

cupping the banks of the Taya, made irruptions into Upper Austria, his hussars spreading terror even to the gates of Vienna. The Austrians drew from Bavaria a corps of 10,000 men to cover the capital, while Prince Charles of Lorraine, at the head of 50,000 men, threatened the Prussian magazines in Upper Silesia, and by this movement compelled Frederick to detach a considerable force for their protection, and to evacuate Moravia, which he had invaded. Broglie, who commanded the French forces in that country, must now have fallen a sacrifice, had not the ever-active King of Prussia brought up 30,000 men, which, under the Prince of Anhalt-Dessau, entering Bohemia, came up with Prince Charles at Czaslau, about thirty five miles from Prague, before he could form a junction with Prince Lobkowitz. Upon this ensued [May 17, 1742] what is known in history as the battle of Czaslau [also, and more commonly, called the battle of Chotusitz]. . . The numbers in the two armies were nearly equal, and the action was warmly contested on both sides. . . The Prussians remained masters of the field, with 18 cannon, two pairs of colours and 1 200 prisoners, but they indeed paid dearly for the honour, for it was computed that their loss was equal to that of their enemy, which amounted to 7,000 men on either side, while the Prussian cavalry, under Field-Marshal Buddenbroch, was nearly ruined. . . Although in this battle the victory was, without doubt, on the side of the Prussians, yet the immediate consequences were highly favourable to the Queen of Hungary. The King was disappointed of his expected advantages, and conceived a disgust to the war. He now lowered his demands and made overtures of accommodation, which, on the 11th of June, resulted in a treaty of peace between the two crowns, which was signed at Breslau under the mediation of the British Ambassador."—Sir E. Cust, *Annals of the Wars of the 18th Century*, v. 2, p. 19.

ALSO IN: T. Carlyle, *Hist. of Friedrich II of Prussia*, bk. 13, ch. 13 (n. 5).

**A. D. 1742 (June).—Treaty of Breslau with the King of Prussia.**—"The following are the preliminary articles which were signed at Breslau: 1. The queen of Hungary ceded to the king of Prussia Upper and Lower Silesia, with the principality of Glatz, except the towns of Troppau, Jaegendorff and the high mountains situated beyond the Oppa. 2. The Prussians undertook to repay the English 1,700,000 crowns; which sum was a mortgage loan on Silesia. The remaining articles related to a suspension of arms, an exchange of prisoners, and the freedom of religion and trade. Thus was Silesia united to the Prussian States. Two years were sufficient for the conquest of that important province. The treasures which the late king had left were almost expended; but provinces that do not cost more than seven or eight millions are cheaply purchased."—Frederic II., *Hist. of My Own Times (Posthumous Works, v. 1)*, ch. 8.

**A. D. 1742 (June–December).—Expulsion of the French from Bohemia.—Belleisle's retreat from Prague.**—"The Austrian arms began now to be successful in all quarters. Just before the signature of the preliminaries, Prince Lobkowitz, who was stationed at Budweis with 10,000 men, made an attack on Frauenberg; Broglie and Belleisle advanced from Piseck to relieve the town, and a combat took place at Sahay, in

which the Austrians were repulsed with the loss of 500 men. This trifling affair was magnified into a decisive victory. . . Marshal Broglie, elated with this advantage, and relying on the immediate junction of the King of Prussia, remained at Frauenberg in perfect security. But his expectations were disappointed, Frederic had already commenced his secret negotiations, and Prince Charles was enabled to turn his forces against the French. Being joined by Prince Lobkowitz, they attacked Broglie, and compelled him to quit Frauenberg with such precipitation that his baggage fell into the hands of the light troops, and the French retreated towards Branau, harassed by the Croats and other irregulars. . . The Austrians, pursuing their success against the French, drove Broglie from Branau, and followed him to the walls of Prague, where he found Belleisle. . . After several consultations, the two generals called in their posts and secured their army partly within the walls and partly within a peninsula of the Moldau. . . Soon afterwards the duke of Lorraine joined the army [of Prince Charles], which now amounted to 70,000 men, and the arrival of the heavy artillery enabled the Austrians to commence the siege."—W. Cox, *Hist. of the House of Austria*, ch. 102 (v. 3).—"To relieve the French at Prague, Marshal Maillebois was directed to advance with his army from Westphalia. At these tidings Prince Charles changed the siege of Prague to a blockade, and marching against his new opponents, checked their progress on the Bohemian frontier, the French, however, still occupying the town of Egra. It was under these circumstances that Belleisle made his masterly and renowned retreat from Prague. In the night of the 16th of December, he secretly left the city at the head of 11,000 foot and 3,000 horse, having deceived the Austrians' vigilance by the feint of a general forage in the opposite quarter, and pushed for Egra through a hostile country, destitute of resources and surrounded by superior enemies. His soldiers, with no other food than frozen bread, and compelled to sleep without covering on the snow and ice, perished in great numbers, but the gallant spirit of Belleisle triumphed over every obstacle; he struck through morasses almost untrodden before, offered battle to Prince Lobkowitz, who, however, declined engaging, and at length succeeded in reaching the other French army with the flower of his own. The remnant left at Prague, and amounting only to 6,000 men, seemed an easy prey, yet their threat of firing the city, and perishing beneath its ruins, and the recent proof of what despair can do, obtained for them honourable terms, and the permission of rejoining their comrades at Egra. But in spite of all this skill and courage in the French invaders, the final result to them was failure nor had they attained a single permanent advantage beyond their own safety in retreat. Maillebois and De Broglie took up winter quarters in Bavaria, while Belleisle led back his division across the Rhine; and it was computed that, of the 35,000 men whom he had first conducted into Germany, not more than 8,000 returned beneath his banner."—Lord Mahon (Earl Stanhope), *Hist. of Eng., 1713–1783*, ch. 24 (v. 3).—"Thus, at the termination of the campaign, all Bohemia was regained, except Egra; and on the 12th of May, 1743, Maria Theresa was soon afterwards crowned at Prague, to the recovery of which, says her

great rival, her firmness had more contributed than the force of her arms. The only reverse which the Austrians experienced in the midst of their successes was the temporary loss of Bavaria, which, on the retreat of Kevenhüller, was occupied by marshal Seckendorf, and the Emperor made his entry into Munich on the 2d of October."—W. Coxe, *Hist. of the House of Austria*, ch. 103 (v. 3).

A. D. 1743.—England drawn into the conflict.—The Pragmatic Army.—The Battle of Dettingen.—"The cause of Maria Theresa had begun to excite a remarkable enthusiasm in England . . . The convention of neutrality entered into by George II in September 1741, and the extortion of his vote for the Elector of Bavaria, properly concerned that prince only as Elector of Hanover, yet, as he was also King of England, they were felt as a disgrace by the English people. The elections of that year went against Walpole, and in February 1742 he found himself compelled to resign. He was succeeded in the administration by Pulteney, Earl of Bath, though Lord Carteret was virtually prime minister. Carteret was an ardent supporter of the cause of Maria Theresa. His accession to office was immediately followed by a large increase of the army and navy, five millions were voted for carrying on the war, and a subsidy of £500,000 for the Queen of Hungary. The Earl of Stair, with an army of 16,000 men, afterwards reinforced by a large body of Hanoverians and Hessians in British pay, was despatched into the Netherlands to cooperate with the Dutch. But though the States-General, at the instance of the British Cabinet, voted Maria Theresa a subsidy, they were not yet prepared to take an active part in a war which might ultimately involve them in hostilities with France. The exertions of the English ministry in favour of the Queen of Hungary had therefore been confined during the year 1742 to diplomacy, and they had helped to bring about . . . the Peace of Breslau. In 1743 they were able to do more." In April, 1743, the Emperor, Charles VII., regained possession of Bavaria and returned to Munich, but only to be driven out again by the Austrians in June. The Bavarians were badly beaten at Simbach (May 9), and Munich was taken (June 12) after a short bombardment. "Charles VII. was now again obliged to fly, and took refuge at Augsburg. At his command, Seckendorf [his general] made a convention with the Austrians at the village of Niederschönfeld, by which he agreed to abandon to them Bavaria, on condition that Charles's troops should be allowed to occupy unmolested quarters between Franconia and Suabia. Maria Theresa seemed at first indisposed to ratify even terms so humiliating to the Emperor. She had become perhaps a little too much exalted by the rapid turn of fortune. She had caused herself to be crowned in Prague. She had received the homage of the Austrians, and entered Vienna in a sort of triumph. She now dreamt of nothing less than conquering Lorraine for herself, Alsace for the Empire; of hurling Charles VII. from the Imperial throne, and placing on it her own consort." She was persuaded, however, to consent at length to the terms of the Niederschönfeld convention. "Meanwhile the allied army of English and Germans, under the Earl of Stair, nearly 40,000 strong, which, from its destined object, had assumed the name of the 'Pragmatic

Army,' had crossed the Meuse and the Rhine in March and April, with a view to cut off the army of Bavaria from France. George II had not concealed his intention of breaking the Treaty of Hanover of 1741, alleging as a ground that the duration of the neutrality stipulated in it had not been determined, and on June 19th he had joined the army in person. He found it in a most critical position. Lord Stair, who had never distinguished himself as a general, and was now falling into dotage, had led it into a narrow valley near Aschaffenburg, between Mount Spessart and the river Main; while Marshal Noailles [commanding the French], who had crossed the Rhine towards the end of April, by seizing the principal fords of the Main, both above and below the British position, had cut him off both from his magazines at Hanau, and from the supplies which he had expected to procure in Franconia. Nothing remained but for him to fight his way back to Hanau." In the battle of Dettingen, which followed (June 27), all the advantages of the French in position were thrown away by the ignorant impetuosity of the king's nephew, the Duke of Grammont, who commanded one division, and they suffered a severe defeat. "The French are said to have lost 6,000 men and the British half that number. It is the last action in which a king of England has fought in person. But George II., or rather Lord Stair, did not know how to profit by his victory. Although the Pragmatic Army was joined after the battle of Dettingen by 15,000 Dutch troops, under Prince Maurice of Nassau, nothing of importance was done during the remainder of the campaign."—T. H. Dyer, *Hist. of Modern Europe*, bk. 6, ch. 4 (v. 3).

ALSO IN W. COXE, *Hist. of the House of Austria*, ch. 104 (v. 3).—Sir E. Cust, *Annals of the Wars of the 18th Century*, v. 2, pp. 30-36.—Lord Mahon (Earl Stanhope), *Hist. of Eng.*, 1713-1783, ch. 25 (v. 3).

A. D. 1743.—Treaty of Worms with Sardinia and England. See ITALY A. D. 1743.

A. D. 1743 (October).—The Second Bourbon Family Compact. See FRANCE: A. D. 1743 (OCTOBER).

A. D. 1743-1744.—The Prussian King strikes in again.—The Union of Frankfurt.—Siege and capture of Prague.—"Everywhere Austria was successful, and Frederick had reason to fear for himself unless the tide of conquest could be stayed. He explains in the 'Histoire de Mon Temps' that he feared lest France should abandon the cause of the Emperor, which would mean that the Austrians, who now boldly spoke of compensation for the war, would turn their arms against himself. . . . France was trembling, not for her conquests, but for her own territory. After the battle of Dettingen, the victorious Anglo-Hanoverian force was to cross the Rhine above Mayence and march into Alsace, while Prince Charles of Lorraine, with a strong Austrian army, was to pass near Basle and occupy Lorraine, taking up his winter quarters in Burgundy and Champagne. The English crossed without any check and moved on to Worms, but the Austrians failed in their attempt. Worms became a centre of intrigue, which Frederick afterwards called 'Cette abyme de mauvaise foi.' The Dutch were persuaded by Lord Carteret to join the English, and they did at last send 14,000 men, who were never of

the least use. Lord Carteret also detached Charles Emanuel, King of Sardinia, from his French leanings, and persuaded him to enter into the Austro-English alliance [by the treaty of Worms, Sept. 13, 1743, which conceded to the King of Sardinia Finale, the city of Placentia, with some other small districts and gave him command of the allied forces in Italy]. It was clear that action could not be long postponed, and Frederick began to recognize the necessity of a new war. His first anxiety was to guard himself against interference from his northern and eastern neighbours. He secured, as he hoped, the neutrality of Russia by marrying the young princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, afterwards the notorious Empress Catherine, with the Grand-Duke Peter of Russia, nephew and heir to the reigning Empress Elizabeth.

Thus strengthened, as he hoped, in his rear and flank, and having made the commencement of a German league called the Union of Frankfurt, by which Hesse and the Palatinate agreed to join Frederick and the Kaiser, he concluded on the 5th of June, 1744, a treaty which brought France also into this alliance. It was secretly agreed that Frederick was to invade Bohemia, conquer it for the Kaiser, and have the districts of Königgrätz, Bunzlau, and Leitmeritz to repay him for his trouble and costs, while France, which was all this time at war with Austria and England, should send an army against Prince Charles and the English. The first stroke of the coming war was delivered by France. Louis XV. sent a large army into the Netherlands under two good leaders, Noailles and Maurice de Saxe. Urged by his mistress, the Duchesse de Châteauroux, he joined it himself early, and took the nominal command early in June. The towns [Menin, Ypres, Fort Knoque, Furnes] rapidly fell before him, and Marshal Wade, with the Anglo-Dutch Hanoverian army, sat still and looked at the success of the French. But on the night of the 30th June—1st July, Prince Charles crossed the Rhine by an operation which is worth the study of military students, and invaded Alsace, the French army of observation falling back before him. Louis XV. hurried back to interpose between the Austrians and Paris. Maurice de Saxe was left in the Netherlands with 45,000 men. Thus the French army was paralysed, and the Austrian army in its turn was actually invading France. At this time Frederick struck in. He sent word to the King that, though all the terms of their arrangement had not yet been fulfilled, he would at once invade Bohemia, and deliver a stroke against Prague which would certainly cause the retreat of Prince Charles with his 70,000 men. If the French army would follow Prince Charles in his retreat, Frederick would attack him, and between France and Prussia the Austrian army would certainly be crushed, and Vienna be at their mercy. This was no doubt an excellent plan of campaign, but, like the previous operations concerted with Broglie, it depended for success upon the good faith of the French, and this turned out to be a broken reed. On the 7th of August the Prussian ambassador at Vienna gave notice of the Union of Frankfurt and withdrew from the court of Austria; and on the 15th the Prussian army was put in march upon Prague [opening what is called the Second Silesian War]. Frederick's forces moved in

three columns, the total strength being over 80,000. Maria Theresa was now again in great danger, but as usual retained her high courage, and once more called forth the enthusiasm of her Hungarian subjects, who sent swarms of wild troops, horse and foot, to the seat of war. On the 1st of September the three columns met before Prague, which had better defences than in the last campaign, and a garrison of some 16,000 men. During the night of the 9th the bombardment commenced, and on the 16th the garrison surrendered. Thus, one month after the commencement of the march Prague was captured, and the campaign opened with a brilliant feat of arms.—Col C. B. Brackenbury, *Frederick the Great*, ch. 7.

ALSO IN W. Russell, *Hist. of Modern Europe*, pt. 2, letter 28.—F. Von Raumer, *Contributions to Modern Hist. : Fredk. II. and his Times*, ch. 17-19.

**A. D. 1744-1745.—Frederick's retreat and fresh triumph.—Austria recovers the imperial crown—Saxony subdued.—The Peace of Dresden.**—After the reduction of Prague, Frederick, "in deference to the opinion of Marshal Belleisle, but against his own judgment, advanced into the south of Bohemia with the view of threatening Vienna. He thus exposed himself to the risk of being cut off from Prague. Yet even so he would probably have been able to maintain himself if the French had fulfilled their engagements. But while he was conquering the districts of the Upper Moldau, the Austrian army returned unimpaired from Alsace. The French had allowed it to cross the Rhine unmolested, and had not made the slightest attempt to harass its retreat [but applied themselves to the siege and capture of Freiburg]. They were only too glad to get rid of it themselves. In the ensuing operations Frederick was completely outmanoeuvred. Traun [the Austrian general], without risking a battle, forced him back towards the Silesian frontier. He had to choose between abandoning Prague and abandoning his communications with Silesia, and as the Saxons had cut off his retreat through the Electorate, there was really no choice in the matter. So he fell back on Silesia, abandoning Prague and his heavy artillery. The retreat was attended with considerable loss. Frederick was much struck with the skill displayed by Traun, and says, in his *Histoire de mon Temps*, that he regarded this campaign as his school in the art of war and M. de Traun as his teacher. The campaign may have been an excellent lesson in the art of war, but in other respects it was very disastrous to Frederick. He had drawn upon himself the whole power of Austria, and had learnt how little the French were to be depended upon. His prestige was dimmed by failure, and even in his own army doubts were entertained of his capacity. But, bad as his position already was, it became far worse when the unhappy Emperor died [Jan. 20, 1745], worn out with disease and calamity. This event put an end to the Union of Frankfurt. Frederick could no longer claim to be acting in defence of his oppressed sovereign; the ground was cut from under his feet. Nor was there any longer much hope of preventing the Imperial Crown from reverting to Austria. The new Elector of Bavaria was a mere boy. In this altered state of affairs he sought to make peace. But Maria Theresa would not let him



off so easily. In order that she might use all her forces against him, she granted peace to Bavaria, and gave back to the young elector his hereditary dominions, on condition of his resigning all claim to hers and promising to vote for her husband as Emperor. While Frederick thus lost a friend in Bavaria, Saxony threw herself completely into the arms of his enemy, and united with Austria in a treaty [May 18] which had for its object, not the reconquest of Silesia merely, but the partition of Prussia and the reduction of the king to his ancient limits as Margrave of Brandenburg. Saxony was then much larger than it is now, but it was not only the number of troops it could send into the field that made its hostility dangerous. It was partly the geographical position of the country, which made it an excellent base for operations against Prussia, but still more the alliance that was known to subsist between the Elector (King Augustus III of Poland) and the Russian Court. It was probable that a Prussian invasion of Saxony would be followed by a Russian invasion of Prussia. Towards the end of May, the Austrian and Saxon army, 75,000 strong, crossed the Giant Mountains and descended upon Silesia. The Austrians were again commanded by Prince Charles, but the wise head of Traun was no longer there to guide him. The encounter took place at Hohenfriedberg [June 5], and resulted in a complete victory for Prussia. The Austrians and Saxons lost 9,000 killed and wounded, and 7,000 prisoners, besides 66 cannons and 73 flags and standards. Four days after the battle they were back again in Bohemia. Frederick followed, not with the intention of attacking them again, but in order to cut the country bare, so that it might afford no sustenance to the enemy during the winter. For his own part he was really anxious for peace. His resources were all but exhausted, while Austria was fed by a constant stream of English subsidies. As in the former war, England interposed with her good offices, but without effect, Maria Theresa was by no means disheartened by her defeat, and refused to hear of peace till she had tried the chances of battle once more. On Sept. 18 her husband was elected Emperor by seven votes out of nine, the dissentients being the King of Prussia and the Elector Palatine. This event raised the spirits of the Empress Queen, as Maria Theresa was henceforward called, and opened a wider field for her ambition. She sent peremptory orders to Prince Charles to attack Frederick before he retired from Bohemia. A battle was accordingly fought at Sohr [Sept. 30], and again victory rested with the Prussians. The season was now far advanced, and Frederick returned home expecting that there would be no more fighting till after the winter. Such however, was far from being the intention of his enemies. A plan for the invasion of Brandenburg by three Austrian and Saxon armies, simultaneously, was secretly concerted; but Frederick had timely warning of it and it was frustrated by his activity and energy. On the 28th of November he surprised and defeated Prince Charles at Hennesdorf. "Some three weeks afterwards [Dec. 15] the Prince of Dessau defeated a second Saxon and Austrian army at Kesselsdorf, a few miles from Dresden. This victory completed the subjugation of Saxony and put an end to the war. Three days after Kesselsdorf, Frederick

entered Dresden, and astonished every one by the graciousness of his behaviour and by the moderation of his terms. From Saxony he exacted no cession of territory, but merely a contribution of 1,000,000 thalers (£150,000) towards the expenses of the war. From Austria he demanded a guarantee of the treaty of Breslau, in return for which he agreed to recognize Francis as Emperor. Peace was signed [at Dresden] on Christmas Day.—F. W. Longman, *Frederick the Great and the Seven Years War*, ch 5.

ALSO IN T Carlyle, *Hist of Frederick II*, bk 15, ch 3-15 (v 4).—Lord Dover, *Life of Frederick II*, bk 2, ch 3-5 (v 1).

A. D. 1745.—Overwhelming disasters in Italy. See ITALY A D 1745.

A. D. 1745 (May).—Reverses in the Netherlands.—Battle of Fontenoy. See NETHERLANDS A D 1745.

A. D. 1745 (September–October).—The Consort of Maria Theresa elected and crowned Emperor.—Rise of the new House of Hapsburg-Lorraine.—Francis of Lorraine, Grand Duke of Tuscany and husband of Maria Theresa, was elected Emperor, at Frankfurt, Sept. 13, 1745, and crowned Oct. 1, with the title of Francis I. "Thus the Empire returned to the New House of Austria that of Hapsburg-Lorraine, and France had missed the principal object for which she had gone to war." By the treaties signed at Dresden, Dec. 25, between Prussia, Austria and Saxony, Frederick, as Elector of Brandenburg, assented to and recognized the election of Francis, against which he and the Elector Palatine had previously protested.—T. H. Dyer, *Hist of Modern Europe*, bk 6, ch 4 (v 3).

A. D. 1746-1747.—Further French conquests in the Netherlands.—Lombardy recovered.—Genoa won and lost. See NETHERLANDS A D 1746-1747, and ITALY A D 1746-1747.

A. D. 1748 (October).—Termination and results of the War of the Succession. See AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, THE CONGRESS OF.

A. D. 1755-1763.—The Seven Years War.—See GERMANY A D 1755-1756, to 1768; also, SEVEN YEARS WAR.

A. D. 1765-1790.—Joseph II., the enthroned Philosopher.—"The prince who best sums up the spirit of the century is not Frederic [the Great, of Prussia], it is Joseph II [the emperor]. Frederic was born a master, Joseph II. a disciple, and it is by disciples that we judge schools. The king of Prussia dammed up the waters, directed their flow, made use of the current, the emperor cast himself upon them and permitted himself to be carried. With Frederic the statesman always dominates, it is he who proposes and finally decides; the philosopher is subordinate. . . . With Joseph II. rational conception precedes political calculation and governs it. He had breadth of mind, but his mind was superficial; ideas slipped from it. He had a taste for generosity, a passion for grandeur; but there was nothing profound in him but ambition, and it was all counter-stroke and reflection. He wished to surpass Frederic; his entire conduct was but an awkward, imprudent and ill-advised imitation of this prince whom he had made his hero, whom history made his rival and whom he copied while detesting



him. The political genius of Frederic was born of good sense and moderation: there was nothing in Joseph II but the immoderate. He was a man of systems: he had only great velleities. His education was mediocre, and as to methods, entirely jesuitical. Into this contracted mould he cast confusedly notions hastily borrowed from the philosophers of France from the economists especially. He thus formed a very vague ideal of political aspirations and an exaggerated sense of the power at his disposition to realize them. 'Since I ascended the throne and have worn the first crown of the world,' wrote he in 1781, 'I have made Philosophy the lawmaker of my empire. Her logical applications are going to transform Austria.' He undertakes reforms in every direction at once. History is null for him, traditions do not count, nor do facts acquired. There is no race, nor period, nor surrounding circumstances: there is the State which is every thing and can do everything. He writes in 1782, to the bishop of Strasbourg: 'In a kingdom governed conformably to my principles, prejudice, fanaticism, bondage of mind must disappear and each of my subjects must be reinstated in the possession of his natural rights.' He must have unity, and, as a first condition, the rejection of all previous ideas. Chance makes him operate on a soil the most heterogeneous, the most incoherent, the most cut up, parceled out and traversed by barriers, that there is in Europe. Nothing in common among his subjects, neither language, nor traditions, nor interests. It is from this, according to him, that the defect of monarchy arises. 'The German language is the universal language of my empire. I am the emperor of Germany, the states which I possess are provinces which form but one body with the State of which I am the head. If the kingdom of Hungary were the most important of my possessions, I should not hesitate to impose its tongue on the other countries.' So he imposes the German language on the Hungarians, the Croats the Tchèques, the Poles, on all the Slavs. He suppresses the ancient territorial divisions, they recall the successive agglomerations, the irregular alluvions which had formed the monarchy, he establishes thirteen governments and divides them into circles. The diets disappear, the government passes into the hands of intendants according to the French formula. In the cities the burgomaster appointed by the government becomes a functionary. The nobles lose the part, already much curtailed, that they still had, here and there, in the government. He taxes them, he taxes the ecclesiastics: he meditates establishing a tax proportional to incomes and reaching all classes. He protects the peasants, alleviates serfdom, diminishes the corvées, builds hospitals, schools above all, in which the state will form pupils to obey her. His ideal would be the equality of his subjects under the uniform sway of his government. He unifies the laws; he institutes courts of appeal with a supreme court for the entire empire. He makes regulations for manufactures, binds commerce to the most rigorous protective system. Finally he puts a high hand on the church and decrees tolerance. . . . This immense revolution was accomplished by means of decrees, in less than five years. If we compare the state of cohesion which the Bourbon government had brought about in France in 1789,

with the incoherence of the Austrian monarchy on the death of Maria Theresa in 1780, it will be seen that the revolution which caused the Constituent Assembly was a small matter compared with that which Joseph II intended to effect.—A. Sorel, *L'Europe et la Révolution française* (trans. from the French), pt. 1, pp. 119-122.

A. D. 1772-1773.—The First Partition of Poland. See POLAND A D 1763-1773.

A. D. 1777-1779.—The question of the Bavarian Succession. See BAVARIA A D. 1777-1779.

A. D. 1782-1811.—Abolition of Serfdom. See SLAVERY, MEDIEVAL. GERMANY.

A. D. 1787-1791.—War with the Turks.—Treaty of Sistova.—Slight Acquisitions of Territory. See TURKS A D 1776-1792.

A. D. 1790-1797.—Death of Joseph II. and Leopold II.—Accession of Francis II.—The Coalition against and war with revolutionary France, to the Peace of Campo Formio.—'It is a mistake to imagine that the European Powers attacked the Revolution in France. It was the Revolution which attacked them. The diplomatists of the 18th century viewed at first with cynical indifference the meeting of the States-General at Versailles. . . . The two points which occupied the attention of Europe in 1789 were the condition of Poland and the troubles in the East. The ambitious designs of Catherine and the assistance lent to them by Joseph threatened the existence of the Turkish Empire, irritated the Prussian Court, and awakened English apprehensions, always sensitive about the safety of Stamboul. Poland, the battle-field of cynical diplomacy, torn by long dissensions and ruined by a miserable constitution, was vainly endeavouring, under the jealous eyes of her great neighbours, to avert the doom impending, and to reassert her ancient claim to a place among the nations of the world. But Russia had long since determined that Poland must be a vassal State to her or cease to be a State at all, while Prussia, driven to face a hard necessity, realised that a strong Poland and a strong Prussia could not exist together, and that if Poland ever rose again to power, Prussia must bid good-bye to unity and greatness. These two questions to the States involved seemed to be of far more moment than any political reform in France, and engrossed the diplomatists of Europe until the summer of 1791. In February, 1790, a new influence was introduced into European politics by the death of the Emperor Joseph and the accession of his brother, Leopold II. Leopold was a man of remarkable ability, no enthusiast and no dreamer, thoroughly versed in the selfish traditions of Austrian policy and in some of the subtleties of Italian statecraft, discerning, temperate, resolute and clear-headed, quietly determined to have his own way, and generally skilful enough to secure it. Leopold found his new dominions in a state of the utmost confusion, with war and rebellion threatening him on every side. He speedily set about restoring order. He repealed the unpopular decrees of Joseph. He conciliated or repressed his discontented subjects. He gradually re-established the authority of the Crown. . . . Accordingly, the first eighteen months of Leopold's reign were occupied with his own immediate interests, and at the end of that time his success

was marked. Catherine's vast schemes in Turkey had been checked. War had been averted. Poland had been strengthened by internal changes. Prussia had been conciliated and outmanœuvred, and her influence had been impaired. At last, at the end of August, 1791, the Emperor was free to face the French problem, and he set out for the Castle of Pillnitz to meet the King of Prussia and the Emigrant leaders at the Saxon Elector's Court. For some time past the restlessness of the French Emigrants had been causing great perplexity in Europe. Received with open arms by the ecclesiastical princes of the Rhine, by the Electors of Mayence and Trèves, they proceeded to agitate busily for their own restoration. . . . The object of the Emigrants was to bring pressure to bear at the European Courts, with the view of inducing the Powers to intervene actively in their behalf. . . . After his escape from France, in June, 1790, the Comte de Provence established his Court at Coblenz, where he was joined by his brother the Comte d'Artois, and where, on the plea that Louis was a prisoner, he claimed the title of Regent, and assumed the authority of King. The Court of the two French princes at Coblenz represented faithfully the faults and follies of the Emigrant party. But a more satisfactory spectacle was offered by the camp at Worms, where Condé was bravely trying to organise an army to fight against the Revolution in France. To Condé's standard flocked the more patriotic Emigrants. . . . But the German Princes in the neighbourhood looked with disfavour on the Emigrant army. It caused confusion in their dominions, and it drew down on them the hostility of the French Government. The Emperor joined them in protesting against it. In February, 1792, Condé's army was compelled to abandon its camp at Worms, and to retire further into Germany. The Emperor was well aware of the reckless selfishness of the Emigrant princes. He had as little sympathy with them as his sister. He did not intend to listen to their demands. If he interfered in France at all, it would only be in a cautious and tentative manner, and in order to save Marie Antoinette and her husband. Certainly he would not undertake a war for the restoration of the Ancien Régime. . . . Accordingly, the interviews at Pillnitz came to nothing. . . . Early in March, 1792, Leopold suddenly died. His heir Francis, unrestrained by his father's tact and moderation, assumed a different tone and showed less patience. The chances of any effective pressure from the Powers declined, as the prospect of war rose on the horizon. Francis' language was sufficiently sharp to give the Assembly the pretext which it longed for, and on the 20th April, Louis, amid general enthusiasm, came down to the Assembly and declared war against Austria. The effects of that momentous step no comment can exaggerate. It ruined the best hopes of the Revolution, and prepared the way for a military despotism in the future."—C. E. Mallet, *The French Revolution*, ch. 7.—See FRANCE: A. D. 1790-1791; 1791 (JULY—DECEMBER); 1791-1792; 1792 (APRIL—JULY), and (SEPTEMBER—DECEMBER); 1792-1793 (DECEMBER—FEBRUARY); 1793 (FEBRUARY—APRIL), and (JULY—DECEMBER); 1794 (MARCH—JULY); 1794-1795 (OCTOBER—MAY); 1795 (JUNE—DECEMBER); 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER); and 1796-1797 (OCTOBER—APRIL).

