of Burgundy and mother of Charles the Bold), and English habits and usages were adopted at the Portuguese Court. We first meet with Prince Henry and his brothers, Edward and Peter, at the bed side of their English mother. The king had determined to attack Ceuta, the most important seaport on the Moorish coast, and the three young princes were to receive knighthood if they bore themselves manfully, and if the place was taken. Edward, the eldest, was twenty-four, Peter twenty-three, and Henry just twenty-one. He was born on March 4th, 1394. There were two other brothers, John and Ferdinand, but they were still too young to bear arms. Their mother had caused three swords to be made with which they were to be girt as knights, and the great fleet was being assembled at Lisbon. But the Queen was taken ill, and soon there was no hope. Husband and sons gathered round her death-bed. When very near her end she asked, 'How is the wind?' she was told that it was northerly. 'Then,' she said, 'You will all sail for Ceuta on the feast of St. James.' A few minutes afterwards she died, and husband and sons sailed for Ceuta on St. James's day, the 25th of July, 1415, according to her word. . . . Ceuta was taken after a desperate fight. It was a memorable event, for the town never again passed into the hands of the Moors unto this day. . . . From the time of this Ceuta expedition Prince Henry set his mind steadfastly on the discovery of Guinea and on the promotion of commercial enterprise. During his stay at Ceuta he collected much information respecting the African coast. . . . His first objects were to know what was beyond the farthest cape hitherto reached on the coast of Africa, to open commercial relations with the people, and to extend the Christian faith. Prince Henry had the capacity for taking trouble. He undertook the task, and he never turned aside from it until he died. To be close to his work he came to live on the promontory of Sagres, near Cape St. Vincent, and not far from the seaport of Lagos. He was twenty-four years old when he came to live at this secluded spot, in December, 1418; and he died there in his sixty-seventh year. . . . He established a school at Sagres for the cultivation of map-drawing and the science of navigation. At great expense he procured the services of Mestre Jacome from Majorca, a man very learned in the art of navi-

gation, as it was then understood, and he erected an observatory. . . . My readers will remember that during the time of the Crusades a great order of knighthood was established, called the Templars, which became very rich and powerful, and held vast estates in most of the countries of Europe. At last the kings became jealous of their prosperity and, in the days of our Edward II. and of the French Philip IV., their wealth was confiscated, and the order of Knights Templars was abolished in all countries except Portugal. But King Dionysius of Portugal refused either to rob the knights or to abolish the order. In the year 1319 he reformed the order, and changed the name, calling it the Order of Christ, and he encircled the white cross of the Templars with a red cross as the future badge of the knights. They retained their great estates. Prince Henry was appointed, by his father, Grand Master of the Order of Christ in the year 1419. He could imagine no nobler nor more worthy employment for the large revenues of the Order than the extension of geographical discovery. Thus were the funds for his costly expeditions supplied by the Order of Chivalry of which he was Grand Master. When Prince Henry first began to send forth expeditions along the coast of Africa, the farthest point to the southward that had been sighted was Cape Bojador. The discovery of the extreme southern point of Africa, and of a way thence to India, was looked upon then exactly as the discovery of the North Pole is now. Fools asked what was the use of it. Half-hearted men said it was impossible. Officials said it was impractical. Nevertheless, Prince Henry said that it could be done, and that, moreover it should be done. In 1434 he considered that the time had come to round Cape Bojador. He selected for the command of the expedition an esquire of his household named Gil Eannes, who was accompanied by John Diaz, an experienced seaman of a seafaring family at Lagos, many of whose members became explorers. Prince Henry told them that the current which they feared so much was strongest at a distance of about three to five miles from the land. He ordered them, therefore, to stand out boldly to sea. 'It was a place before terrible to all men,' but the Prince told them that they must win fame and honour by following his instructions. They did so, rounded the Cape, and landed on the other side. There they set up a wooden cross as a sign of their discovery. . . . The Prince now equipped a larger vessel than had yet been sent out, called a *varinzel*, propelled by oars as well as sails. Many were the eager volunteers among the courtiers at Sagres. Prince Henry's cup-bearer, named Alfonso Gonsalves Baldaya, was selected to command the expedition, and Gil Eannes—he who first doubled Cape Bojador—went with it in a smaller vessel. . . . They sailed in the year 1436, and, having rounded Cape Bojador without any hesitation, they proceeded southward along the coast for 120 miles, until they reached an estuary called by them Rio d'Ouro. . . . During the five following years Prince Henry was much engaged in State affairs. The disastrous expedition to Tangiers took place, and the imprisonment of his young brother Ferdinand by the Moors, whose noble resignation under cruel insults and sufferings until he died at Fez, won for him the title of the 'Constant Prince.' But

In 1441 Prince Henry was able to resume the despatch of vessels of discovery. In that year he gave the command of a small ship to his master of the wardrobe, Antam Gonsalves. . . . He [Gonsalves] was followed in the same year by Nuño Tristram. . . . Tristram discovered a headland which, from its whiteness, he named Cape Blanco. . . . The next discovery was that of the island of Arguin, south of Cape Blanco, which was first visited in 1443 by Nuño Tristram in command of a caravel. . . . The next voyage of discovery was one of great importance, because it passed the country of the Moors, and, for the first time, entered the land of the Negroes. Diuis Diaz, who was selected for this enterprise by the Prince, sailed in 1446 with the resolution of beating all his predecessors. He passed the mouth of the river Senegal, and was surprised at finding that the people on the north bank were Moors, while to the south they were all blacks; of a tribe called Jaloffs. Diaz went as far as a point which he called Cabo Verde. In the following years several expeditions, under Lanza-rote and others, went to Arguin and the Senegal; until, in 1455, an important voyage under Prince Henry's patronage was undertaken by a young Venetian named Alvise (Luigi) Cadamosto. . . . They sailed on March 22, 1455, and went first to Porto Santo and Madeira. From the Canary Islands they made sail for Cape Blanco, boldly stretching across the intervening sea and being for some time quite out of sight of land. Cadamosto had a good deal of intercourse with the Negroes to the south of the Senegal, and eventually reached the mouth of the Gambia whence he set out on his homeward voyage. The actual extent of the discoveries made during the life of Prince Henry was from Cape Bojador to beyond the mouth of the Gambia. But this was only a small part of the great service he performed, not only for his own country, but for the whole civilised world. He organised discovery, trained up a generation of able explorers, so that from his time progress was continuous and unceasing. . . . Prince Henry, who was to be known to all future generations as 'the Navigator,' died at the age of sixty-six at Sagres, on Thursday, the 13th of November, 1460.—C. R. Markham, *The Sea Fathers*, ch. 1.

Also in: R. H. Major, *Life of Prince Henry of Portugal, the Navigator*.

A. D. 1463-1498.—The Pope's gift of title to African discoveries.—Slow southward progress of exploration.—The rounding of the Cape of Good Hope.—Vasco da Gama's voyage.—"In order to secure his triumphs, Prince Henry procured a bull from Pope Eugenius IV., which guaranteed to the Portuguese all their discoveries between Cape Nun, in Morocco, and India. None of his commanders approached within six or eight degrees of the equator. . . . By the year 1472, St. Thomas, Annobon, and Prince's Islands were added to the Portuguese discoveries, and occupied by colonists; and at length the equator was crossed. Fernando Po having given his name to an island in the Bight of Biafra, acquired possession of 500 leagues of equatorial coast, whence the King of Portugal took the title of Lord of Guinea. The subsequent divisions of this territory into the Grain Coast, named from the cochineal thence obtained, and long thought to be the seed of a plant, Gold Coast, Ivory Coast, and Slave Coast.

indicate by their names the nature of the products of those lands, and the kind of traffic. Under King John II., after an inactive period of eight or ten years, Diego Cam (1484) pushed forward fearlessly to latitude 22° south, erecting at intervals on the shore, pillars of stone, which asserted the rights of his sovereign to the newly-found land. For the first time, perhaps, in history, men had now sailed under a new firmament. They lost sight of a part of the old celestial constellations, and were awe-struck with the splendours of the Southern Cross, and hosts of new stars. Each successive commander aimed at outdoing the deeds of his predecessor. Imaginary perils, which had frightened former sailors, spurred the Portuguese to greater daring. Bartholomew Diaz, in 1486, was sent in command of an expedition of three ships, with directions to sail till he reached the southernmost headland of Africa. Creeping on from cape to cape, he passed the furthest point touched by Diego Cam, and reached about 29° south latitude. Here driven out of his course by rough weather, he was dismayed on again making land to find the coast trending northward. He had doubled the Cape without knowing it, and only found it out on returning, disheartened by the results of his voyage. Raising the banner of St. Philip on the shore of Table Bay, Diaz named the headland the Cape of Tempests, which the king, with the passage to India in mind, changed to that of the Cape of Good Hope. By a curious coincidence, in the same year Covillan [see ABYSSINIA 15-19TH CENTURIES]. learnt the fact that the Cape of Good Hope, the Lion of the Sea, or the Head of Africa, could be reached across the Indian Ocean.—J. Yeats, *Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce*, pt. 2, ch. 4.—“Pedro de Covilho had sent word to King John II., from Cairo, by two Jews, Rabbi Abraham and Rabbi Joseph, that there was a south cape of Africa which could be doubled. They brought with them an Arabic map of the African coast. Covilho had learned from the Arabian mariners, who were perfectly familiar with the east coast, that they had frequently been at the south of Africa, and that there was no difficulty in passing round the continent that way. . . . Vasco de Gama set sail July 9 1497, with three ships and 160 men, having with him the Arab map. King John had employed his Jewish physicians, Roderigo and Joseph, to devise what help they could from the stars. They applied the astrolabe to marine use, and constructed tables. These were the same doctors who had told him that Columbus would certainly succeed in reaching India, and advised him to send out a secret expedition in anticipation, which was actually done, though it failed through want of resolution in its captain. Encountering the usual difficulties, tempestuous weather and a mutinous crew, who conspired to put him to death, De Gama succeeded, November 20, in doubling the Cape. On March 1 he met seven small Arab vessels, and was surprised to find that they used the compass, quadrants, sea-charts, and ‘had divers maritime mysteries not short of the Portuguese.’ With joy he soon after recovered sight of the northern stars, for so long unseen. He now bore away to the north-east, and on May 16, 1498, reached Calicut, on the Malabar coast. The consequences of this voyage were to the last degree important. The com-

mercial arrangements of Europe were completely dislocated; Venice was deprived of her mercantile supremacy [see VENICE, 15-17TH CENTURIES]; the hatred of Genoa was gratified; prosperity left the Italian towns, Egypt, hitherto supposed to possess a pre eminent advantage as offering the best avenue to India, suddenly lost her position; the commercial monopolies so long in the hands of the European Jews were broken down. The discovery of America and passage of the Cape were the first steps of that prodigious maritime development soon exhibited by Western Europe. And since commercial prosperity is forthwith followed by the production of men and concentration of wealth, and, moreover, implies an energetic intellectual condition, it appeared before long that the three centres of population, of wealth, of intellect, were all at once put in the van of the new movement.”—J. W. Draper, *Hist. of the Intellectual Development of Europe*, ch. 19.

ALSO IN: G. Correa, *The Three Voyages of Vasco da Gama* (Hakluyt Soc., 1869).—J. Fiske, *The Discovery of America*, ch. 4 (v. 1).—G. M. Towle, *Voyages and Adventures of Vasco da Gama*.—See, also, SOUTH AFRICA A. D. 1486-1806, and AFRICA 1471-1482, and after.

A. D. 1474-1476.—Interference in Castile.—Defeat at Toro. See SPAIN A. D. 1368-1479.

A. D. 1490.—Alliance with Castile and Aragon in the conquest of Granada. See SPAIN A. D. 1476-1492.

A. D. 1493.—The Pope's division of discoveries in the New World. See AMERICA A. D. 1493.

A. D. 1494.—The Treaty of Tordesillas.—Amended partition of the New World with Spain. See AMERICA A. D. 1494.

A. D. 1495.—Persecution and expulsion of Jews. See JEWS 8-15TH CENTURIES.

A. D. 1498-1580.—Trade and Settlements in the East Indies. See INDIA A. D. 1498-1580, and TRADE, MEDÆVAL, and MODERN.

A. D. 1500-1504.—Discovery, exploration and first settlement of Brazil. See AMERICA: A. D. 1500-1514, and 1503-1504.

A. D. 1501.—Early enterprise in the Newfoundland fisheries. See NEWFOUNDLAND: A. D. 1501-1578.

A. D. 1510-1549.—Colonization of Brazil. See BRAZIL A. D. 1510-1661.

A. D. 1524.—Disputes with Spain in the division of the New World.—The Congress at Badajoz. See AMERICA A. D. 1519-1524.

A. D. 1579-1580.—Disastrous invasion of Morocco by Sebastian.—His death in battle.—Disputed succession to the throne.—The claim of Philip II. of Spain established by force of arms.—“Under a long succession of Kings who placed their glory in promoting the commerce of their subjects and extending their discoveries through the remotest regions of the globe, Portugal had attained a degree of importance among the surrounding nations, from which the narrow limits of the kingdom, and the neighbourhood of the Spanish monarchy, seemed for ever to exclude her. . . . John III., the last of those great monarchs under whose auspices the boundaries of the known world had been enlarged, was succeeded in the throne of Portugal

[1557] by his grandson Sebastian, a child of only three years old. As the royal infant advanced to manhood, his subjects might, without flattery, admire his sprightly wit, his manly form, his daring spirit, and his superior address, in all the accomplishments of a martial age. But the hopes which these splendid qualities inspired were clouded by an immoderate thirst of fame. . . . He had early cherished the frantic project of transporting a royal army to India, and of rivalling the exploits of Alexander, but from this design he was diverted, not by the difficulties that opposed it, nor by the remonstrances of his counsellors, but by the distractions of Africa, which promised to his ambition a nearer and fairer harvest of glory. On the death of Abdalla, King of Morocco, his son, Muley Mahomet, had seized upon the crown, in contempt to an established law of succession, that the kingdom should devolve to the brother of the deceased monarch. A civil war ensued, and Mahomet, defeated in several battles, was compelled to leave his uncle Muley Moluc, a prince of great abilities and virtues, in possession of the throne. Mahomet escaped to Lisbon, and Sebastian espoused his cause. He invaded Morocco [see MAROCCO. THE ARAB CONQUEST AND SINCE] with a force partly supplied by his uncle, Philip II, of Spain, and partly by the Prince of Orange, engaged the Moors rashly in battle (the battle of Alcazar, or the Three Kings, 1579), and perished on the field, his army being mostly destroyed or made captive. "An aged and feeble priest was the immediate heir to the unfortunate Sebastian, and the Cardinal Henry, the great uncle to the late monarch, ascended the vacant throne." He enjoyed his royal dignity little more than a twelvemonth, dying in 1590, leaving the crown in dispute among a crowd of claimants—*Hist. of Spain, ch. 22 (v. 2)*—"The candidates were seven in number: the duchess of Braganza, the king of Spain, the duke of Savoy, Don Antonio, prior of Crato, the duke of Parma, Catherine of Medicis, and the sovereign pontiff. The four first were grand-children of Emanuel the Great, father of Henry. The duchess of Braganza was daughter of Prince Edward, Emanuel's second son, Philip was the son of the Empress Isabella, his eldest daughter; the duke of Savoy, of Beatrix, his younger daughter, and Don Antonio was a natural son of Lewis, who was a younger son of Emanuel, and brother to the present king [cardinal Henry]. The duke of Parma was great-grandson of Emanuel, by a daughter of the above-mentioned Prince Edward. The Queen-mother of France founded her claim on her supposed descent from Alphonso III., who died about 300 years before the present period; and the Pope pretended that Portugal was feudatory to the see of Rome, and belonged to him, since the male heirs in the direct line were extinct." The other candidates held small chances against the power and convenient neighborhood of Philip of Spain. "Philip's agents at the court of Lisbon allowed that if the duchess of Braganza's father had been alive, his title would have been indisputable; but they maintained that, since he had died without attaining possession of the throne, nothing but the degree of consanguinity to Emanuel ought to be regarded; and that, as the duchess and he were equal in that respect, the preference was due to a male before a female. And they farther in-

sisted, that the law which excludes strangers from inheriting the crown was not applicable to him, since Portugal had formerly belonged to the kings of Castile." Promptly on the death of the cardinal-king Henry, the Spanish king sent an army of 35,000 men, under the famous duke of Alva, and a large fleet under the Marquis of Santa Croce, to take possession of what he claimed as his inheritance. Two battles sufficed for the subjugation of Portugal—one fought on the Alcantara, August 25, 1580, and the other a little later on the Douro. The kingdom submitted, but with bitter feelings, which the conduct of Alva and his troops had intensified at every step of their advance. "The colonies in America, Africa, and the Indies, which belonged to the crown of Portugal, quickly followed the example of the mother country, nor did Philip find employment for his arms in any part of the Portuguese dominions but the Azores," which, supported by the French, were not subdued until the following year.—R. Watson, *Hist. of the Reign of Philip II.* bk. 16.