A. D. 1794-1796.—The Third partition of Poland.—Austrian share of the spoils. See POLAND: A. D. 1793-1796.

A. D. 1797 (October).—Treaty of Campo Formio with France.—Cession of the Netherlands and Lombard provinces.—Acquisition of Venice and Venetian territories. See FRANCE: A. D. 1797 (MAY—OCTOBER).

A. D. 1798-1806.—Congress of Rastadt.—Second Coalition against France.—Peace of Luneville.—Third Coalition.—Ulm and Austerlitz.—Peace of Presburg.—Extinction of the Holy Roman Empire.—Birth of the Empire of Austria.—"When Bonaparte sailed for Egypt he had left a congress at Rastadt discussing means for the execution of certain articles in the treaty of Campo Formio which were to establish peace between France and the Empire. . . . Though openly undertaking to invite the Germans to a congress in order to settle a general peace on the basis of the integrity of the Empire, the Emperor agreed in secret articles to use his influence to procure for the Republic the left bank of the Rhine with the exception of the Prussian provinces, to join with France in obtaining compensation in Germany for those injured by this change, and to contribute no more than his necessary contingent if the war were prolonged. The ratification of these secret provisions had been extorted from the Congress by threats before Bonaparte had left; but the question of indemnification had progressed no farther than a decision to secularise the ecclesiastical states for the purpose, when extravagant demands from the French deputies brought negotiation to a deadlock. Meanwhile, another coalition war had been brewing. Paul I. of Russia had regarded with little pleasure the doings of the Revolution, and when his protégés, the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, had been deprived of Malta by Bonaparte on his way to Egypt, when the Directory established by force of arms a Helvetic republic in Switzerland, when it found occasion to carry off the Pope into exile and erect a Roman republic, he abandoned the cautious and self-seeking policy of Catherine, and cordially responded to Pitt's advances for an alliance. At the same time Turkey was compelled by the invitation of Egypt to ally itself for once with Russia. Austria, convinced that the French did not intend to pay a fair price for the treaty of Campo Formio, also determined to renew hostilities; and Naples, exasperated by the sacrilege of a republic at Rome, and alarmed by French aggressiveness, enrolled itself in the league. The Neapolitan king, indeed, opened the war with some success, before he could receive support from his allies; but he was soon vanquished by the French, and his dominions were converted into a Parthenopean republic. Austria, on the contrary, awaited the arrival of the Russian forces; and the general campaign began early in 1799. The French, fighting against such generals as the Archduke Charles and the Russian Suvaroff, without the supervision of Carnot or the strategy and enterprise of Bonaparte, suffered severe reverses and great privations. Towards the end the Russian army endured much hardship on account of the selfishness of the Austrian cabinet; and this caused the Tsar, who thought he had other reasons for discontent, to withdraw his troops from the field. When Bonaparte was made First Consul the

military position of France was, nevertheless, very precarious. . . . The Roman and Cisalpine republics had fallen. The very congress at Rastadt had been dispersed by the approach of the Austrians, and the French emissaries had been sabred by Austrian troopers, though how their insolence came to be thus foully punished has never been clearly explained. At this crisis France was rescued from foreign foes and domestic disorders by its most successful general. . . . In the campaign which followed, France obtained signal satisfaction for its chagrin. Leaving Moreau to carry the war into Germany, Bonaparte suddenly crossed the Alps, and defeated the Austrians on the plain of Marengo. The Austrians, though completely cowed, refrained from concluding a definite peace out of respect for their engagements with England; and armistices, expiring into desultory warfare, prolonged the contest till Moreau laid the way open to Vienna, by winning a splendid triumph at Hohenlinden. A treaty of peace was finally concluded at Lunéville, when Francis II pledged the Empire to its provisions on the ground of the consents already given at Rastadt. In conformity with the treaty of Campo Formio, Austria retained the boundary of the Adige in Italy, France kept Belgium and the left bank of the Rhine, and the princes, dispossessed by the cessions, were promised compensation in Germany, while Tuscany was given to France to sell to Spain at the price of Parma, Louisiana, six ships of the line, and a sum of money. Shortly afterwards peace was extended to Naples on easy terms. . . . The time was now come for the Revolution to complete the ruin of the Holy Roman Empire. Pursuant to the treaty of Lunéville, the German Diet met at Regensburg to discuss a scheme of compensation for the dispossessed rulers. Virtually the meeting was a renewal of the congress of Rastadt. . . . At Rastadt the incoherence and disintegration of the venerable Empire had become painfully apparent. . . . When it was known that the head of the nation, who had guaranteed the integrity of the Empire in the preliminaries of Leoben, and had renewed the assurance when he convoked the assembly, had in truth betrayed to the stranger nearly all the left bank of the Rhine,—the German rulers greedily hastened to secure every possible trifle in the scramble of redistribution. The slow and wearisome debates were supplemented by intrigues of the most degraded nature. Conscious that the French Consul could give a casting vote on any disputed question, the princes found no indignity too shameful, no trick too base, to obtain his favour. . . . The First Consul, on his side, prosecuted with a duplicity and address, heretofore unequalled, the traditional policy of France in German affairs. . . . Feigning to take into his counsels the young Tsar, whose convenient friendship was thus easily obtained on account of his family connections with the German courts, he drew up a scheme of indemnification and presented it to the Diet for endorsement. In due time a servile assent was given to every point which concerned the two autocrats. By this settlement, Austria and Prussia were more equally balanced against one another, the former being deprived of influence in Western Germany, and the latter finding in more convenient situations a rich

recompense for its cessions on the Rhine; while the middle states, Bavaria, Baden, and Würtemberg, received very considerable accessions of territory. But if Bonaparte dislocated yet further the political structure of Germany, he was at least instrumental in removing the worst of the anachronisms which stifled the development of improved institutions among a large division of its people. The same measure which brought German separatism to a climax, also extinguished the ecclesiastical sovereignties and nearly all the free cities. That these strongholds of priestly obscurantism and bourgeois apathy would some day be invaded by their more ambitious and active neighbours, had long been apparent. . . . And war was declared when thousands of British subjects visiting France had already been ensnared and imprisoned. . . . Pitt had taken the conduct of the war out of the hands of Addington's feeble ministry. Possessing the confidence of the powers, he rapidly concluded offensive alliances with Russia, Sweden, and Austria, though Prussia obstinately remained neutral. Thus, by 1805, Napoleon had put to hazard all his lately won power in a conflict with the greater part of Europe. The battle of Cape Trafalgar crushed for good his maritime power, and rendered England safe from direct attack. The campaign on land, however, made him master of central Europe. Bringing the Austrian army in Germany to an inglorious capitulation at Ulm, he marched through Vienna, and, with inferior forces won in his best style the battle of Austerlitz against the troops of Francis and Alexander. The action was decisive. The allies thought not of renewing the war with the relays of troops which were hurrying up from North and South. Russian and Austrian alike wished to be rid of their ill-fated connection. The Emperor Alexander silently returned home, pursued only by Napoleon's flattering tokens of esteem, the Emperor Francis accepted the peace of Presburg, which deprived his house of the ill-gotten Venetian States, Tyrol, and its more distant possessions in Western Germany, the King of Prussia, who had been on the point of joining the coalition with a large army if his mediation were unsuccessful, was committed to an alliance with the conqueror by his terrified negotiator. And well did Napoleon appear to make the fruits of victory compensate France for its exertions. The empire was not made more unwieldy in bulk, but its dependents, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, received considerable accessions of territory, and the two first were raised to the rank of kingdoms; while the Emperor's Italian principality, which he had already turned into a kingdom of Italy to the great disgust of Austria, was increased by the addition of the ceded Venetian lands. But the full depth of Europe's humiliation was not experienced till the two following years. In 1806 an Act of Federation was signed by the kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg, the Elector of Baden, and thirteen minor princes, which united them into a league under the protection of the French Emperor. The objects of this confederacy, known as the Rheinbund were defence against foreign aggression and the exercise of complete autonomy at home. . . . Already the consequences of the Peace of Lunéville had induced the ruling Hapsburg to assure his equality with



the sovereigns of France and Russia by taking the imperial title in his own right; and before the Confederation of the Rhine was made public he formally renounced his office of elective Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire and released from allegiance to him all the states and princes of the Reich. The triumph of the German policy of the Consulate was complete."—A. Weir, *The Historical Basis of Modern Europe*, ch. 4.—See, also, FRANCE: A. D. 1798-1799, to 1805, and GERMANY: A. D. 1801-1803, to 1805-1806.

**A. D. 1809-1814.**—The second struggle with Napoleon and the second defeat.—**The Marriage alliance.**—The Germanic War of Liberation.—The final alliance and the overthrow of the Corsican.—"On the 12th of July, 1806, fourteen princes of the south and west of Germany united themselves into the confederation of the Rhine, and recognised Napoleon as their protector. On the 1st of August, they signified to the diet of Ratisbon their separation from the Germanic body. The Empire of Germany ceased to exist, and Francis II. abdicated the title by proclamation. By a convention signed at Vienna, on the 15th of December, Prussia exchanged the territories of Anspach, Cleves and Neufchâtel for the electorate of Hanover. Napoleon had all the west under his power. Absolute master of France and Italy, as emperor and king, he was also master of Spain, by the dependence of that court; of Naples and Holland, by his two brothers; of Switzerland, by the act of mediation; and in Germany he had at his disposal the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, and the confederation of the Rhine against Austria and Prussia. . . . This encroaching progress gave rise to the fourth coalition. Prussia, neutral since the peace of Bâle, had, in the last campaign, been on the point of joining the Austro-Russian coalition. The rapidity of the emperor's victories had alone restrained her; but now, alarmed at the aggrandizement of the empire, and encouraged by the fine condition of her troops, she leagued with Russia to drive the French from Germany. . . . The campaign opened early in October. Napoleon, as usual, overwhelmed the coalition by the promptitude of his marches and the vigour of his measures. On the 14th of October, he destroyed at Jena the military monarchy of Prussia, by a decisive victory. . . . The campaign in Poland was less rapid, but as brilliant as that of Prussia. Russia, for the third time, measured its strength with France. Conquered at Zurich and Austerlitz, it was also defeated at Eylau and Friedland. After these memorable battles, the emperor Alexander entered into a negotiation, and concluded at Tilsit, on the 21st of June, 1807, an armistice which was followed by a definitive treaty on the 7th of July. The peace of Tilsit extended the French domination on the continent. Prussia was reduced to half its extent. In the south of Germany, Napoleon had instituted the two kingdoms of Bavaria and Wurtemberg against Austria; further to the north, he created the two feudatory kingdoms of Saxony and Westphalia against Prussia. . . . In order to obtain universal and uncontested supremacy, he made use of arms against the continent, and the cessation of commerce against England. But in forbidding to the continental states all communication with England, he was preparing new difficulties for himself, and soon added to the animosity of

opinion excited by his despotism, and the hatred of states produced by his conquering domination, the exasperation of private interests and commercial suffering occasioned by the blockade. . . . The expedition of Portugal in 1807, and the invasion of Spain in 1808, began for him and for Europe a new order of events. . . . The reaction manifested itself in three countries, hitherto allies of France, and it brought on the fifth coalition. The court of Rome was dissatisfied; the peninsula was wounded in its national pride by having imposed upon it a foreign king; in its usages, by the suppression of convents, of the Inquisition, and of the *grandees*; Holland suffered in its commerce from the blockade, and Austria supported impatiently its losses and subordinate condition. England, watching for an opportunity to revive the struggle on the continent, excited the resistance of Rome, the peninsula, and the cabinet of Vienna. . . . Austria . . . made a powerful effort, and raised 550,000 men, comprising the *Landwehr*, and took the field in the spring of 1809. The Tyrol rose, and King Jerome was driven from his capital by the Westphalians; Italy wavered; and Prussia only waited till Napoleon met with a reverse, to take arms; but the emperor was still at the height of his power and prosperity. He hastened from Madrid in the beginning of February, and directed the members of the confederation to keep their contingents in readiness. On the 12th of April he left Paris, passed the Rhine, plunged into Germany, gained the victories of Eckmühl and Essling, occupied Vienna a second time on the 15th of May, and overthrew this new coalition by the battle of Wagram, after a campaign of four months. . . . The peace of Vienna, of the 11th of October, 1809, deprived the house of Austria of several more provinces, and compelled it again to adopt the continental system. . . . Napoleon, who seemed to follow a rash but inflexible policy, deviated from his course about this time by a second marriage. He divorced Josephine that he might give an heir to the empire, and married, on the 1st of April, 1810, Marie-Louise, arch-duchess of Austria. This was a decided error. He quitted his position and his post as a parvenu and revolutionary monarch, opposing in France the ancient courts as the republic had opposed the ancient governments. He placed himself in a false situation with respect to Austria, which he ought either to have crushed after the victory of Wagram, or to have reinstated in its possessions after his marriage with the arch-duchess. . . . The birth, on the 20th of March, 1811, of a son, who received the title of king of Rome, seemed to consolidate the power of Napoleon, by securing to him a successor. The war in Spain was prosecuted with vigour during the years 1810 and 1811. . . . While the war was proceeding in the peninsula with advantage, but without any decided success, a new campaign was preparing in the north. Russia perceived the empire of Napoleon approaching its territories. . . . About the close of 1810, it increased its armies, renewed its commercial relations with Great Britain, and did not seem indisposed to a rupture. The year 1811 was spent in negotiations which led to nothing, and preparations for war were made on both sides. . . . On the 9th of March, Napoleon left Paris. . . . During several months he fixed his court at Dresden, where the emperor of

Austria, the king of Prussia, and all the sovereigns of Germany, came to bow before his high fortune. On the 22nd of June, war was declared against Russia. . . . Napoleon, who, according to his custom, wished to finish all in one campaign, advanced at once into the heart of Russia, instead of prudently organizing the Polish barrier against it. His army amounted to about 500,000 men. He passed the Niemen on the 24th of June, took Wilna, and Witepsk, defeated the Russians at Astrowno, Polotsk, Mohilow Smolensko, at the Moskowa, and on the 14th of September, made his entry into Moscow. . . . Moscow was burned by its governor. . . . The emperor ought to have seen that this war would not terminate as the others had done, yet, conqueror of the foe, and master of his capital, he conceived hopes of peace which the Russians skillfully encouraged. Winter was approaching, and Napoleon prolonged his stay at Moscow for six weeks. He delayed his movements on account of the deceptive negotiations of the Russians; and did not decide on a retreat till the 19th of October. This retreat was disastrous, and began the downfall of the empire. . . . The cabinet of Berlin began the defections. On the 1st of March, 1813, it joined Russia and England, which were forming the sixth coalition. Sweden acceded to it soon after; yet the emperor, whom the confederate power thought prostrated by the last disaster, opened the campaign with new victories. The battle of Lutzen, won by conscripts, on the 2nd of May, the occupation of Dresden; the victory of Bautzen, and the war carried to the Elbe, astonished the coalition. Austria, which, since 1810, had been on a footing of peace, was resuming arms, and already meditating a change of alliance. She now proposed herself as a mediatrix between the emperor and the confederates. Her mediation was accepted; an armistice was concluded at Plesswitz, on the 4th of June, and a congress assembled at Prague to negotiate peace. It was impossible to come to terms. . . . Austria joined the coalition, and war, the only means of settling this great contest, was resumed. The emperor had only 280,000 men against 520,000. . . . Victory seemed, at first, to second him. At Dresden he defeated the combined forces; but the defeats of his lieutenants deranged his plans. . . . The princes of the confederation of the Rhine chose this moment to desert the cause of the empire. A vast engagement having taken place at Leipzig between the two armies, the Saxons and Wurttembergers passed over to the enemy on the field of battle. This defection to the strength of the coalesced powers, who had learned a more compact and skillful mode of warfare, obliged Napoleon to retreat, after a struggle of three days. . . . The empire was invaded in all directions. The Austrians entered Italy; the English, having made themselves masters of the peninsula during the last two years, had passed the Bidassoa, under general Wellington, and appeared on the Pyrenees. Three armies pressed on France to the east and north. . . . Napoleon was . . . obliged to submit to the conditions of the allied powers; their pretensions increased with their power. . . . On the 11th of April, 1814, he renounced for himself and children the thrones of France and Italy, and received in exchange for his vast sovereignty, the limits of which had extended from Cadiz to the

Baltic Sea, the little island of Elba."—F. A. Mignet, *History of the French Revolution*, ch. 15. —See GERMANY: A. D. 1809 (JANUARY—JUNE), to 1812; RUSSIA: A. D. 1812; and FRANCE: A. D. 1810-1812 to 1814.

A. D. 1814.—Restored rule in Northern Italy. See ITALY: A. D. 1814-1815.

A. D. 1814-1815.—Treaties of Paris and Congress of Vienna.—Readjustment of French boundaries.—Recovery of the Tyrol from Bavaria and Lombardy in Italy.—Acquisition of the Venetian states. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (APRIL—JUNE), and 1815 (JULY—NOVEMBER); also VIENNA, THE CONGRESS OF.

A. D. 1814-1820.—Formation of the Germanic Confederation. See GERMANY: A. D. 1814-1820.

A. D. 1815.—The Holy Alliance. See HOLY ALLIANCE.

A. D. 1815.—Return of Napoleon from Elba. —The Quadruple Alliance.—The Waterloo Campaign and its results. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814-1815.

A. D. 1815-1835.—Emperor Francis, Prince Metternich, and "the system."—"After the treaty of Vienna in 1809, and still more conspicuously after the pacification of Europe, the political wisdom of the rulers of Austria inclined them ever more and more to the maintenance of that state of things which was known to friends and foes as the System. But what was the System? It was the organisation of do-nothing. It cannot even be said to have been reactionary: it was simply inactionary. . . . 'Mark time in place' was the word of command in every government office. The bureaucracy was engaged from morning to night in making work, but nothing ever came of it. Not even were the liberal innovations which had lasted through the reign of Leopold got rid of. Everything went on in the confused, unfinished, and ineffective state in which the great war had found it. Such was the famous System which was venerated by the ultra-Tories of every land, and most venerated where it was least understood. Two men dominate the history of Austria during this unhappy time—men who, though utterly unlike in character and intellect, were nevertheless admirably fitted to work together, and whose names will be long united in an unenviable notoriety. These were the Emperor Francis and Prince Metternich. The first was the evil genius of internal politics; the second exercised a hardly less baneful influence over foreign affairs. . . . For the external policy of Prince Metternich, the first and most necessary condition was, that Austria should give to Europe the impression of fixed adherence to the most extreme Conservative views. So for many years they worked together, Prince Metternich always declaring that he was a mere tool in the hands of his master, but in reality far more absolute in the direction of his own department than the emperor was in his. . . . Prince Metternich had the power of making the most of all he knew, and constantly left upon persons of real merit the impression that he was a man of lofty aspirations and liberal views, who forced himself to repress such tendencies in others because he thought that their repression was a sine qua non for Austria. The men of ability, who knew him intimately, thought less well of him. To them he appeared vain and superficial, with

much that recalled the French noblesse of the old régime in his way of looking at things, and emphatically wanting in every element of greatness. With the outbreak of the Greek insurrection in 1821, began a period of difficulty and complications for the statesmen of Austria. There were two things of which they were mortally afraid—Russia and the revolution. Now, if they assisted the Greeks, they would be playing into the hands of the second; and if they opposed the Greeks, they would be likely to embroil themselves with the first. The whole art of Prince Metternich was therefore exerted to keep things quiet in the Eastern Peninsula, and to postpone the intolerable 'question d'Orient.' Many were the shifts he tried, and sometimes, as just after the accession of Nicholas, his hopes rose very high. All was, however, in vain. England and Russia settled matters behind his back, and although the tone which the publicists in his pay adopted towards the Greeks became more favourable in 1826-7, the battle of Navarino was a sad surprise and mortification to the wily chancellor. Not less annoying was the commencement of hostilities on the Danube between Russia and the Porte. The reverses with which the great neighbour met in his first campaign cannot have been otherwise than pleasing at Vienna. But the unfortunate success which attended his arms in the second campaign soon turned ill-dissembled joy into ill-concealed sorrow, and the treaty of Adrianople at once lowered Austria's prestige in the East, and deposed Metternich from the commanding position which he had occupied in the councils of the Holy Allies. It became, indeed, ever more and more evident in the next few years that the age of Congress politics, during which he had been the observed of all observers, was past and gone, that the diplomatic period had vanished away, and that the military period had begun. The very form in which the highest international questions were debated was utterly changed. At Vienna, in 1814, the diplomats had been really the primary, the sovereigns only secondary personages, while at the interview of Münchengratz, between Nicholas and the Emperor Francis, in 1833, the great autocrat appeared to look upon Prince Metternich as hardly more than a confidential clerk. The dull monotony of servitude which oppressed nearly the whole of the empire was varied by the agitations of one of its component parts. When the Hungarian Diet was dissolved in 1812, the emperor had solemnly promised that it should be called together again within three years. Up to 1815, accordingly, the nation went on giving extraordinary levies and supplies without much opposition. When, however, the appointed time was fulfilled, it began to murmur. . . . Year by year the agitation went on increasing, till at last the breaking out of the Greek revolution, and the threatening appearance of Eastern politics, induced Prince Metternich to join his entreaties to those of many other counsellors, who could not be suspected of the slightest leaning to constitutional views. At length the emperor yielded, and in 1825 Presburg was once more filled with the best blood and most active spirits of the land, assembled in parliament. Long and stormy were the debates which ensued. Bitter was, from time to time, the vexation of the emperor, and great was the excitement

throughout Hungary. In the end, however, the court of Vienna triumphed. Hardly any grievances were redressed, while its demands were fully conceded. The Diet of 1825 was, however, not without fruit. The discussion which took place advanced the political education of the people, who were brought back to the point where they stood at the death of Joseph II—that is, before the long wars with France had come to distract their attention from their own affairs. . . . The slumbers of Austria were not yet over. The System dragged its slow length along. Little or nothing was done for the improvement of the country. Klebelsberg administered the finances in an easy and careless manner. Conspiracies and risings in Italy were easily checked, and batches of prisoners sent off from time to time to Mantua or Spielberg. Austrian influence rose ever higher and higher in all the petty courts of the Peninsula. . . . In other regions Russia or England might be willing to thwart him, but in Italy Prince Metternich might proudly reflect that Austria was indeed a 'great power.' The French Revolution of 1830 was at first alarming, but when it resulted in the enthronement of a dynasty which called to its aid a 'cabinet of repression,' all fears were stilled. The Emperor Francis continued to say, when any change was proposed, 'We must sleep upon it,' and died in 1835 in 'the abundance of peace.'—M. E. Grant Duff, *Studies in European Politics*, pp. 140-149.—See, also, GERMANY: A. D. 1819-1847.

A. D. 1815-1846.—Gains of the Hapsburg monarchy.—Its aggressive absolutism.—Death of Francis I.—Accession of Ferdinand I.—Suppression of revolt in Galicia.—Extinction and annexation of the Republic of Cracow.—"In the new partition of Europe, arranged in the Congress of Vienna [see VIENNA, THE CONGRESS OF], Austria received Lombardy and Venice under the title of a Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the Illyrian provinces also as a kingdom, Venetian Dalmatia, the Tirol, Vorarlberg, Salzburg, the Innviertel and Hausrucksviertel, and the part of Galicia ceded by her at an earlier period. Thus, after three and twenty years of war, the monarchy had gained a considerable accession of strength, having obtained, in lieu of its remote and unprofitable possessions in the Netherlands, territories which consolidated its power in Italy, and made it as great in extent as it had been in the days of Charles VI., and far more compact and defensible. The grand duchies of Modena, Parma, and Placentia, were moreover restored to the collateral branches of the house of Hapsburg. . . . After the last fall of Napoleon . . . the great powers of the continent . . . constituted themselves the champions of the principle of absolute monarchy. The maintenance of that principle ultimately became the chief object of the so-called Holy Alliance established in 1816 between Russia, Austria and Prussia, and was pursued with remarkable steadfastness by the Emperor Francis and his minister, Prince Metternich [see HOLY ALLIANCE]. . . . Thenceforth it became the avowed policy of the chief sovereigns of Germany to maintain the rights of dynasties in an adverse sense to those of their subjects. The people, on the other hand, deeply resented the breach of those promises which had been so lavishly made to them on the general summons to the war of



liberation. Disaffection took the place of that enthusiastic loyalty with which they had bled and suffered for their native princes, the secret societies, formed with the concurrence of their rulers, for the purpose of throwing off the yoke of the foreigner, became ready instruments of sedition. . . . In the winter of 1819, a German federative congress assembled at Vienna. In May of the following year it published an act containing closer definitions of the Federative Act, having for their essential objects the exclusion of the various provincial Diets from all positive interference in the general affairs of Germany, and an increase of the power of the princes over their respective Diets, by a guarantee of aid on the part of the confederates" (see GERMANY. A. D. 1814-1820). During the next three years, the powers of the Holy Alliance, under the lead of Austria, and acting under a concert established at the successive congresses of Troppau, Laybach and Verona (see VERONA, CONGRESS OF), interfered to put down popular risings against the tyranny of government in Italy and Spain, while they discouraged the revolt of the Greeks (see ITALY. A. D. 1820-1821; and SPAIN: A. D. 1814-1827). "The commotions that pervaded Europe after the French Revolution of 1830 affected Austria only in her Italian dominions, and there but indirectly, for the imperial authority remained undisputed in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. But the duke of Modena and the archduke of Parma were obliged to quit those states, and a formidable insurrection broke out in the territory of the Church. An Austrian army of 18,000 men quickly put down the insurgents, who rose again, however, as soon as it was withdrawn. The pope again invoked the aid of Austria, whose troops entered Bologna in January, 1832, and established themselves there in garrison. Upon this, the French immediately sent a force to occupy Ancona, and for a while a renewal of the oft-repeated conflict between Austria and France on Italian ground seemed inevitable; but it soon appeared that France was not prepared to support the revolutionary party in the pope's dominions, and that danger passed away. The French remained for some years in Ancona, and the Austrians in Bologna and other towns of Romagna. This was the last important incident in the foreign affairs of Austria previous to the death of the Emperor Francis I. on the 2nd of March, 1835, after a reign of 43 years. . . . The Emperor Francis was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand I., whose accession occasioned no change in the political or administrative system of the empire. Incapacitated, by physical and mental infirmity, from labouring as his father had done in the business of the state, the new monarch left to Prince Metternich a much more unrestricted power than that minister had wielded in the preceding reign. . . . The province of Galicia began early in the new reign to occasion uneasiness to the government. The Congress of Vienna had constituted the city of Cracow an independent republic—a futile representative of that Polish nationality which had once extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea. After the failure of the Polish insurrection of 1831 against Russia, Cracow became the focus of fresh conspiracies, to put an end to which the city was occupied by a mixed force of Russians, Prussians, and Austrians; the two former were

soon withdrawn, but the latter remained until 1840. When they also had retired, the Polish propaganda was renewed with considerable effect. An insurrection broke out in Galicia in 1846, when the scantiness of the Austrian military force in the province seemed to promise it success. It failed, however, as all previous efforts of the Polish patriots had failed, because it rested on no basis of popular sympathy. The nationality for which they contended had ever been of an oligarchical pattern, hostile to the freedom of the middle and lower classes. The Galician peasants had no mind to exchange the yoke of Austria, which pressed lightly upon them, for the feudal oppression of the Polish nobles. They turned upon the insurgents and slew or took them prisoners, the police inciting them to the work by publicly offering a reward of five florins for every suspected person delivered up by them, alive or dead. Thus the agents of a civilized government became the avowed instigators of an inhuman 'jacquerie.' The houses of the landed proprietors were sacked by the peasants, their inmates were tortured and murdered, and bloody anarchy raged throughout the land in the prostituted name of loyalty. The Austrian troops at last restored order; but Szela, the leader of the sanguinary marauders, was thanked and highly rewarded in the name of his sovereign. In the same year the three protecting powers, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, took possession of Cracow, and, ignoring the right of the other parties to the treaty of Vienna to concern themselves about the fate of the republic, they announced that its independence was annulled, and that the city and territory of Cracow were annexed to, and forever incorporated with, the Austrian monarchy. From this time forth the political atmosphere of Europe became more and more loaded with the presages of the storm that burst in 1848"—W. K. Kelly, *Continuation of Coxe's Hist of the House of Austria*, ch 5-6.

A. D. 1815-1849.—Arrangements in Italy of the Congress of Vienna.—Heaviness of the Austrian yoke.—The Italian risings.—"By the treaty of Vienna (1815), the . . . entire kingdom of Venetian-Lombardy was handed over to the Austrians; the duchies of Modena, Reggio, with Massa and Carrara, given to Austrian princes; Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to Napoleon's queen, Maria Luisa, because she was an Austrian princess; the grand-duchy of Tuscany to Ferdinand III. of Austria; the duchy of Lucca to a Bourbon. Rome and the Roman states were restored to the new Pope, Pius VII.; Sicily was united to Naples under the Bourbons, and later deprived of her constitution, despite the promised protection of England; the Canton Ticino, though strictly Italian, annexed to the Swiss Confederation; the little republic of St. Marino left intact, even as the principality of Monaco. England retained Malta; Corsica was left to France. Italy, so Metternich and Europe fondly hoped, was reduced to a geographical expression. Unjust, brutal, and treacherous as was that partition, at least it taught the Italians that 'who would be free himself must strike the blow.' It united them into one common hatred of Austria and Austrian satellites. By substituting papal, Austrian, and Bourbon despotism for the free institutions, codes, and constitutions of the Napoleonic era, it taught them the difference

between rule and misrule. Hence the demand of the Neapolitans during their first revolution (1820) was for a constitution, that of the Piedmontese and Lombards (1821) for a constitution and war against Austria. The Bourbons swore and foreswore, and the Austrians 'restored order' in Naples. The Piedmontese, who had not concerted their movement until Naples was crushed—after the abdication of Victor Emmanuel I, the granting of the constitution by the regent Charles Albert, and its abrogation by the new king Charles Felix—saw the Austrians enter Piedmont, while the leaders of the revolution went out into exile [see ITALY A D 1820-1821]. But those revolutions and those failures were the beginning of the end. The will to be independent of all foreigners, the thirst for freedom was universal, the very name of empire or of emperor, was rendered ridiculous (reduced to a parody—in the person of Ferdinand of Austria). But one illusion remained—in the liberating virtues of France and the French: this had to be dispelled by bitter experience, and for it substituted the new idea of one Italy for the Italians: a nation united, independent, free, governed by a president or by a king chosen by the sovereign people. The apostle of this idea, to which for fifty years victims and martyrs were sacrificed by thousands, was Joseph Mazzini: its champion Joseph Garibaldi. By the genius of the former the prowess of the latter, the abrogation of the constancy, the tenacity, the non will of both, all the populations of Italy were subjugated by that idea: philosophers demonstrated it, poets sung it, pious Christian priests proclaimed it, statesmen found it confronting their negotiations, baffling their half measures.—J. W. V. Mario *Introduction to Autobiography of Garibaldi*—See ITALY A D 1830-1832 and 1848-1849.

**A. D. 1835.—Accession of the Emperor Ferdinand I.**

**A. D. 1839-1840.—The Turko-Egyptian question and its settlement.—Quadruple Alliance.** See TURKS A D 1831-1840.

**A. D. 1848.—The Germanic revolutionary rising.—National Assembly at Frankfort.—Archduke John elected Administrator of Germany.**—"When the third French Revolution broke out, its influence was immediately felt in Germany. The popular movement this time was very different from any the Governments had hitherto had to contend with. The people were evidently in earnest, and resolved to obtain at whatever cost, their chief demands. The Revolution was most serious in the two great German States, Prussia and Austria. It was generally hoped that union as well as freedom was now to be achieved by Germany: but as Prussia and Austria were in too much disorder to do anything, about 500 Germans from the various States met at Frankfort, and on March 21 constituted themselves a provisional Parliament. An extreme party wished the assembly to declare itself permanent, but to this the majority would not agree. It was decided that a National Assembly should be elected forthwith by the German people. The Confederate Diet, knowing that the provisional Parliament was approved by the nation, recognized its authority. Through the Diet the various Governments were communicated with, and all of them agreed to make arrangements for the elections. . . . The National Assembly was opened in Frankfort on

May 18, 1848. It elected the Archduke John of Austria as the head of a new provisional central Government. The choice was a happy one. The Archduke was at once acknowledged by the different governments: and on July 12 the President of the Confederate Diet formally made over to him the authority which had hitherto belonged to the Diet. The Diet then ceased to exist. The Archduke chose from the Assembly seven members, who formed a responsible ministry. The Assembly was divided into two parties, the Right and the Left. These again were broken up into various sections. Much time was lost in useless discussions, and it was soon suspected that the Assembly would not in the end prove equal to the great task it had undertaken"—J. Sims, *History of Germany*, ch. 19, sects 8-11.—See GERMANY A D 1848 (MARCH-SEPTEMBER).

**A. D. 1848 (December).—Accession of the Emperor Francis Joseph I.**

**A. D. 1848-1849.—Revolutionary risings.—Bombardment of Prague and Vienna.—Abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand.—Accession of Francis Joseph.—The Hungarian struggle for independence.**—"The rise of national feeling among the Hungarian Slavonic, and Italian subjects of the House of Hapsburg was not the only difficulty of the Emperor Ferdinand I. Vienna was then the gayest and the dearest centre of fashion and luxury in Europe, but side by side with wealth there seethed a mass of wretched poverty and the protective trade system of Austria so increased the price of the necessities of life that bread riots were frequent. The university students were foremost in the demand for a constitution and for the removal of the rigid censorship of the press and of all books. So, when the news came of the flight of Louis Philippe from Paris [see FRANCE A D 1841-1848 and 1848] the students as well as the artisans of Vienna rose in revolt (March 13, 1848) the latter breaking machinery and attacking the houses of unpopular employers. A deputation of citizens clamoured for the resignation of the hated Metternich: his house was burnt down and he fled to England. A second outbreak of the excited populace (May 15, 1848), sent the Emperor Ferdinand in helpless flight to Innsbruck in Tyrol, but he returned when they avowed their loyalty to his person though they detested the old bureaucratic system. Far more complicated however were the race jealousies of the Empire. The Slavs of Bohemia had demanded of Ferdinand the union of Bohemia, Moravia, and Austrian Silesia in Estates for those provinces, and that the Slavs should enjoy equal privileges with the Germans. After an unsatisfactory answer had been received, they convoked a Slavonic Congress at Prague. But while this Babel of tongues was seeking for a means of fusion, Prince Windischgrätz was assembling Austrian troops around the Bohemian capital. Fights in the streets led to a bombardment of the city, which Windischgrätz soon entered in triumph. This has left a bitterness between the Czechs or Bohemians and the Germans which still divides Bohemia socially and politically. The exciting news of the spring of 1848 had made the hot Asiatic blood of the Magyars boil: yet even Kossuth and the democrats at first only demanded the abolition of Metternich's system in favour of a representative gov-

ernment. . . Unfortunately Kossuth claimed that the Magyar laws and language must now be supreme, not only in Hungary proper, but also in the Hungarian 'crown lands' of Dalmatia, Croatia, and Slavonia, and the enthusiastic Magyars wished also to absorb the, ancient principality of Transylvania, but this again was stoutly resisted by the Roumanians, Slavs, and Saxons of that little known corner of Europe, and their discontent was fanned by the court of Vienna. Jellachich, the Ban or Governor of Croatia, headed this movement, which aimed at making Agram the capital of the southern Slavs. Their revolt against the Hungarian ministry of Batthyanyi was at first disavowed in June, 1848, but in October was encouraged, by the perfidious government of Vienna. A conference between Batthyanyi and Jellachich ended with words of defiance. 'Then we must meet on the Drave,' said the Hungarian. 'No on the Danube,' retorted the champion of the Slavs. The vacillating Ferdinand annulled his acceptance of the new Hungarian constitution and declared Jellachich dictator of Hungary. His tool was unfortunate. After crossing the Drave, the Slavs were defeated by the brave Hungarian 'honveds' (defenders), and as many as 9,000 were made prisoners. Unable to subdue Hungary, Jellachich turned aside towards Vienna to crush the popular party there. For the democrats, exasperated by the perfidious policy of the government, had, on October 6, 1848, risen a third time the war minister, Latour, had been banged on a lamp-post, and the emperor again fled from his turbulent capital to the ever-faithful Tyrolese. But now Jellachich and Windischgrätz bombarded the rebellious capital. It was on the point of surrendering when the Hungarians appeared to aid the city, but the levies raised by the exertions of Kossuth were this time outmanoeuvred (and defeated) by the imperialists at Schwechat (October 30, 1848), and on the next day Vienna surrendered. Blum, a delegate from Saxony [to the German Parliament of Frankfurt, who had come on a mission of mediation to Vienna, but who had taken a part in the fighting], and some other democrats, were shot. By this clever but unscrupulous use of race jealousy the Viennese Government seemed to have overcome Bohemians, Italians, Hungarians, and the citizens of its own capital in turn; while it had diverted the southern Slavonians from hostility to actual service on its side. . . The weak health and vacillating spirit of Ferdinand did not satisfy the knot of courtiers of Vienna, who now, flushed by success, sought to concentrate all power in the Viennese Cabinet. Worn out by the excitements of the year and by the demands of these men, Ferdinand, on December 2, 1848, yielded up the crown, not to his rightful successor, his brother, but to his nephew, Francis Joseph. He, a youth of eighteen, ascended the throne so rudely shaken, and still, in spite of almost uniform disaster in war, holds sway over an empire larger and more powerful than he found it in 1848. The Hungarians refused to recognise the young sovereign thus forced upon them; and the fact that he was not crowned at Presburg with the sacred iron crown of St. Stephen showed that he did not intend to recognise the Hungarian constitution. Austrian troops under Windischgrätz entered Buda-Pesth, but the Hungarian patriots

withdrew from their capital to organize a national resistance, and when the Austrian Government proclaimed the Hungarian constitution abolished and the complete absorption of Hungary in the Austrian Empire, Kossuth and his colleagues retorted by a Declaration of Independence (April 24, 1849). The House of Hapsburg was declared banished from Hungary, which was to be a republic. Kossuth, the first governor of the new republic, and Görgei, its general, raised armies which soon showed their prowess. The first important battle of the war had been fought at Kopolna, on the right bank of the Theiss, on the 26th of February, 1849, Görgei and Dembinski commanding the Hungarians and Windischgrätz leading the Austrians. The latter won the victory, and the Hungarians retreated toward the Theiss. About the middle of March, Görgei resumed the offensive, advancing toward Pesth, and encountered the Austrians at Isaszeg, where he defeated them in a hard fought battle, — or rather in two battles which are sometimes called by different names viz., that of Tapio Bische fought April 4th, and that of Godollo, fought on the 5th. It was now the turn of the Austrians to fall back, and they concentrated behind the Rakos, to cover Pesth. The Hungarian general passed round their left, carried Waitzen by storm, forced them to evacuate Pesth and to retreat to Presburg, abandoning the whole of Hungary with the exception of a few fortresses, which they held. The most important of these fortresses, that of Buda, the "twin city," opposite Pesth on the Danube, was besieged by the Hungarians and carried by storm on the 21st of May. "In Transylvania, too, the Hungarians, under the talented Polish general Bem, overcame the Austrians, Slavonians, and Roumanians in many brilliant encounters. But the proclamation of a republic had alienated those Hungarians who had only striven for their old constitutional rights, so quarrels arose between Görgei and the ardent democrat Kossuth. Worse still, the Czar Nicholas, dreading the formation of a republic near his Polish provinces sent the military aid which Francis Joseph in May 1849 implored. Soon 80,000 Russians under Paskiewitch poured over the northern Carpathians to help the beaten Austrians, while others overpowered the gallant Bem in Transylvania. Jellachich with his Croats again invaded South Hungary, and Haynau, the scourge of Lombardy, marched on the strongest Hungarian fortress, Komorn, on the Danube." The Hungarians, overpowered by the combination of Austrians and Russians against them, were defeated at Pared, June 21; at Acz, July 3; at Komorn, July 11; at Waitzen, July 16; at Tzombor, July 20; at Segesvar, July 31, at Debreczin, August 2; at Szegedin, August 4; at Temesvar, August 10. "In despair Kossuth handed over his dictatorship to his rival Görgei, who soon surrendered at Vilagos with all his forces to the Russians (August 13, 1849). About 5,000 men with Kossuth, Bem, and other leaders, escaped to Turkey. Even there Russia and Austria sought to drive them forth; but the Porte, upheld by the Western Powers, maintained its right to give sanctuary according to the Koran. Kossuth and many of his fellow-exiles finally sailed to England [and afterwards to America], where his majestic eloquence aroused deep sympathy for the afflicted country."



Many Hungarian patriots suffered death. All rebels had their property confiscated, and the country was for years ruled by armed force, and its old rights were abolished."—J. H. Rose, *A Century of Continental History*, ch. 31.

ALSO IN: Sir A. Allison, *Hist. of Europe*, 1815-1852, ch. 55.—A. Görgel, *My Life and Acts in Hungary*.—General Klapka, *Memoirs of the War of Independence in Hungary*.—Count Hartig, *Genesis of the Revolution in Austria*.—W. H. Stiles, *Austria in 1848-49*.

**A. D. 1848-1849.—Revolt in Lombardy and Venetia.—War with Sardinia.—Victories of Radetzky.—Italy vanquished again.** See ITALY. A. D. 1848-1849.

**A. D. 1848-1850.—Failure of the movement for Germanic national unity.—End of the Frankfort Assembly.**—"Frankfort had become the centre of the movement. The helpless Diet had acknowledged the necessity of a German parliament, and had summoned twelve men of confidence charged with drawing up a new imperial constitution. But it was unable to supply what was most wanted—a strong executive. Instead of establishing before all a strong executive able to control and to realise its resolutions, the Assembly lost months in discussing the fundamental rights of the German people, and thus was overhauled by the events. In June, Prince Windischgrätz crushed the insurrection at Prague, and in November the anarchy which had prevailed during the whole summer at Berlin was put down, when Count Brandenburg became first minister. Schwarzenberg [at Vienna] declared as soon as he had taken the reins, that his programme was to maintain the unity of the Austrian empire, and demanded that the whole of it should enter into the Germanic confederation. This was incompatible with the federal state as contemplated by the National Assembly, and therefore Gagern, who had become president of the imperial ministry [at Frankfort], answered Schwarzenberg's programme by declaring that the entering of the Austrian monarchy with a majority of non-German nationalities into the German federal state was an impossibility. Thus nothing was left but to place the king of Prussia at the head of the German state. But in order to win a majority for this plan Gagern found it necessary to make large concessions to the democratic party, amongst others universal suffrage. This was not calculated to make the offer of the imperial crown acceptable to Frederic William IV., but his principal reason for declining it was, that he would not exercise any pressure on the other German sovereigns, and that, notwithstanding Schwarzenberg's haughty demeanour, he could not make up his mind to exclude Austria from Germany. After the refusal of the crown by the king, the National Assembly was doomed; it had certainly committed great faults, but the decisive reason of its failure was the lack of a clear and resolute will in Prussia. History, however, teaches that great enterprises, such as it was to unify an empire dismembered for centuries, rarely succeed at the first attempt. The capital importance of the events of 1848 was that they had made the German unionist movement an historical fact; it could never be effaced from the annals, that all the German governments had publicly acknowledged that tendency as legitimate, the direction for the future was

given, and even at the time of failure it was certain, as Stockmar said, that the necessity of circumstances would bring forward the man who, profiting by the experiences of 1848, would fulfil the national aspirations."—F. H. Geffcken, *The Unity of Germany* (*English Historical Rev.*, April, 1891).—See GERMANY: A. D. 1848-1850.

**A. D. 1849-1859.—The Return to pure Absolutism.—Bureaucracy triumphant.**—"The two great gains which the moral earthquake of 1848 brought to Austria were, that through wide provinces of the Empire, and more especially in Hungary, it swept away the sort of semi-vassalage in which the peasantry had been left by the Urbarium of Maria Theresa [an edict which gave to the peasants the right of moving from place to place and the right of bringing up their children as they wished, while it established in certain courts the trial of all suits to which they were parties], and other reforms akin to or founded upon it, and introduced modern in the place of middle-age relations between the two extremes of society. Secondly, it overthrew the policy of do-nothing—a surer guarantee for the continuance of abuses than even the determination, which soon manifested itself at headquarters, to make the head of the state more absolute than ever. After the taking of Vienna by Windischgrätz, the National Assembly had, on the 15th of November 1848, been removed from the capital to the small town of Kremsier, in Moravia. Here it prolonged an ineffective existence till March 1849, when the court camarilla felt itself strong enough to put an end to an inconvenient censor, and in March 1849 it ceased to exist. A constitution was at the same time promulgated which contained many good provisions, but which was never heartily approved by the ruling powers, or vigorously carried into effect—the proclamation of a state of siege in many cities, and other expedients of authority in a revolutionary period, easily enabling it to be set at naught. The successes of the reaction in other parts of Europe, and, above all, the coup d'état in Paris, emboldened Schwarzenberg to throw off the mask, and on the last day of 1851 Austria became once more a pure despotism. The young emperor had taken 'Viribus unitis' for his motto; and his advisers interpreted those words to mean that Austria was henceforward to be a state as highly centralised as France—a state in which the minister at Vienna was absolutely to govern everything from Salzburg to the Iron Gate. The hand of authority had been severely felt in the pre-revolutionary period, but now advantage was to be taken of the revolution to make it felt far more than ever. In Hungary, for example, . . . it was fondly imagined that there would be no more trouble. The old political division into counties was swept away; the whole land was divided into five provinces; and the courtiers might imagine that from henceforth the Magyars would be as easily led as the inhabitants of Upper Austria. These delusions soon became general, but they owed their origin partly to the enthusiastic ignorance of those who were at the head of the army, and partly to two men"—Prince Schwarzenberg and Alexander Bach. Of the latter, the "two leading ideas were to cover the whole empire with a German bureaucracy, and to draw closer the ties which connected the court of Vienna with that of Rome.

... If absolutism in Austria had a fair trial from the 31st of December 1851 to the Italian war, it is to Bach that it was owing; and if it utterly and ludicrously failed, it is he more than any other man who must bear the blame. Already, in 1849, the bureaucracy had been reorganised, but in 1852 new and stricter regulations were introduced. Everything was determined by precise rules—even the exact amount of hair which the employé was permitted to wear upon his face. Hardly any question was thought sufficiently insignificant to be decided upon the spot. The smallest matters had to be referred to Vienna. . . . We can hardly be surprised that the great ruin of the Italian war brought down with a crash the whole edifice of the reaction."—M. E. G. Duff, *Studies in European Politics*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: L. Leger, *Hist. of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 33.

A. D. 1853.—Commercial Treaty with the German Zollverein. See TARIFF LEGISLATION (GERMANY): A. D. 1853-1892.

A. D. 1853-1856.—Attitude in the Crimean War. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1853-1854, to 1854-1856.

A. D. 1856-1859.—The war in Italy with Sardinia and France.—Reverses at Magenta and Solferino.—Peace of Villafranca.—Surrender of Lombardy.—"From the wars of 1848-9 the King of Sardinia was looked upon by the moderate party as the champion of Italian freedom. Charles Albert had failed: yet his son would not, and indeed could not, go back, though, when he began his reign, there were many things against him. . . . Great efforts were made to win him over to the Austrian party, but the King was neither cast down by defeat and distrust nor won over by soft words. He soon showed that, though he had been forced to make a treaty with Austria, yet he would not cast in his lot with the oppression of Italy. He made Massimo d'Azeglio his chief Minister, and Camillo Benso di Cavour his Minister of Commerce. With the help of these two men he honestly carried out the reforms which had been granted by his father, and set new ones on foot. . . . The quick progress of reform frightened Count Massimo d'Azeglio. He retired from office in 1853, and his place was taken by Count Cavour, who made a coalition with the democratic party in Piedmont headed by Urbano Rattazzi. The new chief Minister began to work not only for the good of Piedmont but for Italy at large. The Milanese still listened to the hopes which Mazzini held out, and could not quietly bear their subjection. Count Cavour indignantly remonstrated with Radetzky for his harsh government. . . . The division and slavery of Italy had shut her out from European politics. Cavour held that, if she was once looked upon as an useful ally, then her deliverance might be hastened by foreign interference. The Sardinian army had been brought into good order by Alfonso della Marmora; and was ready for action. In 1855, Sardinia made alliance with England and France, who were at war with Russia; for Cavour looked on that power as the great support of the system of despotism on the Continent, and held that it was necessary for Italian freedom that Russia should be humbled. The Sardinian army was therefore sent to the Crimea, under La Marmora, where it did good

service in the battle of Tchernaya. . . . The next year the Congress of Paris was held to arrange terms of peace between the allies and Russia, and Cavour took the opportunity of laying before the representatives of the European powers the unhappy state of his countrymen.

. . . In December, 1851, Louis Napoleon Buonaparte, the President of the French Republic, seized the government, and the next year took the title of Emperor of the French. He was anxious to weaken the power of Austria, and at the beginning of 1859 it became evident that war would soon break out. As a sign of the friendly feeling of the French Emperor towards the Italian cause, his cousin, Napoleon Joseph, married Clotilda, the daughter of Victor Emmanuel. Count Cavour now declared that Sardinia would make war on Austria, unless a separate and national government was granted to Lombardy and Venetia, and unless Austria promised to meddle no more with the rest of Italy. On the other hand, Austria demanded the disarmament of Sardinia. The King would not listen to this demand, and France and Sardinia declared war against Austria. The Emperor Napoleon declared that he would free Italy from the Alps to the Adriatic. . . . The Austrian army crossed the Ticino, but was defeated by the King and General Cialdini. The French victory of Magenta, on June 4th forced the Austrians to retreat from Lombardy. . . . On June 24th the Austrians, who had crossed the Mincio, were defeated at Solferino by the allied armies of France and Sardinia. It seemed as though the French Emperor would keep his word. But he found that if he went further, Prussia would take up the cause of Austria, and that he would have to fight on the Rhine as well as on the Adige. When, therefore, the French army came before Verona, a meeting was arranged between the two Emperors. This took place at Villafranca, and there Buonaparte, without consulting his ally, agreed with Francis Joseph to favour the establishment of an Italian Confederation. . . . Austria gave up to the King of Sardinia Lombardy to the west of Mincio. But the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Duke of Modena were to return to their States. The proposed Confederation was never made, for the people of Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and Romagna sent to the King to pray that they might be made part of his Kingdom, and Victor Emmanuel refused to enter on the scheme of the French Emperor. In return for allowing the Italians of Central Italy to shake off the yoke, Buonaparte asked for Savoy and Nizza. . . . The King . . . consented to give up the 'glorious cradle of his Monarchy' in exchange for Central Italy."—W. A. Hunt, *History of Italy*, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: J. W. Probyn, *Italy from 1815 to 1890*, ch. 9-10.—C. de Mazade, *Life of Count Cavour*, ch. 2-7.—See, also, ITALY: A. D. 1856-1859, and 1859-1861.

A. D. 1862-1866.—The Schleswig-Holstein question.—Quarrel with Prussia.—The humiliating Seven Weeks War.—Conflict with Prussia grew out of the complicated Schleswig-Holstein question, reopened in 1862 and provisionally settled by a delusive arrangement between Prussia and Austria, into which the latter was artfully drawn by Prince Bismarck. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (DENMARK): A. D. 1848-1862, and GERMANY: A. D. 1861-1866. No sooner was the war

with Denmark over, than "Prussia showed that it was her intention to annex the newly acquired duchies to herself. This Austria could not endure, and accordingly, in 1866, war broke out between Austria and Prussia. Prussia sought alliance with Italy, which she stirred up to attack Austria in her Italian possessions. The Austrian army defeated the Italian at Eustazza [or Custoza] (see ITALY, A. D. 1862-1866)], but the fortunes of war were against them in Germany. Allied with the Austrians were the Saxons, the Bavarians, the Württembergers, Baden and Hesse, and Hanover. The Prussians advanced with their chief army into Bohemia with the utmost rapidity, dreading lest the Southern allies should march north to Hanover, and cut the kingdom in half, and push on to Berlin. The Prussians had three armies, which were to enter Bohemia and effect a junction. The Elbe army under the King, the first army under Prince Frederick Charles, and the second army under the Crown Prince. The Elbe army advanced across Saxony by Dresden. The first army was in Lusatia, at Reichenberg, and the second army in Silesia at Heisse. They were all to meet at Gitschin. The Austrian army under General Benedek was at Königgrätz, in Eastern Bohemia.

As in the wars with Napoleon, so was it now, the Austrian generals . . . never did the right thing at the right moment. Benedek did indeed march against the first army, but too late, and when he found it was already through the mountain door, he retreated, and so gave time for the three armies to concentrate upon him. The Elbe army and the first met at Munchengrätz, and defeated an Austrian army there, pushed on, and drove them back out of Gitschin on Königgrätz. . . . The Prussians pushed on, and now the Elbe army went to Smidar, and the first army to Horitz, whilst the second army, under the Crown Prince, was pushing on, and had got to Graditz. The little river Bistritz is crossed by the high road to Königgrätz. It runs through swampy ground, and forms little marshy pools or lakes. To the north of Königgrätz a little stream of much the same character dribbles through bogs into the Elbe. But about Chlum, Nedelitz and Lippa is terraced high ground, and there Benedek planted his cannon. The Prussians advanced from Smidar against the left wing of the Austrians, from Horitz against the centre, and the Crown Prince was to attack the right wing. The battle began on the 3d of July, at 7 o'clock in the morning, by the simultaneous advance of the Elbe and the first army upon the Bistritz. At Sadowa is a wood, and there the battle raged most fiercely.

Two things were against the Austrians, first, the incompetence of their general, and, secondly, the inferiority of their guns. The Prussians had what are called needle-guns, breach-loaders, which are fired by the prick of a needle, and for the rapidity with which they can be fired far surpassed the old-fashioned muzzle-loaders used by the Austrians. After this great battle, which is called by the French and English the battle of Sadowa (Sadōwa, not Sadowa, as it is erroneously pronounced), but which the Germans call the battle of Königgrätz, the Prussians marched on Vienna, and reached the Marchfeld before the Emperor Francis Joseph would come to terms. At last, on the 23d of August, a peace which gave a crushing preponderance in Germany to

Prussia, was concluded at Prague."—S. Baring-Gould, *The Story of Germany*, pp. 390-394.—See GERMANY: A. D. 1866.

A. D. 1866.—The War in Italy.—Loss of Venetia. See ITALY: A. D. 1862-1866.

A. D. 1866-1867.—Concession of nationality to Hungary.—Formation of the dual Austro-Hungarian Empire.—"For twelve years the name of Hungary, as a State, was erased from the map of Europe. Bureaucratic Absolutism ruled supreme in Austria, and did its best to obliterate all Hungarian institutions. Germanisation was the order of the day, the German tongue being declared the exclusive language of official life as well as of the higher schools. Government was carried on by means of foreign, German, and Czech officials. No vestige was left, not only of the national independence, but either of Home Rule or of self-government of any sort, the country was divided into provinces without regard for historical traditions, in short, an attempt was made to wipe out every trace denoting the existence of a separate Hungary. All ranks and classes opposed a sullen passive resistance to these attacks against the existence of the nation, even the sections of the nationalities which had rebelled against the enactments of 1848, at the instigation of the reactionary Camarilla, were equally disaffected in consequence of the short-sighted policy of despotical centralisation. . . . Finally, after the collapse of the system of Absolutism in consequence of financial disasters and of the misfortunes of the Italian War of 1859, the Hungarian Parliament was again convoked; and after protracted negotiations, broken off and resumed again, the impracticability of a system of provincial Federalism having been proved in the meantime, and the defeat incurred in the Prussian War of 1866 having demonstrated the futility of any reconstruction of the Empire of Austria in which the national aspirations of Hungary were not taken into due consideration—an arrangement was concluded under the auspices of Francis Deák, Count Andrassy, and Count Beust, on the basis of the full acknowledgment of the separate national existence of Hungary, and of the continuity of its legal rights. The idea of a centralised Austrian Empire had to give way to the dual Austro-Hungarian monarchy, which is in fact an indissoluble federation of two equal States, under the common rule of a single sovereign, the Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, each of the States having a constitution, government, and parliament of its own, Hungary especially retaining, with slight modifications, its ancient institutions remodelled in 1848. The administration of the foreign policy, the management of the army, and the disbursement of the expenditure necessary for these purposes, were settled upon as common affairs of the entire monarchy, for the management of which common ministers were instituted, responsible to the two delegations, co-equal committees of the parliaments of Hungary and of the Cisleithanian (Austrian) provinces. Elaborate provisions were framed for the smooth working of these common institutions, for giving weight to the constitutional influence, even in matters of common policy, of the separate Cisleithanian and Hungarian ministries, and for rendering their responsibility to the respective Parliaments an earnest and solid reality. The financial questions pending in the two inde-



pendent and equal States were settled by a compromise; measures were taken for the equitable arrangement of all matters which might arise in relation to interests touching both States, such as duties, commerce, and indirect taxation, all legislation on these subjects taking place by means of identical laws separately enacted by the Parliament of each State. . . . Simultaneously with these arrangements the political differences between Hungary and Croatia were compromised by granting provincial Home Rule to the latter. . . . Thus the organisation of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy on the basis of dualism, and the compromise entered into between the two halves composing it, whilst uniting for the purposes of defence the forces of two States of a moderate size and extent into those of a great empire, able to cope with the exigencies of an adequate position amongst the first-class Powers of Europe, restored also to Hungary its independence and its unfettered sovereignty in all internal matters."—A. Pulszky, *Hungary (National Life and Thought, lect. 3)*.—"The Ausgleich, or agreement with Hungary, was arranged by a committee of 67 members of the Hungarian diet, at the head of whom was the Frankla of Hungary, Francis Deak, the true patriot and inexorable legist, who had taken no part in the revolutions, but who had never given up one of the smallest of the rights of his country. . . . On the 8th of June [1867], the emperor Francis Joseph was crowned with great pomp at Pesth. On the 28th of the following June, he approved the decisions of the diet, which settled the position of Hungary with regard to the other countries belonging to his majesty, and modified some portions of the laws of 1848. . . . Since the Ausgleich the empire has consisted of two parts. . . . For the sake of clearness, political language has been increased by the invention of two new terms, Cisleithania and Transleithania, to describe the two groups, separated a little below Vienna by a small affluent of the Danube, called the Leitha—a stream which never expected to become so celebrated."—L. Leger, *Hist. of Austro-Hungary, ch. 35*.

ALSO IN: Francis Deak, *A Memoir, ch. 26-31*.—Count von Beust, *Memoirs, v. 2, ch. 38*.—L. Felbermann, *Hungary and its People, ch. 5*.