A. D. 1594-1602.—Beginning of the rivalry of the Dutch in East India trade. See NETHERLANDS. A. D. 1594-1620.

A. D. 1624-1661.—War with the Dutch.—Loss and recovery of parts of Brazil. See BRAZIL. A. D. 1510-1661.

A. D. 1637-1668.—Crisis of discontent with the Spanish rule.—A successful revolution.—National independence recovered.—The House of Braganza placed on the throne.—"A spirit of dissatisfaction had long been growing amongst the Portuguese. Their colonies were neglected, a great part of Brazil, and a yet larger portion of their Indian empire, had fallen into the hands of the Dutch, Ormus, and their other possessions in the Persian Gulf, had been conquered by the Persians, their intercourse with their remaining colonies was harassed and intercepted, their commerce with the independent Indian states, with China and with Japan, was here injured and there partially destroyed, by the enterprising merchants and mariners of Holland, whilst at home the privileges secured to them as the price of their submission, were hourly, if not flagrantly, violated by their Spanish masters. The illegal imposition of a new tax by the king's sole authority, in 1637, had provoked a partial revolt in the southern provinces, where the duke of Braganza, grandson of Catherine [whose right to the throne was forcibly put aside by Philip II. of Spain in 1580.—see, above. A. D. 1579-1580], was proclaimed king. He refused the proffered dignity, and assisted in quelling the rebellion. He was thanked by Philip and at once recompensed, and, as it was hoped, ensnared, by an appointment to be general-in-chief of Portugal. But the flame was smothered, not extinguished. . . . The vice-queen, Margaret, duchess-dowager of Mantua, a daughter of Philip II.'s youngest daughter, Catherine, saw the gathering tempest, and forewarned the court of Madrid of the impending danger. Her information was treated, like herself, with contempt by Olivarez. One measure, however, he took, probably in consequence; and that one finally decided the hesitating conspirators to delay no longer. He ordered a large body of troops to be raised in Portugal, the nobles to arm their vassals, and all, under the conduct of the duke of Braganza, to hasten into

Spain, in order to attend the king, who was about to march in person against the rebellious Catalans. Olivarez hoped thus at once to overwhelm Catalonia and Roussillon, and to take from Portugal the power of revolting, by securing the intended leader, and draining the country of the warlike portion of its population. The nobles perceived the object of this command, and resolved to avoid compliance by precipitating their measures. Upon the 12th of October, 1640, they assembled to the number of 40 at the house of Don Antonio d' Almeida. At this meeting they determined to recover their independence, and dispatched Don Pedro de Menoza as their deputy, to offer the crown and their allegiance to the duke of Braganza, who had remained quietly upon his principal estate at Villa Viçosa. The duke hesitated, alarmed, perhaps, at the importance of the irrevocable step he was called upon to take. But his high-spirited duchess, a daughter of the Spanish duke of Medina Sidonia, observing to him, that a wretched and dishonourable death certainly awaited him at Madrid, at Lisbon, as certainly glory, whether in life or death, decided his acceptance. Partisans were gained on all sides, especially in the municipality of Lisbon, and the secret was faithfully kept, for several weeks by at least 500 persons of both sexes, and all ranks. During this interval, the duke of Braganza remained at Villa Viçosa, lest his appearance at Lisbon should excite suspicion, and it seems that, however clearly the vice queen had perceived the threatening aspect of affairs, neither she nor her ministers entertained any apprehension of the plot actually organized. The 1st of December was the day appointed for the insurrection. Early in the morning the conspirators approached the palace in four well armed bands, and easily mastered the guard. From the windows of the palace they "proclaimed liberty and John IV." to a great concourse of people who had speedily assembled. Finding Vasconcellos, the obnoxious secretary to the vice queen, hidden in a closet, they slew him and flung his body into the street. The vice queen, seeing herself helpless, submitted to the popular will and signed mandates addressed to the Spanish governors and other officers commanding castles and fortifications in Portugal, requiring their surrender. "The archbishop of Lisbon was next appointed royal lieutenant. He immediately dispatched intelligence of the event to the new king, and sent messengers to every part of Portugal with orders for the proclamation of John IV., and the seizure of all Spaniards. . . . Obedience was prompt and general. . . . John was crowned on the 15th of December, and immediately abolished the heavy taxes imposed by the king of Spain, declaring that, for his own private expenses, he required nothing beyond his patrimonial estates. He summoned the Cortes to assemble in January, when the three estates of the kingdom solemnly confirmed his proclamation as king, or 'acclamation,' as the Portuguese term it. . . . In the islands, in the African settlements, with the single exception of Ceuta, which adhered to Spain, and in what remained of Brazil and India, King John was proclaimed, the moment intelligence of the revolution arrived, the Spaniards scarcely any where attempting to resist. . . . In Europe, the new king was readily acknowledged by all the states at war with the

house of Austria." The first attempts made by the Spanish court to regain its lost authority in Portugal took chiefly the form of base conspiracies for the assassination of the new king. War ensued, but the "languid and desultory hostilities produced little effect beyond harassing the frontiers. Portugal was weak, and thought only of self-defence, Spain was chiefly intent upon chastizing the Catalans." The war was prolonged, in fact, until 1668, when it was terminated by a treaty which recognized the independence of Portugal, but ceded Ceuta to Spain. The only considerable battles of the long war were those of Estremoz, or Ameixal, in 1663, and Villa Viçosa, 1665, in which the Portuguese were victors, and which were practically decisive of the war—M M Busk, *Hist. of Spain and Portugal*, bk 2, ch 10-12.

ALSO IN J Dunlap, *Memoirs of Spain*, 1621-1700, v 1, ch 12.

A. D. 1702.—Joins the Grand Alliance against France and Spain. See SPAIN A. D. 1701-1702.

A. D. 1703.—The Methuen Treaty with England.—Portugal joined the Grand Alliance against France and Spain, in the War of the Spanish Succession, in 1703, and entered at that time into an important treaty with England. This is known as the Methuen Treaty—"called after the name of the ambassador who negotiated it—and that treaty, and its effect upon the commerce of England and the habits of her people lasted through five generations, even to the present time. The wines of Portugal were to be admitted upon the payment of a duty 33½ per cent less than the duty paid upon French wines, and the woolen cloths of England, which had been prohibited in Portugal for twenty years, were to be admitted upon terms of proportionate advantage. Up to that time the Claret of France had been the beverage of the wine drinkers of England. From 1703 Port established itself as what Defoe calls 'our general draught.' In all commercial negotiations with France the Methuen Treaty stood in the way, for the preferential duty was continued till 1831. France invariably pursued a system of retaliation. It was a point of patriotism for the Englishman to hold firm to his Port"—C Knight, *Popular Hist. of Eng.*, v 5, ch 17—See, also, SPAIN A. D. 1703-1704.

A. D. 1713.—Possessions in South America confirmed. See UTRECHT A. D. 1712-1714.

A. D. 1757-1759.—Expulsion of the Jesuits and suppression of the order. See JESUITS: A. D. 1757-1778.

A. D. 1793.—Joined in the coalition against Revolutionary France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1792 (MARCH-SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1807.—Napoleon's designs against the kingdom.—His delusive treaty for its partition with Spain.—French invasion and flight of the royal family to Brazil.—"One of the first steps taken by Napoleon, after his return to Paris, . . . [after the Peace of Tilsit—see GERMAN: A. D. 1807 (JUNE-JULY)] was, in the month of August, to order the French and Spanish ambassadors conjointly, to declare to the prince-regent of Portugal, that he must concur in the continental system, viz. shut his ports against English commerce, confiscate all English property, and imprison all English subjects to be found within his dominions, or they were

instructed immediately to leave Lisbon. The prince and his ministers dared not openly resist the French emperor's will, even whilst the wiser part of the cabinet were convinced that the very existence of the country depended upon British commerce. In this extremity, and relying upon the friendly forbearance of England, they strove to pursue a middle course. Don John professed his readiness to exclude British ships of all descriptions from his ports, but declared that his religious principles would not allow him to seize the subjects and property of a friendly state in the midst of peace, and that prudence forbade his offending England until a Portuguese squadron, then at sea, should have returned safely home. . . . Napoleon punished this imperfect obedience, by seizing all Portuguese vessels in ports under his control, and ordering the French and Spanish legations to leave Lisbon. The Portuguese ambassadors were, at the same time, dismissed from Paris and Madrid. A French army was, by this time, assembled near the foot of the Pyrenees, bearing the singular title of army of observation of the Gironde; and General Junot . . . was appointed to its command. . . . Spain was endeavouring to share in the spoil, not to protect the victim. A treaty, the shameless iniquity of which can be paralleled only by the treaties between Austria, Russia, and Prussia for the partition of Poland, had been signed at Fontainebleau, on the 27th of October. . . . By this treaty Charles surrendered to Napoleon his infant grandson's kingdom of Etruria (King Louis I. had been dead some years), over which he had no right whatever, and bargained to receive for him in its stead the small northern provinces of Portugal, Entre Minho e Douro and Tras os Montes, under the name of the kingdom of Northern Lusitania, which kingdom the young monarch was to hold in vassalage of the crown of Spain. The much larger southern provinces, Alentejo and Algarve, were to constitute the principality of the Algarves, for Godoy, under a similar tenure. And the middle provinces were to be occupied by Napoleon until a general peace, when, in exchange for Gibraltar, Trinidad, and any other Spanish possession conquered by England, they might be restored to the family of Braganza, upon like terms of dependence. The Portuguese colonies were to be equally divided between France and Spain. In execution of this nefarious treaty, 10,000 Spanish troops were to seize upon the northern, and 6,000 upon the southern state. . . . On the 18th of October, Junot, in obedience to his master's orders, crossed the Pyrenees, and, being kindly received by the Spaniards, began his march towards the Portuguese frontiers, whilst the Spanish troops were equally put in motion towards their respective destinations. . . . The object of so much haste was, to secure the persons of the royal family, whose removal to Brazil had not only been talked of from the beginning of these hostile discussions, but was now in preparation, and matter of public notoriety. . . . The reckless haste enjoined by the emperor, and which cost almost as many lives as a pitched battle, was very near attaining its end. . . . The resolution to abandon the contest being adopted, the prince and his ministers took every measure requisite to prevent a useless effusion of blood. A regency, consisting of five persons, the marquis of Abrantes being president, was

appointed to conduct the government, and negotiate with Junot. On the 26th a proclamation was put forth, explaining to the people that, as Napoleon's enmity was rather to the sovereign than the nation, the prince-regent, in order to avert the calamities of war from his faithful subjects, would transfer the seat of government to Brazil, till the existing troubles should subside, and strictly charging the Portuguese, more especially the Lisbonians, to receive the French as friends. On the 27th the whole royal family proceeded to Belem, to embark for flight, on the spot whence, about three centuries back, Vasco de Gama had sailed upon his glorious enterprise. . . . The ships set sail and crossed the bar, almost as the French advance guard was entering Lisbon. Sir Sidney Smith escorted the royal family, with four men-of-war, safely to Rio Janeiro, the capital of Brazil, leaving the remainder of his squadron to blockade the mouth of the Tagus."—M. M. Busk, *Hist. of Spain and Portugal*, bk. 4, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: C. A. Fyffe, *Hist. of Modern Europe*, v. 1, ch. 7.—Sir A. Alison, *Hist. of Europe*, 1800-1815, ch. 52.—H. Martineau, *Hist. of Eng.*, 1800-1815, bk. 2, ch. 1.—R. Southey, *Hist. of the Peninsular War*, ch. 2 (v. 1).—See, also, BRAZIL: A. D. 1808-1822.

A. D. 1808.—Rising against the French.—Arrival of British forces. See SPAIN: A. D. 1808 (MAY—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1808.—Wellington's first campaign in the Peninsula.—The Convention of Cintra.—French evacuation of Portugal. See SPAIN: A. D. 1808-1809 (AUGUST—JANUARY).

A. D. 1809 (February—December).—Wellington's retreat and fresh advance.—The French checked.—Passage of the Douro.—Battle of Talavera. See SPAIN: A. D. 1809 (FEBRUARY—JULY); and (AUGUST—DECEMBER).

A. D. 1809-1812.—Wellington's Lines of Torres Vedras.—French invasion and retreat. English advance into Spain. See SPAIN: A. D. 1809-1810 (OCTOBER—SEPTEMBER); and 1810-1812.

A. D. 1814.—End of the Peninsular War. See SPAIN: A. D. 1812-1814.

A. D. 1820-1824.—Revolution and Absolutist reaction.—Separation and independence of Brazil.—"Ever since 1807 Portugal had not known a court. On the first threat of French invasion the Regent had emigrated to the Brazils, and he had since lived and ruled entirely in the great Transatlantic colony. The ordinary conditions of other countries had been reversed. Portugal had virtually become a dependency of her own colony. The absence of the court was a sore trial to the pride of the Portuguese. An absent court had few supporters. It happened, too, that its ablest defender had lately left the country. . . . In April 1820 [Marshal] Beresford sailed for the Brazils. He did not return till the following October; and the revolution had been completed before his return. On the 24th of August the troops at Oporto determined on establishing a constitutional government, and appointed a provisional Junta with this object. The Regency which conducted the affairs of the country at Lisbon denounced the movement as a nefarious conspiracy. But, however nefarious the conspiracy might be, the defection of the army was so general that resistance became impossible. On the 1st of September the Regency

issued a proclamation promising to convene the Cortes. The promise, however, did not stop the progress of the insurrection. The Junta which had been constituted at Oporto marched at the head of the troops upon Lisbon. The troops at Lisbon and in the south of Portugal threw off their allegiance, and established a Junta of their own. The Junta at Lisbon were, for the moment, in favour of milder measures than the Junta of Oporto. But the advocates of the more extreme course won their ends. The Oporto troops, surrounding the two Juntas, which had been blended together, compelled them to adopt the Spanish constitution; in other words, to sanction the election of one deputy to the Cortes for every 30,000 persons inhabiting the country.

... When the revolution of 1820 had occurred John VI., King of Portugal, was quietly ruling in his transatlantic dominions of Brazil. Portugal had been governed for thirteen years from Rio de Janeiro; and the absence of the Court from Lisbon had offended the Portuguese and prepared them for change. After the mischief had been done John VI. was persuaded to return to his native country, leaving his eldest son, Dom Pedro, Regent of Brazil in his absence. Before setting out on his journey he gave the prince public instructions for his guidance, which practically made Brazil independent of Portugal; and he added private directions to the prince, in case any emergency should arise which should make it impracticable to preserve Brazil for Portugal, to place the crown on his own head, and thus save the great Transatlantic territory for the House of Braganza. Leaving these parting injunctions with his son, John VI. returned to the old kingdom which he had deserted nearly fourteen years before. He reached Lisbon, and found the Constitutionalists in undisputed possession of power. He found also that the action of the Constitutionalists in Portugal was calculated to induce Brazil to throw off the authority of the mother country. The Cortes in Portugal insisted on the suppression of the supreme tribunals in Brazil, on the establishment of Provincial Juntas, and on the return of the Regent to Portugal. The Brazilians declined to adopt measures which they considered ruinous to their dignity, and persuaded the Regent to disobey the orders of the Cortes. A small body of Portuguese troops quartered in Brazil endeavoured to overawe the prince, but proved powerless to do so. In May 1822 the prince was persuaded to declare himself Perpetual Defender of the Brazils. In the following September the Brazilians induced him to raise their country to the dignity of an empire, and to declare himself its constitutional emperor. The news that the Brazilians had declared themselves an independent empire reached Europe at a critical period. Monarchs and diplomatists were busily deliberating at Verona on the affairs of Spain and of the Spanish colonies. No one, however, could avoid comparing the position of Portugal and Brazil with that of Spain and her dependencies. ... The evident determination of France to interfere in Spain created anxiety in Portugal. The Portuguese Cortes apprehended that the logical consequence of French interference in the one country was French interference in the other. ... The position of a French army on the Spanish frontier roused the dormant spirits of the Portuguese Absolutists. In February 1823 a vast

insurrection against the Constitution broke out in Northern Portugal. The insurgents, who in the first instance obtained considerable success, were with difficulty defeated. But the revolt had been hardly quelled before the Absolutists recovered their flagging spirits. Every step taken by the Duc d'Angoulême in his progress from the Bidassoa to Madrid [see SPAIN: A. D. 1814-1827] raised their hopes of ultimate success. The king's second son, the notorious Dom Miguel, fled from his father's palace and threw in his lot with the insurgents. For a moment the king stood firm and denounced his son's proceedings. But the reaction which had set in was too strong to be resisted. The Cortes was closed, a new Ministry appointed, and autocracy re-established in Portugal. The re-establishment of autocracy in Portugal marked the commencement of a series of intrigues in which this country [England] was deeply interested. One party in the new Government, with M. de Palmella at its head, was disposed to incline to moderate measures and to listen to the advice which it received from the British Ministry and from the British Ambassador, Sir Edward Thornton. Another party, of which M. de Subserra was the representative, was in favour of an intimate union with France, and ready to listen to the contrary counsels of M. de Neuville, the French Minister at Lisbon. M. de Palmella, despairing of founding a settled form of government amidst the disorders which surrounded him on every side, applied to the British Ministry for troops to give stability to the Administration. The demand arrived in London in July 1823. ... The demand for troops was refused, but a British squadron was sent to the Tagus, with a view of affording the King of Portugal the moral support of the British nation and a secure asylum in the event of any danger to his person. Many months elapsed before the King of Portugal had occasion to avail himself of the possible asylum which was thus afforded to him. ... The evident leanings of M. de Palmella towards moderate measures, however, alarmed the Portuguese Absolutists. Ever since the revolution of 1823 Dom Miguel had held the command of the army; and, on the night of the 29th of April, 1824, the prince suddenly ordered the arrest of the leading personages of the Government, and, under the pretext of suppressing an alleged conspiracy of Freemasons, called on the army to liberate their king, and to complete the triumph of the previous year. For nine days the king was a mere puppet in the hands of his son, and Dom Miguel was virtually master of Lisbon. On the 9th of May the king was persuaded by the foreign ministers in his capital to resume his authority; to retire on board the 'Windsor Castle,' a British man-of-war; to dismiss Dom Miguel from his command, and to order his attendance upon him. The prince, 'stricken with a sudden fatuity,' obeyed his father's commands, and was prevailed upon to go into voluntary exile. The revolution of 1824 terminated with his departure, and Portugal again enjoyed comparative tranquillity."—S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*, ch. 9 (c. 2).

ALSO IN: H. M. Stephens, *The Story of Portugal*, ch. 18.—See also, BRAZIL: A. D. 1808-1822. A. D. 1822.—The independence of Brazil proclaimed and established. See BRAZIL: A. D. 1808-1822.

A. D. 1824-1889.—Return of John VI. to Brazil.—Abdication of the Portuguese throne by Dom Pedro, after granting a constitution.—Usurpation of Dom Miguel.—Civil war and factious conflicts.—Establishment of Parliamentary government, and Peace.—"At the close of 1824 the king returned to Brazil to spend his last days in peace. On reaching Rio de Janeiro, he recognized Dom Pedro as Emperor of Brazil, and on the 6th of March, 1826, John VI. died in the country of his choice. By his will, John VI. left the regency of Portugal to his daughter Isabel Maria, to the disgust of Dom Miguel, who had fully expected in spite of his conduct that Portugal would be in some manner bequeathed to him, and that Dom Pedro would be satisfied with the government of Brazil. The next twenty-five years are the saddest in the whole history of Portugal. The establishment of the system of parliamentary government, which now exists, was a long and difficult task. . . . The keynote of the whole series of disturbances is to be found in the pernicious influence of the army. . . . The army was disproportionately large for the size and revenue of the country, there was no foreign or colonial war to occupy its energies, and the soldiers would not return to the plough nor the officers retire into private life. The English Cabinet at this juncture determined to maintain peace and order, and in 1826, a division of 5,000 men was sent under the command of Lieutenant-General Sir William Clinton to garrison the chief towns. The accession of Pedro IV. to the throne was hailed with joy in Portugal, though looked on with suspicion in Brazil. He justified his reputation by drawing up a charter, containing the bases for a moderate parliamentary government of the English type, which he sent over to Portugal, by the English diplomatist, Lord Stuart de Rothesay. Then to please his Brazilian subjects, he abdicated the throne of Portugal in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, a child of seven years old, on condition that on attaining a suitable age she should marry her uncle, Dom Miguel, who was to swear to observe the new constitution. The Charter of 1826 was thankfully received by the moderate parliamentary party; Clinton's division was withdrawn; Palmella remained prime minister; and in the following year, 1827, Dom Pedro destroyed the effect of his wise measures by appointing Dom Miguel to be regent of Portugal in the name of the little queen. Dom Miguel was an ambitious prince, who believed that he ought to be king of Portugal; he was extremely popular with the old nobility, the clergy, and the army, with all who disliked liberal ideas, and with the beggars and the poor who were under the influence of the mendicant orders. He was declared Regent in July, 1827, and in May, 1828, he summoned a Cortes of the ancient type, such as had not met since 1697, which under the presidency of the Bishop of Viseu offered him the throne of Portugal. He accepted, and immediately exiled all the leaders of the parliamentary, or, as it is usually called, the *Chartist*, party, headed by Palmella, Saldanha, Villa Flor, and Sampaio. They naturally fled to England, where the young queen was stopping on her way to be educated at the court of Vienna, and found popular opinion strongly in their favour. But the Duke of Wellington and his Tory Cabinet refused to

countenance or assist them. . . . Meanwhile the reign of Dom Miguel had become a Reign of Terror; arrests and executions were frequent; thousands were deported to Africa, and in 1830 it was estimated that 40,000 persons were in prison for political offences. He ruled in absolute contempt of all law, and at different times English, French, and American fleets entered the Tagus to demand reparation for damage done to commerce, or for the illegal arrest of foreigners. The result of this conduct was that the country was hopelessly ruined, and the *chartist* and radical parties, who respectively advocated the Charter of 1826 and the Constitution of 1822, agreed to sink their differences, and to oppose the bigoted tyrant. . . . Dom Pedro, who had devoted his life to the cause of parliamentary government, resigned his crown in 1831 (see BRAZIL: A. D. 1825-1865) to his infant son, and left Brazil to head the movement for his daughter's cause. . . . In July, 1832, the ex-emperor with an army of 7,500 men arrived at Oporto, where he was enthusiastically welcomed; and Dom Miguel then laid siege to the city. European opinion was divided between the two parties; partisans of freedom and of constitutional government called the Miguelites 'slaves of a tyrant,' while lovers of absolutism, alluding to the loans raised by the ex-emperor, used to speak of the 'stock-jobbing Pedroites.' The siege was long and protracted. The Miguelites finally sustained several heavy defeats, both on land and at sea, and Lisbon was triumphantly entered by the Chartists in July, 1833. "The year 1834 was one of unbroken success for the Chartists. England and France recognized Maria da Gloria as Queen of Portugal, and the ministry of Queen Isabella of Spain, knowing Dom Miguel to be a Carlist, sent two Spanish armies under Generals Rodil and Serrano to the help of Dom Pedro. . . . Finally the combined Spanish and Portuguese armies surrounded the remnant of the Miguelites at Evora Monte, and on the 26th of May, 1834, Dom Miguel surrendered. By the Convention of Evora Monte, Dom Miguel abandoned his claim to the throne of Portugal, and in consideration of a pension of £15,000 a year promised never again to set foot in the kingdom. . . . Dom Pedro, who had throughout the struggle been the heart and soul of his daughter's party, had thus the pleasure of seeing the country at peace, and a regular parliamentary system in operation, but he did not long survive, for on the 24th of September, 1834, he died at Queluz near Lisbon, of an illness brought on by his great labours and fatigues, leaving a name, which deserves all honour from Portuguese and Brazilians alike. Queen Maria da Gloria was only fifteen, when she thus lost the advantage of her father's wise counsel and steady help, yet it might have been expected that her reign would be calm and prosperous. But neither the queen, the nobility, nor the people, understood the principles of parliamentary government. . . . The whole reign was one of violent party struggles, for they hardly deserve to be called civil wars, so little did they involve, which present a striking contrast to the peaceable constitutional government that at present prevails. . . . In 1833 the Charter was revised to suit all parties; direct voting, one of the chief claims of the radicals, was allowed, and the era of civil war came to an end. Maria da