**A. D. 1866-1887.—The Austro-Hungarian Empire.—Its new national life.—Its difficulties and promises.—Its ambitions and aims in Southeastern Europe.**—"Peace politicians may say that a war always does more harm than good to the nations which engage in it. Perhaps it always does, at any rate, morally speaking, to the victors: but that it does not to the vanquished, Austria stands as a living evidence. Finally excluded from Italy and Germany by the campaign of 1866, she has cast aside her dreams of foreign domination, and has set herself manfully to the task of making a nation out of the various conflicting nationalities over which she presides. It does not require much insight to perceive that as long as she held her position in Germany this fusion was hopeless. The overwhelming preponderance of the German element made any approach to a reciprocity of interests impossible. The Germans always were regarded as sovereigns, the remaining nationalities as subjects; it was for these to command, for those to obey. In like manner, it

was impossible for the Austrian Government to establish a mutual understanding with a population which felt itself attracted—alike by the ties of race, language, and geographical position—to another political union. Nay more, as long as the occupation of the Italian provinces remained as a blot on the Imperial escutcheon, it was impossible for the Government to command any genuine sympathy from any of its subjects. But with the close of the war with Prussia these two difficulties—the relations with Germany and the relations with Italy—were swept away. From this time forward Austria could appear before the world as a Power binding together for the interests of all, a number of petty nationalities, each of which was too feeble to maintain a separate existence. In short, from the year 1866 Austria had a *raison d'être*, whereas before she had none. . . . Baron Beust, on the 7th of February, 1867, took office under Franz Joseph. His programme may be stated as follows. He saw that the day of centralism and imperial unity was gone past recall, and that the most liberal Constitution in the world would never reconcile the nationalities to their present position, as provinces under the always detested and now despised Empire. But then came the question—Granted that a certain disintegration is inevitable, how far is this disintegration to go? Beust proposed to disarm the opposition of the leading nationality by the gift of an almost complete independence, and, resting on the support thus obtained, to gain time for conciliating the remaining provinces by building up a new system of free government. It would be out of place to give a detailed account of the well-known measure which converted the 'Austrian empire' into the 'Austro-Hungarian monarchy.' It will be necessary, however, to describe the additions made to it by the political machinery. The Hungarian Reichstag was constructed on the same principle as the Austrian Reichsrath. It was to meet in Pesth, as the Reichsrath at Vienna, and was to have its own responsible ministers. From the members of the Reichsrath and Reichstag respectively were to be chosen annually sixty delegates to represent Cisleithanian and sixty to represent Hungarian interests—twenty being taken in each case from the Upper, forty from the Lower House. These two 'Delegations,' whose votes were to be taken, when necessary, collectively, though each Delegation sat in a distinct chamber, owing to the difference of language, formed the Supreme Imperial Assembly, and met alternate years at Vienna and Pesth. They were competent in matters of foreign policy, in military administration, and in Imperial finance. At their head stood three Imperial ministers—the Reichskanzler, who presided at the Foreign Office, and was ex officio Prime Minister, the Minister of War, and the Minister of Finance. These three ministers were independent of the Reichsrath and Reichstag, and could only be dismissed by a vote of want of confidence on the part of the Delegations. The 'Ausgleich' or scheme of federation with Hungary is, no doubt, much open to criticism, both as a whole and in its several parts. It must always be borne in mind that administratively and politically it was a retrogression. At a time in which all other European nations—notably North Germany—were simplifying and unifying their political

systems, Austria was found doing the very reverse. . . . The true answer to these objections is, that the measure of 1867 was constructed to meet a practical difficulty. Its end was not the formation of a symmetrical system of government, but the pacification of Hungary. . . . The internal history of the two halves of the empire flows in two different channels. Graf Andrassy, the Hungarian Premier, had a comparatively easy task before him. There were several reasons for this. In the first place, the predominance of the Magyars in Hungary was more assured than that of the Germans in Cisleithania. It is true that they numbered only 5,000,000 out of the 16,000,000 inhabitants, but in these 5,000,000 were included almost all the rank, wealth, and intelligence of the country. Hence they formed in the Reichstag a compact and homogeneous majority, under which the remaining Slovaks and Croats soon learnt to range themselves. In the second place, Hungary had the great advantage of starting in a certain degree afresh. Her government was not bound by the traditional policy of former Vienna ministries, and . . . it had managed to keep its financial credit unimpaired. In the third place, as those who are acquainted with Hungarian history well know, Parliamentary institutions had for a long time flourished in Hungary. Indeed the Magyars, who among their many virtues can hardly be credited with the virtue of humility, assert that the world is mistaken in ascribing to England the glory of having invented representative government, and claim this glory for themselves. Hence one of the main difficulties with which the Cisleithanian Government had to deal was already solved for Graf Andrassy and his colleagues. — *Austria since Salomon* (Quarterly Review, v 131, pp. 90-95). — "It is difficult for any one except an Austro-Hungarian statesman to realise the difficulties of governing the Dual Monarchy. Cisleithania has, as is well known, a Reichsrath and seventeen Provincial Diets. The two Austrias, Styria, Carinthia, and Salzburg present no difficulties, but causes of trouble are abundant in the other districts. The Emperor will probably end by getting himself crowned King of Bohemia, although it will be difficult for him to lend himself to a proscription of the German language by the Tsechs, as he has been forced by the Magyars to lend himself to the proscription in parts of Hungary of Rouman and of various Slavonic languages. But how far is this process to continue? The German Austrians are as unpopular in Istria and Dalmatia as in Bohemia; and Dalmatia is also an ancient kingdom. These territories were originally obtained by the election of the King of Hungary to the crown of the tripartite kingdom of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia. Is 'Ferencz Jozsef' to be crowned King of Dalmatia? And is Dalmatia to have its separate Ministry and its separate official language, and its completely separate laws? And what then of Fiume, the so-called Hungarian port? Then, again, Galicia is also an ancient kingdom, although it has at other times formed part of Poland; and the Emperor is King of Galicia, as he is King of Bohemia and Dalmatia. Is he to be crowned King of Galicia? And if so, is the separate existence of Galicia to be a Polish or a Ruthenian existence, or, indeed, a Jewish? for the Jews

are not only extraordinarily powerful and numerous there, but are gaining ground day by day. The Ruthenians complain as bitterly of being bullied by the Poles in Galicia as the Croats complain of the Magyars. Even here the difficulties are not ended. The Margraviate of Moravia contains a large Tsech population, and will have to be added to the Bohemian kingdom. Bukowina may go with Galicia or Transylvania, Austrian Silesia may be divided between the Tsechs of Bohemia and Moravia on the one part, and the Poles or Ruthenians or Jews of Galicia on the other. But what is to become of that which, with the most obstinate disregard of pedants, I intend to continue to call the Tyrol? Trieste must go with Austria and Salzburg, and the Northern Tyrol and Styria and Carinthia no doubt; but it is not difficult to show that Austria would actually be strengthened by giving up the Southern Tyrol, where the Italian people, or at least the Italian language, is gaining ground day by day. There really seems very little left of the integrity of the Austrian Empire at the conclusion of our survey of its constituent parts. Matters do not look much better if we turn to Trans Leithania. Hungary has its Reichstag (which is also known by some terrible Magyar name), its House of Representatives, and its House of Magnates, and, although there are not so many Provincial Diets as in Austria, Slavonia and the Banat of Croatia possess a Common Diet with which the Magyars are far from popular, and the Principality of Transylvania also possessed separate local rights, for trying completely to suppress which the Magyars are at present highly unpopular. The Principality, although under Magyar rule, is divided between 'Saxons' and Roumans, who equally detest the Magyars, and the Croats and Slovenes who people the Banat are Slavs who also execrate their Ugrian rulers, inscriptions in whose language are defaced whenever seen. Croatia is under-represented at Pest, and says that she goes unheard, and the Croats, who have partial Home Rule without an executive, ask for a local executive as well, and demand Fiume and Dalmatia. If we look to the numbers of the various races, there are in Austria of Germans and Jews about 9,000,000 to about 13,000,000 Slavs and a few Italians and Roumans. There are in the lands of the Crown of Hungary 2,000,000 of Germans and Jews, of Roumans nearly 3,000,000, although the Magyars only acknowledge 2,500,000, and of Magyars and Slavs between five and six millions apiece. In the whole of the territories of the Dual Monarchy it will be seen that there are 18,000,000 of Slavs and only 17,000,000 of the ruling races — Germans, Jews, and Magyars — while between three and four millions of Roumans and Italians count along with the Slav majority as being hostile to the dominant nationalities. It is difficult to exaggerate the gravity for Austria of the state of things which these figures reveal." — *The Present Position of European Politics* (Fortnightly Review, April, 1887). — "In past times, when Austria had held France tight bound between Spain, Germany, and the Netherlands, she had aspired to a dominant position in Western Europe; and, so long as her eyes were turned in that direction, she naturally had every interest in preserving the Ottoman Empire intact, for she was thus

guaranteed against all attacks from the south. But, after the loss of her Italian possessions in 1805, and of part of Croatia in 1809, after the disasters of 1849, 1859 and 1866, she thought more and more seriously of indemnifying herself at the expense of Turkey. It was moreover evident that, in order to paralyse the damaging power of Hungary it was essential for her to assimilate the primitive and scattered peoples of Turkey, accustomed to centuries of complete submission and obedience, and form thus a kind of iron band which should encircle Hungary and effectually prevent her from rising. If, in fact, we glance back at the position of Austria in 1860, and take the trouble carefully to study the change of ideas and interests which had then taken place in the policy of France and of Russia, the tendencies of the strongly constituted nations who were repugnant to the authority and influence of Austria, the basis of the power of that empire, and, finally, the internal ruin with which she was then threatened, we cannot but arrive at the conclusion that Austria, by the very instinct of self preservation, was forced to turn eastwards and to consider how best she might devour some, at least, of the European provinces of Turkey. Austrian statesmen have been thoroughly convinced of this fact, and, impelled by the instinct above-mentioned, have not ceased carefully and consistently to prepare and follow out the policy here indicated. Their objects have already been partially attained by the practical annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1878 [see *TURKS*: A. D. 1878], and it was striking to observe with what bitter feeling and resentment this measure was looked upon at the time by the Hungarian section of the empire. Russia has never made any secret of her designs upon Turkey, she has, indeed, more than once openly made war in order to carry them out. But Austria

remains a fatal obstacle in her path. Even as things at present stand, Austria, by her geographical position, so commands and dominates the Russian line of operations that, once the Danube passed, the Russians are constantly menaced by Austria on the flank and rear. . . . And if this be true now, how much more true would it be were Austria to continue her march eastwards towards Salonica. That necessarily, at some time or other, that march must be continued may be taken for almost certain, but that Austria has it in her power to commence it for the present, cannot, I think, be admitted. She must further consolidate and make certain of what she has. Movement now would bring upon her a struggle for life or death—a struggle whose issue may fairly be said, in no unfriendly spirit to Austria, to be doubtful. With at home a bitterly discontented Croatia, strong Pan-slavistic tendencies in Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Dalmatia, a Greek population thoroughly disaffected, and a Hungary whose loyalty is doubtful, she would have to deal beyond her frontiers with the not contemptible armies, when combined, of Servia, Bulgaria, and Greece, whose aspirations she would be asphyxiating for ever, with a bitterly hostile population in Macedonia, with the whole armed force of Turkey, and with the gigantic military power of Russia, whilst it is not fantastic to suppose that Germany would be hovering near, ready to pounce on her German provinces when the 'moment psychological' should occur. With such a prospect before her, it would be worse than madness for Austria to move until the cards fell more favourably for her"—V. Caillard, *The Bulgarian Imbroglia* (*Fortnightly Review*, December, 1885).

A. D. 1878.—The Treaty of Berlin.—Acquisition of Bosnia and Herzegovina. See *TURKS*: A. D. 1878

**AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE.** See *AUSTRIA*: A. D. 1866-1867.

**AUTERI, The.** See *IRELAND*, TRIBES OF EARLY CELTIC INHABITANTS

**AUTUN: Origin.** See *GAULS*

A. D. 287.—Sacked by the Bagauds. See *BAGAUDS*

**AUVERGNE, Ancient.** The country of the Arverni. See *ÆDUI*, also *GAULS*.

**AUVERGNE, The Great Days of.** See *FRANCE*: A. D. 1665

**AUXILIUM.** See *TALLAGE*

**AVA.** See *INDIA*: A. D. 1823-1833

**AVALON.** See *NEWFOUNDLAND*: A. D. 1610-1655, and *MARYLAND*: A. D. 1632.

**AVARICUM.** See *BOURGES*, ORIGIN OF.

**AVARS, The.**—The true Avars are represented to have been a powerful Turanian people who exercised in the sixth century a wide dominion in Central Asia. Among the tribes subject to them was one called the Ogors, or Ougours, or Oulars, or Ouar Khouni, or Varchontes (these diverse names have been given to the nation) which is supposed to have belonged to the national family of the Huns. Some time in the early half of the sixth century, the Turks, then a people who dwelt in the very center of Asia, at the foot of the Altai mountains, making their first appearance in history as conquerors, crushed and almost annihilated the Avars, there-

by becoming the lords of the Ougours, or Ouar Khouni. But the latter found an opportunity to escape from the Turkish yoke. "Gathering together their wives and their children, their flocks and their herds, they turned their waggons towards the Setting Sun. This immense exodus comprised upwards of 200,000 persons. The terror which inspired their flight rendered them resistless in the onset, for the avenging Turk was behind their track. They overturned every thing before them, even the Hunnic tribes of kindred origin, who had long hovered on the north-east frontiers of the Empire, and, driving out or enslaving the inhabitants, established themselves in the wide plains, which stretch between the Volga and the Don. In that age of imperfect information they were naturally enough confounded with the greatest and most formidable tribe of the Turanian stock known to the nations of the West. The report that the Avars had broken loose from Asia, and were coming in irresistible force to overrun Europe, spread itself all along both banks of the Danube and penetrated to the Byzantine court. With true barbaric cunning, the Ouar Khouni availed themselves of the mistake, and by calling themselves Avars largely increased the terrors of their name and their chances of conquest." The pretended Avars were taken into the pay of the Empire by Justinian and employed against the Hun tribes north and east of the Black Sea. They presently



acquired a firm footing on both banks of the Danube, and turned their arms against the Empire. The important city of Sirmium was taken by them after an obstinate siege and its inhabitants put to the sword. Their ravages extended over central Europe to the Elbe, where they were beaten back by the warlike Franks, and, southwards, through Moesia, Illyria, Thrace, Macedonia and Greece, even to the Peloponnesus. Constantinople itself was threatened more than once, and in the summer of 626, it was desperately attacked by Avars and Persians in conjunction (see *ROME*: A. D. 565-628), with disastrous results to the assailants. But the seat of their Empire was the Dacian country—modern Roumania, Transylvania and part of Hungary—in which the Avars had helped the Lombards to crush and extinguish the Gepidae. The Slavic tribes which, by this time, had moved in great numbers into central and south-eastern Europe, were largely in subjection to the Avars and did their bidding in war and peace. "These unfortunate creatures, of apparently an imperfect, or, at any rate, imperfectly cultivated intelligence, endured such frightful tyranny from their Avar conquerors, that their very name has passed into a synonyme for the most degraded servitude."

—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, lect. 4.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 42.

**7th Century.**—**The Slavic Revolt.**—The Empire of the Avars was shaken and much diminished in the Seventh Century by an extensive rising of their oppressed Slavic subjects, roused and led, it is said, by a Frank merchant, or adventurer, named Samo, who became their king. The first to throw off the yoke were a tribe called the Vendes, or Wendes, or Venedi, in Bohemia, who were reputed to be half-castes, resulting from intercourse between the Avar warriors and the women of their Slavic vassals. Under the lead of Samo, the Wendes and Slovenes or Slavonians drove the Avars to the east and north; and it seems to have been in connection with this revolution that the Emperor Heraclius induced the Serbs or Servians and Croats—Slavic tribes of the same race and region—to settle in depopulated Dalmatia. "'From the year 630 A. D.' writes M. Thierry, 'the Avar people are no longer mentioned in the annals of the East; the successors of Attila no longer figure beside the successors of Constantine. It required new wars in the West to bring upon the stage of history the khan and his people.' In these wars [of Pepin and Charlemagne] they were finally swept off from the roll of European nations."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, lect. 4.

**A. D. 791-805.**—**Conquest by Charlemagne.**—"Hungary, now so called, was possessed by the Avars, who, joining with themselves a multitude of Hunnish tribes, accumulated the immense spoils which both they themselves and their equally barbarous predecessors had torn from the other nations of Europe. . . . They extended their limits towards Lombardy, and touched upon the very verge of Bavaria. . . . Much of their eastern frontier was now lost, almost without a struggle on their part, by the rise of other barbarous nations, especially the various tribes of Bulgarians." This was the position of the Avars at the time of Charlemagne, whom they provoked by forming an al-

liance with the ambitious Duke of Bavaria, Tassilo,—most obstinate of all who resisted the Frank king's imperious and imperial rule. In a series of vigorous campaigns, between 791 and 797 Charlemagne crushed the power of the Avars and took possession of their country. The royal "ring" or stronghold—believed to have been situated in the neighborhood of Tatar, between the Danube and the Theiss—was penetrated, and the vast treasure stored there was seized. Charlemagne distributed it with a generous hand to churches, to monasteries and to the poor, as well as to his own nobles, servants and soldiers, who are said to have been made rich. There were subsequent risings of the Avars and wars, until 805, when the remnant of that almost annihilated people obtained permission to settle on a tract of land between Sarwar and Hainburg, on the right bank of the Danube, where they would be protected from their Slavonian enemies. This was the end of the Avar nation.—G. P. R. James, *Hist. of Charlemagne*, bks. 9 and 11.

ALSO IN: J. I. Mombert, *Hist. of Charles the Great*, bk. 2, ch. 7.

**AVARS, The Rings of the.**—The fortifications of the Avars were of a peculiar and effective construction and were called *Hrings*, or *Rings*. "They seem to have been a series of eight or nine gigantic ramparts, constructed in concentric circles, the inner one of all being called the royal circle or camp, where was deposited all the valuable plunder which the warriors had collected in their expeditions. The method of constructing these ramparts was somewhat singular. Two parallel rows of gigantic piles were driven into the ground, some twenty feet apart. The intervening space was filled with stones, or a species of chalk, so compacted as to become a solid mass. The sides and summit were covered with soil, upon which were planted trees and shrubs, whose interlacing branches formed an impenetrable hedge."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, lect. 9.

**AVEBURY.** See **ABURY**.

**AVEIN, Battle of (1635).** See **NETHERLANDS**: A. D. 1635-1638.

**AVENTINE, The.** See **SEVEN HILLS OF ROME**.

**AVERNUS, Lake and Cavern.**—A gloomy lake called Avernus, which filled the crater of an extinct volcano, situated a little to the north of the Bay of Naples, was the object of many superstitious imaginations among the ancients. "There was a place near Lake Avernus called the prophetic cavern. Persons were in attendance there who called up ghosts. Any one desiring it came thither, and, having killed a victim and poured out libations, summoned whatever ghost he wanted. The ghost came, very faint and doubtful to the sight."—Maximus Tyrius, quoted by C. C. Felton, in *Greece, Ancient and Modern*, c. 2, lect. 9.—See, also, **CUME** and **BAIÆ**.

**AVERYSBORO, Battle of.** See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1865 (**FEBRUARY—MARCH**: **THE CAROLINAS**).

**AVICENNA.** See **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: 7-11th CENTURIES.

**AVIGNON: 10th Century.**—In the Kingdom of Arles. See **BURGUNDY**: A. D. 843-988.

**A. D. 1226.**—**Siege by Louis VIII.** See **ALBIGENSES**: A. D. 1217-1229.

## AVIGNON.

**A. D. 1309-1348.**—Made the seat of the Papacy.—Purchase of the city by Clement V. See PAPACY. A. D. 1294-1348

**A. D. 1367-1369.**—Temporary return of Urban V. to Rome. See PAPACY. A. D. 1352-1378.

**A. D. 1377-1417.**—Return of Pope Gregory XI. to Rome.—Residence of the anti-popes of the great Schism. See PAPACY A. D. 1377-1417.

**A. D. 1790-1791.**—Revolution and Anarchy.—Atrocities committed.—Reunion with France decreed. See FRANCE. A. D. 1790-1791.

**A. D. 1797.**—Surrendered to France by the Pope. See FRANCE A. D. 1796-1797 (OCTOBER—APRIL)

**A. D. 1815.**—Possession by France confirmed. See VIENNA, THE CONGRESS OF

**AVIONES, The.**—“The Aviones were a Suevic clan. They are mentioned by Tacitus in connexion with the Reudigni, Angli, Varini, Eudoses, Suardones and Nuithones, all Suevic clans. These tribes must have occupied Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz and Sleswick-Holstein, the Elbe being their Eastern boundary. It is, however, impossible to define their precise localities.” A. J. Church and W. J. Brodrick *Minor Works of Tacitus, Geog. Notes to the Germany*

**AVIS, The House of.** See PORTUGAL A. D. 1888-1885.

**AVIS, Knights of.**—This is a Portuguese military religious order which originated about 1147 during the wars with the Moors, and which formerly observed the monastic rule of St Benedict. It became connected with the order of Calatrava in Spain and received from the latter its property in Portugal. Pope Paul III united the Grand Mastership to the Crown of Portugal.—F. C. Woodhouse, *Military Religious Orders*, pt. 4.—See, also, PORTUGAL. A. D. 1095-1325

**AVITUS, Roman Emperor (Western),** A. D. 455-456

**AVVIM, The.**—The original inhabitants of the south west corner of Canaan, from which they were driven by the Philistines.—H. Ewald, *Hist. of Israel*, bk. 1, sect. 4

**AYACUCHO, Battle of (1824).** See PERU A. D. 1820-1826

**AYLESBURY ELECTION CASE.** See ENGLAND. A. D. 1703

**AYLESFORD, Battle of (A. D. 455).**—The first battle fought and won by the invading Jutes after their landing in Britain under Hengest and Horsa. It was fought at the lowest ford of the river Medway. See ENGLAND. A. D. 449-473

**AYMARAS, The.** See PERU. THE ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS.

**AYOUBITE OR AIYUBITE DYNASTY.** See SALADIN, THE EMPIRE OF.

**AZINCOUR (AGINCOURT), Battle of.** See FRANCE. A. D. 1415.

**AZOF OR AZOV: A. D. 1696.**—Taken by the Russians. See TURKS: A. D. 1684-1696.

**A. D. 1711.**—Restoration to the Turks. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1707-1718.

**A. D. 1736-1739.**—Captured by the Russians.—Secured to them by the Treaty of Belgrade. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1725-1739.

**AZTEC.** See MEXICO, ANCIENT; and A. D. 1825-1826; also, AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MAYAS.

## AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING.

**AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE-WRITING.**—“No nation ever reduced it [pictography] more to a system. It was in constant use in the daily transactions of life. They [the Aztecs] manufactured for writing purposes a thick coarse paper from the leaves of the agave plant by a process of maceration and pressure. An Aztec book closely resembles one of our quarto volumes. It is made of a single sheet, 12 to 15 inches wide, and often 60 or 70 feet long, and is not rolled, but folded either in squares or zigzags in such a manner that on opening there are two pages exposed to view. Thin wooden boards are fastened to each of the outer leaves, so that the whole presents as neat an appearance, remarks Peter Martyr, as if it had come from the shop of a skilful book binder. They also covered buildings, tapestries and scrolls of parchment with these devices. What is still more astonishing, there is reason to believe, in some instances, then figures were not painted, but actually printed with movable blocks of wood on which the symbols were carved in relief, though this was probably confined to those intended for ornament only. In these records we discern something higher than a mere symbolic notation. They contain the germ of a phonetic alphabet, and represent sounds of spoken language. The symbol is often not connected with the idea, but with the word. The mode in which this is done corresponds precisely to that of the rebus. It is a simple method, readily suggesting itself. In the middle ages it was much in vogue in Europe for the same purpose for which it was chiefly employed in Mexico at the same time—the writing of proper names. For example, the English family Bolton was known in heraldry by a ‘tun’ transfixed by a ‘bolt’. Precisely so the Mexican Emperor Ixcatl is mentioned in the Aztec manuscripts under the figure of a serpent, ‘coatl,’ pierced by obsidian knives, ‘xilli’. As a syllable could be expressed by any object whose name commenced with it, as few words can be given the form of a rebus without some change, as the figures sometimes represent their full phonetic value, sometimes only that of their initial sound, and as universally the attention of the artist was directed less to the sound than to the idea, the didactic painting of the Mexicans, whatever it might have been to them, is a sealed book to us, and must remain so in great part. . . . Immense masses of such documents were stored in the imperial archives of ancient Mexico. Torquemada asserts that five cities alone yielded to the Spanish governor on one requisition no less than 16,000 volumes or scrolls! Every leaf was destroyed. Indeed, so thorough and wholesale was the destruction of these memorials, now so precious in our eyes, that hardly enough remain to whet the wits of antiquaries. In the libraries of Paris, Dresden, Pesth, and the Vatican are, however, a sufficient number to make us despair of deciphering them, had we for comparison all which the Spaniards destroyed. Beyond all others the Mayas, resident on the peninsula of Yucatan, would seem to have approached nearest a true phonetic system. They had a regular and well understood alphabet of 27 elementary sounds, the letters of which are totally different from those of any other nation, and evidently originated with themselves. But besides these they used a large number of purely conventional symbols, and moreover

were accustomed constantly to employ the ancient pictographic method in addition as a sort of commentary on the sound represented. . . . With the aid of this alphabet, which has fortunately been preserved, we are enabled to spell out a few words on the Yucatecan manuscripts and façades, but thus far with no positive

results. The loss of the ancient pronunciation is especially in the way of such studies. In South America, also, there is said to have been a nation who cultivated the art of picture-writing, the Panos, on the river Ucayale."—D. G. Brinton, *The Myths of the New World*, ch. 1.

## B.

**BÂB, The.**—This title, signifying "gate" or "door," was given to a young religious reformer, named Mirza Ali Mohammed, who appeared in Persia about 1844, claiming to bring a divine message later and higher than those for which Jesus and Mohammed were sent. His teaching forbade polygamy and divorce, and his own life was pure. He won a large body of disciples, and the sect he founded is said to be still secretly spreading, notwithstanding continued persecution. The Bâb was himself put to death in 1851. —M. F. Wilson, *The Story of the Bâb* (Contemporary Rev., Dec., 1885).

**BABAR, King of Ferghana,** A. D. 1494—; **King of Kabul,** A. D. 1504—; **Moghul Emperor or Padischah of India,** A. D. 1526–1530.

**BABENBERGS, The.** See AUSTRIA: A. D. 805–1246.

**BABYLON: The City.**—"The city stands on a broad plain, and is an exact square, a hundred and twenty furlongs in length each way, so that the entire circuit is four hundred and eighty furlongs. While such is its size, its magnificence there is no other city that approaches it. It is surrounded, in the first place, by a broad and deep moat, full of water, behind which rises a wall fifty royal cubits in width and two hundred in height.

. . . On the top, along the edges of the wall, they constructed buildings of a single chamber facing one another, leaving between them room for a four-horse chariot to turn. In the circuit of the wall are a hundred gates, all of brass, with brazen lintels and side posts. The bitumen used in the work was brought to Babylon from the Is, a small stream which flows into the Euphrates at the point where the city of the same name stands, eight days' journey from Babylon. Lumps of bitumen are found in great abundance in this river. The city is divided into two portions by the river which runs through the midst of it. This river is the Euphrates. . . . The city wall is brought down on both sides to the edge of the stream; thence, from the corners of the wall, there is carried along each bank of the river a fence of burnt bricks. The houses are mostly three and four stories high; the streets all run in straight lines; not only those parallel to the river, but also the cross streets which lead down to the water side. At the river end of these cross streets are low gates in the fence that skirts the stream, which are, like the great gates in the outer wall, of brass, and open on the water. The outer wall is the main defence of the city. There is, however, a second inner wall, of less thickness than the first, but very little inferior to it in strength. The centre of each division of the town was occupied by a fortress. In the one stood the palace of the kings, surrounded by a wall of great strength and size; in the other was the sacred precinct of Jupiter Belus, a square enclosure, two furlongs each way, with gates of solid brass; which was

also remaining in my time. In the middle of the precinct there was a tower of solid masonry, a furlong in length and breadth, upon which was raised a second tower, and on that a third, and so on up to eight. The ascent to the top is on the outside, by a path which winds round all the towers. . . . On the topmost tower there is a spacious temple."—Herodotus, *Hist., trans. by G. Rawlinson, bk. 1, ch. 178–181.*—According to Ctesias, the circuit of the walls of Babylon was but 360 furlongs. The historians of Alexander agreed nearly with this. As regards the height of the walls, "Strabo and the historians of Alexander substitute 50 for the 200 cubits of Herodotus, and it may therefore be suspected that the latter author referred to hands, four of which were equal to the cubit. The measure, indeed, of 50 fathoms or 200 royal cubits for the walls of a city in a plain is quite preposterous. . . . My own belief is that the height of the walls of Babylon did not exceed 60 or 70 English feet."—H. C. Rawlinson, *note to above.*—See, also, BABYLONIA: B. C. 625–539.

**BABYLON OF THE CRUSADERS, The.** See CRUSADES: A. D. 1248–1254.

**BABYLONIA, Primitive.**—(So much new knowledge of the ancient peoples in the East has been and is being brought to light by recent search and study, and the account of it in English historical literature is so meagre as yet, that there seems to be good reason for deferring the treatment of these subjects, for the most part, to a later volume of this work. The reader is referred, therefore, to the article "Semites," in the hope that, before its publication is reached, in the fourth or fifth volume, there will be later and better works to quote from on all the subjects embraced. Terrien de Lacouperie's interesting theory, which is introduced below, in this place, is questioned by many scholars; and Professor Sayce, whose writings have done much to popularize the new oriental studies, seems to go sometimes in advance of the sure ground.)—The Sumirians, inhabitants of the Shinar of the Old Testament narrative, and Accadians, who divided primitive Babylonia between them, "were overrun and conquered by the Semitic Babylonians of later history, Accad being apparently the first half of the country to fall under the sway of the new comers. It is possible that Casdim, the Hebrew word translated Chaldees or Chaldeans in the authorized version, is the Babylonian 'casidi' or conquerors, a title which continued to cling to them in consequence of their conquest. The Accadians had been the inventors of the pictorial hieroglyphics which afterwards developed into the cuneiform or wedge-shaped writing; they had founded the great cities of Chaldea, and had attained to a high degree of culture and civilization. Their cities possessed libraries, stocked with books, written partly on papyrus, partly on clay, which was, while still



soft, impressed with characters by means of a metal stylus. The books were numerous, and related to a variety of subjects. . . . In course of time, however, the two dialects of Sumir and Accad ceased to be spoken; but the necessity for learning them still remained, and we find, accordingly, that down to the latest days of both Assyria and Babylonia, the educated classes were taught the old extinct Accadian, just as in modern Europe they are taught Latin."—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh Light from the Ancient Monuments*, ch. 2. —"Since Sumir, the Shinar of the Bible, was the first part of the country occupied by the invading Semites, while Accad long continued to be regarded as the seat of an alien race, the language and population of primitive Chaldea have been named Accadian by the majority of Assyrian scholars. The part played by these Accadians in the intellectual history of mankind is highly important. They were the earliest civilizers of Western Asia, and it is to them that we have to trace the arts and sciences, the religious traditions and the philosophy not only of the Assyrians, but also of the Phœnicians, the Arameans, and even the Hebrews themselves. It was, too, from Chaldea that the germs of Greek art and of much of the Greek pantheon and mythology originally came. Columnar architecture reached its first and highest development in Babylonia; the lions that still guard the main entrance of Mykenæ are distinctly Assyrian in character; and the Greek Herakles with his twelve labours finds his prototype in the hero of the great Chaldean epic. It is difficult to say how much of our present culture is not owed to the stunted, oblique-eyed people of ancient Babylonia; Jerusalem and Athens are the sacred cities of our modern life; and both Jerusalem and Athens were profoundly influenced by the ideas which had their first starting-point in primæval Accad. The Semite has ever been a trader and an intermediary, and his earliest work was the precious trade in spiritual and mental wares. Babylonia was the home and mother of Semitic culture and Semitic inspiration; the Phœnicians never forgot that they were a colony from the Persian Gulf, while the Israelite recounted that his father Abraham had been born in Ur of the Chaldees. Almost the whole of the Assyrian literature was derived from Accad, and translated from the dead language of primitive Chaldea."—A. H. Sayce, *Babylonian Literature*, pp. 6-7.—The same, *Ancient Empires of the East*, app. 2.—"The place of China in the past and future is not that which it was long supposed to be. Recent researches have disclosed that its civilization, like ours, was variously derived from the same old focus of culture of south-western Asia. . . . It was my good fortune to be able to show, in an uninterrupted series of a score or so of papers in periodicals, of communications to the Royal Asiatic Society and elsewhere, published and unpublished, and of contributions to several works since April 1880, downwards, that the writing and some knowledge of arts, science and government of the early Chinese, more or less enumerated below, were derived from the old civilization of Babylonia, through the secondary focus of Susiana, and that this derivation was a social fact, resulting not from scientific teaching but from practical intercourse of some length between the Susian confederation and the future civilizers of the Chinese, the Bak tribes, who, from their neighbouring

settlements in the N., moved eastwards at the time of the great rising of the XXIII. century B. C. Coming again in the field, Dr. J. Eddins has joined me on the same line."—Terrien de Lacouperie, *Babylonia and China* (Academy, Aug. 7, 1880).—"We could enumerate a long series of affinities between Chaldean culture and Chinese civilization, although the last was not borrowed directly. From what evidence we have, it seems highly probable that a certain number of families or of tribes, without any apparent generic name, but among which the Kutta filled an important position, came to China about the year 2500 B. C. These tribes, which came from the West, were obliged to quit the neighbourhood, probably north of the Susiana, and were comprised in the feudal agglomeration of that region, where they must have been influenced by the Akkado-Chaldean culture."—Terrien de Lacouperie, *Early Hist. of Chinese Civilization*, p. 32. —See, also, CHINA: THE ORIGIN OF THE PEOPLE.

**The early (Chaldean) monarchy.**—"Our earliest glimpse of the political condition of Chaldea shows us the country divided into numerous small states, each headed by a great city, made famous and powerful by the sanctuary or temple of some particular deity, and ruled by a patesi, a title which is now thought to mean priest-king, i. e., priest and king in one. There can be little doubt that the beginning of the city was every where the temple, with its college of ministering priests, and that the surrounding settlement was gradually formed by pilgrims and worshippers. That royalty developed out of the priesthood is also more than probable. . . . There comes a time when for the title of patesi is substituted that of king. . . . It is noticeable that the distinction between the Semitic newcomers and the indigenous Shumiro-Accadians continues long to be traceable in the names of the royal temple-builders, even after the new Semitic idiom, which we call the Assyrian, had entirely ousted the old language. . . . Furthermore, even superficial observation shows that the old language and the old names survive longest in Shumir,—the South. From this fact it is to be inferred with little chance of mistake that the North,—the land of Accad,—was earlier Semitized, that the Semitic immigrants established their first headquarters in that part of the country, that their power and influence thence spread to the South. Fully in accordance with these indications, the first grand historical figure that meets us at the threshold of Chaldean history, dim with the mists of ages and fabulous traditions, yet unmistakably real, is that of the Semite Sharrukin, king of Accad, or Agade, as the great Northern city came to be called—more generally known in history under the corrupt modern reading of Sargon, and called Sargon I., 'the First,' to distinguish him from a very famous Assyrian monarch of the same name who reigned many centuries later. As to the city of Agade, it is no other than the city of Accad mentioned in Genesis x. 10. It was situated close to the Euphrates on a wide canal just opposite Sippar, so that in time the two cities came to be considered as one double city, and the Hebrews always called it 'the two Sippars'—Sepharvaim, which is often spoken of in the Bible. . . . The tremendously ancient date of 2800 B. C. is now generally accepted for Sargon of Agade—perhaps the remotest

authentic date yet arrived at in history."—Z. A. Ragozin, *Story of Chaldea*, ch. 4.—"A horde of Cassites or Kossseans swept down from the mountains of Northern Elam under their leader, Khammuragas; Accad was conquered, a foreign dynasty established in the land, and the capital transferred from Agade to Babylon. Babylon now became a city of importance for the first time; the rank assigned to it in the mythical age was but a reflection of the position it held after the Cassite conquest. The Cassite dynasty is probably the Arabian dynasty of Berossos. . . . A newly-found inscription of Nabonidos makes the date [of its advent] B. C. 3750 [foot-note]. . . . The first care of Khammuragas, after establishing himself in Accad, was to extend his sway over the southern kingdom of Sumer as well. . . . Khammuragas became king of the whole of Babylonia. From this time onward the country remained a united monarchy. The Cassite dynasty must have lasted for several centuries, and probably included more than one line of kings. . . . It was under the Cassite dynasty that the kingdom of Assyria first took its rise,—partly, perhaps, in consequence of the Asiatic conquests of the Egyptian monarchs of the eighteenth dynasty. . . . In B. C. 1400 the Cassite king married an Assyrian princess. Her son, Kara-Murdas, was murdered by the party opposed to Assyrian influence, but the usurper, Nazi-bugas, was quickly overthrown by the Assyrians, who placed a vassal-prince on the throne. This event may be considered the turning-point in the history of the kingdoms of the Tigris and Euphrates; Assyria henceforth takes the place of the worn-out monarchy of Babylonia, and plays the chief part in the affairs of Western Asia until the day of its final fall. In little more than a hundred years later the Assyrians were again in Babylonia, but this time as avowed enemies to all parties alike; Babylon was captured by the Assyrian monarch Tiglath-Adar in B. C. 1270, and the rule of the Cassite dynasty came to an end."—A. H. Sayce, *Ancient Empires of the East*, app. 2.

ALSO IN: G. Rawlinson, *Five Great Monarchies: Chaldea*, ch. 8.—See, also, ASSYRIA.

**B. C. 625-539.**—The later Empire.—For more than six centuries after the conquest of B. C. 1270, Babylonia was obscured by Assyria. During most of that long period, the Chaldean kingdom was subject to its northern neighbor and governed by Assyrian viceroys. There were frequent revolts and some intervals of independence; but they were brief, and the political life of Babylonia as a distinct power may be said to have been suspended from 1270 until 625 B. C., when Nabopolassar, who ruled first as the viceroy of the Assyrian monarch, threw off his yoke, took the attributes of sovereignty to himself, and joined the Medes in extinguishing the glory of Nineveh. "The Assyrian Empire was now shared between Media and Babylon. Nabucudur-utser, or Nebuchadrezzar, Nabopolassar's eldest son, was the real founder of the Babylonian empire. The attempt of Pharaoh Necho to win for Egypt the inheritance of Assyria was overthrown at the battle of Carchemish, and when Nebuchadrezzar succeeded his father in B. C. 604, he found himself the undisputed lord of Western Asia. Palestine was coerced in 602, and the destruction of Jerusalem in 587 laid a way open for the invasion of Egypt, which took

place twenty years later. Tyre also underwent a long siege of thirteen years, but it is doubtful whether it was taken after all. Babylon was now enriched with the spoils of foreign conquest. It owed as much to Nebuchadrezzar as Rome owed to Augustus. The buildings and walls with which it was adorned were worthy of the metropolis of the world. The palace, now represented by the Kasr mound, was built in fifteen days, and the outermost of its three walls was seven miles in circuit. Hanging gardens were constructed for Queen Amytis, the daughter of the Median prince, and the great temple of Bel was roofed with cedar and overlaid with gold. The temple of the Seven Lights, dedicated to Nebo at Borsippa by an early king, who had raised it to a height of forty-two cubits, was completed, and various other temples were erected on a sumptuous scale, both in Babylon and in the neighbouring cities, while new libraries were established there. After a reign of forty-two years, six months and twenty-one days, Nebuchadrezzar died (B. C. 562), and left the crown to his son Evil-Merodach, who had a short and inactive reign of three years and thirty-four days, when he was murdered by his brother-in-law, Nergal-sharezer, the Neriglissar of the Greeks. . . . The chief event of his reign of four years and four months was the construction of a new palace. His son, who succeeded him, was a mere boy, and was murdered after a brief reign of four months. The power now passed from the house of Nabopolassar,—Nabu-nahid or Nabonidos, who was raised to the throne, being of another family. His reign lasted seventeen years and five months, and witnessed the end of the Babylonian empire,"—which was overthrown by Cyrus the Great (or Kyros), B. C. 539—see PERSIA: B. C. 549-521.—A. H. Sayce, *Ancient Empires of the East*, app. 2.—See, also, SEMITES; EDUCATION, ANCIENT; LIBRARIES, ANCIENT; MEDICAL SCIENCE, BABYLONIAN; MONEY AND BANKING; TRADE.

ALSO IN: M. Duncker, *Hist. of Antiquity*, bk. I. ch. 15.

**BABYLONIAN JEWS.** See JEWS: B. C. 604-536; B. C. 536-A. D. 50, and A. D. 200-400.

**BABYLONIAN TALENT.** See TALENT.

**BABYLONIAN TALMUD,** The. See TALMUD.

**"BABYLONISH CAPTIVITY" OF THE POPES.** See PAPACY: A. D. 1294-1848.

**BACCALAO, OR BACALHAS, OR BACALHAO COUNTRY.** See NEWFOUNDLAND: A. D. 1501-1578.

**BACCHIADÆ.** See CORINTH.

**BACCHIC FESTIVALS.** See DIONYSIA.

**BACON'S REBELLION.** See VIRGINIA: A. D. 1660-1677.

**BACTERIOLOGY.** See MEDICAL SCIENCE: 19TH CENTURY.

**BACTRIA.**—"Where the edge [of the table-land of Iran] rises to the lofty Hindu Kush, there lies on its northern slope a favored district in the region of the Upper Oxus. . . . On the banks of the river, which flows in a north-westerly direction, extend broad mountain pastures, where support is found in the fresh mountain air for numerous herds of horses and sheep, and beneath the wooded hills are blooming valleys. On these slopes of the Hindu Kush, the middle stage between the table-land and the

## BACTRIA.

deep plain of the Caspian Sea, lay the Bactrians — the Bakhtri of the Achæmenids, the Bakhdlî of the Avesta. . . . In ancient times the Bactrians were hardly distinguished from nomads; but their land was extensive and produced fruits of all kinds, with the exception of the vine. The fertility of the land enabled the Hellenic princes to make great conquests."—M. Duncker, *Hist of Antiquity*, bk 6 ch 2.—The Bactrians were among the people subjugated by Cyrus the Great and their country formed part of the Persian Empire until the latter was overthrown by Alexander (see MACEDONIA, &c B C 330-323). In the division of the Macedonian conquests, after Alexander's death, Bactria, with all the farther east, fell to the share of Seleucus Nicator and formed part of what came to be called the kingdom of Syria. About 256 B. C the Bactrian province, being then governed by an ambitious Greek satrap named Diodotus, was led by him into revolt against the Syrian monarchy, and easily gained its independence, with Diodotus for its king (see SELEUCIDÆ. B C 281-224). "The authority of Diodotus was confirmed and riveted on his subjects by an undisturbed reign of eighteen years before a Syrian army even showed itself in his neighbourhood. . . . The Bactrian Kingdom was, at any rate at its commencement, as thoroughly Greek as that of the Seleucidæ." "From B C. 206 to about B C 185 was the most flourishing period of the Bactrian monarchy, which expanded during that space from a small kingdom to a considerable empire"—extending over the greater part of modern Afghanistan and across the Indus into the Punjab. But meantime the neighboring Parthians, who threw off the Seleucid yoke soon after the Bactrians had done so, were growing in power and they soon passed from rivalry to mastery. The Bactrian kingdom was practically extinguished about 150 B C. by the conquests of the Parthian Mithridates I, "although Greek monarchs of the Bactrian series continued masters of Cabul and Western India till about B. C. 126."—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth Great Oriental Monarchy*, ch 3-5.

**BADAJOS:** The Geographical Congress (1524). See AMERICA. A. D 1519-1524

**BADEN:** Early Suevic population. See SUEVI.

**A. D. 1801-1803.**—Acquisition of territory under the Treaty of Luneville. See GERMANY: A. D. 1801-1803.

**A. D. 1805-1806.**—Aggrandized by Napoleon.—Created a Grand Duchy.—Joined to the Confederation of the Rhine. See GERMANY. A. D. 1805-1806, and 1806 (JANUARY—AUGUST).

**A. D. 1813.**—Abandonment of the Rhenish Confederacy and the French Alliance. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (JANUARY—MARCH).

**A. D. 1849.**—Revolution suppressed by Prussian troops. See GERMANY: A. D. 1848-1850.

**A. D. 1866.**—The Seven Weeks War.—Indemnity and territorial cession to Prussia. See GERMANY: A. D. 1866.

**A. D. 1870-1871.**—Treaty of Union with the Germanic Confederation, soon transformed into the German Empire. See GERMANY: A. D. 1870 (SEPTEMBER—DECEMBER), and 1871.

**BADEN, OR RASTATT, Treaty of (1714).** See UTRECHT: A. D. 1713-1714.

## BAGDAD.

**BADR, OR BEDR, Battle of.** See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D 609-632.

**BÆCULA, Battle of.** See PUNIC WAR, THE SECOND.

**BÆRSÆRK.** See BERSERKER.

**BÆTICA.**—The ancient name of the province in Spain which afterwards took from the Vandals the name of Andalusia. See SPAIN: B C. 218-35, and A D 428; also TURDETANI, and VANDALS. A D 428.

**BÆTIS, The.**—The ancient name of the Guadalquivir river in Spain.

**BAGACUM.** See NERVII.

**BAGAUDS, Insurrection of the (A. D. 287).**—The peasants of Gaul, whose condition had become very wretched during the distractions and misgovernment of the third century, were provoked to an insurrection, A. D 287, which was general and alarming. It was a rising which seems to have been much like those that occurred in France and England eleven centuries later. The rebel peasants were called Bugaids, —a name which some writers derive from the Celtic word "bagad" or "bagat," signifying "tumultuous assemblage." They sacked and ruined several cities, —taking Autun after a siege of seven months, —and committed many terrible atrocities. The Emperor Maximian —colleague of Diocletian, —succeeded, at last, in suppressing the general outbreak, but not in extinguishing it every where. There were traces of it surviving long afterwards.—P. Godwin, *Hist of France*, v 1 *Ancient Gaul*, bk. 2, ch 6.

ALSO IN: W T Arnold, *The Roman System of Provincial Administration*, ch 4.—See, also, DEDITIUS.

**BAGDAD, A. D. 763.**—The founding of the new capital of the Caliphs. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST AND EMPIRE A D 763.

**A. D. 815-945.**—Decline of the Caliphate. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST AND EMPIRE: A D 815-945.

**A. D. 1050.**—In the hands of the Seldjuk Turks. See TURKS A D 1004-1063.

**A. D. 1258.**—The Fall of the Caliphate.—Destruction of the city by the Mongols.—In 1252, on the accession of Mangu Khan, grandson of Jingis Khan, to the sovereignty of the Mongol Empire [see MONGOLS], a great Kuriltai or council was held, at which it was decided to send an expedition into the West, for two purposes: (1), to exterminate the Ismailians or Assassins, who still maintained their power in northern Persia; (2), to reduce the Caliph of Bagdad to submission to the Mongol supremacy. The command of the expedition was given to Mangu's brother Khulagu, or Houlagou, who performed his appointed tasks with thoroughness and unmerciful resolution. In 1257 he made an end of the Assassins, to the great relief of the whole eastern world, Mahometan and Christian. In 1258 he passed on to Bagdad, preceded by an embassy which summoned the Caliph to submit, to raze the walls of Bagdad, to give up his vain pretensions to the sovereignty of the Moslem world, and to acknowledge the Great Khan for his lord. The feeble caliph and his treacherous and incapable ministers neither submitted nor made vigorous preparations for defence. As a consequence, Bagdad was taken after a siege which only excited the ferocity of the Mongols. They fired the city and slaughtered its people, excepting some Christians, who are





said to have been spared through the influence of one of Khulagu's wives, who was a Nestorian. The sack of Bagdad lasted seven days. The number of the dead, we are told by Raschid, was 800,000. The caliph, Mostassem, with all his family, was put to death.—H. H. Howorth, *Hist. of the Mongols*, v. 1, pp. 193-201.—For a considerable period before this final catastrophe, in the decline of the Seljuk Empire, the Caliphate at Bagdad had become once more "an independent temporal state, though, instead of ruling in the three quarters of the globe, the caliphs ruled only over the province of Irak Arabi. Their position was not unlike that of the Popes in recent times, whom they also resembled in assuming a new name, of a pious character, at their inauguration. Both the Christian and the Moslem pontiff was the real temporal sovereign of a small state, each claimed to be spiritual sovereign over the whole of the Faithful, each was recognized as such by a large body, but rejected by others. But in truth the spiritual recognition of the Abbasside caliphs was more nearly universal in their last age than it had ever been before." With the fall of Bagdad fell the caliphate as a temporal sovereignty, but it survived, or was resurrected, in its spiritual functions, to become merged, a little later, in the supremacy of the sultan of the Ottoman Turks. "A certain Ahmed, a real or pretended Abbasside, fled [from Bagdad] to Egypt, where he was proclaimed caliph by the title of Al Mostanser Billah, under the protection of the then Sultan Bibars. He and his successors were deemed, in spiritual things, Commanders of the Faithful and they were found to be a convenient instrument both by the Mameluke sultans and by other Mahometan princes. From one of them, Bajazet the Thunderbolt received the title of Sultan, from another Selim the Inflexible procured the cession of his claims, and obtained the right to deem himself the shadow of God upon earth. Since then, the Ottoman Padishah has been held to inherit the rights of Omar and of Haroun, rights which if strictly pressed, might be terrible alike to enemies, neutrals, and allies."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. and Conq. of the Saracens*, lect. 4.

A. D. 1393.—Timour's pyramid of heads. See TIMOUR.

A. D. 1623-1638.—Taken by the Persians and retaken by the Turks.—Fearful slaughter of the inhabitants. See TURKS A. D. 1623-1640.

BAGISTANA. See BAHISTUN, ROCK OF.

BAGLIONI, The.—"The Baglioni first came into notice during the wars they carried on with the Oddi of Perugia in the 14th and 15th centuries. This was one of those duels to the death, like that of the Visconti with the Torrensi of Milan, on which the fate of so many Italian cities of the middle ages hung. The nobles fought; the townsfolk assisted like a Greek chorus, sharing the passions of the actors, but contributing little to the catastrophe. The piazza was the theatre on which the tragedy was played. In this contest the Baglioni proved the stronger, and began to sway the state of Perugia after the irregular fashion of Italian despots. They had no legal right over the city, no hereditary magistracy, no title of princely authority. The Church was reckoned the supreme administrator of the Perugian common-

wealth. But in reality no man could set foot on the Umbrian plain without permission from the Baglioni. They elected the officers of state. The lives and goods of the citizens were at their discretion. When a Papal legate showed his face, they made the town too hot to hold him.

It was in vain that from time to time the people rose against them, massacring Pandolfo Baglioni on the public square in 1393, and joining with Ridolfo and Braccio of the dominant house to assassinate another Pandolfo with his son Niccolo in 1460. The more they were cut down, the more they flourished. The wealth they derived from their lordships in the duchy of Spoleto and the Umbrian hill cities, and the treasures they accumulated in the service of the Italian republics, made them omnipotent in their native town. . . . From father to son they were warriors, and we have records of few Italian houses, except perhaps the Malatesti of Rimini, who equalled them in hardihood and fierceness. Especially were they noted for the remorseless vendette which they carried on among themselves, cousin tracking cousin to death with the ferocity and craft of sleuth-hounds. Had they restrained these fratricidal passions, they might, perhaps, by following some common policy, like that of the Medici in Florence or the Bentivogli in Bologna, have successfully resisted the Papal authority, and secured dynastic sovereignty. It is not until 1495 that the history of the Baglioni becomes dramatic, possibly because till then they lacked the pen of Matarazzo. But from this year forward to their final extinction, every detail of their doings has a picturesque and awful interest. Domestic furies, like the revel described by Cassandra above the palace of Mycenae, seem to take possession of the fated house, and the doom which has fallen on them is worked out with pitiless exactitude to the last generation."—J. A. Symonds, *Sketches in Italy and Greece*, pp. 70-72.

BAGRATIDAE, The. See ARMENIA: 12th-14th CENTURIES.

BAHAMA ISLANDS: A. D. 1492.—Discovery by Columbus. See AMERICA: A. D. 1492.

BAHRITE SULTANS. See EGYPT: A. D. 1250-1517.

BAIÆ.—Baie, in Campania, opposite Puteoli on a small bay near Naples, was the favorite watering place of the ancient Romans. "As soon as the reviving heats of April gave token of advancing summer, the noble and the rich hurried from Rome to this choice retreat; and here, till the raging dogstar forbade the toils even of amusement, they disported themselves on shore or on sea, in the thick groves or on the placid lakes, in litters and chariots, in gilded boats with painted sails, lulled by day and night with the sweetest symphonies of song and music, or gazing indolently on the wanton measures of male and female dancers. The bath, elsewhere their relaxation, was here the business of the day, . . . they turned the pools of Avernus and Lucrinus into tanks for swimming; and in these pleasant waters both sexes met familiarly together, and conversed amidst the roses sprinkled lavishly on their surface."—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 40.

BAINBRIDGE, Commodore William, in the War of 1812. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1812-1818.



## BAIREUTH.

**BAIREUTH**, Creation of the Principality of. See GERMANY: THIRTEENTH CENTURY.  
Separation from the Electorate of Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: A. D. 1417-1640.

**BAJAZET I.**—Turkish Sultan, A. D. 1389-1402.... Bajazet II., A. D. 1481-1512.

**BAKAIRI**, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: CARIBS.

**BAKER**, Colonel Edward D., Killed at Ball's Bluff. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (OCTOBER: VIRGINIA).

**BAKSAR, OR BAXAR, OR BUXAR**, Battle of (1764). See INDIA: A. D. 1757-1772.

**BALACLAVA**, Battle of. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1854 (OCTOBER—NOVEMBER).

**BALANCE OF POWER**. In European diplomacy, a phrase signifying the policy which aimed at keeping an approximate equilibrium of power among the greater nations.—T. J. Lawrence, *International Law*, p. 128.

**BALBINUS**, Roman Emperor, A. D. 238.

**BALBOA'S DISCOVERY OF THE PACIFIC**. See AMERICA: A. D. 1513-1517.

**BALCHITAS**, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: PAMPAS TRIBES.

**BALDWIN OF FLANDERS**, The Crusade of. See CRUSADES: A. D. 1201-1203.... Baldwin I., Latin Emperor at Constantinople (Romania), A. D. 1204-1205.... Baldwin II., A. D. 1237-1261.

## BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES.

**BALEARIC ISLANDS**.—"The name 'Balears' was derived by the Greeks from 'ballein,' to throw, but . . . is no doubt Phœnician."—J. Kenrick, *Phœnicia*, ch. 4.—See MINORCA and MAJORCA.

**BALI**. See MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: DUTCH EAST INDIES.

**BALIA OF FLORENCE**, The.—The chief instrument employed by the Medici to establish their power in Florence was "the pernicious system of the Parlamento and Balia, by means of which the people, assembled from time to time in the public square, and intimidated by the reigning faction, entrusted full powers to a select committee nominated in private by the chiefs of the great house. . . . Segni says: 'The Parlamento is a meeting of the Florentine people on the Piazza of the Signory. When the Signory has taken its place to address the meeting, the piazza is guarded by armed men, and then the people are asked whether they wish to give absolute power (Balìa) and authority to the citizens named, for their good. When the answer, yes, prompted partly by inclination and partly by compulsion, is returned, the Signory immediately retires into the palace. This is all that is meant by this parlamento, which thus gives away the full power of effecting a change in the state.'—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: Age of the Despots*, p. 164, and foot-note.—See, also, FLORENCE: A. D. 1378-1427, and 1458-1469.

## BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES.

**Ancient History**.—The States of south-eastern Europe, lately emancipated, for the most part, from the rule of the Turks, are so associated by a common history, although remarkably diverse in race, that it seems expedient to bring them for discussion together. They occupy mainly the regions known in Roman times as MOESIA, DACIA and ILLYRICUM, to which names the reader is referred for some account of the scanty incidents of their early history.—See, also, AVARA.

**Races existing**.—"In no part of Western Europe do we find districts inhabited by men differing in speech and national feeling, lying in distinct patches here and there over a large country. A district like one of our larger counties in which one parish, perhaps one hundred, spoke Welsh, another Latin, another English, another Danish, another Old French, another the tongue of more modern settlers, Flemings, Huguenots or Palatines, is something which we find hard to conceive, and which, as applied to our own land or to any other Western land, sounds absurd on the face of it. When we pass into South-eastern Europe, this state of things, the very idea of which seems absurd in the West, is found to be perfectly real. All the races which we find dwelling there at the beginning of recorded history, together with several races which have come in since, all remain, not as mere fragments or survivals, but as nations, each with its national language and national feelings, and each having its greater or less share of practical importance in the politics of the present moment. Setting aside races which have simply passed through the country without occupying it, we may say that all the races

which have ever settled in the country are there still as distinct races. And, though each race has its own particular region where it forms the whole people or the great majority of the people, still there are large districts where different races really live side by side in the very way which seems so absurd when we try to conceive it in any Western country. We cannot conceive a Welsh, an English, and a Norman village side by side; but a Greek, a Bulgarian, and a Turkish village side by side is a thing which may be seen in many parts of Thrace. The oldest races in those lands, those which answer to Basques and Bretons in Western Europe, hold quite another position from that of Basques and Bretons in Western Europe. They form three living and vigorous nations, Greek, Albanian, and Rouman. They stand as nations alongside of the Slaves who came in later, and who answer roughly to the Teutons in the West, while all alike are under the rule of the Turk, who has nothing answering to him in the West. . . . When the Romans conquered the South-eastern lands, they found there three great races, the Greek, the Illyrian, and the Thracian. Those three races are all there still. The Greeks speak for themselves. The Illyrians are represented by the modern Albanians. The Thracians are represented, there seems every reason to believe, by the modern Roumans. Now had the whole of the South-eastern lands been inhabited by Illyrians and Thracians, those lands would doubtless have become as thoroughly Roman as the Western lands became. . . . But the position of the Greek nation, its long history and its high civilization, hindered this. The Greeks could not become Romans in any but the most

\* See Appendices B and C, vol. 5.





purely political sense. Like other subjects of the Roman Empire, they gradually took the Roman name; but they kept their own language, literature, and civilization. In short we may say that the Roman Empire in the East became Greek, and that the Greek nation became Roman. The Eastern Empire and the Greek-speaking lands became nearly coextensive. Greek became the one language of the Eastern Roman Empire, while those that spoke it still called themselves Romans. Till quite lately, that is till the modern ideas of nationality began to spread, the Greek speaking subjects of the Turk called themselves by no name but that of Romans. . . . While the Greeks thus took the Roman name without adopting the Latin language, another people in the Eastern peninsula adopted both name and language, exactly as the nations of the West did. If, as there is good reason to believe, the modern Roumans represent the old Thracians, that nation came under the general law, exactly like the Western nations. The Thracians became thoroughly Roman in speech, as they have ever since kept the Roman name. They form in fact one of the Romance nations, just as much as the people of Gaul or Spain. . . . In short the existence of a highly civilized people like the Greeks hindered in every way the influence of Rome from being so thorough in the East as it was in the West. The Greek nation lived on, and alongside of itself, it preserved the other two ancient nations of the peninsula. Thus all three have lived on to the present as distinct nations. Two of them, the Greeks and the Illyrians, still keep their own languages, while the third, the old Thracians, speak a Romance language and call themselves Roumans. . . . The Slavonic nations hold in the East a place answering to that which is held by the Teutonic nations in the West. . . . But though the Slaves in the East thus answer in many ways to the Teutons in the West, their position with regard to the Eastern Empire was not quite the same as that of the Teutons towards the Western Empire. . . . They learned much from the half Roman, half Greek power with which they had to do; but they did not themselves become either Greek or Roman, in the way in which the Teutonic conquerors in the Western Empire became Roman. . . . Thus, while in the West everything except a few survivals of earlier nations, is either Roman or Teutonic, in the East, Greeks, Illyrians, Thracians or Roumans, and Slaves, all stood side by side as distinct nations when the next set of invaders came, and they remain as distinct nations still. . . . There came among them, in the form of the Ottoman Turk, a people with whom union was not only hard but impossible, a people who were kept distinct, not by special circumstances, but by the inherent nature of the case. Had the Turk been other than what he really was, he might simply have become a new nation alongside of the other South-eastern nations. Being what he was the Turk could not do this. . . . The original Turks did not belong to the Aryan branch of mankind, and their original speech is not an Aryan speech. The Turks and their speech belong to altogether another class of nations and languages. . . . Long before the Turks came into Europe, the Magyars or Hungarians had come; and, before the Magyars came, the Bulgarians had come. Both the Magyars

and the Bulgarians were in their origin Turanian nations, nations as foreign to the Aryan people of Europe as the Ottoman Turks themselves. But their history shows that a Turanian nation settling in Europe may either be assimilated with an existing European nation or may sit down as an European nation alongside of others. The Bulgarians have done one of these things; the Magyars have done the other; the Ottoman Turks have done neither. So much has been heard lately of the Bulgarians as being in our times the special victims of the Turk that some people may find it strange to hear who the original Bulgarians were. They were a people more or less nearly akin to the Turks, and they came into Europe as barbarian conquerors who were as much dreaded by the nations of South-eastern Europe as the Turks themselves were afterwards. The old Bulgarians were a Turanian people, who settled in a large part of the South-eastern peninsula, in lands which had been already occupied by Slaves. They came in as barbarian conquerors; but, exactly as happened to so many conquerors in Western Europe, they were presently assimilated by their Slavonic subjects and neighbours. They learned the Slavonic speech; they gradually lost all traces of their foreign origin. Those whom we now call Bulgarians are a Slavonic people speaking a Slavonic tongue, and they have nothing Turanian about them except the name which they borrowed from their Turanian masters. . . . The Bulgarians entered the Empire in the seventh century, and embraced Christianity in the ninth. They rose to great power in the South-eastern lands, and played a great part in their history. But all their later history, from a comparatively short time after the first Bulgarian conquest, has been that of a Slavonic and not that of a Turanian people. The history of the Bulgarians therefore shows that it is quite possible, if circumstances are favourable, for a Turanian people to settle among the Aryans of Europe and to be thoroughly assimilated by the Aryan nation among whom they settled."—E. A. Freeman, *The Ottoman Power in Europe*, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: R. G. Latham, *The Nationalities of Europe*.