Gloria did not long survive this peaceful settlement, for she died on the 15th of November, 1858, and her husband the King-Consort, Ferdinand II., assumed the regency until his eldest son Pedro V. should come of age. The era of peaceful parliamentary government, which succeeded the stormy reign of Maria II., has been one of material prosperity for Portugal. . . . The whole country, and especially the city of Lisbon, was during this reign, on account of the neglect of all sanitary precautions, ravaged by cholera and yellow fever, and it was in the midst of one of these outbreaks, on the 11th of November, 1861, that Pedro V., who had refused to leave his pestilence-stricken capital, died of cholera, and was followed to the grave by two of his younger brothers, Dom Ferdinand and Dom John. At the time of Pedro's death, his next brother and heir, Dom Luis, was travelling on the continent, and his father, Ferdinand II., who long survived Queen Maria da Gloria . . . assumed the regency until his return; soon after which King Luis married Maria Pia, younger daughter of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy. . . . The reign of King Luis was prosperous and peaceful, and the news of his death on October 9, 1889, was received with general regret. . . . Luis I. was succeeded on the throne by his elder son, Dom Carlos, or Charles I., a young man of twenty-six, who married in 1886, the Princess Marie Amélie de Bourbon, the eldest daughter of the Comte de Paris. His accession was immediately followed by the revolution of the 15th of November, 1889, in Brazil, by which his great uncle, Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil, was dethroned and a republican government established in that country."—H. M. Stephens, *The Story of Portugal*, ch. 18.—See BRAZIL: A. D. 1889-1891.

Also in: W. Bollaert, *Wars of Succession in Portugal and Spain*, v. 1.

A. D. 1884-1889.—Territorial claims in Africa.—The Berlin Conference. See AFRICA: A. D. 1884-1891.

PORTUS AUGUSTI AND PORTUS TRAJANI. See OSTIA.

PORTUS CALE.—The ancient name of Oporto, whence came, also, the name of Portugal. See PORTUGAL: EARLY HISTORY.

PORTUS ITIUS.—The port on the French coast from which Caesar sailed on both his expeditions to Britain. Boulogne, Ambleteuse, Witsand and Calais have all contended for the honor of representing it in modern geography; but the serious question seems to be between Boulogne and Witsand, or Wissant.—T. Lewin, *Invasion of Britain*.

Also in: G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic*, v. 4, app. 1.—Napoleon III., *Hist. of Caesar*, bk. 3, ch. 7.

PORTUS LEMANIS.—An important Roman port in Britain, at the place which still preserves its name—Lymne.—T. Wright, *Celt. Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.

PORTUS MAGNUS.—An important Roman port in Britain, the massive walls of which are still seen at Porchester (or Portchester).—T. Wright, *Celt. Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.

POST.—POSTAGE.—POST-OFFICE.—"The little that is known of the post-system of the [Roman] empire is summed up in a few words in Becker's 'Handbuch,' iii. i. 394: 'The

institution of Augustus, which became the basis of the later system known to us from the writings of the Jurists, consisted of a military service which forwarded official despatches from station to station by couriers, called in the earlier imperial period speculatores. (Liv. xxxi. 24; Suet. Calig. 44.; Tac. Hist. ii. 73.) Personal conveyance was confined (as in the time of the republic) to officials: for this purpose the mutationes (posts) and mansiones (night quarters) were assigned, and even palatia erected at the latter for the use of governors and the emperor himself. . . . Private individuals could take advantage of these state posts within the provinces by a special license (diploma) of the governor, and at a later period of the emperor only.' Under the republic senators and high personages could obtain the posts for their private use, as a matter of privilege."—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans under the Empire*, ch. 34 (v. 4), foot-note.—"According to Professor Friedländer in his interesting work, 'Darstellungen aus der Sittengeschichte Roms,' great progress was made by the Romans, in the fourth and fifth centuries, in their method of postal communication. Their excellent roads enabled them to establish rapid mule and horse posts as well as carts, and it is even stated that special 'postal ships' (Post schiffe) were kept in readiness at the principal sea-ports. These advanced postal arrangements, like many other traces of Roman civilization, survived longest in Gaul; but even there the barbarism of the people, and the constant wars in which they were engaged, gradually extinguished, first the necessity, and then, as a natural consequence, the means of postal communication, until we find, at a much later period, all European countries alike, for lack of any organized system, making use of pilgrims, friars, pedlars, and others, to convey their correspondence from one place to another. The first attempt of any importance, to rescue postal communication from the well-nigh hopeless condition into which it had for centuries fallen, was made in Germany in 1380, by the order of Teutonic Knights, who established properly equipped post messengers for home and international service. An improvement and extension of this plan was carried out by Francis von Thaxis in the year 1516, when a postal line from Brussels to Vienna, via Kreuznach, was established. It is true that, shortly before this, there is some record of Louis XI. of France having started, for State postal purposes, what were termed cavaliers du roy; but these were only allowed to be used for private purposes by privileged individuals, part of whose privilege, by the way, consisted in paying to Louis an enormous fee. It is to Francis von Thaxis that must be accorded the title of the first postal reformer. So eager was his interest in the work he had undertaken, that, in order to gain the right of territorial transit through several of the small states of Germany where his plans were strongly opposed, he actually agreed for a time to carry the people's letters free of charge, an instance of generosity, for a parallel of which we look in vain in the history of the Post Office. The mantle of this reformer seems, strangely enough, to have fallen in turn upon many of his descendants, who not only in Germany, but also in Spain, Austria, Holland, and other countries, obtained concessions for carrying on the useful work started by Francis von Thaxis. One of the

Thaxis family, at a later date, was created a prince of Germany, and took the name of Thurm und Taxis, and from him is descended the princely line bearing that name which flourishes at the present day. Another member of the family was created a grandee of Spain, and has the honor of being immortalized by Schiller in his 'Don Carlos'. The first establishment of an organized system of postal communication in England is wrapped in some obscurity. During the reign of John post messengers were, for the first time, employed by the king, these messengers were called nuncios, and in the time of Henry I these nuncios were also found in the service of some of the barons. In Henry III's reign they had so far become a recognized institution of the State that they were clothed in the royal livery. Mr. Lewins, in his interesting work 'Her Majesty's Mails,' states that several private letters are still in existence, dating back as far as the reign of Edward II., which bear the appearance of having been carried by the nuncios of that period, with 'Haste, post haste!' written across them. Edward IV., towards the end of the fifteenth century, during the time that he was engaged in war with Scotland, had the stations for postal relays placed within a few miles of each other all the way from London to the royal camp, and by this means managed to get his despatches carried nearly a hundred miles a day. . . . No improvement is recorded in the postal service in this country from the period last referred to until the reign of Henry VIII. This king, we are told, appointed a 'master of the posts,' in the person of Sir Brian Tuke, who really seems to have made great efforts to exercise a proper control over the horse-posts, and to bring some sort of organization to bear on his department. Poor Tuke, however, was not rewarded with much success. . . . James I. established a regular post for inland letters, and Charles I., recognizing, no doubt, the financial importance of the Post Office, declared it in 1637, by royal proclamation, to be State property. It was, however, during the Protectorate, twenty years later, that the first act of Parliament relating to the formation of a State Post Office was passed. This statute was entitled, 'An Act for the settling of the postage of England, Scotland, and Ireland.' . . . The first trace which can be found of a regular tariff of postal charges is in the reign of Charles I., and even regarded by the light of to day these charges cannot be held to be exorbitant; for example, a single letter from London, for any distance under eighty miles, was charged twopence, fourpence up to one hundred and forty miles; sixpence for any greater distance in England, and eightpence to all parts of Scotland."—*Postal Communication, Past and Present (National Rev.; copied in Littell's Living Age, July 30, 1887).*—"A penny post was established in London, in 1683, two years before the death of Charles II., for the conveyance of letters and parcels within the City, by Robert Murray, an upholsterer by trade, who, like a great many others, was dissatisfied with the Government, which, in its anxiety to provide for the postal requirements of the country, had entirely neglected the City and suburbs. The post, established by Murray at a vast expense, was ultimately handed over to a William Docwray, whose name is now well known in the annals of Post Office history. The arrangements of the

new penny post were simple, and certainly liberal enough. All letters or parcels not exceeding a pound weight, or any sum of money not exceeding £10 in value, or parcel not worth more than £10, could be conveyed at a cost of one penny; or within a radius of ten miles from a given centre, for the charge of twopence. Several district offices were opened in various parts of London, and receiving houses were freely established in all the leading thoroughfares. . . . The deliveries in the City were from six to eight daily, while from three to four were found sufficient to supply the wants of the suburbs. The public appreciated and supported the new venture, and it soon became a great commercial success, useful to the citizens, and profitable to the proprietor. No sooner, however, did a knowledge of this fact reach the ears of those in authority over the General Post Office than the Duke of York, acting under instructions, and by virtue of the settlement made to him, objected to its being continued, on the ground that it was an invasion of his legal rights. The authorities applied to the court of King's Bench, wherein it was decided that the new or so called penny post was an infringement of the privileges of the authorities of the General Post Office, and the royal interest, and that consequently it, with all its organization, profits, and advantages, should be handed over to, and remain the property of, the royal establishment. . . . Post paid envelopes were in use in France in the time of Louis XIV. Pichon states that they originated in 1653 with M. de Velayer, who established, under royal authority, a private penny-post in Paris. He placed boxes at the corners of the principal streets to receive the letters, which were obliged to be enclosed in these envelopes. They were suggested to the Government by Mr. Charles Whiting in 1830 and the eminent publisher, the late Mr. Charles Knight, also proposed stamped covers for papers. Dr. T. E. Gray, of the British Museum, claimed the credit of suggesting that letters should be prepaid by the use of stamps as early as 1834.—W. Tegg, *Posts and Telegraphs*, pp. 21-23 and 100-101.—"On the morning of the 10th of January, 1840, the people of the United Kingdom rose in the possession of a new power—the power of sending by the post a letter not weighing more than half an ounce upon the prepayment of one penny, and this without any regard to the distance which the letter had to travel. . . . To the sagacity and the perseverance of one man, the author of this system, the high praise is due, not so much that he triumphed over the petty jealousies and selfish fears of the post-office authorities, but that he established his own convictions against the doubts of some of the ablest and most conscientious leaders of public opinion. . . . Mr. Rowland Hill in 1837 published his plan of a cheap and uniform postage. A Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in 1837, which continued its inquiries throughout the session of 1838, and arrived at the conviction that 'the mode recommended of charging and collecting postage, in a pamphlet published by Mr. Rowland Hill, was feasible, and deserving of a trial under legislative sanction. . . . Lord Ashburton, although an advocate of Post-office Reform, held that the reduction to a penny would wholly destroy the revenue. Lord Lowther, the Postmaster-General, thought twopence the smallest

rate that would cover the expenses. Colonel Maberly, the secretary to the post office, considered Mr. Hill's plan a most preposterous one, and maintained that if the rates were to be reduced to a penny, the revenue would not recover itself for forty or fifty years . . . Public opinion, however, had been brought so strongly to bear in favour of a penny rate, that the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Spring Rice, on the 5th of July, 1839, proposed a resolution, 'that it is expedient to reduce the postage on letters to one uniform rate of a penny postage, according to a certain amount of weight to be determined—that the parliamentary privilege of franking should be abolished, and that official franking be strictly limited—the House pledging itself to make good any deficiency that may occur in the revenue from such reduction of the postage.' A Bill was accordingly passed to this effect in the House of Commons, its operation being limited in its duration to one year, and the Treasury retaining the power of fixing the rates at first, although the ultimate reduction was to be to one penny. This experimental measure reduced all rates above fourpence to that sum, leaving those below fourpence unaltered. With this complication of charge the experiment could not have a fair trial, and accordingly on the 10th of January, 1840, the uniform half ounce rate became by order of the Treasury one penny . . . In 1840 the number of letters sent through the post had more than doubled, and the legislature had little hesitation in making the Act of 1839 permanent, instead of its duration being limited to the year which would expire in October. A stamped envelope, printed upon a peculiar paper, and bearing an elaborate design, was originally chosen as the mode of rendering prepayment convenient to the sender of a letter. A simpler plan soon superseded this attempt to enlist the Fine Arts in a plain business operation. The plan of prepaying letters by affixing a stamp bearing the head of the ruler of the country, came into use here in May, 1840 [see, also, ENGLAND: A. D. 1840]. The habit of prepayment by postage stamps has now become so universal throughout the world, that in 1861 the system was established in eighty different countries or colonies."—C. Knight, *Popular History of England*, v. 8, ch. 21.—The first postal system in the American colonies was privately established in New England in 1676, by John Heyward, under authority from the General Court of the colony of Massachusetts. "In 1683 the government of Penn established a postal system for the Colony of Pennsylvania. In 1700 Col J Hamilton organized 'his postal establishment for British America' including all the English colonies, but soon after disposed of his right to the English crown. In 1710 the English Parliament established by law the first governmental postal system with the general office at New York, which continued until in 1776 the Continental Congress adopted and set in action the postal system proposed by Franklin, who was appointed the first Postmaster General. The first law of the Federal Congress continued this system in operation as sufficient for the public wants, but the postal service was not finally settled until the act of 1792. This law (1792) fixed a tariff which with unimportant changes remained in force until the adoption of the system of Uniform Postage in the United States. Single, double and triple letters

were charged 8, 16 and 24 cents respectively when sent to other countries, and four cents plus the internal postage when arriving from foreign countries. The internal postage between offices in the United States was 6, 8, 10, 15, 17, 20, 22 and 25 cents for distances of 30, 60, 100, 150, 200, 250, 350, or 400 miles respectively for single letters, and double, triple, etc., this for double, triple, etc letters. A single letter was defined by the law to be a single sheet or piece of paper, a double letter, two sheets or pieces of paper, etc . . . The earliest letters which we have seen, consist of single sheets of paper folded and addressed upon the sheet. An envelope would have subjected them to double postage"—J. K. Tiffany, *History of the Postage Stamps*, introd.—By an act of March 3, 1845, the postage rates in the United States were reduced to two—namely, 5 cents for 300 miles or under, and 10 cents for longer distances. Six years later (March 3, 1851) the minimum rate for half an ounce became 8 cents (if prepaid) with the distance covered by it extended to 3,000 miles, if not prepaid, 5 cents. For distances beyond 3,000 miles, these rates were doubled. In 1856 prepayment was made compulsory, and by an act signed March 3, 1863, the 3 cent rate for half-ounce letters was extended to all distances in the United States.—J. Rees, *Footprints of a Letter-Carrier*, p. 264.—In 1883 the rate in the United States was reduced to 2 cents for all distances, on letters not exceeding half an ounce. In 1885 the weight of a letter transmissible for 2 cents was increased to one ounce. The use of postage stamps was first introduced in the United States under an act of Congress passed in March, 1847. Stamped envelopes were first provided in 1853. The first issue of postal cards was on the 1st of May, 1873, under an act approved June 8, 1872. The registry system was adopted July 1, 1855. Free delivery of letters in the larger cities was first undertaken on the 1st of July 1863.—D. M. Dickinson, *Progress and the Post* (North Am. Rev., Oct., 1889).

ALSO IN: *Annual Report of the Postmaster-General of the U. S.*, 1893, pp. 543-558 (*Description of all Postage Stamps and Postal Cards issued*).

POSTAL MONEY-ORDER SYSTEM. The.—The postal money-order system, though said to be older in practical existence, was regularly instituted and organized in England, in its present form, in 1859. It was adopted in the United States five years later, going into operation in November, 1864.—D. M. Dickinson, *Progress and the Post* (North Am. Rev., Oct., 1889).

ALSO IN: *Appleton's Annual Cyclopaedia*, 1887, p. 687.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.—Postal savings banks were first brought into operation in England in 1861. "One shilling is the smallest sum that can be deposited. The Government has, however, . . . issued blank forms with spaces for twelve penny postage-stamps, and will receive one of these forms with twelve stamps affixed as a deposit. This plan was suggested by the desire to encourage habits of saving among children, and by the success of penny banks in connection with schools and 'mechanics' institutes. No one can deposit more than £30 in one year, or have to his credit more than £150 exclusive of interest. When the principal and interest together amount to £200, interest ceases until the amount has been reduced below £200.

Interest at two and a half per cent is paid, beginning the first of the month following the deposit and stopping the last of the month preceding the withdrawal, but no interest is paid on any sum less than a pound or not a multiple of a pound. The interest is added to the principal on the 31st of December of each year . . . The English colonies . . . have established postal savings banks of a similar character. . . . The Canadian system . . . went into operation in 1868. . . . Influenced by the success of the English system of postal savings-banks, the governments on the Continent of Europe have now nearly all made similar provisions for the investment of the surplus earnings of the people. The Italian system . . . went into operation February 29, 1876. . . . In France the proposal to establish postal savings banks was frequently discussed, but not adopted until March 1881, although the ordinary savings-banks had for several years been allowed to use the post-offices as places for the receipt and repayment of deposits. . . . The Austrian postal savings-banks were first opened January 12, 1883. . . . The Belgian system has been [1885] in successful operation for more than fifteen years; that of the Netherlands was established some three years ago, while Sweden has just followed her neighbors, Denmark and Norway, in establishing similar institutions. In 1871 Postmaster-General Creswell recommended the establishment of postal savings depositories in connection with the United States post-offices, and two years later he discussed the subject very fully in his annual report. Several of his successors have renewed his recommendation, but no action has been taken by Congress — D. B. King, *Postal Savings-Banks* (*Popular Science Monthly*, Dec., 1885).

POSTAL TELEGRAPH, The. — "The States of the continent of Europe were the first to appreciate the advantages of governmental control of the telegraph. . . . From the beginning they assumed the erection and management of the telegraph lines. It may be said that in taking control of the telegraphs the monarchical governments of the Old World were actuated as much by the desire to use them for the maintenance of authority as by the advantages which they offered for the service of the people. To a certain extent this is doubtless true, but it is none the less true that the people have reaped the most solid benefits, and that the tendency has been rather to liberalize government than to maintain arbitrary power. . . . The greatest progress and the best management have alike been shown in those countries where the forms of government are most liberal, as in Switzerland and Belgium. . . . In Great Britain the telegraph was at first controlled by private parties. . . . In July, 1868, an act was passed 'to enable Her Majesty's Postmaster-General to acquire, work, and maintain electric telegraphs.' . . . The rate for messages was fixed throughout the kingdom at one shilling for twenty words, excluding the address and signature. This rate covered delivery within one mile of the office of address, or within its postal delivery." The lines of the existing telegraph companies were purchased on terms which were commonly held to be exorbitant, and Parliament, changing its original intention, conferred on the post-office department a monopoly of the telegraphs. Thus "the British postal telegraph was from the first

handicapped by an enormous interest charge, and to some extent by the odium which always attaches to a legal monopoly. But notwithstanding the exorbitant price paid for the telegraph, the investment has not proved an unprofitable one." — N. P. Hill, *Speech in the Senate of the U. S.*, Jan. 14, 1884, on a Bill to Establish Postal Telegraphs, (*"Speeches and Papers,"* pp. 209-215).

POSTAL UNION, The. — The Postal Union, which now embraces most of the civilized and semi-civilized countries of the world, was formed originally by a congress of delegates, representing the principal governments of Europe, and the United States of America, which assembled at Berne, Switzerland, in September, 1874. A treaty was concluded at that time, which established uniform rates of postage (25 centimes, or 5 cents, on half-ounce letters), between the countries becoming parties to it, and opening the opportunity for other states to join in the same arrangement. From year to year since, the Postal Union has been widened by the accession of new signatories to the treaty, until very few regions of the globe where any postal system exists lie now outside of it. The late accessions to the Postal Union have been North Borneo, the German East African Protectorate, and the British Australasian Colonies, in 1891; Natal and Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1892, the South African Republic (Transvaal) in 1893. By the action of an international postal congress, held at Vienna, in 1891, a kind of international clearing house for the Postal Union was established at Berne, Switzerland, and the settlement of accounts between its members has been greatly facilitated thereby.

POSTUMIAN ROAD. — One of the great roads of the ancient Romans. It led from Genoa to Aquileia, by way of Placentia, Cremona and Verona. — T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 11.

POTESTAS. — The civil power with which a Roman magistrate was invested was technically termed *potestas* — W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman Antiquities*, ch. 5.

POTESTAS TRIBUNITIA, The. — The powers and prerogatives of the ancient tribunitian office, without the office itself, being conferred upon Augustus and his successors, became the most important element, perhaps, of the finally compacted sovereignty of the Roman emperors. — C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 80.

POTIDÆA, Siege of. — The city of Potidæa, a Corinthian colony founded on the long peninsula of Pallene which projects from the Macedonian coast, but which had become subject to Athens, revolted from the latter B. C. 482, and was assisted by the Corinthians. This was among the quarrels which led up to the Peloponnesian War. The Athenians reduced the city and expelled the inhabitants after a siege of three years. — Thucydides, *History*, bk. 1-2. — See, also, GÆRÆE: B. C. 482; and ATHENS: B. C. 480-429.

POTOMAC, Army of the ; Its creation and its campaigns. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JULY — NOVEMBER); 1862 (MARCH — MAY), and after.

POTOSI, The Spanish province of. — Modern Bolivia. See ARGENTINE REPUBLIC: A. D. 1809-1777.

POTTAWATOMIES. See AMERICAN AB-ORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY, AND OJIB-WAS.

POUNDAGE. See TUNNAGE AND POUND-AGE.

POWHATANS, The. See AMERICAN AB-ORIGINES: POWHATAN CONFEDERACY.

POYNING'S ACTS. See IRELAND: A. D. 1494.

PRÆFECTS.—PREFECTS.—PRÉ-FÈTS. See ROME: B. C. 31—A. D. 14; and PRÆTORIAN PRÆFECTS.

PRÆMUNIRE, Statute of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1306—1393.

PRÆNESTE, Sulla's capture of.—Præneſte, the ancient city of the Latins, held against Sulla, in the first civil war, by young Marius, was surrendered after the battle at the Colline Gate of Rome. Sulla ordered the male inhabitants to be put to the sword and gave up the town to his soldiers for pillage.—W. Ihne, *Hist. of Rome*, bk. 7, ch. 19.

PRÆNOMEN.—NOMEN.—COGNOMEN. See GENA.

PRÆTOR. See ROME: B. C. 366.

PRÆTORIAN GUARDS.—PRÆTOR- IANS.—"The commander-in-chief of a Roman army was attended by a select detachment, which, under the name of 'Cohors Prætoria,' remained closely attached to his person in the field, ready to execute his orders, and to guard him from any sudden attack. . . . Augustus, following his usual line of policy, retained the ancient name of 'Prætoriae Cohortes,' while he entirely changed their character. He levied in Etruria, Umbria, ancient Latium, and the old Colonies, nine or ten Cohorts, consisting of a thousand men each, on whom he bestowed double pay and superior privileges. These formed a permanent corps, who acted as the Imperial Life Guards, ready to overawe the Senate, and to suppress any sudden popular commotion."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman Antiq.*, ch. 12.—The Prætorian Guard had been quartered, during the reign of Augustus, and during the early years of the reign of Tiberius, in small barracks at various points throughout the city, or in the neighboring towns. Sejanus, the intriguing favorite of Tiberius, being commander of the formidable corps, established it in one great permanent camp, "beyond the north-eastern angle of the city, and between the roads which sprang from the Viminal and Colline gates." This was done A. D. 28.—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 45.—See, also, ROME: A. D. 14—37.

A. D. 41.—Their elevation of Claudius to the throne. See ROME: A. D. 41.

A. D. 193.—Murder of Pertinax and sale of the empire. See ROME: A. D. 192—284.

A. D. 193.—Reconstitution by Severus.—Severus, whose first act on reaching Rome had been to disarm and disband the insolent Guard which murdered Pertinax and sold the empire to Julianus, had no thought of dispensing with the institution. There was soon in existence a new organization of Prætorians, increased to four times the ancient number and picked from all the legions of the frontiers.—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 6.

A. D. 238.—Murder of Balbinus and Pupienus. See ROME: A. D. 193—384.

A. D. 312.—Abolition by Constantine.—"By the prudent measures of Diocletian, the numbers of the Prætorians were insensibly reduced, their privileges abolished, and their place supplied by two faithful legions of Illyricum, who, under the new titles of Jovians and Herculians, were appointed to perform the service of the imperial guards. . . . They were old corps stationed at Illyricum; and, according to the ancient establishment, they each consisted of 6,000 men. They had acquired much reputation by the use of the plumbate, or darts loaded with lead."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 13, with foot-note.—Restored and augmented by Maxentius, during his brief reign, the Prætorians were finally abolished and their fortified camp destroyed, by Constantine, after his victory in the civil war of A. D. 312.—*Same*, ch. 14.

PRÆTORIAN PRÆFECTS.—"As the government degenerated into military despotism, the Prætorian præfect, who in his origin had been a simple captain of the guards, was placed not only at the head of the army, but of the finances, and even of the law. In every department of administration he represented the person, and exercised the authority, of the emperor. The first præfect who enjoyed and abused this immense power was Plautianus, the favourite minister of Severus. . . . They [the Prætorian præfects] were deprived by Constantine of all military command as soon as they had ceased to lead into the field, under their immediate orders, the flower of the Roman troops; and at length, by a singular revolution, the captains of the guards were transformed into the civil magistrates of the provinces. According to the plan of government instituted by Diocletian, the four princes had each their Prætorian præfect; and, after the monarchy was once more united in the person of Constantine, he still continued to create the same number of four præfects, and intrusted to their care the same provinces which they already administered. 1. The Præfect of the East stretched his ample jurisdiction "from the Nile to the Phasis and from Thrace to Persia. "2. The important provinces of Pannonia, Dacia, Macedonia, and Greece, acknowledged the authority of the Præfect of Illyricum. 3. The power of the Præfect of Italy "extended to the Danube, and over the islands of the Mediterranean and part of Africa. "4. The Præfect of the Gauls comprehended under that plural denomination the kindred provinces of Britain and Spain, and . . . to the foot of Mount Atlas. . . . Rome and Constantinople were alone excepted from the jurisdiction of the Prætorian præfects. . . . A perfect equality was established between the dignity of the two municipal, and that of the four Prætorian præfects."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 5 and 17.—See, also, ROME: B. C. 31—A. D. 14.

PRÆTORIUM, The.—"In the very early days of Rome, before even Consuls had a being, the two chief magistrates of the republic bore the title of Prætors. Some remembrance of this fact lingering in the speech of the people gave always to the term Prætorium (the Prætor's house) a peculiar majesty, and caused it to be used as the equivalent of palace. So in the well-known passages of the New Testament, the palace of Pilate the Governor at Jerusalem, of

Herod the King at Caesarea, of Nero the Emperor at Rome, are all called the Praetorium. From the palace the troops who surrounded the person of the Emperor took their well-known name, 'the Praetorian Guard.'—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her Invaders*, bk. 1, ch. 8 (v. 1).

PRAGA, Battle of (1831). See **POLAND**: A. D. 1830-1832.

PRAGMATIC SANCTION.—"No two words convey less distinct meaning to English ears than those which form this title: nor are we at all prepared to furnish an equivalent. Perhaps 'a well considered Ordinance' may in some degree represent them: i. e. an Ordinance which has been fully discussed by men practised in State Affairs. But we are very far from either recommending or being satisfied with such a substitute. The title was used in the Lower [the Byzantine] Empire, and Ducange ad v. describes 'Pragmaticum Rescriptum seu Pragmatica Sanctio' to be that which 'adhibita diligente cause cognitione, ex omnium Procerum consensu in modum sententiae lecto, a Principe conceditur.'" E. Smedley, *Hist. of France*, pt. 1, ch. 15, foot-note.—"Pragmatic Sanction being, in the Imperial Chancery and some others, the received title for Ordinances of a very irrevocable nature, which a sovereign makes, in affairs that belong wholly to himself, or what he reckons his own rights."—T. Carlyle, *Hist. of Fred'k II.*, bk. 5, ch. 2.—"This word [pragmatic] is derived from the Greek 'pragma,' which means 'a rule.'"—E. de Bonnechose, *Hist. of France*, v. 1, epoch 2, bk. 1, ch. 5, foot-note.—The following are the more noted ordinances which have borne this name:

A. D. 1220 and 1232.—Of the Emperor Frederick II. See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1250-1272.
A. D. 1268 (?).—Of St. Louis. See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1268.

A. D. 1438.—Of Charles VII. of France, and its abrogation. See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1438; and 1515-1518.

A. D. 1547.—Of the Emperor Charles V. for the Netherlands. See **NETHERLANDS**: A. D. 1547.

A. D. 1718.—Of the Emperor Charles VI. See **AUSTRIA**: A. D. 1718-1738; and 1740 (OCTOBER).

PRAGUE: A. D. 1348-1409.—The University and the German secession. See **EDUCATION**, **MEDIEVAL**: **GERMANY**; and **BOHEMIA**: A. D. 1405-1415.

A. D. 1620.—Battle of the White Mountain.—Abandonment of crown and capital by Frederick. See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1620.

A. D. 1631.—Occupied and plundered by the Saxons. See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1631-1632.

A. D. 1648.—Surprise and capture of the Kleinsite by the Swedes.—Siege of the older part of the city.—The end of the Thirty Years War. See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1648-1648.

A. D. 1741.—Taken by the French, Saxons and Bavarians. See **AUSTRIA**: A. D. 1741 (AUGUST—NOVEMBER).

A. D. 1742.—The French blockaded in the city.—Retreat of Belleisle. See **AUSTRIA**: A. D. 1742 (JUNE—DECEMBER).

A. D. 1744.—Won and lost by Frederick the Great. See **AUSTRIA**: A. D. 1743-1744; and 1744-1745.

A. D. 1757.—Battle.—Prussian victory Siege.—Relief by Count Daun. See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1757 (APRIL—JUNE).

A. D. 1848.—Bombardment by the Austrians. See **AUSTRIA**: A. D. 1848-1849.

PRAGUE, Congress of. See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1813 (MAY—AUGUST).

PRAGUE, Treaty of (1634). See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1634-1639....Treaty of (1666). See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1866.

PRAGUERIE.—The commotions produced by John Huss, at Prague, in the beginning of the 15th century, gave the name *Praguerie*, at that period, to all sorts of popular disturbances.

PRAIRIAL, The month. See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1793 (OCTOBER) **THE NEW REPUBLICAN CALENDAR**.

PRAIRIAL FIRST, The insurrection of. See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1795 (APRIL).

PRAIRIAL TWENTY-SECOND, Law of the. See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1794 (JUNE—JULY).

PRAIRIE GROVE, Battle of. See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1862 (SEPTEMBER—DECEMBER: **MISSOURI—ARKANSAS**).

PRAKRITA. See **SANSKRIT**.

PRATO, The horrible sack of (1512). See **FLORENCE**: A. D. 1502-1569.

PRATT INSTITUTE. See **EDUCATION**, **MODERN**: **AMERICA**: A. D. 1824-1893.

PRECIEUSES. See **RAMBOUILLET, Hôtel de**.

PRECIOUS METALS, Production of. See **MONEY AND BANKING**: 16-17TH CENTURIES; and 1848-1893.

PREFECTS.—PRÉFÊTS.—PRÆFECTS. See **ROME**: B. C. 31-A. D. 14; and **PRÆTORIAN PRÆFECTS**.

PREMIER.—PRIME MINISTER. See **CABINET, THE ENGLISH**.

PREMISLAUS, King of Poland, A. D. 1289-1296.

PREMONSTRATENSIAN ORDER.—This was the most important branch of the Regular Canons of St. Augustine, founded by St. Norbert, a German nobleman, who died in 1134. It took its name from Pré-montre, in Picardy, where the first house was established.—E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and Characters of the Middle Ages*, ch. 3.—See **AUSTIN CANONS**.

PRE-RAPHAELITE BROTHERHOOD, The. See **PAINTING, ENGLISH**.

PRESBURG, OR PRESSBURG, Peace of (1805). See **GERMANY**: A. D. 1805-1806.

PRESBYTERIANS, English, in the Civil War. See **ENGLAND**: A. D. 1643 (JULY), and (JULY—SEPTEMBER); 1646 (MARCH); 1647 (APRIL—AUGUST); (AUGUST—DECEMBER); 1648.... At the Restoration. See **ENGLAND**: A. D. 1658-1660; 1661; and 1662-1665.

In Colonial Massachusetts. See **MASSACHUSETTS**: A. D. 1646-1651.

Scotch-Irish. See **SCOTCH-IRISH**.

Scottish. See **CHURCH OF SCOTLAND**.

PRESCOTT, Colonel William, and the battle of Bunker Hill. See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1775 (JUNE).

PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.—"The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office dur-

ing the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows: Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress [and these electors, meeting in their respective States, shall vote for President and Vice-President, transmitting certified lists of their votes to the President of the Senate of the United States, who shall count them in the presence of the two Houses of Congress, and if no person is elected President by a majority of all the votes cast, then the House of Representatives shall elect a President from the three persons who received the highest numbers of the votes cast by the electors, the representation from each State having one vote in such election]. . . No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President, neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States. . . The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States, he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur, and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law, but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors."—*Constitution of the U. S., art. 2, and art. 12 of amendments.*—The provisions of the Constitution regarding the Presidential succession, in case of the death or resignation

of both President and Vice-President, are 'In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the President and Vice President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed or a President shall be elected' (Article II, Section 6.) In pursuance of the power thus granted to it in the last half of this section, Congress in 1792 passed an act declaring that in case of the death, resignation, etc., of both the President and Vice-President, the succession should be first to the President of the Senate and then to the Speaker of the House. This order was changed by the act of 1886, which provided that the succession to the presidency should be as follows 1 President 2 Vice-President 3 Secretary of State. 4 Secretary of the Treasury 5 Secretary of War 6 Attorney General. 7 Postmaster General. 8 Secretary of the Navy 9 Secretary of the Interior. In all cases the remainder of the four-years' term shall be served out. This act also regulated the counting of the votes of the electors by Congress, and the determination of who were legally chosen electors.—*Statutes of the U. S. passed at 1st Sess. of 49th Cong., p. 1*

ALSO IN E Stanwood, *Hist of Presidential Elections*, ch 27.—J Story, *Commentaries on the Const of the U. S.*, bk 3, ch 36-37 (p. 3).—*The Federalist*, nos 66-76.—J Bryce, *The Am. Commonwealth*, ch 5-8 (c. 1)

PRESIDIO. See TEXAS A D 1819-1835

PRESS, The. See PRINTING.

PRESSBURG, OR PRESBURG, Treaty of (1805). See GERMANY A D 1805-1806.