**7th Century.—(Serbia, Croatia, Bosnia, Dalmatia and Montenegro).—The Slavonic settlement.**—"No country on the face of our unfortunate planet has been oftener ravaged, no land so often soaked with the blood of its inhabitants. At the dawn of history Bosnia formed part of Illyria. It was said to have been already peopled by Slav tribes. Rome conquered all this region as far as the Danube, and annexed it to Dalmatia. Two provinces were formed, 'Dalmatia maritima,' and 'Dalmatia interna,' or 'Illyris barbara.' Order reigned, and as the interior communicated with the coast, the whole country flourished. Important ports grew upon the littoral. . . . At the fall of the Empire came the Goths, then the Avars, who, for two centuries, burned and massacred, and turned the whole country into a desert. . . . In 680 the Croats began to occupy the present Croatia, Slavonia, and the north of Bosnia, and in 640 the Servians, of the same race and language, exterminated the Avars and peopled Serbia, Southern Bosnia, Montenegro and Dalmatia. The ethnic situation which exists to-day dates

from this epoch."—E. de Laveye, *The Balkan Peninsula*, ch. 3.—"Heraclius [who occupied the throne of the Eastern Empire at Constantinople from 610 to 642] appears to have formed the plan of establishing a permanent barrier in Europe against the encroachments of the Avars and Slavonians. . . . To accomplish this object, Heraclius induced the Serbs, or Western Slavonians, who occupied the country about the Carpathian mountains, and who had successfully opposed the extension of the Avar empire in that direction, to abandon their ancient seats, and move down to the South into the provinces between the Adriatic and the Danube. The Roman and Greek population of these provinces had been driven towards the seacoast by the continual incursions of the northern tribes, and the desolate plains of the interior had been occupied by a few Slavonian subjects and vassals of the Avars. The most important of the western Slavonian tribes who moved southward at the invitation of Heraclius were the Servians and Croats, who settled in the countries still peopled by their descendants. Their original settlements were formed in consequence of friendly arrangements, and, doubtless, under the sanction of an express treaty; for the Slavonian people of Illyria and Dalmatia long regarded themselves as bound to pay a certain degree of territorial allegiance to the Eastern Empire. . . . These colonies, unlike the earlier invaders of the Empire, were composed of agricultural communities. . . . Unlike the military races of Goths, Huns, and Avars, who had preceded them, the Servian nations increased and flourished in the lands which they had colonized; and by the absorption of every relic of the ancient population, they formed political communities and independent states, which offered a firm barrier to the Avars and other hostile nations."

. . . The states which they constituted were of considerable weight in the history of Europe; and the kingdoms or bannats of Croatia, Servia, Bosnia, Rascia and Dalmatia, occupied for some centuries a political position very similar to that now held by the secondary monarchical states of the present day."—G. Finlay, *Greece under the Romans*, ch. 4, sect. 6.—See, also, AVARS: THE BREAKING OF THEIR DOMINION; and SLAVONIC NATIONS: 6TH AND 7TH CENTURIES.

**7th-8th Centuries (Bulgaria).—Vassalage to the Khazars.** See KHAZARS.

**9th Century (Servia).—Rise of the Kingdom.**—"At the period alluded to [the latter part of the ninth century] the Servians did not, like the rest of the Slavonians, constitute a distinct state, but acknowledged the supremacy of the Eastern Roman Emperor: in fact the country they inhabited had, from ancient times, formed part of the Roman territory; and it still remained part of the Eastern Empire when the Western Empire was re-established, at the time of Charlemagne. The Servians, at the same period, embraced the Christian faith, but in doing so they did not subject themselves entirely, either to the empire or church of the Greeks. . . . The Emperor . . . permitted the Servians to be ruled by native chiefs, solely of their own election, who preserved a patriarchal form of government. . . . In the eleventh century, the Greeks, despite of the stipulations they had entered into, attempted to take Servia under their immediate control, and to subject it to their financial sys-

tem." The attempt met with a defeat which was decisive. "Not only did it put a speedy termination to the encroachment of the Court of Constantinople in imposing a direct government, but it also firmly established the princely power of the Grand Shupanes; whose existence depended on the preservation of the national independence. . . . Pope Gregory VII. was the first who saluted a Grand Shupane as King"—L. Von Ranke, *Hist. of Servia*, ch. 1.

**9th-16th Centuries (Bosnia, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia).—Conversion to Christianity.—The Bogomiles.—Hungarian crusades.—Turkish conquest.**—After the Slavonic settlement of Servia, Bosnia, Croatia and Dalmatia, for a time "the sovereignty of Byzantium was acknowledged. But the conversion of these tribes, of identical race, to two different Christian rites, created an antagonism which still exists. The Croats were converted first by missionaries from Rome; they thus adopted Latin letters and Latin ritual; the Servians, on the contrary, and consequently part of the inhabitants of Bosnia, were brought to Christianity by Cyril and Methodius, who, coming from Thessalonica, brought the characters and rites of the Eastern Church. About 860 Cyril translated the Bible into Slav, inventing an alphabet which bears his name, and which is still in use. . . . In 874 Budimir, the first Christian King of Bosnia, Croatia and Dalmatia, called a diet upon the plain of Dalminium, where he tried to establish a regular organization. It was about this time that the name Boshia appeared for the first time. It is said to be derived from a Slav tribe coming originally from Thrace. In 905 Branimir, King of Servia, annexed Croatia and Bosnia; but this union did not last long. The sovereignty of Byzantium ceased in these parts after the year 1000. It was gained by Ladislaus, King of Hungary, about 1091. In 1103 Coloman, King of Hungary, added the titles of 'Rex Ramae' (Herzegovina), then of 'Rex Bosniae.' Since then Bosnia has always been a dependence of the crown of Saint Stephen. . . . About this time some Albigenses came to Bosnia, who converted to their beliefs a large number of the people who were called Catars, in German Patarenen. In Bosnia they received and adopted the name of Bogomile, which means 'loving God.' Nothing is more tragic than the history of this heresy. . . . They [the Bogomiles] became in Bosnia a chief factor, both of its history and its present situation. . . . The Hungarian Kings, in obedience to the Pope, ceaselessly endeavoured to extirpate them, and their frequent wars of extermination provoked the hatred of the Bosnians. . . . In 1238 the first great crusade was organized by Bela IV. of Hungary, in obedience to Pope Gregory VII. The whole country was devastated, and the Bogomiles nearly all massacred, except a number who escaped to the forests and mountains. In 1245 the Hungarian Bishop of Kalocsa himself led a second crusade. In 1280 a third crusade was undertaken by Ladislaus IV., King of Hungary, in order to regain the Pope's favour. . . . About the year 1300 Paul of Brebir, 'Banus Croatorum et Bosniae dominus,' finally added Herzegovina to Bosnia. Under the Ban Stephen IV., the Emperor of Servia, the great Dushan, occupied Bosnia, but it soon regained its independence (1355), and under Stephen Tvartko, who took



the title of king, the country enjoyed a last period of peace and prosperity. Before his death the Turks appeared on the frontiers. At the memorable and decisive battle of Kossovo [see **TURKS**. A D 1360-1389], which gave them Serbia, 80,000 Russians were engaged, and, though retreating, stopped the conqueror. Under Tvardko II, the second king, who was a Bogomile, Bosnia enjoyed some years' peace (1326-1443). Then followed [see **TURKS**. A D 1402-1451] a bloody interlude of civil war, which invited the Turks and prepared the way for them. "Mohammed II, who had just taken Constantinople (1453), advanced with a formidable army of 150,000 men, which nothing could resist. The country was laid waste. 30,000 young men were circumcised and enrolled amongst the janissaries, 200,000 prisoners were made slaves, the towns which resisted were burned; the churches turned into mosques, and the land confiscated by the conquerors (1463).

A period of struggle lasted from 1463 till the definite conquest in 1527 [see **TURKS**. A D 1451-1481]. When the battle of Mohacz (August 29, 1526) gave Hungary to the Ottomans [see **HUNGARY**. A D 1487-1526] Jaitche, the last rampart of Bosnia, whose defence had inspired acts of legendary courage, fell in its turn in 1527. A strange circumstance facilitated the Mussulman conquest. To save their wealth, the greater number of magnates, and almost all the Bogomiles, who were exasperated by the cruel persecutions directed against them, went over to Islamism. From that time they became the most ardent followers of Mohammedanism, whilst keeping the language and names of their ancestors. They fought everywhere in the forefront of the battles which gained Hungary for the Turks. "Within the present century the Bosnian Mussulmans have risen in arms 'against all the reforms that Europe, in the name of modern principles, wrested from the Porte.'"—E de Lavcleye, *The Balkan Peninsula*, ch 3.

ALSO IN: L von Ranke, *Hist of Serbia*, &c.  
**10th-11th Centuries (Bulgaria).—The First Bulgarian Kingdom and its overthrow by Basil II.**—"The glory of the Bulgarians was confined to a narrow scope both of time and place. In the 9th and 10th centuries they reigned to the south of the Danube, but the more powerful nations that had followed their emigration repelled all return to the north and all progress to the west. In the beginning of the 11th century, the Second Basil [Byzantine or Greek Emperor, A D 976-1025] who was born in the purple, deserved the appellation of conqueror of the Bulgarians [subdued by his predecessor, John Zimisceus, but still rebellious]. His avarice was in some measure gratified by a treasure of 400,000 pounds sterling (10,000 pounds' weight of gold) which he found in the palace of Lychnidus. His cruelty inflicted a cool and exquisite vengeance on 15,000 captives who had been guilty of the defence of their country. They were deprived of sight, but to one of each hundred a single eye was left, that he might conduct his blind country to the presence of their king. Their king is said to have expired of grief and horror; the nation was awed by this terrible example; the Bulgarians were swept away from their settlements, and circumscribed within a narrow province; the surviving chiefs bequeathed to their children the advice of patience

and the duty of revenge"—E Gibbon, *Decline and fall of the Roman Empire*, ch 55.

ALSO IN: G Finlay, *Hist of the Byzantine Empire*, from 716 to 1007, bk 2, ch. 2—See, also, **CONSTANTINOPLE**. A D. 907-1043, and **ACHRIDA**, **THE KINGDOM OF**.

**A. D. 1096 (Bulgaria).—Hostilities with the First Crusaders.** See **CRUSADES**: A. D. 1096-1099.

**12th Century (Bulgaria).—The Second Bulgarian or Wallachian Kingdom.**—"The reign of Isaac II [Byzantine or Greek Emperor, A D. 1185-1195] is filled with a series of revolts, caused by his incapable administration and financial rapacity. The most important of these was the great rebellion of the Wallachian and Bulgarian population which occupied the country between Mount Hæmus and the Danube. The immense population of this extensive country now separated itself finally from the government of the Eastern Empire, and its political destinies ceased to be united with those of the Greeks. A new European monarchy, called the Wallachian, or Second Bulgarian kingdom, was formed, which for some time acted an important part in the affairs of the Byzantine Empire, and contributed powerfully to the depression of the Greek race. The sudden importance assumed by the Wallachian population in this revolution, and the great extent of country then occupied by a people who had previously acted no prominent part in the political events of the East, render it necessary to give some account of their previous history. Four different countries are spoken of under the name of Wallachia by the Byzantine writers: Great Wallachia, which was the country round the plain of Thessaly, particularly the southern and south-western part. White Wallachia, or the modern Bulgaria, which formed the Wallachio Bulgarian kingdom that revolted from Isaac II. Black Wallachia, Mavro Wallachia, or Karabogdon, which is Moldavia, and Hungarovallachia, or the Wallachia of the present day, comprising a part of Transylvania. The question remains undecided whether these Wallachians are the lineal descendants of the Thracian race, who, Strabo tells us, extended as far south as Thessaly, and as far north as to the borders of Pannonia, for of the Thracian language we know nothing"—G Finlay, *Hist. of the Byzantine and Greek Empires*, from 716 to 1453, bk 3, ch 3, sect 1—  
 "Whether they were of Slav origin or of Gaelic or Welsh origin, whether they were the aboriginal inhabitants of the country who had come under the influence of the elder Rome, and had acquired so many Latin words as to overlay their language and to retain little more than the grammatical forms and mould of their own language, or whether they were the descendants of the Latin colonists of Dacia [see **DACIA**. **TRAJAN'S CONQUEST**] with a large mixture of other peoples, are all questions which have been much controverted. It is remarkable that while no people living on the south of the Balkans appear to be mentioned as Wallachs until the tenth century, when Anna Comnena mentions a village called Ezeban, near Mount Kiseavo, occupied by them, almost suddenly we hear of them as a great nation to the south of the Balkans. They spoke a language which differed little from Latin. Thessaly, during the twelfth century is usually called Great Wallachia. . . . Besides the Wallachs in Thessaly, whose descendants are now

called Kutzo-Wallachs, there were the Wallachs in Dacia, the ancestors of the present Roumanians, and Mavro-Wallachs in Dalmatia. Indeed, according to the Hungarian and Byzantine writers, there were during the twelfth century a series of Wallachian peoples, extending from the Theiss to the Dniester. The word Wallach is used by the Byzantine writers as equivalent to shepherd, and it may be that the common use of a dialect of Latin by all the Wallachs is the only bond of union among the peoples bearing that name. They were all occasionally spoken of by the Byzantine writers as descendants of the Romans.—E. Pears, *The Fall of Constantinople*, ch. 8.—“The classical type of feature, so often met with among Roumanian peasants, pleads strongly for the theory of Roman extraction, and if just now I compared the Saxon peasants to Noah's ark figures rudely carved out of the nearest wood, the Roumanians as often remind me of a type of face chiefly to be seen on cameo ornaments, or ancient signet rings. Take at random a score of individuals from any Roumanian village, and, like a handful of antique gems which have been strewn broadcast over the land, you will there surely find a good choice of classical profiles worthy to be immortalized on agate, onyx, or jasper. An air of plaintive melancholy generally characterizes the Roumanian peasant; it is the melancholy of a long-subjected and oppressed race. Perhaps no other race possesses in such marked degree the blind and immovable sense of nationality which characterizes the Roumanians. They hardly ever mingle with the surrounding races, far less adopt manners and customs foreign to their own. This singular tenacity of the Roumanians to their own dress, manners and customs is probably due to the influence of their religion [the Greek church], which teaches that any divergence from their own established rules is sinful.”—E. Gérard, *Tran-sylvanian Peoples* (*Contemp. Rec.*, March, 1897).

**A. D. 1341-1356 (Serbia).—The Empire of Stephan Dushan.**—“In 1341, when John Cantacuzenus assumed the purple [at Constantinople], important prospects were opened to the Servians. Cantacuzenus . . . went up the mountains and prevailed upon Stephan Dushan, the powerful king of the Servians, whom he found in a country palace at Pristina, to join his cause.” As the result of this connection, and by favor of the opportunities which the civil war and general decline in the Greek Empire afforded him, Stephan Dushan extended his dominions over Epirus, Thessaly, Macedonia, and a part of Thrace. “The Shkypetars in Albania followed his standard; Arta and Joannina were in his possession. From these points his Voivodes [Palatines], whose districts may easily be traced, spread themselves over the whole of the Roumelian territory on the Vardar and the Marizza, as far as Bulgaria, which he also regarded as a province of his kingdom. Being in the possession of so extensive a dominion, he now ventured to assume a title which was still in dispute between the Eastern and Western Empires, and could not rightly be claimed by either. As a Servian Kral, he could neither ask nor expect the obedience of the Greeks; therefore he called himself Emperor of the Roumelians—the Macedonian Christ-loving Ozar—and began to wear the tiara. . . . Stephan Dushan died [Dec. 2, 1356], before he had completed the Empire of

which he had laid the foundation, and ere he had strengthened his power by the bulwark of national institutions.”—L. Von Ranke, *Hist. of Serbia*, ch. 1-2.

**ALSO IN: M'ime E. L. Mijatovich, *Korosso, Int.* A. D. 1389 (Bulgaria).—Conquest by the Turks. See TURKS (THE OTTOMANS) A. D. 1360-1389.**

**14th Century (Bulgaria).—Subjection to Hungary.** See HUNGARY: A. D. 1301-1442.

**14th-18th Centuries (Roumania, or Wallachia, and Moldavia).—Four Centuries of Conflict with Hungarians and Turks.**—“The Wallacho-Bulgarian monarchy, whatever may have been its limits, was annihilated by a horde of Tartars about A. D. 1250. The same race committed great havoc in Hungary, conquered the Kumaní, overran Moldavia, Transylvania, &c., and held their ground there until about the middle of the 14th century, when they were driven northward by the Hungarian, Saxon, and other settlers in Transylvania; and with their exit we have done with the barbarians. . . . Until recently the historians of Roumania have had little to guide them concerning the events of the period beyond traditions which, though very interesting, are now gradually giving place to recorded and authenticated facts. . . . It is admitted that the plains and slopes of the Carpathians were inhabited by communities ruled over by chieftains of varying power and influence. Some were banates, as that of Craiova, which long remained a semi-independent State, then there were petty voivodes or princes, and besides these there were Khanates, some of which were petty principalities, whilst others were merely the governorships of villages or groups of them.

Mircea, one of the heroes of Roumanian history, not only secured the independent sovereignty, and called himself Voivode of Wallachia ‘by the grace of God,’ but in 1389 he formed an alliance with Poland, and assumed other titles by the right of conquest. This alliance had for its objects the extension of his dominions, as well as protection against Hungary on the one hand, and the Ottoman power on the other, for the Turkish armies had overrun Bulgaria, and about the year 1391 they first made their appearance north of the Danube. At first the bravery of Mircea was successful in stemming the tide of invasion;” but after a year or two, “finding himself between two powerful enemies, the King of Hungary and the Sultan, Mircea elected to form an alliance with the latter, and concluded a treaty with him at Nicopolis (1393), known as the First Capitulation, by which Wallachia retained its autonomy, but agreed to pay an annual tribute and to acknowledge the suzerainty of the Sultan.

According to several historians Mircea did not adhere to it long, for he is said to have been in command of a contingent in the army of the crusaders, and to have been present at the battle of Nicopolis (1396), in which the flower of the French nobility fell, and, when he found their cause to be hopeless, once more to have deserted them and joined the victorious arms of Bajazet. Of the continued wars and dissensions in Wallachia during the reign of Mircea it is unnecessary to speak. He ruled with varying fortunes until 1418 A. D.” A Second Capitulation was concluded, at Adrianople, with the Turks, in

1400, by a later Wallachian voivode, named Vlad. It increased the tribute to the Porte, but made no other important change in the terms of suzerainty. Meantime, in the neighbouring Moldavian principality, events were beginning to shape themselves into some historical distinctness. "For a century after the foundation of Moldavia, or, as it was at first called, Bogdania, by Bogdan Dragosch [a legendary hero], the history of the country is shrouded in darkness. Kings or princes are named, one or more of whom were Lithuanians. . . . At length a prince more powerful than the rest ascended the throne. . . . This was Stephen, sometimes called the 'Great' or 'Good'. . . . He came to the throne about 1456 or 1458, and reigned until 1504, and his whole life was spent in wars against Transylvania, Wallachia, . . . the Turks, and Tartars. . . . In 1475 he was at war with the Turks, whom he defeated on the river Birlad. . . . In that year also Stephen . . . completely overran Wallachia. Having reduced it to submission, he placed a native boyard on the throne as his viceroy, who showed his gratitude to Stephen by rebelling and liberating the country from his rule; but he was in his turn murdered by his Wallachian subjects. In 1476 Stephen sustained a terrible defeat at the hands of the Ottomans at Valea Alba (the White Valley), but eight years afterwards, allied with the Poles, he again encountered [and defeated] this terrible enemy. . . . After the battle of Mohacs [see HUNGARY: A. D. 1487-1526] the Turks began to encroach more openly upon Roumanian (Moldo-Wallachian) territory. They occupied and fortified Braila, Giurgevo, and Galatz; interfered in the election of the princes . . . adding to their own influence, and rendering the princes more and more subservient to their will. This state of things lasted until the end of the 16th century, when another hero, Michael the Brave of Wallachia, restored tranquility and independence to the Principalities, and raised them for a season in the esteem of surrounding nations." Michael, who mounted the throne in 1593, formed an alliance with the Prince of Siebenbürgen (Transylvania) and the voivode of Moldavia, against the Turks. He began his warfare, November, 1594, by a wholesale massacre of the Turks in Bucharest and Jassy. He then took Giurgevo by storm and defeated the Ottoman forces in a battle at Rustchuk. In 1595, Giurgevo was the scene of two bloody battles, in both of which Michael came off victor, with famous laurels. The Turks were effectually driven from the country. The ambition of the victorious Michael was now excited, and he invaded Transylvania (1599) desiring to add it to his dominions. In a battle "which is called by some the battle of Schellenberg, and by others of Hermanstadt," he defeated the reigning prince, Cardinal Andreas, and Transylvania was at his feet. He subdued Moldavia with equal ease, and the whole of ancient Dacia became subject to his rule. The Emperor Rudolph, as suzerain of Transylvania, recognized his authority. But his reign was brief. Before the close of the year 1600 a rising occurred in Transylvania, and Michael was defeated in a battle fought at Miriazio. He escaped to the mountains and became a fugitive for some months, while even his Wallachian throne was occupied by a brother of the Moldavian voivode. At length he made

terms with the Emperor Rudolph, whose authority had been slighted by the Transylvanian insurgents, and procured men and money with which he returned in force, crushed his opponents at Goroszo, and reigned again as viceroy. But he quarreled soon with the commander of the imperial troops, General Basta, and the latter caused him to be assassinated, some time in August, 1601. . . . The history of Moldo-Wallachia during the 17th century . . . possesses little interest for English readers." At the end of the 17th century "another great Power [Russia] was drawing nearer and nearer to Roumania, which was eventually to exercise a grave influence upon her destiny. . . . In the beginning of the 18th century there ruled two voivodes, Constantine Brancovano, in Wallachia, and Demetrius Cantemir in Moldavia, both of whom had been appointed in the usual manner under the suzerainty of the Porte; but these princes, independently of each other, had entered into negotiations with Peter the Great after the defeat of Charles XII. at Pultawa (1709), to assist them against the Sultan, their suzerain, stipulating for their own independence under the protection of the Czar." Peter was induced to enter the country with a considerable army [1711], but soon found himself in a position from which there appeared little chance of escape. He was extricated only by the cleverness of the Czarina, who bribed the Turkish commander with her jewels—see SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1707-1718. The Moldavian Voivode escaped with the Russians. The Wallachian, Brancovano, was seized, taken to Constantinople, and put to death, along with his four sons. "Stephen Cantacuzene, the son of his accusers, was made Voivode of Wallachia, but like his predecessors he only enjoyed the honour for a brief term, and two years afterwards he was deposed, ordered to Constantinople, imprisoned, and decapitated; and with him terminated the rule of the native princes, who were followed, both in Wallachia and Moldavia, by the so-called Phanariote governors [see PHANARIOTES] or farmers-general of the Porte." —J. Samuelson, *Roumania, Past and Present*, pt. 2, ch. 11-13.

**14th-19th Centuries: (Montenegro) The new Servia.**—"The people that inhabit the two territories known on the map as Servia and Montenegro are one and the same. If you ask a Montenegrin what language he speaks, he replies 'Serb.' The last of the Serb Czars fell gloriously fighting at Kossovo in 1389 [see TURKS: A. D. 1360-1389]. To this day the Montenegrin wears a strip of black silk upon his headgear in memory of that fatal day. . . . The brave Serbs who escaped from Kossovo found a sanctuary in the mountains that overlook the Bay of Cattaro. Their leader, Ivo, surnamed Tsernoi (Black), gave the name of Tzrnogora (Montenegro) to these desert rocks. . . . Servia having become a Turkish province, her colonists created in Montenegro a new and independent Servia [see TURKS: A. D. 1451-1481]. The memory of Ivo the Black is still green in the country. Springs, ruins, and caverns are called after him, and the people look forward to the day when he will reappear as a political Messiah. But Ivo's descendants proved unworthy of him; they committed the unpardonable sin of marrying aliens, and early



In the 16th century the last descendant of Ivo the Black retired to Venice. From 1516 to 1697 Montenegro was ruled by elective Vladikas or Bishops; from 1697 to 1851 by hereditary Vladikas. For the Montenegrins the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries formed a period of incessant warfare. . . . Up till 1703 the Serbs of the mountain were no more absolutely independent of the Sultan than their enslaved kinsmen of the plain. The Havatch or Sultan's slipper tax was levied on the mountaineers. In 1703 Danilo Petrovitch celebrated his consecration as a Christian Bishop by ordering the slaughter of every Mussulman who refused to be baptised. This massacre took place on Christmas Eve 1703. . . . The 17th and 18th centuries were for Montenegro a struggle for existence. In the 19th century began their struggle for an outlet to the sea. The fall of Venice would naturally have given the mountaineers the bay of Cattaro, had not the French stepped in and annexed Dalmatia. In 1813, the Vladika, Peter I, "with the aid of the British fleet . . . took Cattaro from the French, but (pursuant to an arrangement between Russia and Austria) was compelled subsequently to relinquish it to the latter power. . . . Peter I of Montenegro died in 1830, at the age of 80. . . . His nephew Peter II was a wise ruler. . . . On the death of Peter II, Prince Danilo, the uncle of the present Prince, went to Russia to be consecrated Bishop of Montenegro. The czar seems to have laughed him out of this ancient practice, and the late Prince instead of converting himself into monk and bishop returned to his own country and married [1851]. . . . Prince Danilo was assassinated at Cattaro (1860). He was succeeded by his nephew Nicholas."—J G C Minchin, *Serbia and Montenegro (National Life and Thought, lect 19)*—"The present form of government in Montenegro is at once the most despotic and the most popular in Europe—despotic, because the will of the Prince is the law of the land; and popular, because the personal rule of the Prince meets all the wants and wishes of the people. No Sovereign in Europe sits so firmly on his throne as the Prince of this little State, and no Sovereign is so absolute. The Montenegrins have no army; they are themselves a standing army."—J G C Minchin, *The Growth of Freedom in the Balkan Peninsula, ch 1*—A A Paton, *Researches on the Danube and the Adriatic, bk 2, ch 7 (v. 1)*—L. Von Ranke, *Hist of Serbia, &c.: Slave Provinces of Turkey, ch. 2-6*—"Montenegro is an extremely curious instance of the way in which favourable geographical conditions may aid a small people to achieve a fame and a place in the world quite out of proportion to their numbers. The Black Mountain is the one place where a South Slavonic community maintained themselves in independence, sometimes seeing their territory overrun by the Turks, but never acknowledging Turkish authority de jure from the time of the Turkish Conquest of the 15th century down to the Treaty of Berlin. Montenegro could not have done that but for her geographical structure. She is a high mass of limestone; you cannot call it a plateau, because it is seamed by many valleys, and rises into many sharp mountain-peaks. Still, it is a mountain mass, the average height of which is rather more than 2,000 feet above the sea, with summits reaching 5,000. It is bare

limestone, so that there is hardly anything grown on it, only grass—and very good grass—in spots, with little patches of corn and potatoes, and it has scarcely any water. Its upland is covered with snow in winter, while in summer the invaders have to carry their water with them, a serious difficulty when there were no roads, and active mountaineers fired from behind every rock, a difficulty which becomes more serious the larger the invading force. Consequently it is one of the most impracticable regions imaginable for an invading army. It is owing to those circumstances that this handful of people—because the Montenegrins of the 17th century did not number more than 40,000 or 50,000—have maintained their independence. That they did maintain it is a fact most important in the history of the Balkan Peninsula, and may have great consequences yet to come."—J. Bryce, *Relations of History and Geography (Contemp. Rev., Mar, 1886)*

**14th-19th Centuries.—(Serbia):** The long oppression of the Turk.—Struggle for freedom under Kara Georg and Milosch.—Independence achieved.—The Obrenovitch dynasty—"The brilliant victories of Stephan Dushan were a misfortune to Christendom. They shattered the Greek empire, the last feeble bulwark of Europe, and paved the way for those ultimate successes of the Asiatic conquerors which a timely union of strength might have prevented. Stephan Dushan conquered, but did not consolidate: and his scourging wars were insufficiently balanced by the advantage of the code of laws to which he gave his name. His son Urosh, being a weak and incapable prince, was murdered by one of the generals of the army, and thus ended the Neman dynasty, after having subsisted 212 years, and produced eight kings and two emperors. The crown now devolved on Knes, or Prince Lasar, a connexion of the house of Neman. . . . Of all the ancient rulers of the country, his memory is held the dearest by the Servians of the present day." Knes Lasar perished in the fatal battle of Kosovo, and with him fell the Serbian monarchy (see *TURKS A D 1360-1389, 1402-1451, and 1459, also MONTENEGRO*). "The Turkish conquest was followed by the gradual dispersion or disappearance of the native nobility of Serbia, the last of whom, the Brankovitch, lived as 'despots' in the castle of Semendria up to the beginning of the 18th century. . . . The period preceding the second siege of Vienna was the spring-tide of Islam conquest. After this event, in 1684, began the ebb. Hungary was lost to the Porte, and six years afterwards 87,000 Serbian families emigrated into that kingdom; this first led the way to contact with the civilization of Germany. . . . Serbia Proper, for a short time wrested from the Porte by the victories of Prince Eugene, again became a part of the dominions of the Sultan [see *RUSSIA: A D. 1739*]. But a turbulent militia overawed the government and tyrannized over the Rayahs. Pasvan Oglou and his bands at Widdin were, at the end of the last century, in open revolt against the Porte. Other chiefs had followed his example; and for the first time the Divan thought of associating Christian Rayahs with the spahis, to put down these rebels. The Dahis, as these brigand-chiefs were called, resolved to anticipate the approaching struggle by a massacre of the

most influential Christians. This atrocious massacre was carried out with indescribable horrors.