PRESS-GANG. See UNITED STATES OF AM : A. D 1812

PRESTER JOHN, The Kingdom of.—

"About the middle of the eleventh century stories began to be circulated in Europe as to a Christian nation of north eastern Asia, whose sovereign was at the same time king and priest, and was known by the name of Prester John. Amid the mass of fables with which the subject is encumbered, it would seem to be certain that, in the very beginning of the century, the Khan of the Kerait, a tribe whose chief seat was at Karakorum, between Lake Baikal and the northern frontier of China, was converted to Nestorian Christianity—it is said, through the appearance of a saint to him when he had lost his way in hunting. By means of conversation with Christian merchants, he acquired some elementary knowledge of the faith, and, on the application of Ebed Jesu, metropolitan of Maru, to the Nestorian patriarch Gregory, clergy were sent, who baptized the king and his subjects, to the number of 200,000. Ebed-Jesu consulted the patriarch how the fasts were to be kept, since the country did not afford any corn, or anything but flesh and milk; and the answer was, that, if no other Lenten provisions were to be had, milk should be the only diet for seasons of abstinence. The earliest western notice of this nation is given by Otho of Freising, from the relation of an Armenian bishop who visited the court of pope Eugenius III. This report is largely tinged with fable, and deduces the Tartar chief's descent

from the Magi who visited the Saviour in His cradle. It would seem that the Nestorians of Syria, for the sake of vying with the boasts of the Latins, delighted in inventing tales as to the wealth, the splendour, and the happiness of their convert's kingdom; and to them is probably to be ascribed an extravagantly absurd letter, in which Prester John is made to dilate on the greatness and the riches of his dominions, the magnificence of his state and the beauty of his wives, and to offer the Byzantine emperor, Manuel, if he be of the true faith, the office of lord chamberlain in the court of Karakorum. In 1177 Alexander III. was induced by reports which a physician named Philip had brought back from Tartary, as to Prester John's desire to be received into communion with the pope, to address a letter to the king, recommending Philip as a religious instructor. But nothing is known as to the result of this; and in 1202 the Keraït kingdom was overthrown by the Tartar conqueror Genghis Khan. In explanation of the story as to the union of priesthood with royalty in Prester John, many theories have been proposed, of which two may be mentioned here, that it arose out of the fact of a Nestorian priest's having got possession of the kingdom on the death of a khan; or that, the Tartar prince's title being compounded of the Chinese 'wang' (king) and the Mongol 'khan,' the first of these words was confounded by the Nestorians of Syria with the name John, and the second with 'cohen' (a priest). . . . The identification of Prester John's kingdom with Abyssinia was a mistake of Portuguese explorers some centuries later."—J. C. Robertson, *Hist. of the Ch. Church*, bk. 6, ch. 11, with foot-note (c. 5).

ALSO IN: Col. H. Yule, *Note to 'The Book of Marco Polo'*, v. 1, pp. 204-209.

PRESTON, Battle of (1648). See ENGLAND: A. D. 1648 (APRIL—AUGUST). . . . **Battle of (1715).** See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1715.

PRESTON PANS, Battle of (1745). See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1745-1746.

PRESTONBURG, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JANUARY—FEBRUARY: KENTUCKY—TENNESSEE).

PRETAXATION. See GERMANY: A. D. 1125-1152.

PRETENDERS, The Stuart. See JACOBITES.

PRICE'S RAID. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MARCH—OCTOBER: ARKANSAS—MISSOURI).

PRIDE'S PURGE. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1648 (NOVEMBER—DECEMBER).

PRIEST'S LANE, The. See GERMANY: A. D. 1631-1632.

PRIM, General, Assassination of. See SPAIN: A. D. 1866-1878.

PRIMATES.—METROPOLITANS.—PATRIARCHS.—In the early organization of the Christian Church, the bishops of every province found it necessary "to make one of themselves superior to all the rest, and invest him with certain powers and privileges for the good of the whole, whom they therefore named their primate, or metropolitan, that is, the principal bishop of the province. . . . Next in order to the metropolitans or primates were the patriarchs; or, as they were at first called, archbishops and exarchs of the diocese. For though now an archbishop and a metropolitan be gen-

erally taken for the same, to wit, the primate of a single province; yet anciently the name archbishop was a more extensive title, and scarce given to any but those whose jurisdiction extended over a whole imperial diocese, as the bishop of Rome, Alexandria, Antioch, &c."—J. Bingham, *Antiq. of the Christ. Ch.*, bk. 2, ch. 16-17 (c. 1).—See, also, CHRISTIANITY: A. D. 312-337.

PRIME MINISTER, The English. See CABINET, THE ENGLISH.

PRINCE, Origin of the title. See PRINCEPS SENATUS.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.—"Prince Edward's Island, the smallest province of the Dominion [of Canada], originally called St. John's Island, until 1770 formed part of Nova Scotia. The first Governor was Walter Patterson. . . . The first assembly met in 1773." In 1873 Prince Edward Island consented to be received into the Confederation of the Dominion of Canada—the latest of the provinces to accede to the Union, except Newfoundland, which still (1894) remains outside.—J. E. C. Munro, *The Constitution of Canada*, ch. 2.—See, also, CANADA: A. D. 1867; and 1869-1873.

PRINCE OF THE CAPTIVITY. See JEWS: A. D. 200-400.

PRINCE OF WALES. See WALES, PRINCE OF.

PRINCIPES SENATUS.—"As the title of imperator conferred the highest military rank upon Augustus and his successors, so did that of princeps senatus, or princeps (as it came to be expressed by an easy but material abridgment), convey the idea of the highest civil preeminence consistent with the forms of the old constitution. In ancient times this title had been appropriated to the first in succession of living censorii, men who had served the office of censor; and such were necessarily patricians and senators. The sole privilege it conferred was that of speaking first in the debates of the senate; a privilege however to which considerable importance might attach from the exceeding deference habitually paid to authority and example by the Roman assemblies. . . . The title of princeps was modest and constitutional; it was associated with the recollection of the best ages of the free state and the purest models of public virtue; it could not be considered beyond the deserts of one who was undoubtedly the foremost man of the nation. . . . The popularity which the assumption of this republican title conferred upon the early emperors may be inferred from the care with which it is noted, and its constitutional functions referred to by the writers of the Augustan age and that which succeeded it. But it was an easy and natural step in the progress of political ideas to drop the application of the title, and contract it from prince of the senate, to prince merely. The original character of the appellation was soon forgotten, and the proper limits of its privileges confounded in the more vague and general prerogative which the bare designation of first or premier seemed to imply."—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 81.

PRINCETON, Battle of (1777). See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1776-1777.—WASHINGTON'S RETREAT.

PRINCETON COLLEGE. See EDUCATION, MODERN: AMERICA: A. D. 1746.

PRINCIPES. See LEGION, THE ROMAN.

PRINTING AND THE PRESS.

A. D. 1430-1456.—The invention of movable type.—Rival claims for Coster and Gutenberg.—The first Printed Book.—“Before arriving at the movable type placed side by side, and forming phrases, which appears to us to-day so simple and so ordinary, many years passed. It is certain that long before Gutenberg a means was found of cutting wood and metal in relief and reproducing by application the image traced. . . . Remembering that the numerous guilds of ‘tailleurs d’images,’ or sculptors in relief, had in the Middle Ages the specialty of carving ivories and of placing effigies on tombs, it can be admitted without much difficulty that these people one day found a means of multiplying the sketches of a figure often asked for, by modelling its contour in relief on ivory or wood, and afterwards taking a reproduction on paper or parchment by means of pressure. When and where was this discovery produced? We cannot possibly say, but it is certain that playing cards were produced by this means, and that from the year 1423 popular figures were cut in wood, as we know from the St Christopher of that date belonging to Lord Spencer. . . . It is a recognised fact that the single sheet with a printed figure preceded the xylographic book, in which text and illustration were cut in the same block. This process did not appear much before the second quarter of the 15th century, and it was employed principally for popular works which were then the universal taste. The engraving also was nothing more than a kind of imposition palmed off as a manuscript, the vignettes were often covered with brilliant colours and gold, and the whole sold as of the best quality. . . . An attempt had been made to put some text at the foot of the St Christopher of 1423, and the idea of giving more importance to the text was to the advantage of the book-sellers. . . . At the epoch of the St. Christopher, in 1423, several works were in vogue in the universities, the schools, and with the public. . . . To find a means of multiplying these treatises at little cost was a fortune to the inventor. It is to be supposed that many artisans of the time attempted it; and without doubt it was the book-sellers themselves, mostly mere dealers, who were tempted to the adventure by the sculptors and wood-cutters. But none had yet been so bold as to cut in relief a series of blocks with engravings and text to compose a complete work. That point was reached very quickly when some legend was engraved at the foot of a vignette, and it may be thought that the ‘Donatus’ [i. e. the Latin Syntax of Ælius Donatus] was the most ancient of books so obtained among the ‘Incunabuli,’ as we now call them, a word that signifies origin or cradle. The first books then were formed of sheets of paper or parchment, laboriously printed from xylographic blocks, that is to say wooden blocks on which a ‘tailleur d’images’ had left in relief the designs and the letters of the text. He had thus to trace his characters in reverse, so that they could be reproduced as written; he had to avoid faults, because a phrase once done, well or ill, lasted. It was doubtless this difficulty of correction that gave the idea of movable types. . . . This at least explains the legend of Laurent Coster, of Haarlem, who, according to Hadrian Junius, his

compatriot, discovered by accident the secret of separate types while playing with his children. And if the legend of which we speak contains the least truth, it must be found in the sense above indicated, that is in the correction of faults, rather than in the innocent game of a merchant of Haarlem. . . . Movable type, the capital point of printing, the pivot of the art of the Book, developed itself little by little, according to needs, when there was occasion to correct an erroneous inscription, but, in any case, its origin is unknown. Doubtless to vary the text, means were found to replace entire phrases by other phrases, preserving the original figures, and thus the light dawned upon these craftsmen, occupied in the manufacture and sale of their books. According to Hadrian Junius, Laurent Janszoon Coster (the latter name signifying ‘the discoverer’) published one of the celebrated series of works under the general title of ‘Speculum’ which was then so popular, . . . the ‘Speculum Humane Salvationis.’ . . . Junius, as we see, attributes to Laurent Coster the first impression of the ‘Speculum,’ no longer the purely xylographic impression of the ‘Donatus’ from an engraved block, but that of the more advanced manner in movable types [probably between 1430 and 1440]. In point of fact, this book had at least four editions, similar in engravings and body of letters, but of different text. It must then be admitted that the fount was dispersed, and typography discovered. . . . All the xylographic works of the 15th century may be classed in two categories: the xylographs, rightly so called, or the block books, such as the ‘Donatus,’ and the books with movable types, like the ‘Speculum,’ of which we speak. The movable types used, cut separately in wood, were not constituted to give an ideal impression. We can understand the cost that the execution of these characters must have occasioned, made as they were one by one, without the possibility of ever making them perfectly uniform. Progress was to substitute for this irregular process types that were similar, identical, easily produced, and used for a long time without breaking. Following on the essays of Laurent Coster, continuous researches bore on this point. . . . Here history is somewhat confused. Hadrian Junius positively accuses one of Laurent Coster’s workmen of having stolen the secrets of his master and taken flight to Mayence, where he afterwards founded a printing office. According to Junius, the metal type was the discovery of the Dutchman, and the name of the thief was John. Who was this John? Was it John Gaensefeisch, called Gutenberg, or possibly John Fust? But it is not at all apparent that Gutenberg, a gentleman of Mayence, exiled from his country, was ever in the service of the Dutch inventor. As to Fust, we believe his only intervention in the association of printers of Mayence was as a money-lender, from which may be comprehended the unlikelihood of his having been with Coster, the more so as we find Gutenberg retired to Strasbourg, where he pursued his researches. There he was, as it were, out of his sphere, a ruined noble whose great knowledge was bent entirely on invention. Doubtless, like many others, he may have had in his hands one of the printed works of Laurent Coster, and conceived the idea of appropriating the infant

process. In 1439 he was associated with two artisans of the city of Strasbourg, ostensibly in the fabrication of mirrors, which may be otherwise understood as printing of 'Speculums,' the Latin word signifying the same thing. Three problems presented themselves to him. He wanted types less fragile than wooden types and less costly than engraving. He wanted a press by the aid of which he could obtain a clear impression on parchment or paper. He desired also that the leaves of his books should not be anopistograph, or printed only on one side. Until then and even long after the xylographs were printed 'au frotton,' or with a brush, rubbing the paper upon the forme coated with ink thicker than ordinary ink. He dreamed of something better. In the course of his work John Gutenberg returned to Mayence. The idea of publishing a Bible the Book of books had taken possession of his heart. The cutting of his types had ruined him. In this unhappy situation Gutenberg made the acquaintance of a financier of Mayence named Fust, who put a sum of 1,100 florins at his disposal to continue his experiments. Unfortunately this money disappeared, it melted away and the results obtained were absolutely ludicrous. About this time a third actor enters on the scene. Peter Schoeffer, of Gernsheim a writer introduced into the workshop of Gutenberg to design letters, benefited by the abortive experiments, and taking up the invention at its dead lock, conducted it to success. John of Trithemius, called Trithemius, the learned abbot of Spanheim, is the person who relates these facts; but as he got his information from Schoeffer himself too much credence must not be given to his statements. Besides, Schoeffer was not at all an ordinary artisan. If we credit a Strasbourg manuscript written by his hand in 1449, he was a student of the 'most glorious university of Paris.' How much Schoeffer contributed to the working out of the invention is a matter of conjecture but in 1454 it was advanced to a state in which the first known application of it in practical use was made. This was in the printing of copies of the famous letters of indulgence which Pope Nicholas V was then selling throughout Europe. Having the so far perfected invention in hand, Fust and Schoeffer (the latter now having married the former's granddaughter) wished to rid themselves of Gutenberg. 'Fust had a most easy pretext, which was to demand purely and simply from his associate the sums advanced by him, and which had produced so little. Gutenberg had probably commenced his Bible, but, in face of the claims of Fust, he had to abandon it altogether, types, formes, and press. In November, 1455, he had retired to a little house outside the city, where he tried his best, by the aid of foreign help, to establish a workshop, and to preserve the most perfect secrecy. Relieved of his company, Fust and Schoeffer were able to take up the impression of the Bible and to complete it without him. . . . One thing is certain: that the Bible of Schoeffer, commenced by Gutenberg or not, put on sale by Fust and Schoeffer alone about the end of 1455 or beginning of 1456, proves to be the first completed book. . . . It is now called the Mazarine Bible, from the fact that the copy in the Mazarin Library was the first to give evidence concerning it. The book was put on sale at the end of

1455 or beginning of 1456, for a manuscript note of a vicar of St. Stephen at Mayence records that he finished the binding and illuminating of the first volume on St. Bartholomew's Day [June 13], 1456, and the second on the 15th of August. . . . All these remarks show that the printers did not proclaim themselves, and were making pseudo manuscripts. . . . Many of the copies are illuminated with as much care and beauty as if they were the finest manuscripts. Copies are by no means uncommon, most of the great libraries having one, and many are in private collections.—H. Bouchot, *The Printed Book*, ch. 1.—'The general consent of all nations in ascribing the honour of the invention of printing to Gutenberg seems at first sight a very strong argument in his favour, but if Gutenberg were not the first to invent and use movable types, but the clever man who brought to perfection what already existed in a crude state, we can quite imagine his fame to have spread everywhere as the real inventor. As a master in the art of printing Gutenberg's name was known in Paris so early as 1472. Mr. Hessels believes that the Coster mentioned in the archives as living in Haarlem, 1436-83, was the inventor of types, and that, taken as a whole, the story as told by Junius is substantially correct. Personally I should like to wait for more evidence. There is no doubt that the back bone of the Dutch claim lies in the pieces and fragments of old books discovered for the most part in the last few decades and which give support to, at the same time that they receive support from, the Cologne Chronicle. These now amount to forty seven different works. Their number is being added to continually now that the attention of librarians has been strongly called to the importance of noting and preserving them. They have been catalogued with profound insight by Mr. Hessels, and for the first time classified by internal evidence into their various types and classes. But, it may well be asked, what evidence is there that all these books were not printed long after Gutenberg's press was at work? The earliest book of Dutch printing bears date 1473, and not a single edition out of all the so-called Costeriana has any printer's name or place or date. To this the reply is, that these small pieces were school books or abides and such like works, in the production of which there was nothing to boast of, as there would be in a Bible. Such things were at all times 'sine ulla nota,' and certain to be destroyed when done with, so that the wonder would be to find them so dated, and the very fact of their bearing a date would go far to prove them not genuine. These fragments have been nearly all discovered in 15th-century books, printed mostly in various towns of Holland. . . . Mr. Hessels quotes forty seven different books as 'Costeriana,' which include four editions of the Speculum, nineteen of Donatus, and seven of Doctrinale. The Donatuses are in five different types, probably from five different Dutch presses. Compared with the earliest dated books of 1473 and onwards, printed in Holland, they have nothing in common, while their brotherhood to the Dutch MSS. and block-books of about thirty years earlier is apparent. Just as astronomers have been unable to explain certain aberrations of the planets without surmising a missing link in the chain of their knowledge, so is it with

early typography. That such finished works as the first editions of the Bible and Psalter could be the legitimate predecessors of the Costeriana, the Bruges, the Westminster press, and others, I cannot reconcile with the internal evidence of their workmanship. But admit the existence of an earlier and much ruder school of typography, and all is plain and harmonious"—W. Blades, *Books in Chains, and other Bibliographical Papers*, pp. 149-158.

ALSO IN: J. H. Hessels, *Gutenberg: was he the Inventor of Printing?*—C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopædia of Literary and Typographical Anecdotes*, pp. 101-120—H. N. Humphreys, *Hist. of the Art of Printing*, ch. 3-4

A. D. 1457-1489.—Progress and diffusion of the art.—After the Mazarine Bible, "then follows the Kalendar for the year 1457, most probably printed at the end of 1456. Then again the printed dates, August 14, 1457 and 1459, with place (Mentz) in the colophons of the Psalter issued by Fust and Schoeffer, the printed year 1460 (with Mentz added) in the Catholicon [a Latin Grammar and Dictionary], &c. &c. So that, with the exception of 1458, there is no interruption in Mentz printing from the moment that we see it begin there. As regards the printed psalter, its printers are mentioned distinctly in the book itself, but the other books just mentioned are assumed to have been issued by the same two Mentz printing offices which are supposed to be already at work there in 1454, though the 1460 Catholicon and some of the other works are ascribed by some to other printers. By the side of these dates, we find already a Bible completed in 1460 by Mentelin at Strassburg, according to a MS. note in the copy preserved at Freiburg.

Assuming then, for a moment, that Mentz is the starting point, we see printing spread to Strassburg in 1460, to Bamberg in 1461; to Subiaco in 1465, in 1466 (perhaps already in 1463) it is established at Cologne, in 1467 at Eltville, Rome, in 1468 at Augsburg, Basle, Marienthal, in 1469 at Venice, 1470 at Nuremberg, Verona, Foligno, Trevi, Savigliano, Paris; 1471 at Spire, Bologna, Ferrara, Florence, Milan, Naples, Pavia, Treviso, 1472 at Esslingen, Cremona, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Monreale, Fivizzano, Verona, 1473 at Laugingen, Ulm (perhaps here earlier), Merseburg, Alost, Utrecht, Lyons, Brescia, Messina, 1474 at Louvain, Genoa, Como, Savona, Turin, Vicenza, 1475 at Lubeck, Breslau, Blaubeuren, Burgdorf, Modena, Reggio, Cagli, Caselle or Casale, Saragossa, 1476 at Rostock, Bruges (here earlier?), Brussels; 1477 at Reichenstein, Deventer, Gouda, Delft, Westminster; 1478 at Oxford, St. Maartensdyk, Colle, Schusseneid, Eichstadt, 1479 at Erfurt, Würzburg, Nymegen, Zwolle, Poitiers, 1480 at London [?], Oudenaarde, Hasselt, Reggio; 1481 at Passau, Leipzig, Magdeburg, Treves, Urach; 1482 at Reutlingen, Memmingen, Metz, Antwerp; 1483 at Leiden, Kuilenburg, Ghent, Haarlem, 1484 at Bois-le-Duc, Siena, 1485 at Heidelberg, Regensburg; 1486 at Munster, Stuttgart, 1487 at Ingolstadt; 1488 at Stendal; 1489 at Hagenau, &c."—J. H. Hessels, *Haarlem the Birth-place of Printing, not Mentz*, ch. 4.

A. D. 1469-1515.—The early Venetian printers.—The Aldine Press.—"One of the famous first race of German printers, John of Spire, arrived at Venice in the year 1469, and immediately brought his art into full play; producing within

the first three months his fine edition of the 'Letters of Cicero,' a masterpiece of early printing. . . . The success of John of Spire as a printer was at once recognized by the Venetian Republic, and Pasquale Malpietro, the reigning Doge, granted a patent conferring upon him the sole right of printing books within the territory of Venice. . . . But the enterprising printer did not live to enjoy the privilege," and it was not continued to any of his family. "On the withdrawal of the monopoly several new printers set up their Presses in the city, among whom was the celebrated Jenson, the ingenious Frenchman who was sent by Charles VII. to acquire the art at Mayence. . . . John Emeric, of Udenheim, was another of the German printers who immediately succeeded John and Vindelino of Spire; and still more successful, though somewhat later in the field, was Erard Ratdolt. . . . He [Ratdolt] is said to have been the first to adopt a regular form of Title at all approaching our modern conception of a Book Title, and he also took the lead in the production of those beautifully engraved initials for which the books printed in Italy towards the close of the 15th century are famous. His most splendid work is undoubtedly the 'Elements of Euclid, with the Commentaries of Campanus'. . . . Nicholas Jenson was the most renowned of those who followed the earliest German printers in Venice, until his works were partially eclipsed by those of the Aldi. In 1470 he [Jenson] had . . . completed his preparations, and the first four works which issued from his Venetian press appeared in that year. . . . These works were printed with Roman characters of his own engraving, more perfect in form than those of any previous printer. His types are in fact the direct parents of the letters now in general use, which only differ from them in certain small details dependent solely on fashion. . . . This celebrated printer died in September of the year 1481. . . . Andrea Torresani and others continued Jenson's Association, making use of the same types. Torresani was eventually succeeded in the same establishment by the celebrated Aldo Manuccio, who, having married his daughter, adopted the important vocation of printer, and became the first of those famous 'Aldi,' as they are commonly termed, whose fame has not only absorbed that of all the earlier Venetian printers, but that of the early printers of every other Italian seat of the art. . . . It was Manuccio who, among many other advances in this art, first invented the semi cursive style of character now known as 'Italic,' and it is said that it was founded upon a close imitation of the careful handwriting of Petrarch, which, in fact, it closely resembles. This new type was used for a small octavo edition of 'Virgil,' issued in 1501, on the appearance of which he obtained from Pope Leo X. a letter of privilege, entitling him to the sole use of the new type which he had invented." The list of the productions of the elder Aldus and his son Paul "comprises nearly all the great works of antiquity, and of the best Italian authors of their own time. From their learning and general accomplishments, the Aldi might have occupied a brilliant position as scholars and authors, but preferred the useful labour of giving correctly to the world the valuable works of others. The Greek editions of the elder Aldus form the basis of his true glory, especially the

'Aristotle,' printed in 1495, a work of almost inconceivable labour and perseverance."—H. N. Humphreys, *Hist. of the Art of Printing*, ch. 8.—"Aldus and his studio and all his precious manuscripts disappeared during the troubled years of the great Continental war in which all the world was against Venice [see VENICE: A. D. 1508-1509]. In 1510, 1511, and 1512, scarcely any book proceeded from his press. . . . After the war Aldus returned to his work with renewed fervour. 'It is difficult,' says Renouard, 'to form an idea of the passion with which he devoted himself to the reproduction of the great works of ancient literature. If he heard of the existence anywhere of a manuscript unpublished, or which could throw a light upon an existing text, he never rested till he had it in his possession. He did not shrink from long journeys, great expenditure, applications of all kinds' . . . It is not in this way however that the publisher, that much questioned and severely criticised middleman, makes a fortune. And Aldus died poor. His privileges did not stand him in much stead, copyright, especially when not in books but in new forms of type, being non-existent in his day. In France and Germany, and still nearer home, his beautiful Italic was robbed from him, copied on all sides, notwithstanding the protection granted by the Pope and other princes as well as by the Venetian Signoria. His fine editions were printed from, and made the foundation of foreign issues which replaced his own. How far his princely patrons stood by him to repair his losses there seems no information. His father-in-law, Andrea of Asola, a printer who was not so fine a scholar, but perhaps more able to cope with the world, did come to his aid, and his son Paolo Manutio, and his grandson Aldo il Giovane, as he is called, succeeded him in turn."—Mrs. Oliphant, *The Makers of Venice*, pt. 4, ch. 3.—Aldus died in 1515. His son Paul left Venice for Rome in 1562.

A. D. 1476-1491.—Introduction in England.—The Caxton Press.—"It was probably at the press of Colard Mansion, in a little room over the porch of St. Donat's at Bruges, that William Caxton learned the art which he was the first to introduce into England. A Kentish boy by birth, but apprenticed to a London mercer, Caxton had already spent thirty years of his manhood in Flanders as Governor of the English gild of Merchant Adventurers there, when we find him engaged as copyist in the service of Edward's sister, Duchess Margaret of Burgundy. But the tedious process of copying was soon thrown aside for the new art which Colard Mansion had introduced into Bruges. . . . The printing-press was the precious freight he brought back to England in 1476 after an absence of five-and-thirty years. Through the next fifteen, at an age when other men look for ease and retirement, we see him plunging with characteristic energy into his new occupation. His 'red pale' or heraldic shield marked with a red bar down the middle invited buyers to the press he established in the Almonry at Westminster, a little enclosure containing a chapel and almshouses near the west front of the church, where the alms of the abbey were distributed to the poor. . . . Caxton was a practical man of business, . . . no rival of the Venetian Aldi or of the classical printers of Rome, but resolved to get a living from his trade, supplying priests with service

books and preachers with sermons, furnishing the clerk with his 'Golden Legend' and knight and baron with 'joyous and pleasant histories of chivalry.' But while careful to win his daily bread, he found time to do much for what of higher literature lay fairly to hand. He printed all the English poetry of any moment which was then in existence. His reverence for that 'worshipful man, Geoffrey Chaucer,' who 'ought to be eternally remembered,' is shown not merely by his edition of the 'Canterbury Tales,' but by his reprint of them when a purer text of the poem offered itself. The poems of Lydgate and Gower were added to those of Chaucer. The Chronicle of Brut and Higden's 'Polychronicon' were the only available works of an historical character then existing in the English tongue, and Caxton not only printed them but himself continued the latter up to his own time. A translation of Boethius, a version of the Enelid from the French, and a tract or two of Cicero, were the stray first-fruits of the classical press in England. Busy as was Caxton's printing-press, he was even busier as a translator than as a printer. More than four thousand of his printed pages are from works of his own rendering. The need of these translations shows the popular drift of literature at the time; but keen as the demand seems to have been, there is nothing mechanical in the temper with which Caxton prepared to meet it. A natural, simple-hearted taste and enthusiasm, especially for the style and forms of language, breaks out in his curious prefaces. . . . But the work of translation involved a choice of English which made Caxton's work important in the history of our language. He stood between two schools of translation, that of French affectation and English pedantry. It was a moment when the character of our literary tongue was being settled, and it is curious to see in his own words the struggle over it which was going on in Caxton's time. 'Some honest and great clerks have been with me and desired me to write the most curious terms that I could find,' on the other hand, 'some gentlemen of late blamed me, saying that in my translations I had over many curious terms which could not be understood of common people, and desired me to use old and homely terms in my translations.' 'Fain would I please every man,' comments the good-humoured printer, but his sturdy sense saved him alike from the temptations of the court and the schools. His own taste pointed to English, but 'to the common terms that be daily used' rather than to the English of his antiquarian advisers. 'I took an old book and read therein, and certainly the English was so rude and broad I could not well understand it,' while the Old-English charters which the Abbot of Westminster lent as models from the archives of his house seemed 'more like to Dutch than to English.' To adopt current phraseology however was by no means easy at a time when even the speech of common talk was in a state of rapid flux. . . . Coupling this with his long absence in Flanders we can hardly wonder at the confession he makes over his first translation, that 'when all these things came to fore me, after that I had made and written a five or six quires, I fell in despair of this work, and purposed never to have continued therein, and the quires laid apart, and in two years after laboured as

more in this work.' He was still however busy translating when he died [in 1491]. All difficulties in fact were lightened by the general interest which his labours aroused. When the length of the 'Golden Legend' makes him 'half desperate to have accomplished it' and ready to 'lay it apart,' the Earl of Arundel solicits him in no wise to leave it and promises a yearly fee of a buck in summer and a doe in winter, once it were done. 'Many noble and divers gentle men of this realm came and demanded many and often times wherefore I have not made and imprinted the noble history of the San Graal' . . . Caxton profited in fact by the wide literary interest which was a mark of the time"—J R Green, *Hist. of the English People*, bk 5, ch 1 (v. 2) —"Contemporary with Caxton were the printers Lettou and Machlinia, who carried on business in the city of London, where they established a press in 1480. Machlinia had previously worked under Caxton . . . Wynkyn de Worde . . . in all probability . . . was one of Caxton's assistants or workmen, when the latter was living at Bruges, but without doubt he was employed in his office at Westminster until 1491, when he commenced business on his own account, having in his possession a considerable quantity of Caxton's type. Wynkyn de Worde, who was one of the founders of the Stationers' Company, died in 1534, after having printed no less than 410 books known to bibliographers, the earliest of which bearing a date is the 'Liber Festivalis,' 4to, 1493."—J H Slater, *Book Collecting*, ch. 9

ALSO IN: C Knight, *William Caxton*—C H Timperley, *Encyclop. of Literary and Typographical Anecdote*, pp 188-194—T C. Hansard, *Hist. and Process of Printing* ("The Five Black Arts," ch. 1)—*Gentleman's Magazine Library Bibliographical Notes, and Literary Curiosities*

A. D. 1496-1598.—The Estienne or Stephanus Press in Paris.—"With the names of Aldus and Elzevir we are all acquainted, the name of Estienne, or Stephanus, has a less familiar sound to English ears, though the family of Parisian printers was as famous in its day as the great houses of Venice and Leyden. The most brilliant member of it was the second Henry, whose story forms a melancholy episode in French literary history of the 16th century . . . The Estiennes are said to have come of a noble Provençal family, but nothing is exactly known of their descent. The art of printing was not much more than fifty years old when Henry Estienne, having learnt his trade in Germany, came to Paris, and set up his press [about 1496] in the Rue Saint Jean de Beauvais, opposite the school of Canon Law. There for some twenty years he laboured diligently, bringing out in that time no less than 130 volumes, chiefly folios. The greater number of these are theological and scholastic works; among the few modern authors on the list is the name of Erasmus. Henry Estienne died in 1580 leaving three sons. Robert, the second of them, was born probably in 1503. The boys all being minors, the business passed into the hands of their mother, who in the following year married Simon de Colines, her late husband's foreman, and perhaps partner. . . . Robert worked with De Colines for five or six years before he went into business on his own account in the same street." It was he who first gave celebrity to the name and the press. "The

spell of the Renaissance had early fallen upon the young printer, and it held him captive almost till the end of his life." He married "the daughter of the learned Flemish printer Jodocus Badius, notable for her culture and her beauty. Latin was the ordinary language of the household. The children learned it in infancy from hearing it constantly spoken . . . At one time ten foreign scholars lived in Estienne's house to assist him in selecting and revising his manuscripts and in correcting his proofs. Both Francis [King Francis I] and his sister Marguerite of Navarre had a great regard for Robert, and often visited the workshop, to that royal patronage the printer was more than once indebted for his liberty and his life." His danger came from the bigoted Sorbonne, with whom he brought himself into collision by printing the Bible with as careful a correction of the text as he had performed in the case of the Latin classics. After the death of Francis I, the peril of the printer's situation became more serious, and in 1550 he fled to Geneva, renouncing the Roman Catholic faith. He died there in 1559—H C. Macdowall, *An old French Printer* (*Macmillan's Mag.*, Nov. 1892).—The second Henry Estienne, son of Robert, either did not accompany his father to Geneva, or soon returned to Paris, and founded anew the Press of his family, bringing to it even more learning than his father, with equal laboriousness and zeal. He died at Lyons in 1598—E. Greswell, *A View of the Early Parisian Greek Press*

A. D. 1535-1709.—Introduction in America.—The first Spanish printing in Mexico.—The early Massachusetts Press.—Restrictions upon its freedom.—"The art of printing was first introduced into Spanish America, as early as the middle of the 16th century. The historians whose works I have consulted are all silent as to the time when it was first practiced on the American continent, . . . but it is certain that printing was executed, both in Mexico and Peru, long before it made its appearance in the British North American colonies. [The precise date of the introduction of printing into Mexico was for a long time in doubt. When Mr. Thomas wrote his 'History of Printing in America,' early works on America were rare, and it is probable that there was not one in the country printed in either America or Europe in the 16th century, except the copy of Molina's dictionary; now many of the period may be found in our great private libraries. The dictionary of Molina, in Mexican and Spanish, printed in Mexico, in 1571, in folio, was, by many, asserted and believed to be the earliest book printed in America. . . . No one here had seen an earlier book until the 'Doctrina Christiana,' printed in the house of Juan Cromberger, in the city of Mexico, in the year 1544, was discovered. Copies of this rare work were found in two well known private libraries in New York and Providence. For a long time the honor was awarded to this as the earliest book printed in America. But there is now strong evidence that printing was really introduced in Mexico nine years before that time, and positive evidence, by existing books, that a press was established in 1540. Readers familiar with early books relating to Mexico have seen mention of a book printed there as early as 1535, . . . the 'Spiritual Ladder' of St John Climacus. . . . It seems that no copy of the 'Spiritual

Ladder' has ever been seen in recent times, and the quoted testimonials are the only ones yet found which refer to it — *Note by Hon. John R. Bartlett, app. A, giving a 'List of Books printed in Mexico between the years 1540 and 1560 inclusive.'*

In January, 1689, printing was first performed in that part of North America which extends from the Gulf of Mexico to the Frozen ocean. For this press our country is chiefly indebted to the Rev. Mr. Glover, a nonconformist minister, who possessed a considerable estate. Another press, with types, and another printer, were, in 1660, sent over from England by the corporation for propagating the gospel among the Indians in New England. This press, &c., was designed solely for the purpose of printing the Bible, and other books, in the Indian language. On their arrival they were carried to Cambridge, and employed in the printing house already established in that place.

The fathers of Massachusetts kept a watchful eye on the press, and in neither a religious nor civil point of view were they disposed to give it much liberty. In 1662, the government of Massachusetts appointed licensers of the press, and afterward, in 1664, passed a law that 'no printing should be allowed in any town within the jurisdiction, except in Cambridge', nor should any thing be printed there but what the government permitted through the agency of those persons who were empowered for the purpose.

In a short time, this law was so far repealed as to permit the use of a press at Boston. It does not appear that the press, in Massachusetts, was free from legal restraints till about the year 1755 [see below. A. D. 1704-1739]. Except in Massachusetts, no presses were set up in the colonies till near the close of the 17th century. Printing then [1686] was performed in Pennsylvania [by William Bradford], 'near Philadelphia' [at Shackamaxon, now Kensington], and afterward in that city, by the same press which, in a few years subsequent, was removed to New York [see below. A. D. 1685-1693, also, PENNSYLVANIA. A. D. 1692-1696]. The use of types commenced in Virginia about 1681, in 1682 the press was prohibited. In 1709 a press was established at New London, in Connecticut — I. Thomas, *Hist. of Printing in Am., 2d ed. (Trans. and Coll. of the Am. Antiq. Soc., v. 5), v. 1, pp. 1-17.*

Also in: J. L. Bishop, *Hist. of Am. Manufactures, v. 1, ch. 7.*

A. D. 1612-1650.—Origin of printed newspapers.—The newspaper defined.—Its earliest appearances in Germany and Italy.—"Lally-Tollendal, in his 'Life of Queen Elizabeth,' in the 'Biographie Universelle' (vol. xiii, published in 1815, p. 56) . . . remarks that 'as far as the publication of an official journal is concerned, France can claim the priority by more than half a century, for in the Royal Library at Paris there is a bulletin of the campaign of Louis XII in Italy in 1509.' He then gives the title of this 'bulletin,' from which it clearly appears that it is not a political journal, but an isolated piece of news—a kind of publication of which there are hundreds in existence of a date anterior to 1688 [formerly supposed to be the date of the first English newspaper—see below: A. D. 1622-1702], and of which there is no doubt that thousands were issued. There is, for instance, in the British Museum a French pamphlet of six printed

leaves, containing an account of the surrender of Granada to Ferdinand and Isabella on the 'first of January last past' (le premier jour de janvier dernièrement passé), in the year 1492; and there are also the three editions of the celebrated letter of Columbus, giving the first account of the discovery of America, all printed at Rome in 1493. Nay, one of the very earliest productions of the German press was an official manifesto of Diether, Archbishop of Cologne, against Count Adolph of Nassau, very satisfactorily proved to have been printed at Mentz in 1462. There is among the German bibliographers a technical name for this class of printed documents, which are called 'Relations.' In fact, in order to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion with regard to the origin of newspapers, it is requisite, in the first place, to settle with some approach to precision what a newspaper is. Four classes of publications succeeded to each other from the 15th to the 19th century, to which the term has by different writers been applied: 1st. Accounts of individual public transactions of recent occurrence. 2nd. Accounts in one publication of several public transactions of recent occurrence, only connected together by having taken place about the same period, so as at one time to form the 'news of the day.' 3rd. Accounts similar to those of the second class, but issued in a numbered series. 4th. Accounts similar to those of the second class, but issued not only in a numbered series, but at stated intervals. The notices of the surrender of Granada and the discovery of America belong to the first class, and so also do the last dying speeches, which are in our own time cried about the streets. These surely are not newspapers. The *Times* and *Daily News* [London] belong to the fourth class, and these, of course, are newspapers. Are not, in fact, all the essentials of a newspaper comprised in the definition of the second class, which it may be as well to repeat: 'Accounts in one publication of several public transactions of recent occurrence, only connected together by having taken place about the same period, so as at one time to form the news of the day.' Let us take an instance. There is preserved in the British Museum a collection of several volumes of interesting publications issued in Italy between 1640 and 1650, and containing the news of the times. They are of a small folio size, and consist in general of four pages, but sometimes of six, sometimes only of two. There is a series for the month of December, 1644, consisting entirely of the news from Rome. The first line of the first page runs thus — 'Di Roma,' with the date, first of the 3rd, then of the 10th, then the 17th, then the 24th, and lastly the 31st of December, showing that a number was published every week, most probably on the arrival of the post from Rome. The place of publication was Florence, and the same publishers who issued this collection of the news from Rome, sent forth in the same month of December, 1644, two other similar gazettes, at similar intervals, one of the news from Genoa, the other of the news from Germany and abroad. That this interesting series of publications, which is well worthy of a minute examination and a detailed description, is in reality a series of newspapers, will, I believe, be questioned by very few; but each individual number presents no mark by which, if separately met with, it could be known to form part of a set. The

most minute researches on the history of newspapers in Germany are, as already mentioned, those of Prutz, who has collected notices of a large number of the 'relations,' though much remains to be gleaned. There are, for instance, in Van Heusde's Catalogue of the Library at Utrecht (Utrecht, 1835, folio), the titles of nearly a hundred of them, all as early as the sixteenth century, and the British Museum possesses a considerable quantity, all of recent acquisition. Prutz has no notice of the two that have been mentioned, and, like all preceding writers, he draws no distinction between the publications of the first class and the second. The view that he takes is, that no publication which does not answer to the definition of what I have termed the fourth class is entitled to the name of a newspaper. There was in the possession of Professor Grellman a publication called an 'Aviso' numbered as '14,' and published in 1612, which has been considered by many German writers as their earliest newspaper, but Prutz denies that honour to it, on the ground of there being no proof that it was published at stated intervals. In the year 1615 Egenolph Emmel, of Frankfort-on-the-Main, issued a weekly intelligence numbered in a series, and this according to Prutz, is the proper claimant. Its history has been traced with some minuteness in a separate dissertation by Schwarzkopf, who has also the credit of having published in 1795 the first general essay on newspapers of any value, and to have followed up the subject in a series of articles in the Allgemeine Litterarische Anzeiger. The claims of Italy have yet to be considered. Prutz dismisses them very summarily, because as he says, the Venetian gazettes of the sixteenth century, said to be preserved at Florence, are in manuscript, and it is essential to the definition of a newspaper that it should be printed. These Venetian gazettes have never, so far as I am aware, been described at all, they may be mere 'news-letters,' or they may be something closely approaching to the modern newspaper. But I am strongly inclined to believe that something of the second class of Italian origin will turn up in the great libraries of Europe when further research is devoted to the subject. The existence of these 'gazettes' in so many languages furnishes strong ground for supposing that the popularity of newspapers originated in Italy.—T. Watts, *The fabricated "Earliest English News paper" (Gentleman's Mag., 1850, reprinted in the Gentleman's Magazine Library; Bibliographical Notes, pp. 146-150)*