Kara Georg [Black George], a peasant, born at Topola about the year 1767, getting timely information that his name was in the list of the doomed, fled into the woods, and gradually organized a formidable force. In the name of the Porte he combated the Dahis, who had usurped local authority in defiance of the Pasha of Belgrade. The Divan, little anticipating the ultimate issue of the struggle in Servia, was at first delighted at the success of Kara Georg, but soon saw with consternation that the rising of the Servian peasants grew into a formidable rebellion, and ordered the Pashas of Bosnia and Scodra to assemble all their disposable forces and invade Servia. Between 40,000 and 50,000 Bosniacs burst into Servia on the west, in the spring of 1806, cutting to pieces all who refused to receive Turkish authority. Kara Georg undauntedly met the storm, defeating the Turkish forces near Tchoupria, September, 1804, and more severely two years later (August, 1806) at Shabat. In December of the same year he surprised and took Belgrade. "The succeeding years were passed in the vicissitudes of a guerilla warfare, neither party obtaining any marked success, and an auxiliary corps of Russians assisted in preventing the Turks from making the reconquest of Servia. . . Kara Georg was now a Russian lieutenant-general, and exercised an almost unlimited power in Servia, the revolution, after a struggle of eight years, appeared to be successful, but the momentous events then passing in Europe completely altered the aspect of affairs. Russia, in 1812, on the approach of the countless legions of Napoleon, precipitately concluded the Treaty of Bucharest, the eighth article of which formally assured a separate administration to the Servians. Next year, however, was fatal to Kara Georg. In 1813, the vigour of the Ottoman empire . . . was now concentrated on the resubjugation of Servia. A general panic seemed to seize the nation, and Kara Georg and his companions in arms sought a retreat on the Austrian territory, and thence passed into Wallachia. In 1814, 300 Christians were impaled at Belgrade by the Pasha, and every valley in Servia presented the spectacle of infuriated Turkish spahis avenging on the Servians the blood, exile and confiscation of the ten preceding years. At this period, Milosh Obrenovitch appears prominently on the political tapis. He spent his youth in herding the famed swine of Servia, and during the revolution was employed by Kara Georg to watch the passes of the Balkans. . . He now saw that a favourable conjuncture had come for his advancement from the position of chieftain to that of chief; he therefore lost no time in making terms with the Turks, offering to collect the tribute, to serve them faithfully, and to aid them in the resubjugation of the people. . . He now displayed singular activity in the extirpation of all the other popular chiefs," until he found reason to suspect that the Turks were only using him to destroy him in the end. Then, in 1815, he turned upon them and raised the standard of revolt. The movement which he headed was so formidable that the Porte made haste to treat, and Milosh made favourable terms for himself, being reinstated as tribute-collector. "Many of the chiefs, impatient at the speedy submission of Milosh, wished to fight

the matter out, and Kara Georg, in order to give effect to their plans, landed in Servia. Milosh pretended to be friendly to his designs, but secretly betrayed his place of concealment to the governor, whose men broke into the cottage where he slept, and put him to death."—A. A. Paton, *Researches on the Danube and the Adriatic*, bk. 1, ch. 3—"In 1817 Milosh was proclaimed hereditary Prince of Servia by the National Assembly.

In 1830 the autonomy of Servia was at length solemnly recognized by the Porte, and Milosh proclaimed 'the father of the Fatherland'.

If asked why the descendants of Milosh still rule over Servia, and not the descendants of Kara George, my answer is that every step in Servian progress is connected with the Obrenovitch dynasty. The liberation of the country, the creation of a peasant proprietary, the final withdrawal of the Turkish troops from Belgrade in 1862, the independence of the country, the extension of its territory, and the making of its railways,—all of these are among the results of Obrenovitch rule. The founder of the dynasty had in 1830 a great opportunity of making his people free as well as independent. But Milosh had lived too long with Turks to be a lover of freedom. In 1839 Milosh abdicated. The reason for this step was that he refused to accept a constitution which Russia and Turkey concocted for him. This charter vested the actual government of the country in a Senate composed of Milosh's rivals, and entirely independent of that Prince. It was anti-democratic, no less than anti-dynastic. Milosh was succeeded first by his son Milan, and on Milan's death by Michael. Michael was too gentle for the troubled times in which he lived, and after a two years' reign he too started upon his travels.

When Michael crossed the Save, Alexander Kara Georgevitch was elected Prince of Servia. From 1842 to 1858 the son of Black George lived—he can scarcely be said to have reigned—in Belgrade. During these 17 years this feeble son of a strong man did absolutely nothing for his country. Late in 1858 he fled from Servia, and Milosh ruled in his stead. Milosh is the Grand Old Man of Serb history. His mere presence in Servia checked the intrigues of foreign powers. He died peacefully in his bed. . . Michael succeeded his father. . . Prince Michael was murdered by convicts in the park at Topsischidera near Belgrade. He "was succeeded (1868) by Milan, the grandson of Zephrem, the brother of Milosh. As Milan was barely fourteen years of age, a Regency of three was appointed."—J. G. C. Minchin, *Servia and Montenegro* (*National Life and Thought*, lect. 19).

Also in: E. de Laveleye, *The Balkan Peninsula*, ch. 6.

A. D. 1718 (Bosnia).—A part ceded to Austria by the Turks. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1699-1718.

A. D. 1739 (Bosnia and Roumania).—Entire restoration of Bosnia to the Turks, and Cession of Austrian Wallachia. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1735-1739.

19th Century (Roumania and Servia).—Awakening of a National Spirit.—The effect of historical teaching.—"No political fact is of more importance and interest in modern continental history than the tenacity with which the smaller nations of Europe preserve their pride of nationality in the face of the growing tendency

towards the formation of large, strongly concentrated empires, supported by powerful armies. Why should Portugal utterly refuse to unite with Spain? Why do Holland and Belgium cling to their existence as separate States, in spite of all the efforts of statesmen to join them? Why do the people of Bohemia and Croatia, of Finland, and of Poland, refuse to coalesce with the rest of the population of the empires of which they form but small sections? Why, finally, do the new kingdoms of Roumania and Servia show such astonishing vitality? The arguments as to distinctive race or distinctive language fail to answer all these questions.

This rekindling of the national spirit is the result chiefly of the development of the new historical school all over the Continent. Instead of remaining in ignorance of their past history, or, at best, regarding a mass of legends as containing the true tale of their countries' achievements, these small nations have now learnt from the works of their great historians what the story of their fatherlands really is, and what title they have to be proud of their ancestors. These great historians—Herculano, Palacký, Széchenyi, and the rest—who made it their aim to tell the truth and not to show off the beauties of a fine literary style, all belonged to the generation which had its interest aroused in the history of the past by the novels of Sir Walter Scott and the productions of the Romantic School, and they all learnt how history was to be studied, and then written, from Niebuhr, Von Ranke and their disciples and followers. From these masters they learnt that their histories were not to be made interesting at the expense of truth.

The vitality of the new historical school in Roumania is particularly remarkable, for in the Danubian provinces, which form that kingdom, even more strenuous efforts had been made to stamp out the national spirit than in Bohemia. The extraordinary rapidity with which the Roumanian people has reasserted itself in recent years, is one of the most remarkable facts in modern European history, and it is largely due to the labours of its historians. Up till 1822 the Roumanian language was vigorously proscribed, the rulers of the Danubian provinces permitted instruction to the upper classes in the language of the rulers only, and while Slavonic, and in the days of the Phanariots Greek, was the official and fashionable language, used in educating the nobility and bourgeois, the peasants were left in ignorance. Four men, whose names deserve record, first endeavoured to raise the Roumanian language to a literary level, and not only studied Roumanian history, but tried to teach the Roumanian people something of their own early history. Of these four, George Schinkai was by far the most remarkable. He was an inhabitant of Transylvania, a Roumanian province which still remains subject to Hungary, and he first thought of trying to revive the Roumanian nationality by teaching the people their history. He arranged the annals of his country from A. D. 86 to A. D. 1739 with indefatigable labour, during the last half of the 18th century, and, according to Edgar Quinet, in such a truly modern manner, after such careful weighing of original authorities, and with such critical power, that he deserves to be ranked with the creators of the modern historical school. It need hardly be said that Schinkai's History was not allowed to be printed by the Hungarian

authorities, who had no desire to see the Roumanian nationality re-assert itself, and the censor marked on it 'opus igne, auctor patibulo dignus.' It was not published until 1853, more than forty years after its completion, and then only at Jassy, for the Hungarians still proscribed it in Transylvania. Schinkai's friend, Peter Major, was more fortunate in his work, a 'History of the Origin of the Roumanians in Dacia,' which, as it did not touch on modern society, was passed by the Hungarian censorship, and printed at Buda Pesth in 1813. The two men who first taught Roumanian history in the provinces which now form the kingdom of Roumania were not such learned men as Schinkai and Peter Major, but their work was of more practical importance. In 1813 George Asaky got leave to open a Roumanian class at the Greek Academy of Jassy, under the pretext that it was necessary to teach surveying in the Roumanian tongue, because of the questions which constantly arose in that profession, in which it would be necessary to speak to the peasants in their own language, and in his lectures he carefully inserted lessons in Roumanian history, and tried to arouse the spirit of the people. George Lazarus imitated him at Bucharest in 1816, and the fruit of this instruction was seen when the Roumanians partially regained their freedom. The Moldo-Wallachian princes encouraged the teaching of Roumanian history, as they encouraged the growth of the spirit of Roumanian independence, and when the Roumanian Academy was founded, an historical section was formed with the special mission of studying and publishing documents connected with Roumanian history. The modern scientific spirit has spread widely throughout the kingdom.—H. Morse Stephens, *Modern Historians and Small Nationalities* (Contemp. Rev., July, 1887).

A. D. 1829 (Roumania, or Wallachia and Moldavia).—Important provisions of the Treaty of Adrianople.—Life Election of the Hospodars.—Substantial independence of the Turk. See TURKS: A. D. 1826-1829.

A. D. 1856 (Roumania, or Wallachia and Moldavia).—Privileges guaranteed by the Treaty of Paris. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1854-1856.

A. D. 1858-1866.—(Roumania or Wallachia and Moldavia).—Union of the two provinces under one Crown.—Accession of Prince Charles of Hohenzollern. See TURKS: A. D. 1861-1877.

A. D. 1875-1878.—The Breaking of the Turkish yoke.—Bulgarian atrocities.—Russo-Turkish War.—In 1875, a revolt broke out in Herzegovina. "The efforts made to suppress the growing revolt strained the already weakened resources of the Porte, until they could bear up against it no longer, and the Herzegovine rebellion proved the last straw which broke the back of Turkish solvency. . . . The hopes of the insurgents were of course quickened by this catastrophe, which, as they saw, would alienate much sympathy from the Turks. The advisers of the Sultan, therefore, thought it necessary to be conciliatory, and . . . they induced him to issue an *Irâdê*, or circular note, promising the remission of taxes, and economical and social reforms. . . . Europe, however, had grown tired of the Porte's promises of amendment, and for some time the Imperial Powers had been laying their heads together, and the result of their con-



sultations was the Andrassy Note. The date of this document was December 30th, 1875, and it was sent to those of the Western Powers who had signed the treaties of 1856. It declared that although the spirit of the suggested reforms was good, there was some doubt whether the Porte had the strength to carry them out, Count Andrassy, therefore, proposed that the execution of the necessary measures should be placed under the care of a special commission, half the members of which should be Mussulmans and half Christians. It concluded with a serious warning, that if the war was not gone with the snow,

'the Governments of Servia and Montenegro, which have had great difficulty in keeping aloof from the movement, will be unable to resist the current.' It was evident, however, that this note would have but little or no effect, it contained no coercive precautions, and accordingly the Porte quietly allowed the question to drop, and contented himself with profuse promises.

So affairs drifted on, the little war continued to sputter on the frontier, reinforced by Servians and Montenegrins, the Herzegovinese succeeded in keeping their enemy at bay, and, instigated, it is said, by Russian emissaries, put forward demands which the Porte was unable to accept.

The Powers, in no wise disconcerted by the failure of their first attempt to settle the difficulties between the Sultan and his rebellious subjects, had published a sequel to the Andrassy Note. There was an informal conference of the three Imperial Chancellors, Prince Bismarck, Prince Gortschakoff, and Count Andrassy, at Berlin, in May. . . . Then on May 18th the Ambassadors of England, France, and Italy were invited to Prince Bismarck's house, and the text of the famous Berlin Memorandum was laid before them. . . . While the three Chancellors were forging their diplomatic thunderbolt, a catastrophe of such a terrible nature had occurred in the interior of Turkey that all talk of armistices and mixed commissions had become stale and unprofitable. The Berlin Memorandum was not even presented to the Porte; for a rumour, though carefully suppressed by Turkish officials, was beginning to leak out that there had been an insurrection of the Christian population of Bulgaria, and that the most horrible atrocities had been committed by the Turkish irregular troops in its suppression. It was communicated to Lord Derby by Sir Henry Elliot on the 4th of May.

On June 16th a letter was received from him at the Foreign Office, saying, 'The Bulgarian insurrection appears to be unquestionably put down, although I regret to say, with cruelty, and, in some places, with brutality.' . . . A week afterwards the Constantinople correspondent of the Daily News . . . gave the estimates of Bulgarians slain as varying from 18,000 to 80,000, and the number of villages destroyed at about a hundred. . . . That there was much truth in the statements of the newspaper correspondents was . . . demonstrated beyond possibility of denial as soon as Sir Henry Elliot's despatches were made public. . . . 'I am satisfied,' wrote Sir Henry Elliot, 'that, while great atrocities have been committed, both by Turks upon Christians and Christians upon Turks, the former have been by far the greatest, although the Christians were undoubtedly the first to commence them.' . . . Meanwhile, the Daily News had resolved on sending out a special commissioner to make an investi-

gation independent of official reports. Mr. J. A. MacGahan, an American, who had been one of that journal's correspondents during the Franco-German War, was the person selected. He started in company with Mr. Eugene Schuyler, the great authority on the Central Asian question, who, in the capacity of Consul-General, was about to prepare a similar statement for the Hon. Horace Maynard, the United States Minister at Constantinople. They arrived at Philippopolis on the 25th of July, where Mr. Walter Baring, one of the Secretaries of the British Legation at Constantinople, was already engaged in collecting information. The first of Mr. MacGahan's letters was dated July the 28th, and its publication in this country revived in a moment the half-extinct excitement of the populace.

Perhaps the passage which was most frequently in men's mouths at the time was that in which he described the appearance of the mountain village of Batak. 'We entered the town. On every side were skulls and skeletons charred among the ruins, or lying entire where they fell in their clothing. There were skeletons of girls and women, with long brown hair hanging to their skulls. We approached the church. There these remains were more frequent, until the ground was literally covered by skeletons, skulls, and putrefying bodies in clothing. Between the church and school there were heaps. The stench was fearful. We entered the churchyard. The sight was more dreadful. The whole churchyard, for three feet deep, was festering with dead bodies, partly covered, hands, legs, arms, and heads projecting in ghastly confusion. I saw many little hands, heads, and feet of children three years of age, and girls with heads covered with beautiful hair. The church was still worse. The floor was covered with rotting bodies quite uncovered. I never imagined anything so fearful. The town had 9,000 inhabitants. There now remain 1,200. Many who had escaped had returned recently, weeping and moaning over their ruined homes. Their sorrowful wailing could be heard half a mile off. Some were digging out the skeletons of loved ones. A woman was sitting moaning over three small skulls, with hair clinging to them, which she had in her lap. The man who did this, Achmed Agra, has been promoted, and is still governor of the district.' An exceeding bitter cry of horror and disgust arose throughout the country on the receipt of this terrible news. Mr. Anderson at once asked for information on the subject, and Mr. Bourke was entrusted with the difficult duty of replying. He could only read a letter from Mr. Baring, in which he said that, as far as he had been able to discover, the proportion of the numbers of the slain was about 12,000 Bulgarians to 500 Turks, and that 60 villages had been wholly or partially burnt. . . . Mr. Schuyler's opinions were, as might be expected from the circumstance that his investigations had been shorter than those of Mr. Baring, and that he was ignorant of the Turkish language—which is that chiefly spoken in Bulgaria—and was therefore at the mercy of his interpreter, the more highly coloured. He totally rejected Lord Beaconsfield's idea that there had been a civil war, and that cruelties had been committed on both sides. On the contrary he asserted that 'the insurgent villages made little or no resistance. In many

cases they surrendered their arms on the first demand. . . . No Turkish women or children were killed in cold blood. No Mussulman women were violated. No Mussulmans were tortured. No purely Turkish village was attacked or burnt. No Mosque was desecrated or destroyed. The Bashi-Bazouks, on the other hand, had burnt about 65 villages, and killed at least 15,000 Bulgarians. The terrible story of the destruction of Batak was told in language of precisely similar import to that of Mr MacGahan, whose narrative the American Consul had never seen, though there was a slight difference in the numbers of the massacred. 'Of the 8,000 inhabitants,' he said, 'not 2,000 are known to survive'.

Abdul Aziz had let loose the hordes of Bashi-Bazouks on defenceless Bulgaria, but Murad seemed utterly unable to rectify the fatal error, the province fell into a state of complete anarchy.

As Lord Derby remarked, it was impossible to effect much with an imbecile monarch and bankrupt treasury. One thing, at any rate, the Turks were strong enough to do, and that was to defeat the Servians, who declared war on Turkey on July 1st.

Up to the last Prince Milan declared that his intentions were purely pacific, but the increasing troubles of the Porte enabled him, with some small chance of success, to avail himself of the anti-Turkish spirit of his people and to declare war. His example was followed by Prince Nikita of Montenegro, who set out with his brave little army from Cetigne on July 2nd. At first it appeared as if the principalities would have the better of the struggle. The Turkish generals showed their usual dilatoriness in attacking Servia, and Tcherniaeff, who was a man of considerable military talent, gave them the good bye, and cut them off from their base of operations. This success was, however, transitory, Abdul Kerim, the Turkish Commander-in-Chief, drove back the enemy by mere force of numbers, and by the end of the month he was over the border. Meanwhile, the hardy Montenegrins had been considerably more fortunate, but their victories over Mukhtar Pasha were not sufficiently important to effect a diversion. The Servians fell back from all their positions of defence, and on September 1st received a most disastrous beating before the walls of Alexinatz.

On September 16th the Porte agreed to a suspension of hostilities until the 25th. It must be acknowledged that the Servians used this period of grace exceedingly ill. Prince Milan was proclaimed by General Tcherniaeff, in his absence and against his will, King of Servia and Bosnia; and though, on the remonstrance of the Powers, he readily consented to waive the obnoxious title, the evil effect of the declaration remained. Lord Derby's proposals for peace, which were made on September 21st, were nevertheless accepted by the Sultan when he saw that unanimity prevailed among the Powers, and he offered in addition to prolong the formal suspension of hostilities to October 2nd. This offer the Servians, relying on the Russian volunteers who were flocking to join Tcherniaeff, rejected with some contempt, and hostilities were resumed. They paid dearly for their temerity. Tcherniaeff's position before Alexinatz was forced by the Turks after three days' severe fighting; position after position yielded to them; on October 31st Alexinatz was taken,

and Deligrad was occupied on November 1st. Nothing remained between the outpost of the crescent and Belgrade, and it seemed as if the new Kingdom of Servia must perish in the throes of its birth. Russia now invoked the intervention of the powers, and brought about a conference at Constantinople, which effected nothing, the Porte rejecting all the proposals submitted. On the 24th of April, 1877, Russia declared war and entered upon a conflict with the Turks, which had for its result the readjustment of affairs in South-eastern Europe by the Congress and Treaty of Berlin.—*Cassell's Illustrated History of England*, v. 10, ch. 22-23.—See **TURKS** A. D. 1877-1878, and 1878.

**A. D. 1878.—Treaty of Berlin.—Transfer of Bosnia to Austria.—Independence of Servia, Montenegro and Roumania.—Division and semi-independence of Bulgaria.**—“(1) Bosnia, including Herzegovina, was assigned to Austria for permanent occupation. Thus Turkey lost a great province of nearly 1,250,000 inhabitants. Of these about 500,000 were Christians of the Greek Church, 450,000 were Mohammedans, mainly in the towns, who offered a stout resistance to the Austrian troops, and 200,000 Roman Catholics. By the occupation of the Novi-Bazar district Austria wedged in her forces between Montenegro and Servia, and was also able to keep watch over the turbulent province of Macedonia. (2) Montenegro received less than the San Stefano terms had promised her, but secured the seaports of Antivari and Dulcigno. It needed a demonstration of the European fleets off the latter port, and a threat to seize Smyrna, to make the Turks yield Dulcigno to the Montenegrins (who alone of all the Christian races of the peninsula had never been conquered by the Turks). (3) Servia was proclaimed an independent Principality, and received the district of Old Servia on the upper valley of the Morava. (4) Roumania also gained her independence and ceased to pay any tribute to the Porte, but had to give up to her Russian benefactors the slice acquired from Russia in 1856 between the Pruth and the northern mouth of the Danube. In return for this sacrifice she gained the large but marshy Dobrudscha district from Bulgaria, and so acquired the port of Kustendje on the Black Sea. (5) Bulgaria, which, according to the San Stefano terms, would have been an independent State as large as Roumania, was by the Berlin Treaty subjected to the suzerainty of the sultan, divided into two parts, and confined within much narrower limits. Besides the Dobrudscha, it lost the northern or Bulgarian part of Macedonia, and the Bulgarians who dwelt between the Balkans and Adrianople were separated from their kinsfolk on the north of the Balkans, in a province called Eastern Roumelia, with Philippopolis as capital. The latter province was to remain Turkish, under a Christian governor nominated by the Porte with the consent of the Powers. Turkey was allowed to occupy the passes of the Balkans in time of war.”—J. H. Rose, *A Century of Continental History*, ch. 42.—See **TURKS**: A. D. 1878.

Also in: E. Hertslet, *The Map of Europe by Treaty*, v. 4, nos. 518, 524-532.

**A. D. 1878-1891.—Proposed Balkan Confederation and its aims.**—“During the reaction against Russia which followed the great war of 1878, negotiations were actually set on foot with a view to forming a combination of the Balkan

States for the purpose of resisting Russian aggression. . . . Prince Alexander always favoured the idea of a Balkan Confederation which was to include Turkey; and even listened to proposals on the part of Greece, defining the Bulgarian and Greek spheres of influence in Macedonia. But the revolt of Eastern Roumelia, followed by the Servo-Bulgarian war and the chastisement of Greece by the Powers, provoked so much bitterness of feeling among the rival races that for many years nothing more was heard of a Balkan Confederation. The idea has lately been revived under different auspices and with somewhat different aims. During the past six years the Triple Alliance, with England, has, despite the indifference of Prince Bismarck, protected the Balkan States in general, and Bulgaria in particular from the armed intervention of Russia. It has also acted the part of policeman in preserving the peace throughout the Peninsula, and in deterring the young nations from any dangerous indulgence in their angry passions. The most remarkable feature in the history of this period has been the extraordinary progress made by Bulgaria. Since the revolt of Eastern Roumelia, Bulgaria has been treated by Dame Europa as a naughty child. But the Bulgarians have been shrewd enough to see that the Central Powers and England have an interest in their national independence and consolidation; they have recognised the truth that fortune favours those who help themselves, and they have boldly taken their own course, while carefully avoiding any breach of the proprieties such as might again bring them under the censure of the European Areopagus. They ventured, indeed, to elect a Prince of their own choosing without the sanction of that august conclave; the wisacres shook their heads, and prophesied that Prince Ferdinand's days in Bulgaria might, perhaps, be as many as Prince Alexander's years. Yet Prince Ferdinand remains on the throne, and is now engaged in celebrating the fourth anniversary of his accession; the internal development of the country proceeds apace, and the progress of the Bulgarian sentiment outside the country—in other words, the Macedonian propaganda—is not a whit behind. The Bulgarians have made their greatest strides in Macedonia since the fall of Prince Bismarck, who was always ready to humour Russia at the expense of Bulgaria. . . . What happened after the great war of 1878? A portion of the Bulgarian race was given a nominal freedom which was never expected to be a reality; Russia pounced on Bessarabia, England on Cyprus, Austria on Bosnia and Herzegovina. France got something elsewhere, but that is another matter. The Bulgarians have never forgiven Lord Beaconsfield for the division of their race, and I have seen some bitter poems upon the great Israelite in the Bulgarian tongue which many Englishmen would not care to hear translated. The Greeks have hated us since our occupation of Cyprus, and firmly believe that we mean to take Crete as well. The Servians have not forgotten how Russia, after instigating them to two disastrous wars, dealt with their claims at San Stefano; they cannot forgive Austria for her occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and every Servian peasant, as he pays his heavy taxes, or reluctantly gives a big price for some worthless imported article, feels the galling yoke of her fiscal and commercial tyranny. Need it be

said how outraged Bulgaria scowls at Russia, or how Roumania, who won Plevna for her heartless ally, weeps for her Bessarabian children, and will not be comforted? It is evident that the Balkan peoples have no reason to expect much benefit from the next great war, from the European Conference which will follow it, or from the sympathy of the Christian Powers. . . . What, then, do the authors of the proposed Confederation suggest as its ultimate aim and object? The Balkan States are to act independently of the foreign Powers, and in concert with one another. The Sick Man's inheritance lies before them, and they are to take it when an opportunity presents itself. They must not wait for the great Armageddon, for then all may be lost. If the Central Powers come victorious out of the conflict, Austria, it is believed, will go to Salonika; if Russia conquers, she will plant her standard at Stamboul, and practically annex the Peninsula. In either case the hopes of the young nations will be destroyed forever. It is, therefore, sought to extricate a portion at least of the Eastern Question from the tangled web of European politics, to isolate it, to deal with it as a matter which solely concerns the Sick Man and his immediate successors. It is hoped that the Sick Man may be induced by the determined attitude of his expectant heirs to make over to them their several portions in his lifetime; should he refuse, they must act in concert, and provide euthanasia for the moribund owner of Macedonia, Crete, and Thrace. In other words, it is believed that the Balkan States, if once they could come to an understanding as regards their claims to what is left of the Ottoman Empire in Europe, might conjointly, and without the aid of any foreign Power, bring such pressure to bear upon Turkey as to induce her to surrender peaceably her European possessions, and to content herself henceforth with the position of an Asiatic Power." —J. D. Bouchier, *A Balkan Confederation* (*Fortnightly Review*, Sept., 1891).

A. D. 1878-1886 (Bulgaria): Reunion of the two Bulgarias.—Hostility of Russia.—Victorious war with Servia.—Abduction and abdication of Prince Alexander.—"The Berlin Treaty, by cutting Bulgaria into three pieces, contrary to the desire of her inhabitants, and with utter disregard of both geographical and ethnical fitness, had prepared the ground from which a crop of never-ending agitation was inevitably bound to spring—a crop which the Treaty of San Stefano would have ended in preventing. On either side of the Balkans, both in Bulgaria and in Roumelia, the same desire for union existed. Both parties were agreed as to this, and only differed as to the means by which the end should be attained. The Liberals were of opinion that the course of events ought to be awaited; the unionists, on the other hand, maintained that they should be challenged. It was a few individuals belonging to the latter party and acting with M. Karaveloff, the head of the Bulgarian Cabinet, who prepared and successfully carried out the revolution of September 18, 1885. So unanimously was this movement supported by the whole population, including even the Mussulmans, that it was accomplished and the union proclaimed without the least resistance being encountered, and without the shedding of one drop of blood! Prince Alexander was in no way made aware of what was in preparation;



but he knew very well that it would be his duty to place himself at the head of any national movement, and in a proclamation dated the 19th of September, and addressed from Tirnova, the ancient capital, he recommended union and assumed the title of Prince of North and South Bulgaria. The Porte protested in a circular, dated the 28th of September, and called upon the Powers who had signed the Treaty of Berlin, to enforce the observance of its stipulations. On the 18th of October, the Powers collectively declare 'that they condemn this violation of the Treaty, and are sure that the Sultan will do all that he can, consistently with his sovereign rights, before resorting to the force which he has at his disposal.' From the moment when there was opposition to the use of force, which even the Porte did not seem in a hurry to employ, the union of the two Bulgarias necessarily became an accomplished fact. . . . Whilst England and Austria both accepted the union of the two Bulgarias as being rendered necessary by the position of affairs, whilst even the Porte (although protesting) was resigned, the Emperor of Russia displayed a passionate hostility to it, not at all in accord with the feelings of the Russian nation. . . . In Russia they had reckoned upon all the liberties guaranteed by the Constitution of Tirnova becoming so many causes of disorder and anarchy, instead of which the Bulgarians were growing accustomed to freedom. Schools were being endowed, the country was progressing in every way, and thus the Bulgarians were becoming less and less fitted for transformation into Russian subjects. Their lot was a preferable one, by far, to that of the people of Russia—henceforth they would refuse to accept the Russian yoke! . . . If, then, Russia wanted to maintain her high-handed policy in Bulgaria, she must oppose the union and hinder the consolidation of Bulgarian nationality by every means in her power; this she has done without scruple of any sort or kind, as will be shown by a brief epitome of what has happened recently. Serbia, hoping to extend her territory in the direction of Tru and Widdin, and, pleading regard for the Treaty of Berlin and the theory of the balance of power, attacks Bulgaria. On November 14th [17th to 19th?] 1885, Prince Alexander defends the Slivnitza positions [in a three days' battle] with admirable courage and strategic skill. The Roumelian militia, coming in by forced marches of unheard-of length, perform prodigies of valour in the field. Within eight days, i. e., from the 20th to the 28th of November, the Servian army, far greater in numbers, is driven back into its own territory; the Dragoman Pass is crossed; Piroi is taken by assault; and Prince Alexander is marching on Nisch, when his victorious progress is arrested by the Austrian Minister, under threats of an armed intervention on the part of that country! On December 21st, an armistice is concluded, afterwards made into a treaty of peace, and signed at Bucharest on March 3rd by M. Miyatovitch on behalf of Serbia, by M. Guechoff on behalf of Bulgaria, and by Madgid Pascha for the Sultan. Prince Alexander did all he could to bring about a reconciliation with the Czar and even went so far as to attribute to Russian instructors all the merit of the victories he had just won. The Czar would not yield. Then the Prince turned to the Sultan, and with

him succeeded in coming to a direct understanding. The Prince was to be nominated Governor-General of Roumelia; a mixed Commission was to meet and modify the Roumelian statutes; more than this, the Porte was bound to place troops at his disposal, in the event of his being attacked. . . . From that date the Czar swore that he would cause Prince Alexander's downfall. It was said that Prince Alexander of Battenberg had changed into a sword the sceptre which Russia had given him and was going to turn it against his benefactor. Nothing could be more untrue. Up to the very last moment, he did everything he could to disarm the anger of the Czar, but what was wanted from him was this—that he should make Bulgaria an obedient satellite of Russia, and rather than consent to do so he left Sofia. The story of the Prince's dethronement by Russian influence, or, as Lord Salisbury said, by Russian gold, is well known. A handful of discontented officers, a few cadets of the *École Militaire*, and some of Zankoff's adherents, banding themselves together, broke into the palace during the night of the 21st of August, seized the Prince, and had him carried off, without escort, to Rahova on the Danube, from thence to Reni in Bessarabia, where he was handed over to the Russians! The conspirators endeavoured to form a government, but the whole country rose against them, in spite of the support openly given them by M. Bogdanoff the Russian diplomatic agent. On the 3rd of September, a few days after these occurrences, Prince Alexander returned to his capital, welcomed home by the acclamations of the whole people; but in answer to a respectful, not to say too humble, telegram in which he offered to replace his Crown in the hands of the Czar, that potentate replied that he ceased to have any relations with Bulgaria as long as Prince Alexander remained there. Owing to advice which came, no doubt, from Berlin, Prince Alexander decided to abdicate; he did so because of the demands of the Czar and in the interests of Bulgaria."—E. de Laveleye, *The Balkan Peninsula, Intro.*

ALSO IN: A. Von Huhn, *The Struggle of the Bulgarians*.—J. G. C. Minchin, *Growth of Freedom in the Balkan Peninsula*.—A. Koch, *Prince Alexander of Battenberg*.