A. D. 1617-1680.—The Elzevirs.—"Just as the house of Aldus waned and expired, that of the great Dutch printers, the Elzevirs, began obscurely enough at Leyden in 1583. The Elzevirs were not, like Aldus, ripe scholars and men of devotion to learning. Aldus laboured for the love of noble studies; the Elzevirs were acute, and too often 'smart' men of business. The founder of the family was Louis (born at Louvain, 1548, died 1617). But it was in the second and third generations that Bonaventura and Abraham Elzevir began to publish at Leyden their editions in small duodecimo. Like Aldus, these Elzevirs aimed at producing books at once handy, cheap, correct, and beautiful in execution. Their advantage was a complete success. The Elzevirs did not, like Aldus, surround themselves with the most learned scholars of their

time. Their famous literary adviser, Heinsius, was full of literary jealousies, and kept students of his own calibre at a distance. The classical editions of the Elzevirs, beautiful, but too small in type for modern eyes, are anything but exquisitely correct. The ordinary marks of the Elzevirs were the sphere, the old hermit, the Athena, the eagle, and the burning faggot. But all little old books marked with spheres are not Elzevirs, as many booksellers suppose. Other printers also stole the designs for the tops of chapters, the Aegipan, the Siren, the head of Medusa, the crossed sceptres, and the rest. In some cases the Elzevirs published their books, especially when they were piracies, anonymously. When they published for the Jansenists, they allowed their clients to put fantastic pseudonyms on the title pages. But, except in four cases, they had only two pseudonyms used on the titles of books published by and for themselves. These disguises are 'Jean Sambix' for Jean and Daniel Elzevir, at Leyden, and for the Elzevirs of Amsterdam, 'Jacques le Jeune.' The last of the great representatives of the house, Daniel, died at Amsterdam, 1680. Abraham, an unworthy scion, struggled on at Leyden till 1712. The family still prospers, but no longer prints, in Holland.—A. Lang, *The Library*, ch. 3.—"Though Elzevirs have been more fashionable than at present, they are still regarded by novelists as the great prize of the book collector. You read in novels about 'priceless little Elzevirs,' about books 'as rare as an old Elzevir.' I have met, in the works of a lady novelist (but not elsewhere) with an Elzevir 'Theocritus.' The late Mr. Hopworth Dixon introduced into one of his romances a romantic Elzevir Greek Testament, 'worth its weight in gold.' Casual remarks of this kind encourage a popular delusion that all Elzevirs are pearls of considerable price.—The same, *Books and Bookmen*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN J. H. Slater, *Book Collecting*, ch. 8.

A. D. 1622-1702.—The first printed Newspaper and the first daily Newspaper in England.—Up to 1839 (when Mr. Watts, of the British Museum, exposed the forgery) the world was led to believe that the first English newspaper appeared in 1588. Mr. Watts "ascertained that 'The English Mercurie,' which Mr. George Chalmers first discovered on the shelves of the British Museum, and which was said to have been 'imprinted in London by her highness's printer 1588' was a forgery, for which the second Earl of Hardwicke appears to be answerable." As to the actual date of the appearance of the first printed newspaper in England, "Mr. Knight Hunt, in his 'Fourth Estate,' speaks confidently. . . . 'There is now no reason to doubt,' he says, 'that the puny ancestor of the myriads of broad sheets of our time was published in the metropolis in 1622; and that the most prominent of the ingenious speculators who offered the novelty to the world, was one Nathaniel Butter.' As the printing press had then been at work in England for a century and a half, Caxton having established himself in Westminster Abbey in 1471, and as manuscript news-letters had been current for many years previous to 1622, one cannot help wondering that the inventive wits of that age should have been so slow in finding out this excellent mode of turning Faust's invention to profitable account. Butter's journal was called—'The

Weekly Newses,' a name which still survives, although the original possessor of that title has long since gone the way of all newspapers. The first number in the British Museum collection bears date the 23rd of May, 1622, and contains 'news from Italy, Germany,' &c. The last number made its appearance on the 9th of January 1640, a memorable year, in which the Short Parliament, dismissed by King Charles 'in a huff,' after a session of three weeks, was succeeded by the Long Parliament, which unlucky Charles could not manage quite so easily.

It was nearly a century after 'The Weekly Newses' made its first appearance, before a daily newspaper was attempted. When weekly papers had become firmly established, some of the more enterprising printers began to publish their sheets twice, and ultimately three times a week. Thus at the beginning of last century we find several papers informing the public that they are 'published every Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday morning.' One of the most respectable looking was entitled 'The New State of Europe,' or a 'True Account of Public Transactions and Learning.' It consisted of two pages of thin, coarse paper, and contained altogether about as much matter as there is in a single column of the 'Times' of 1855. The custom at that period was to publish the newspaper on a folio or quarto sheet, two pages of which were left blank to be used for correspondence. This is expressly stated in a standing advertisement in the 'New State of Europe,' in which the names of certain booksellers are given 'where any person may have this paper with a blank half sheet to write their own private affairs.' . . . The first number of the 'Daily Courant' [the first daily newspaper in England] was published on the 11th of March, 1702, just three days after the accession of Queen Anne. . . . As regards the form and size of the new journal, the 'author' condescends to give the following information, with a growling remark at the impertinence of the 'Postboys,' 'Postmen,' 'Mercuries,' and 'Intelligencers' of that day.—'This "Courant" (as the title shows) will be published Daily, being designed to give all the Material News as soon as every Post arrives, and is confined to half the compass to save the Publick at least half the Impertinences of ordinary Newspapers.' In addition to the Prospectus we have quoted, the first number of the 'Daily Courant' contains only nine paragraphs, five of which were translated from the 'Harlem Courant,' three from the 'Paris Gazette,' and one from the 'Amsterdam Courant.' They all relate to the war of the Spanish Succession then waging, or to the attempts making by diplomats to settle the affairs of the Continent at some kind of Vienna or Utrecht Conference. After adhering for several weeks to the strict rule of giving only one page of news, and those entirely foreign, the 'Courant' begins to show certain symptoms of improvement. The number for April 22, contains two pages of news and advertisements. . . . The alteration in the getting-up of the 'Courant' was owing to a change of proprietorship. The paper had now come into the hands of 'Sam Buckley, at the Dolphin, Little Britain.' . . . Mr. Samuel Buckley, who continued to publish and conduct the 'Daily Courant' for many years, was a notable man among London publishers, as we find from various references to him in the fugitive literature of that age.—*The London Daily Press* (*Westminster Rev.*, October, 1855).

ture of that age.—*The London Daily Press* (*Westminster Rev.*, October, 1855).

A. D. 1631.—The first printed Newspaper in France.—Dr. Renaudot and his "Gazette."—"The first Frenchman to found a printed newspaper was Dr Théophraste Renaudot, who obtained the King's privilege for the 'Gazette de France' in 1631. . . . He was a shrewd man, born at London in 1567, brought up in Paris, but graduate of the Faculty of Montpellier. In 1612, being then twenty-six, he returned to the capital, and somehow got appointed at once doctor to the King. But there was no salary attached to this post, which was in his case purely honorary, and so Renaudot opened a school, though the fact that he, a mere provincial doctor, had obtained a medical appointment at court, was very sore to the Paris Faculty of Medicine, who began to annoy him from that moment. Renaudot, however, was a man far ahead of his contemporaries in sagacity, patience, learning and humanity. Petty spite did not disturb him, or at least it did not deter him from executing any of the numerous plans he had in mind for the welfare of his contemporaries. . . . This extraordinary man not only inaugurated in France an Estate, Professional and Servants' Agency, as well as an office for private sales and exchanges, but further laid the basis of the Poste Restante, Parcels Delivery, Post-Office Directory, Tourist's Guide and Money Order Office, besides affording an outlet to troubled spirits like those who correspond through the agony column of 'The Times.' It is not surprising that his office in the Rue de la Calandre should soon have been all too small for its multifarious duties and that his original staff of six clerks should, in less than three months, have swelled to fifty. Richelieu, in sheer admiration at the man, sent for him and thanked him for the services he was rendering the King's subjects. He also offered him money to extend his offices, and this Renaudot accepted, but only as a loan. It was his custom to levy a commission of six deniers per livre (franc) on the sales he effected, and by means of these and other receipts he soon repaid the Cardinal every penny that had been advanced to him. But he did more than this. Finding that his registers were not always convenient modes of reference, by reason of the excessive crowds which pressed round them, he brought out a printed advertiser, which is almost the exact prototype of a journal at present well known in London. It was called 'Feuille du Bureau d'Adresses,' and appeared every Saturday, at the price of 1 sou. Opinions differ as to whether this paper preceded the 'Gazette de France,' or was issued simultaneously with it. Probably it was first published in manuscript form, but came out in print at least six months before the 'Gazette,' for a number bearing the date of June 14th, 1631, shows a periodical in full organisation and containing indirect references to advertisements which must have appeared several weeks before. At all events this 'Feuille' was purely an advertisement sheet—a forerunner of the 'Petites Affiches' which were reprinted in 1746—it was in no sense a newspaper. . . . It is clear that from the moment he started his 'Feuille du Bureau d'Adresses,' Renaudot must have conceived the possibility of founding a news-sheet. . . . The manuscript News Letters had attained, by the year 1630, to such a pitch

of perfection, and found such a ready sale, that the notion of further popularising them by printing must have suggested itself to more than one man before it was actually put into practice. But the great bar was this, that nothing could be printed without the King's privilege, and this privilege was not lightly granted . . . Renaudot, who had no wish to publish tattle, had no reason to fear censorship. He addressed himself to Richelieu, and craved leave to start a printed newspaper under royal patronage. The politic Cardinal was quite shrewd enough to see how useful might be to him an organ which would set information before the public in the manner he desired, and in that manner alone, so he granted all Renaudot wished, in the form of 'letters patent,' securing him an entire monopoly of printing newspapers, and moreover he conferred on his protégé the pompous title of Historiographer of France. The first number of the 'Gazette de France' appeared on Friday, May 30, 1631. Its size was four quarto pages, and its price one sol parisien, i. e. 4d., worth about 1½d. modern money. . . . The first number contained no preface or address, nothing in the way of a leading article, but plunged at once in medias res, and gave news from nineteen foreign towns or countries, but oddly enough, not a line of French intelligence. . . . The bulk of the matter inserted was furnished direct by Richelieu from the Foreign Office, and several of the paragraphs were written in his own hand. . . . The publication of the 'Gazette' was continued uninterruptedly from week to week, but the press of matter was so great that Renaudot took to issuing a Supplement with the last number of every month. In this he condensed the reports of the preceding numbers, corrected errors, added fresh news, and answered his detractors. . . . At the end of the year 1631 he suppressed his monthly Supplement, increased the 'Gazette' to eight pages, and announced that for the future he would issue Supplements as they were needed. It seems they were needed pretty often, for towards the beginning of the year 1633 Renaudot published Supplements, under the title of 'Ordinaries and Extraordinaries,' as often as twice, and even three times in one week. In fact whenever a budget of news arrived which would nowadays justify a special edition, the indefatigable editor set his criers afoot with a fresh printed sheet, shouting, 'Buy the "Extraordinary," containing the account of the superb burial of the King of Denmark!' or, 'Buy and read of the capture of the beautiful island of Curaçoe in the Indies by the Dutch from the Spaniards!' Renaudot understood the noble art of puffing. He dressed his criers in red, and gave them a trumpet apiece to go and bray the praises of the 'Gazette' on the off days, when the paper did not appear. . . . On the death of Renaudot, he was succeeded by his sons Eusèbe and Isaac, who in their turn bequeathed the 'Gazette' to Eusèbe junior, son of the elder brother, who took orders and consequently left no progeny. After this the 'Gazette' became Government property. . . . In 1763 the 'Gazette' was annexed to the Foreign Office Department. . . . The 'Gazette de France' continued to appear under royal patronage until May 1st, 1793, when its official ties were snapped and it came out as a private and republican journal with the date 'Fourth Year of Freedom.' The

'Gazette' has flourished with more or less brilliancy ever since, and has been for the last fifty years a legitimist organ, read chiefly in the provinces."—*The French Press* (Cornhill Mag. June, 1873)

A. D. 1637.—Archbishop Laud's Star-Chamber restriction of printing.—On the 11th of July, 1637, "Archbishop Laud procured a decree to be passed in the star chamber, by which it was ordered, that the master printers should be reduced to twenty in number, and that if any other should secretly, or openly, pursue the trade of printing, he should be set in the pillory, or whipped through the streets, and suffer such other punishment as the court should inflict upon him; that none of the master printers should print any book or books of divinity, law, physic, philosophy, or poetry, till the said books, together with the titles, epistles, prefaces, tables, or commendatory verses, should be lawfully licensed, on pain of losing the exercise of his art, and being proceeded against in the star chamber, &c.; that no person should reprint any book without a new license, that every merchant, bookseller, &c., who should import any book or books, should present a catalogue of them to the archbishop or bishop, &c., before they were delivered, or exposed to sale, who should view them, with power to seize those that were schismatical; and, that no merchant, &c., should print or cause to be printed abroad, any book, or books, which either entirely or for the most part, were written in the English tongue, nor knowingly import any such books, upon pain of being proceeded against in the star chamber, or high commission court. That there should be four founders of letters for printing, and no more. That the archbishop of Canterbury, or the bishop of London, with six other high commissioners, shall supply the places of those four as they shall become void. That no master founder shall keep above two apprentices at one time. That all journeymen founders be employed by the masters of the trade, and that all the idle journeymen be compelled to work upon pain of imprisonment, and such other punishment as the court shall think fit. That no master founder of letters shall employ any other person in any work belonging to casting and founding of letters than freemen and apprentices to the trade, save only in putting off the knots of metal hanging at the end of the letters when they are first cast; in which work every master founder may employ one boy only, not bound to the trade."—C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopædia of Literary and Typographical Anecdote*, p. 490.

A. D. 1647.—Renewed ordinance, in England, against the printers.—"An ordinance of parliament passed the house of lords on this day [September 30, 1647], that no person shall make, write, print, sell, publish or utter, or cause to be made, &c., any book, pamphlet, treatise, ballad, libel, sheet, or sheets of news whatsoever (except the same be licensed by both or either house of parliament,) under the penalty of 40s. and an imprisonment not exceeding forty days, if he can not pay it: if a printer, he is to pay a fine of only 20s., or suffer twenty days' imprisonment, and likewise to have his press and implements of printing broken in pieces. The bookseller, or stationer, to pay 10s., or suffer ten days' imprisonment,—and, lastly, the hawk, pedlar, or ballad-singer, to forfeit all his printed

papers exposed to sale, and to be whipped as a common rogue in the parish where he shall be apprehended. Early in the following year, the committee of estates in Scotland passed an act prohibiting the printing under the pain of death, any book, declaration, or writing, until these were first submitted to their revival. . . . One of the consequences of these persecutions was the raising up of a new class of publishers, those who became noted for what was called 'unlawful and unlicensed books' Sparkes, the publisher of *Prynce's Histrionastix*, was of this class. The presbyterian party in parliament, who thus found the press closed on them, vehemently cried out for its freedom, and it was imagined, that when they ascended into power, the odious office of a licenser of the press would have been abolished, but these pretended friends of freedom, on the contrary, discovered themselves as tenderly alive to the office as the old government, and maintained it with the extremest vigour. Both in England and Scotland, during the civil wars, the party in power endeavoured to crush by every means the freedom of the press.' — C. H. Timperley, *Encyclopædia of Literary and Typographical Anecdote*, p. 506.

A. D. 1654-1694.—Freedom of the press under Cromwell.—Censorship under the restored Stuarts.—Roger L'Estrange and the first news reporters.—During the Protectorate of Cromwell the newspaper press knew . . . what it was to enjoy the luxury of freedom. The natural result was that a very great increase took place in the number of new political journals. Most of them, however, had only a very brief existence. Many of their number could not boast of a longer life than six or seven months—nay, many of them not so much as even that term of life. But, as might have been expected, from what was known of the antecedents of Charles II., the freedom of the press, which previously existed, came to an immediate end on his ascending the throne. Hardly had he done so, than an edict was issued, prohibiting the publication of any journal except the *London Gazette*, which was originally printed at Oxford, and called the *Oxford Gazette*,—the Court being then resident there on account of the plague raging in London at the time, 1665, when it was commenced, and for some time afterwards. This was an act of pure despotism. But Government at this time reserved to itself the right—a right which there was none to dispute—to publish a broad sheet in connexion with the *London Gazette*, whenever they might deem it expedient, which should contain either foreign or domestic matters of interest,—of the knowledge of which some of the King's subjects might wish to be put in early possession. . . . The newspapers of the seventeenth century were permitted, until the time of Charles II., to be published without being licensed by the Government of the day; but in the reign of that despotic sovereign, a law was passed [1662] prohibiting the publication of any newspaper without being duly licensed. . . . Sir John Birkenhead, . . . one of the three men whom Disraeli the elder called the fathers of the English press, was appointed to the office of Licensor of the Press. But he was soon succeeded by Sir Roger L'Estrange."—J. Grant, *The Newspaper Press*, v. 1, ch. 2.—Roger L'Estrange "is remarkable for having been the writer of the best newspapers

which appeared before the age of Queen Anne, and, at the same time, a most bitter enemy to the freedom of the press. He was appointed licenser or censor in 1663, and in the same year was given authority to publish all newspapers, periodicals, and pamphlets, not exceeding two sheets in size. He appears to have looked upon his newspaper as a noxious thing, suffered to exist only that an income might be created for him in return for the labour of purging the press. Yet he spared no pains to make his *Public Intelligencer* readable, and if we may trust his letters now preserved at the State Paper Office, expended in the first year more than £500 on 'spies for collecting intelligence.' Three years afterwards he estimated the profits at £400 a year. . . . He sent paid correspondents, or 'spies' as they were called to all parts of the country, and even induced some respectable persons, under promise of concealing their names, to contribute occasional paragraphs, these persons were for the most part repaid by sending to them their newspapers and letters free of postage. Another set of 'spies' was employed in picking up the news of the town on Paul's Walk or in the taverns and coffee houses. L'Estrange printed about sixteen reams of his *Intelligencer* weekly, which were for the most part sold by the mercury women who cried them about the streets. One Mrs. Andrews is said to have taken more than one-third of the whole quantity printed. . . . Advantage was taken of a slip in the weekly intelligence to deprive L'Estrange of his monopoly in favour of the new *Oxford Gazette*, published in the winter of 1665 and transferred to London in the ensuing spring. The *Gazette* was placed under the control of Williamson, then a rising under Secretary of State, under whose austere influence nothing was suffered to appear which could excite or even amuse the public. . . . L'Estrange has not been a favourite with historians, and we confess that his harsh measures towards the press are apt to raise a feeling of repugnance. . . . But he was certainly an enthusiastic and industrious writer, who raised the tone of the press, even while taking pains to fetter its liberty. When he lost his monopoly, that era of desolation began which Macaulay has so forcibly described. The newspapers became completely sterile, omitting events even of such importance as the trial of the seven bishops, and were supplanted in popular favour by the manuscript news-letters, which were, in fact, the only journals of importance. On the day after the abdication of James II. three fresh newspapers appeared, and many more burst out after the appearance of the official journal under the style of the *Orange Gazette*. But it was not until 1694 that the king was induced to abolish the censorship and to permit free trade in news; 'he doubted much,' says Hume, 'of the salutary effects of such unlimited freedom.' The newspapers increased and multiplied exceedingly for the eighteen years between the abolition of the office of licenser and the passing of the Stamp Act, in 1712, by which a halfpenny tax was laid on every half-sheet of intelligence."—*Early English Newspapers* (*Obit-hill Mag.*, July, 1868).

A. D. 1685-1693.—William Bradford and his Press in Philadelphia and New York.—William Bradford, a young printer, of the Society of Friends, came to Philadelphia in the autumn

of 1685, and established himself in business. "His first publication was 'Kalendarium Pennsylvaniense, or America's Messenger; Being an Almanack for the Year of Grace 1686.' This brought him a summons before the Governor and Council, for referring to the Proprietary, in the table of chronology, as 'Lord Penn;' and, on his appearance, he was ordered to blot out the objectionable title, and forbidden to print anything without license from the Provincial Council. In 1687 he was cautioned by the Philadelphia meeting not to print anything touching the Quakers without its approval. Two years later he was again called before the Governor, and Council—this time for printing the charter of the province. The spirited report, in his own handwriting, of his examination on this occasion, is now preserved in the collection of the New York Historical Society. Disappointed at the non-fulfilment of Penn's promise of the government printing and the failure of his scheme for printing an English Bible, which, although indorsed by the meeting, found few subscribers, and harassed by both the civil and religious authorities, Bradford determined to leave the province," which he did, with his family, sailing to England in 1689. He was induced, however, by promises of increased business and a yearly salary of £40, to return. In 1692, having become one of the supporters of George Keith, and having printed Keith's "Appeal" (see PENNSYLVANIA: A D. 1692-1696), he was arrested and imprisoned. This occurred in August, and his trial followed in December. The jury disagreed, and he was held for appearance at the next court. "In the meantime the dissensions in the province aroused by the Keithian schism had led to the abrogation of Penn's charter by the crown, and the appointment of Benjamin Fletcher to be Royal Governor of Pennsylvania as well as New York." This change led to the dropping of proceedings against Bradford, and to his removal from Philadelphia to New York, whither he seems to have been invited. His removal was undoubtedly prompted by a resolution which the Provincial Council of New York adopted on the 23d of March, 1693. "That if a Printer will come and settle in the city of New York for the printing of our Acts of Assembly and Publick Papers, he shall be allowed the sum of £40 current money of New York per annum for his salary and have the benefit of his printing besides what serves the publick." "Bradford's first warrant for his salary as 'Printer to King William and Queen Mary, at the City of New York,' was dated October 12, 1693, and was for six months, due on the 10th preceeding," showing that he had established himself in the colony more hospitable to his art as early as the 10th of April, 1693. "What was the first product of his press is a matter of doubt. It may have been, as Dr. Moore suggests, the 'Journal of the Late Actions of the French at Canada,' or 'New England's Spirit of Persecution Transmitted to Pennsylvania'—which was a report of his own trial at Philadelphia—or it may have been an Act of the New York Assembly—one of three which his press produced early that year, but the priority among which is uncertain.—C. R. Hildeburn, *Printing in New York in the 17th Cent'y* (Memorial Hist. of the City of New York, v. 1, ch. 15.) Also in: I. Thomas, *Hist. of Printing in Am.*, 2d ed., v. 1.

A. D. 1695.—Expiration of the Censorship law in England.—Quick multiplication of Newspapers.—"While the Licensing Act was in force there was no newspaper in England except the 'London Gazette,' which was edited by a clerk in the office of the Secretary of State, and which contained nothing but what the Secretary of State wished the nation to know. There were indeed many periodical papers: but none of those papers could be called a newspaper. Welwood, a zealous Whig, published a journal called the *Observer*; but his *Observer*, like the *Observer* which Lestrange had formerly edited, contained, not the news, but merely dissertations on politics. A crazy bookseller, named John Dunton, published the *Athenian Mercury*; but the *Athenian Mercury* merely discussed questions of natural philosophy, of casuistry and of gallantry. A fellow of the Royal Society, named John Houghton, published what he called a *Collection for the Improvement of Industry and Trade*, but his *Collection* contained little more than the prices of stocks, explanations of the modes of doing business in the City, puffs of new projects, and advertisements of books, quack medicines, chocolate, Spa water, civet cats, surgeons wanting ships, valets wanting masters, and ladies wanting husbands. If ever he printed any political news, he transcribed it from the *Gazette*. The *Gazette* was so partial and so meagre a chronicle of events that, though it had no competitors, it had but a small circulation. . . . But the deficiencies of the *Gazette* were to a certain extent supplied in London by the coffeehouses, and in the country by the newsletters. On the third of May 1695 the law which had subjected the press to a censorship expired. Within a fortnight, a staunch old Whig, named Harris, who had, in the days of the Exclusion Bill, attempted to set up a newspaper entitled *Intelligence Domestic and Foreign*, and who had been speedily forced to relinquish that design, announced that the *Intelligence Domestic and Foreign*, suppressed fourteen years before by tyranny, would again appear. Ten days later was printed the first number of the *English Courant*. Then came the *Packet Boat* from Holland and Flanders, the *Pegasus*, the *London Newsletter*, the *London Post*, the *Flying Post*, the *Old Postmaster*, the *Postboy*, and the *Postman*. The history of the newspapers of England from that time to the present day is a most interesting and instructive part of the history of the country. At first they were small and mean-looking. . . . Only two numbers came out in a week: and a number contained little more matter than may be found in a single column of a daily paper of our time.—Lord Macaulay, *Hist. of England*, ch. 21.

A. D. 1704-1729.—The first Newspapers in America.—"There was not a newspaper published in the English colonies, throughout the extensive continent of North America, until the 24th of April, 1704. John Campbell, a Scotchman, who was a bookseller and postmaster in Boston, was the first who began and established a publication of this kind. It was entitled 'The Boston News-Letter.' . . . It is printed on half a sheet of pot paper, with a small pica type, folio. The first page is filled with an extract from 'The London Flying Post,' respecting the pretender. . . . The queen's speech to both houses of parliament on that occasion, a few

articles under the Boston head, four short paragraphs of marine intelligence from New York, Philadelphia, and New London, and one advertisement, form its whole contents. The advertisement is from Campbell, the proprietor of the paper. In 1719, a rival paper was started in Boston, called the "Gazette," and in 1721, a third, founded by James Franklin, took the name of "The New England Courant." Meantime there had appeared at Philadelphia, on the 22nd of December, 1719,—only one day later than the second of the Boston newspapers—"The American Weekly Mercury" printed by Andrew Bradford son of William Bradford. The same printer, Andrew Bradford, removing to New York, brought out "The New York Gazette," the first newspaper printed in that city, in October, 1725.—1 Thomas *Hist. of Printing in Am.*, v. 2, p. 12, and after.—In 1740 the number of newspapers in the English colonies on the continent had increased to eleven of which one appeared in South Carolina, one in Virginia, three in Pennsylvania—one of them being in German—one in New York, and the remaining five in Boston.

The New England "Courant" the fourth American periodical was in August 1721, established by James Franklin as an organ of independent opinion. Its temporary success was advanced by Benjamin his brother and apprentice, a boy of fifteen, who wrote for its columns, worked in composing the types as well as printing off the sheets, and, as carrier, distributed the papers to the customers. The sheet satirized hypocrisy, and spoke of religious knaves as of all knaves the worst. This was described as tending "to abuse the ministers of religion in a manner which was intolerable." In July 1722, a resolve passed the council, appointing a censor for the press of James Franklin, but the house refused its concurrence. The ministers persevered, and in January 1723, a committee of inquiry was raised by the legislature. Benjamin, being examined, escaped with an admonition, James, the publisher, refusing to discover the author of the offence, was kept in jail for a month, his paper was censured as reflecting injuriously on the reverend ministers of the gospel, and, by vote of the house and council, he was forbidden to print it, "except it be first supervised." Vexed at the arbitrary proceedings, Benjamin Franklin, then but seventeen years old, in October 1723, sailed clandestinely for New York. Finding there no employment, he crossed to Amboy, went on foot to the Delaware, for want of a wind, rowed in a boat from Burlington to Philadelphia, and bearing marks of his labor at the oar, weary, hungry, having for his whole stock of cash a single dollar, the runaway apprentice—the pupil of the free schools of Boston, rich in the boundless hope of youth and the unconscious power of modest genius—stepped on shore to seek food and occupation. On the deep foundations of sobriety, frugality and industry, the young journeyman built his fortunes and fame, and he soon came to have a printing-office of his own. . . . The assembly of Pennsylvania chose him its printer. He planned a newspaper [the "Pennsylvania Gazette"]; and, when [1729] he became its proprietor and editor, he defended freedom of thought and speech, and the inalienable power of the people.—G. Bancroft, *Hist. of the U. S. of Am.*, pt. 2, ch. 15 (v. 2).

ALSO IN: J. Parton, *Life of Franklin*, pt. 1-2 (v. 1)—B. Franklin, *Life by Himself*, ed. by J. Bigelow, pt. 1

A. D. 1709-1752.—The Periodicals of the Essayists.—The "Tatler," "Spectator," and their successors.—"In the spring of 1709, Steele [Sir Richard] formed a literary project, of which he was far indeed from foreseeing the consequences. Periodical papers had during many years been published in London. Most of these were political, but in some of them questions of morality, taste, and love casuistry had been discussed. The literary merit of these works was small indeed, and even their names are now known only to the curious. Steele had been appointed gazetteer by Sunderland, at the request, it is said of Addison and thus had access to foreign intelligence earlier and more authentic than was in those times within the reach of an ordinary news writer. This circumstance seems to have suggested to him the scheme of publishing a periodical paper on a new plan. It was to appear on the days on which the post left London for the country which were in that generation the Tuesdays Thursdays and Saturdays. It was to contain the foreign news, accounts of theatrical representations, and the literary gossip of Will's and of the Grecian. It was also to contain remarks on the fashionable topics of the day compliments to beauties passages on noted sharpers, and criticisms on popular preachers. The aim of Steele does not appear to have been at first higher than this. Isaac Bickerstaff, Esquire, Astrologer, was an imaginary person, almost as well known in that age as Mr Paul Pry or Mr Pickwick in ours. Swift had assumed the name of Bickerstaff in a satirical pamphlet against Partridge, the almanac maker. Partridge had been fool enough to publish a furious reply. Bickerstaff had rejoined in a second pamphlet still more diverting than the first. All the wits had combined to keep up the joke, and the town was long in convulsions of laughter. Steele determined to employ the name which this controversy had made popular, and, in April 1709, it was announced that Isaac Bickerstaff, Esquire, Astrologer, was about to publish a paper called the 'Tatler.' Addison had not been consulted about this scheme, but as soon as he heard of it, he determined to give it his assistance. The effect of that assistance cannot be better described than in Steele's own words 'I fared,' he said, 'like a distressed prince who calls in a powerful neighbour to his aid. I was undone by my auxiliary. When I had once called him in, I could not subsist without dependence on him.' 'The paper,' he says elsewhere, 'was advanced indeed. It was raised to a greater thing than I intended it.'—Lord Macaulay *Life and Writings of Addison (Essays)*.—"Steele, on the 12th of April 1709, issued the first number of the 'Tatler.' . . . This famous newspaper, printed in one folio sheet of 'tobacco paper' with 'scurvy letter,' ran to 271 numbers, and abruptly ceased to appear in January 1711. It enjoyed an unprecedented success, for, indeed, nothing that approached it had ever before been issued from the periodical press in England. The division of its contents was thus arranged by the editor: 'All accounts of gallantry, pleasure, and entertainment shall be under the article of White's Chocolate House; poetry under that of Will's Coffee-House; learning under the title

of Grecian; foreign and domestic news you will have from St. James's Coffee-House; and what else I shall on any other subject offer shall be dated from my own apartment.' The political news gradually ceased to appear. . . . Of the 271 'Tatlers,' 188 were written by Steele, 42 by Addison, and 36 by both conjointly. Three were from the pen of John Hughes. . . . These, at least, are the numbers usually given, but the evidence on which they are based is slight. It rests mainly upon the indications given by Steele to Tickell when the latter was preparing his edition of Addison's Works. The conjecture may be hazarded that there were not a few Tatlers written by Addison which he was not anxious to claim as his particular property. . . . Addison, . . . remained Steele's firm friend, and less than two months after the cessation of the 'Tatler' there appeared the first number of a still more famous common enterprise, the 'Spectator,' on the 1st of March 1711. It was announced to appear daily, and was to be composed of the reflections and actions of the members of an imaginary club, formed around 'Mr Spectator.' In this club the most familiar figure is the Worcestershire Knight, Sir Roger de Coverley, the peculiar property of Addison. . . . The 'Spectator' continued to appear daily until December 1712. It consisted of 555 numbers, of which Addison wrote 274, Steele 236, Hughes 19, and Pope 1 (The Messiah, 'Spectator' 378). Another contributor was Eustace Budgell (1685-1736), Addison's cousin. . . . The 'Spectator' enjoyed so very unequivocal a success that it has puzzled historians to account for its discontinuance. In No. 517 Addison killed Sir Roger de Coverley 'that nobody else might murder him.' This shows a voluntary intention to stop the publication, which the Stamp Act itself had not been able to do by force.—E. Gosse, *A Hist. of Eighteenth Century Literature*, ch. 6.—'After this, in 1713, came the 'Guardian'; and in 1714 an eighth volume of the 'Spectator' was issued by Addison alone. He was also the sole author of the 'Freeholder,' 1715, which contains the admirable sketch of the 'Tory Foxhunter.' Steele, on his side, followed up the 'Guardian' by the 'Lover,' the 'Reader,' and half-a-dozen abortive efforts; but his real successes, as well as those of Addison, were in the three great collections for which they worked together. . . . Between the 'Guardian' of 1713 and the 'Rambler' of 1750-2 there were a number of periodical essayists of varying merit. It is scarcely necessary to recall the names of these now forgotten 'Intelligencers,' 'Moderators,' 'Remembrancers,' and the like, the bulk of which were political. Fielding places one of them, the 'Freethinker' of Philips, nearly on a level with 'those great originals the "Tatlers" and the "Spectators;"' but the initial chapters to the different books of 'Tom Jones' attract us more forcibly to the author's own 'Champion,' written in conjunction with the Ralph who 'makes night hideous' in the 'Dunciad.' . . . Another of Fielding's enterprises in the 'Spectator' vein was the 'Covent Garden Journal,' 1753. . . . Concurrently with the 'Covent Garden Journal' appeared the final volume of Johnson's 'Rambler,' a work upon the cardinal defect of which its author laid his finger, when, in later life, he declared it to be 'too wordy.' Lady Mary said in her smart way that the 'Rambler' followed the 'Spectator' as a packhorse would

do a hunter. . . . In the twenty-nine papers which Johnson wrote for Hawkesworth's 'Adventurer,' the 'Rambler' style is maintained. In the 'Idler,' however, which belongs to a later date, when its author's mind was unclouded, and he was comparatively free from the daily pressure of necessity, he adopts a simpler and less polysyllabic style"—A. Dobson, *Eighteenth Century Essays*, introd.

A. D. 1712.—The first Stamp Tax on Newspapers in England.—The first stamp tax on newspapers in England went into effect on the 12th day of August, 1712. "An act had passed the legislature, that 'for every pamphlet or paper contained in half a sheet, or lesser piece of paper so printed, the sum of one halfpenny sterling; and for every such pamphlet or paper being larger than half a sheet, and not exceeding one whole sheet, so printed, a duty after the rate of one penny sterling for every sheet printed thereof.' This act, which was to curb the licentiousness of the press, was to be in force for the space of thirty-two years, to be reckoned from the 10th day of June, 1712. Addison, in the 'Spectator' of this day, says, 'this is the day on which many eminent authors will probably publish their last works. I am afraid that few of our weekly historians, who are men that above all others delight in war, will be able to subsist under the weight of a stamp duty in an approaching peace. In short, the necessity of carrying a stamp, and the impracticability of notifying a bloody battle, will, I am afraid, both concur to the sinking of these thin folios which have every other day related to us the history of Europe for several years last past. A facetious friend of mine, who loves a pun, calls this present mortality among authors, "the fall of the leaf."'" On this tax Dean Swift thus humorously alludes in his Journal to Stella, as follows (August 7).—"Do you know that all Grub-street is dead and gone last week? No more Ghosts or murders now for love or money. I plied it close the last fortnight, and published at least seven papers of my own, besides some of other people's; but now every single half-sheet pays a halfpenny to the queen. The 'Observator' is fallen, the 'Medleys' are jumbled together with the 'Flying Post,' the 'Examiner' is deadly sick; the 'Spectator' keeps up and doubles its price; I know not how long it will hold. Have you seen the red stamp the papers are marked with? Methinks the stamping is worth a halfpenny.' The stamp mark upon the newspapers was a rose and thistle joined by the stalks, and enclosing between the Irish shamrock, the whole three were surmounted by a crown. . . . It is curious to observe what an effect this trifling impost had upon the circulation of the most favourite papers. Many were entirely discontinued, and several of those which survived were generally united into one publication. The bill operated in a directly contrary manner to what the ministers had anticipated; for the opposition, who had more leisure, and perhaps more acrimony of feeling, were unanimous in the support of their cause. The adherents of ministers, who were by no means behind the opposition in their proficiency in the topic of defamation, were, it seems, not so strenuously supported; and the measure thus chiefly destroyed those whom it was Bolinbroke's interest to protect. For some reason, which we have not been able to trace, the