A. D. 1879-1889 (Serbia).—Quarrels and divorce of King Milan and Queen Natalia.—Abdication of the King.—"In October, 1875. . . . Milan, then but twenty-one years old, married Natalia Kechko, herself but sixteen. The present Queen was the daughter of a Russian officer and of the Princess Pulcherie Stourdza. She, as little as her husband, had been born with a likelihood to sit upon the throne, and a quiet burgher education had been hers at Odessa. But even here her great beauty attracted notice, as also her abilities, her ambition and her wealth. . . . At first all went well, to outward appearance at least, for Milan was deeply enamoured of his beautiful wife, who soon became the idol of the Servians, on account of her beauty and her amiability. This affection was but increased when, a year after her marriage, she presented her subjects with an heir. But from that hour the domestic discord began. The Queen had been ill long and seriously after her boy's birth; Milan had sought distractions elsewhere. Scenes of jealousy and recrimination

grew frequent. Further Serbia was then passing through a difficult political crisis: the Turkish war was in full swing. Milan little beloved ever since he began to reign brought home no wreaths from this conflict although his subjects distinguished themselves by their valour. Then followed in 1882 the raising of the principality into a kingdom—a fact which left the Servians very indifferent and in which they merely beheld the prospect of increased taxes, a provision that was ridiculed. As time went on, and troubles increased King Milan became somewhat of a despot who was sustained solely by the army itself undermined by factious intrigues. Meantime the Queen now grown somewhat callous to her husband's infidelities aspired to comfort herself by assuming a political rôle, for which she believed herself to have great aptitude.

As she could not influence the decisions of the Prince the lady entered into opposition to him, and made it her aim to oppose all his projects. The quarrel spread throughout the entire Palace, and two inimical factions were formed, that of the King and that of the Queen.

Meantime Milan got deeper and deeper into debt, so that after a time he had almost mortgaged his territory.

While the husband and wife were thus quarrelling and going their own ways, grave events were maturing in neighbouring Bulgaria. The coup d'état of Philippopolis, which annexed Eastern Roumelia to the principality, enlarged it in such wise that Serbia henceforth had to cut a sorry figure in the Balkans. Milan roused himself, or pretended to rouse himself, and war was declared against Bulgaria. There followed the crushing defeat of Slivtza, in which Prince Alexander of Battenberg carried off such laurels, and the Servians had to beat a disgraceful and precipitate retreat. Far from proving himself the hero Nathalie had dreamed, Milan telegraphed to the Queen, busied with tending the wounded, that he intended to abdicate forthwith. This cowardly conduct gave the death blow to any

feeling the Queen might have retained for the King. Henceforth she despised him, and took no pains to hide the fact. In 1887 the pair parted without outward scandals, the Queen taking with her the Crown Prince.

Florence was the goal of the Queen's wanderings, and here she spent a quiet winter. The winter ended, Nathalie desired to return to Belgrade. Milan would not hear of it. The Queen went to Wiesbaden in consequence. While residing there Milan professed to be suddenly taken with a paternal craving to see his son. And to the shame of the German Government, be it said, they lent their hand to abducting an only child from his mother.

Before ever the excitement about this act could subside in Europe, Milan petitioned the Servian Synod for a divorce, on the ground of 'irreconcilable mutual antipathy.' Neither by canonical or civil law was this possible, and the Queen refused her consent.

Nor could the divorce have been obtained but for the servile complaisance of the Servian Metropolitan Theodor. Quick vengeance, however, was in store for Milan. The international affairs of Serbia had grown more and more disturbed.

The King, perplexed, afraid, storm-tossed between divided counsels, highly irritable, and deeply impressed by Rudolph of Hapsburg's recent suicide, suddenly announced his intention to abdicate in favour of his son.

Without regret his people saw depart from among them a man who at thirty-five years of age was already decrepit.

After kneeling down before his son and swearing fidelity to him as a subject (March, 1889), Milan betook himself off to tour through Europe. Three Regents are appointed to aid the King during his minority—"Politikos," *The Sovereigns*, pp. 353-363.

**A. D. 1893.—Royal Coup d'État.**—In April, 1893, the young king, Alexander then seventeen years old, by a sudden coup d'état, dismissed the regents, and took the reins into his own hands.

**BALKH.**—Destruction by Jingsis Khan (A. D. 1221).—From his conquest of the region beyond the Oxus, Jingsis Khan moved southward with his vast horde of Mongols, in pursuit of the fugitive Khahrezmian prince, in 1220 or 1221, and invested the great city of Balkh, which is thought in the east to be the oldest city of the world, and which may not possibly have been one of the capitals of the primitive Aryan race. "Some idea of its extent and riches [at that time] may possibly be formed from the statement that it contained 1,200 large mosques, without including chapels, and 200 public baths for the use of foreign merchants and travellers—though it has been suggested that the more correct reading would be 200 mosques and 1,200 baths. Anxious to avert the horrors of storm and pillage, the citizens at once offered to capitulate, but Chinghiz, distrusting the sincerity of their submission so long as Sultan Mohammed Shah was yet alive, preferred to carry the place by force of arms—an achievement of no great difficulty. A horrible butchery ensued, and the 'Tabernacle of Islam'—as the pious town was called—was razed to the ground. In the words of the Persian poet, quoted by Major Price, "The noble city he laid as smooth as the palm of his hand—its spacious and lofty structures he

levelled in the dust"—J. Hutton, *Central Asia*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN H. H. Howorth, *Hist. of the Mongols*, v. 1, ch. 8.

**BALL'S BLUFF**, The Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM. A. D. 1861 (OCTOBER, VIRGINIA).

**BALMACEDA'S DICTATORSHIP.** See CHILE. A. D. 1885-1891.

**BALNEÆ.** See THERMÆ.

**BALTHI, OR BALTHINGS.**—"The rulers of the Visigoths, though they, like the Amal kings of the Ostrogoths, had a great house, the Balthi, sprung from the seed of gods, did not at this time [when driven across the Danube by the Huns] bear the title of King, but contented themselves with some humbler designation, which the Latin historians translated into *Judex* (Judge)."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her Invaders*, vol. 1, ch. 8.—See BAUX, LORDS OF.

**BALTIMORE**, Lord, and the Colonization of Maryland. See MARYLAND: A. D. 1682, to 1688-1757.

**BALTIMORE**, A. D. 1729-1730.—Founding of the city. See MARYLAND: A. D. 1729-1730.

**A. D. 1812.**—Rioting of the War Party.—The mob and the Federalists. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1812 (JUNE—OCTOBER).

A. D. 1814.—British attempt against the city. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1814 (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1860.—The Douglas Democratic and Constitutional Union Conventions. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1860 (APRIL—NOVEMBER).

A. D. 1861 (April).—The city controlled by the Secessionists.—The attack on the Sixth Massachusetts Regiment. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (APRIL).

A. D. 1861 (May).—Disloyalty put down. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (APRIL—MAY; MARYLAND).

### BALOCHISTAN, OR BALUCHISTAN.

—“Balochistan, in the modern acceptance of the term may be said, in a general sense, to include all that tract of country which has for its northern and north-eastern boundary the large kingdom of Afghanistan, its eastern frontier being limited by the British province of Sindh, and its western by the Persian State, while the Arabian Sea washes its southern base for a distance of nearly six hundred miles. . . . In area Balochistan had long been supposed to cover in its entirety quite 160,000 square miles, but the latest estimates do not raise it higher than 140,000 square miles, of which 60,000 are said to belong to what is termed Persian Balochistan, and the remaining 80,000 to Kalati Balochistan, or that portion which is more or less directly under the rule of the Brahui Khan of Kalat. . . . Balochistan may be said to be inhabited chiefly by the Baloch tribe, the most numerous in the country, and this name was given to the tract they occupy by the great Persian monarch, Nadir Shah, who, as St. John remarks, after driving the Afghan invaders from Persia, made himself master in his turn of the whole country west of the Indus, and placed a native chief over the new province, formed out of the districts bounded on the north and south by the Halmand valley and the sea, and stretching from Karman on the west to Sindh on the east. This newly-formed province he called Balochistan, or, the country of the Baloch, from the name of the most widely spread and numerous, though not the dominant, tribe. According to Masson, who, it must be admitted, had more ample opportunities of obtaining correct information on this subject than any other European, the Balochis are divided into three great classes, viz., (1) the Brahuïs; (2) the Rinds; and (3) the Lumris (or Numris); but this must be taken more in the sense of inhabitants of Balochistan than as divisions of a tribe, since the Brahuïs are of a different race and language, and call the true Balochis ‘Nharuïs,’ in contradistinction to themselves as ‘Brahuïs.’ . . . The origin of the word ‘Baloch’ is evidently involved in some obscurity, and has given rise to many different interpretations. Professor Rawlinson supposes it to be derived from Belus, king of Babylon, the Nimrod of Holy Writ, and that from ‘Kush,’ the father of Nimrod, comes the name of the Kalati eastern district, ‘Kachh.’ Pottinger believes the Balochis to be of Turkoman lineage, and this from a similarity in their institutions, habits, religion—in short, in everything but their language, for which latter anomaly, however, he has an explanation to offer. But be this as it may, the very tribe themselves ascribe their origin to the

earliest Muhammadan invaders of Persia, and are extremely desirous of being supposed to be of Arab extraction. They reject with scorn all idea of being of the same stock as the Afghan. They may possibly be of Iranian descent, and the affinity of their language, the Balochki, to the Persian, bears out this supposition; but the proper derivation of the word ‘Baloch’ still remains an open question. . . . The Brahuïs, who, as a race, are very numerous in Balochistan, Pottinger considers to be a nation of Tartar mountaineers, who settled at a very early period in the southern parts of Asia, where they led an ambulatory life in Khels, or societies, headed and governed by their own chiefs and laws for many centuries, till at length they became incorporated and attained their present footing at Kalat and throughout Balochistan generally. Masson supposes that the word ‘Brahui’ is a corruption of Ba-roh-i, meaning, literally, of the waste; and that that race entered Balochistan originally from the west. . . . The country may be considered as divided into two portions—the one, Kalati Balochistan, or that either really or nominally under the rule of the Khan of Kalat; and the other as Persian Balochistan, or that part which is more or less directly under the domination of the Shah of Persia. . . . Of the government of this latter territory, it will suffice to say that it is at present administered by the Governor of Bam-Narmashir, a deputy of the Kerman Governor; but the only district that is directly under Persian rule is that of Banpur—the rest of the country, says St. John, is left in charge of the native chiefs, who, in their turn, interfere but little with the heads of villages and tribes. . . . It would . . . appear that the supremacy of the Shah over a very large portion of the immense area (80,000 square miles) known as Persian Balochistan is more nominal than real, and that the greater number of the chiefs only pay revenue to their suzerain when compelled to do so. As regards Kalati Balochistan, the government is, so to speak, vested hereditarily in the Brahui Khan of Kalat, but his sovereignty in the remote portions of his extensive territory (80,000 square miles), though even in former times more nominal than real, is at the present moment still more so, owing to the almost constant altercations and quarrels which take place between the reigning Khan and his Sardars, or chiefs. . . . In . . . the modern history of Kalati Balochistan under the present dynasty, extending from about the commencement of the 18th century, when Abdula Khan was ruler, down to the present time, a period of, say, nearly 180 years, there is not much to call for remark. Undoubtedly the Augustan age of Balochistan was the reign of the first Nasir Khan [1755–1795], the Great Nasir, as he is to this day called by the Balochis. Of his predecessors little seems to be known; they were indeed simply successful robbers on a large scale, with but few traces of any enlightened policy to gild over a long succession of deeds of lawlessness, rapine, and bloodshed. . . . Had his successors been of the same stamp and metal as himself, the Kalati kingdom of to-day would not, perhaps show that anarchy and confusion which are now its most striking characteristics.”—A. W. Hughes, *The Country of Balochistan*, pp. 2-48, and 285.—By treaty, in 1854, the Khan of Kalat, or Kheilat, received a subsidy from the British government in India.



and was brought under its influence. In 1876, the subsidy was increased and the British obtained practical possession of the district of Quetta. Since that time, by successive arrangements with the Khan, they have extended their administrative control over the districts of Bolan and Khetran, and established their authority in the country between Zhob valley and Gumal Pass. An important part of Balochistan has thus become practically British territory, attached to the British empire in India. This region has been fortified, has been and is being intersected with railways, and is a portion of the defensive frontier of India on the east.

**BAN.—BANAT.**—"Ban is Duke (Dux), and Banat is Duchy. The territory [Hungarian] east of the Carpathians is the Banat of Severin, and that of the west the Banat of Temesvar. . . . The Banat is the cornucopia, not only of Hungary, but of the whole Austrian Empire."—A. A. Paton, *Researches on the Danube and the Adriatic*, v. 2, p. 28.—Among the Croats, "after the king, the most important officers of the state were the bans. At first there was but one ban, who was a kind of lieutenant-general; but later on there were seven of them, each known by the name of the province he governed, as the ban of Sirmia, ban of Dalmatia, etc. To this day the royal lieutenant of Croatia (or 'governor-general,' if that title be preferred) is called the ban."—L. Leger, *Hist. of Austro-Hungary*, p. 55.

**BAN, The Imperial.** See SAXONY: A. D. 1178–1183.

**BANBURY, Battle of.**—Sometimes called the "Battle of Edgecote"; fought July 26, 1469, and with success, by a body of Lancastrian insurgents, in the English "Wars of the Roses," against the forces of the Yorkist king, Edward IV.—Mrs. Hookham, *Life and Times of Margaret of Anjou*, v. 2, ch. 5.

**BANDA.** See MOLUCCAS.

**BANDA ORIENTAL, The.**—Signifying the "Eastern Border"; a name applied originally by the Spaniards to the country on the eastern side of Río de La Plata which afterwards took the name of Uruguay. See ARGENTINE REPUBLIC: A. D. 1390–1777.

**BANGALORE, Capture of (1790).** See INDIA: A. D. 1785–1793.

**BANK OF ST. GEORGE.** See GENOA: A. D. 1407–1448.

**BANK OF THE UNITED STATES.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1833–1836.

**BANKING.** See MONEY AND BANKING.

**BANKS, Nathaniel P.—Speakership.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1855–1856.—**Command in the Shenandoah.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MAY—JUNE: VIRGINIA). . . . **Siege and Capture of Port Hudson.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (MAY—JULY: ON THE MISSISSIPPI). . . . **Red River Expedition.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MARCH—MAY: LOUISIANA).

**BANKS OF AMSTERDAM, ENGLAND AND FRANCE.**—The Bank of Amsterdam was founded in 1609, and replaced, after 1814, by the Netherland Bank. The Bank of England was founded in 1694 by William Patterson, a Scotchman; and that of France by John Law, in 1716. The latter collapsed with the Mississippi scheme and was revived in 1776.—J. J. Lalor, ed. *Cyclopædia of Pol. Science*. See MONEY AND BANKING.

**BANKS, Wildcat.** See WILDCAT BANKS, and MONEY AND BANKING: A. D. 1887–1841.

**BANNACKS, The.** See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: SHOSHONEAN FAMILY.

**BANNERETS, Knights.** See KNIGHTS BANNERETS.

**BANNOCKBURN, Battle of (A. D. 1314).** See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1814; and 1814–1828.

**BANT, The.** See GAU.

**BANTU TRIBES, The.** See SOUTH AFRICA: THE ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS; and AFRICA: THE INHABITING RACES.

**BAPTISTS.**—"The name 'Baptist' was not a self-chosen one. In the early Reformation time those who withdrew from the dominant churches because of the failure of these churches to discriminate between the church and the world, between the regenerate and the unregenerate, and who sought to organize churches of believers only, laid much stress on the lack of Scriptural warrant for the baptism of infants and on the incompatibility of infant baptism with regenerate membership. Following what they believed to be apostolic precept and example, they made baptism on a profession of faith a condition of church-fellowship. This rejection of infant baptism and this insistence on believers' baptism were so distinctive of these Christians that they were stigmatized as 'Anabaptists,' 'Catabaptists,' and sometimes as simply 'Baptists'; that is to say, they were declared to be 'rebaptizers,' 'perverters of baptism,' or, as unduly magnifying baptism and making it the occasion of schism, simply 'baptizers.' These party names they earnestly repudiated, preferring to call themselves Brethren, Christians, Disciples of Christ, Believers, etc. . . . Baptists have, for the most part, been at one with the Roman Catholic, the Greek Catholic, and most Protestant communions in accepting for substance the so-called Apostles', Nicene, and Athanasian creeds, not, however, because they are venerable or because of the decisions of ecclesiastical councils, but because, and only in so far as, they have appeared to them to be in accord with Scripture. . . . As regards the set of doctrines on which Augustin differed from his theological predecessors, and modern Calvinists from Arminians, Baptists have always been divided. . . . The great majority of the Baptists of today hold to what may be called moderate Calvinism, or Calvinism tempered with the evangelical anti-Augustinianism which came through the Moravian Brethren to Wesley and by him was brought powerfully to bear on all bodies of evangelical Christians. Baptists are at one with the great Congregational body and with most of the minor denominations as regards church government."—A. H. Newman, *A History of the Baptist Churches in the U. S.*, introd.—"Baptist principles are discoverable in New England from the very earliest colonial settlements. The Puritans of Plymouth had mingled with the Dutch Baptists during the ten years of their sojourn in Holland, and some of them seem to have brought over Baptist tendencies even in the Mayflower. Dutch Baptists had emigrated to England and extended their principles there; and from time to time a persecuted Baptist in England sought refuge in America, and, planted here, brought forth fruit after his kind. But as every offshoot of these principles here was so speedily and vigor-

ously beaten down by persecution, and especially as, after the banishment of Roger Williams, there was an asylum a few miles distant, just over Narraganset Bay, where every persecuted man could find liberty of conscience. Baptist principles made little progress in the New England colonies, except Rhode Island, for the first hundred and twenty years. [On the banishment of Roger Williams from Massachusetts, the founding of Rhode Island, and the organization of the first Baptist Church in that colony, see MASSACHUSETTS: A. D. 1636, and RHODE ISLAND, A. D. 1631-1636 to 1639.] A little church of Welsh Baptists was founded in Rehoboth, near the Rhode Island line, in 1663, and shortly afterwards was compelled by civil force to remove to Swansea, where, as it was distant from the centres of settlement, it was suffered to live without very much molestation. It still exists, the oldest Baptist church in the State. In 1665, the first Baptist Church in Boston was organized, and, alone, for almost a century, withstood the fire of persecution, — ever in the flames, yet never quite consumed. In 1693, a second church was constituted in Swansea, not as a Regular, but as a Six-Principle, Baptist Church. In 1705, a Baptist church was formed in Groton, Connecticut. These four churches, three Regular and one Six-Principle, having in the aggregate probably less than two hundred members, were all the Baptist churches in New England outside of Rhode Island previous to the Great Awakening. — D. Weston, *Early Baptists in Mass. (The Baptists and the National Centenary)*, pp. 12-13. — "The representative Baptists of London and vicinity, who in 1689 put forth the Confession of Faith which was afterward adopted by the Philadelphia Association, and is therefore known in this country as the Philadelphia Confession, copied the Westminster Confession word for word, wherever their convictions would permit, and declared that they would thus show wherein they were at one with their brethren, and what convictions of truth made impossible a complete union. And wherever Baptists appeared, however or by whomsoever they were opposed, the ground of complaint against them was their principles. Some of these principles were sharply antagonistic to those of existing churches, and also to those on which the civil governments were administered. They were widely disseminated, especially in Holland, England, and Wales, and there were separate churches formed. From purely doctrinal causes also came divisions among 'the Baptized churches' themselves. The most notable one was that in

England between the General or Arminian Baptists, and the Particular or Calvinistic Baptists. With the latter division do the Regular Baptists of America hold lineal connection. . . . The churches of Philadelphia and vicinity kept the closest connection with the mother country, and were most affected by it. In New England, in 'the Great Reformation' under the lead of Jonathan Edwards, there was made from within the Congregational churches a most vigorous assault against their own 'half-way Covenant' in the interest of a pure church. Along his lines of thought he started multitudes who could not stop where he himself remained and would fain have detained them. They separated from the Congregational churches, and were hence called Separates. A large proportion of them became Baptists, and formed themselves into Baptist churches. Through the labors of earnest men who went from them to Carolina and Virginia, their principles were widely disseminated in those and the neighboring colonies, and, in consequence, many churches came into existence." — G. D. B. Pepper, *Doctrinal Hist. and Position (The same)*, pp. 51-52.

**BAR, A. D. 1659-1735.**—The Duchy ceded to France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1659-1661, and 1733-1735.

**BAR: The Confederation of.** See POLAND: A. D. 1763-1773.

**BARATHRUM, The.**—"The barathrum, or 'pit of punishment' at Athens, was a deep hole like a well into which criminals were precipitated. Iron hooks were inserted in the sides, which tore the body in pieces as it fell. It corresponded to the Ceadas of the Lacedæmonians." — G. Rawlinson, *Hist. of Herodotus*, bk. 7, sect. 133, note.

**BARBADOES.**—This, the most eastward of the Windward group of islands in the Caribbean Sea, has been claimed by the English since 1605, occupied since 1625, and has always remained in their possession.

**BARBADOES: A. D. 1649-1660.**—Royalist attitude towards the English Commonwealth. See NAVIGATION LAWS: A. D. 1651.

**A. D. 1656.**—Cromwell's colony of disorderly women. See JAMAICA: A. D. 1655.

**BARBARIANS.** See ARYANS.  
**BARBAROSSAS, Piracies and dominion of.** See BARBARY STATES: A. D. 1516-1535.

**BARRANCAS, FORT.**—Seizure by Secessionists. See UNITED STATES: A. D. 1860-1861 (DECEMBER—FEBRUARY).

## BARBARY STATES.

**A. D. 647-709.**—Mahometan conquest of North Africa. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 647-709.

**A. D. 908-1171.**—The Fatimite Caliphs. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST AND EMPIRE: A. D. 908-1171.

**A. D. 1415.**—Siege and capture of Ceuta by the Portuguese. See PORTUGAL: A. D. 1415-1460.

**A. D. 1505-1510.**—Spanish conquests on the coast.—Oran.—Bugia.—Algiers.—Tripoli.—In 1506, a Spanish expedition, planned and urged by Cardinal Ximenes, captured Mazarquivar, an

"important port, and formidable nest of pirates, on the Barbary coast, nearly opposite Carthage." In 1509, the same energetic prelate led personally an expedition of 4,000 horse and 10,000 foot, with a fleet of 10 galleys and 80 smaller vessels, for the conquest of Oran. "This place, situated about a league from the former, was one of the most considerable of the Moslem possessions in the Mediterranean, being a principal mart for the trade of the Levant," and maintained a swarm of cruisers, which swept the Mediterranean "and made fearful depredations on its populous borders." Oran was taken by

storm. "No mercy was shown; no respect for age or sex; and the soldiery abandoned themselves to all the brutal license and ferocity which seem to stain religious wars above every other. . . . No less than 4,000 Moors were said to have fallen in the battle, and from 5,000 to 8,000 were made prisoners. The loss of the Christians was inconsiderable." Recalled to Spain by King Ferdinand, Ximenes left the army in Africa under the command of Count Pedro Navarro. Navarro's "first enterprise was against Bugia (Jan. 13th, 1510), whose king, at the head of a powerful army, he routed in two pitched battles, and got possession of his flourishing capital (Jan. 31st). Algiers, Tunis, Tremecen, and other cities on the Barbary coast, submitted one after another to the Spanish arms. The inhabitants were received as vassals of the Catholic king."

They guaranteed, moreover, the liberation of all Christian captives in their dominions, for which the Algerines, however, took care to indemnify themselves, by extorting the full ransom from their Jewish residents. . . . On the 26th of July, 1510, the ancient city of Tripoli, after a most bloody and desperate defence, surrendered to the arms of the victorious general, whose name had now become terrible along the whole northern borders of Africa. In the following month, however (Aug. 28th), he met with a serious discomfiture in the island of Gelves, where 4,000 of his men were slain or made prisoners. This check in the brilliant career of Count Navarro put a final stop to the progress of the Castilian arms in Africa under Ferdinand. The results obtained, however, were of great importance. . . . Most of the new conquests escaped from the Spanish crown in later times, through the imbecility or indolence of Ferdinand's successors. The conquests of Ximenes, however, were placed in so strong a posture of defence as to resist every attempt for their recovery by the enemy, and to remain permanently incorporated with the Spanish empire"—W. H. Prescott, *Hist. of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, ch. 21 (p. 8).

**A. D. 1516-1535.—Piratical dominion of the Barbarossas in Algiers.—Establishment of Turkish sovereignty.—Seizure of Tunis by the Corsairs and its conquest by Charles V.**—About the beginning of the 16th century, a sudden revolution happened, which, by rendering the states of Barbary formidable to the Europeans, hath made their history worthy of more attention. This revolution was brought about by persons born in a rank of life which entitled them to act no such illustrious part. Horuc and Hayradin, the sons of a potter in the isle of Lisbos, prompted by a restless and enterprising spirit, forsook their father's trade, ran to sea, and joined a crew of pirates. They soon distinguished themselves by their valor and activity, and, becoming masters of a small brigantine, carried on their infamous trade with such conduct and success that they assembled a fleet of 12 galleys, besides many vessels of smaller force. Of this fleet Horuc, the elder brother, called Barbarossa from the red color of his beard, was admiral, and Hayradin second in command, but with almost equal authority. They called themselves the friends of the sea, and the enemies of all who sail upon it; and their names soon became terrible from the Straits of the Dardanelles to those of Gibraltar. . . . They often

carried the prizes which they took on the coasts of Spain and Italy into the ports of Barbary, and, enriching the inhabitants by the sale of their booty, and the thoughtless prodigality of their crews, were welcome guests in every place at which they touched. The convenient situation of these harbours, lying so near the greatest commercial states at that time in Christendom, made the brothers wish for an establishment in that country. An opportunity of accomplishing this quickly presented itself [1516], which they did not suffer to pass unimproved." Invited by Entemi, king of Algiers, to assist him in taking a Spanish fort which had been built in his neighbourhood, Barbarossa was able to murder his too confiding employer, master the Algerine kingdom and usurp its crown. "Not satisfied with the throne which he had acquired, he attacked the neighbouring king of Tremecen, and, having vanquished him in battle, added his dominions to those of Algiers. At the same time, he continued to infest the coasts of Spain and Italy with fleets which resembled the armaments of a great monarch, rather than the light squadrons of a corsair. Their frequent cruel devastations obliged Charles [the Fifth—the great Emperor and King of Spain 1519-1555], about the beginning of his reign, to furnish the Marquis de Comares, governor of Oran, with troops sufficient to attack him." Barbarossa was defeated in the ensuing war, driven from Tremecen, and slain [1518]. "His brother Hayradin, known likewise by the name of Barbarossa, assumed the sceptre of Algiers with the same ambition and abilities, but with better fortune. His reign being undisturbed by the arms of the Spaniards, which had full occupation in the wars among the European powers, he regulated with admirable prudence the interior police of his kingdom, carried on his naval operations with great vigour, and extended his conquests on the continent of Africa. But perceiving that the Moors and Arabs submitted to his government with reluctance, and being afraid that his continual depredations would one day draw upon him the arms of the Christians, he put his dominions under the protection of the Grand Seigneur [1519], and received from him [with the title of Bey, or Beylerbey] a body of Turkish soldiers sufficient for his domestic as well as foreign enemies. At last, the fame of his exploits daily increasing, Solyman offered him the command of the Turkish fleet. . . . Barbarossa repaired to Constantinople, and . . . gained the entire confidence both of the sultan and his vizier. To them he communicated a scheme which he had formed of making himself master of Tunis, the most flourishing kingdom at that time on the coast of Africa; and this being approved of by them, he obtained whatever he demanded for carrying it into execution. His hopes of success in this undertaking were founded on the intestine divisions in the kingdom of Tunis." The last king of that country, having 34 sons by different wives, had established one of the younger sons on the throne as his successor. This young king attempted to put all of his brothers to death; but Alraschid, who was one of the eldest, escaped and fled to Algiers. Barbarossa now proposed to the Turkish sultan to attack Tunis on the pretence of vindicating the rights of Alraschid. His proposal was adopted and carried out; but even



before the Turkish expedition sailed, Alraschid himself disappeared — a prisoner, shut up in the Seraglio — and was never heard of again. The use of his name, however, enabled Barbarossa to enter Tunis in triumph, and the betrayed inhabitants discovered too late that he came as a viceroy, to make them the subjects of the sultan. "Being now possessed of such extensive territories, he carried on his depredations against the Christian states to a greater extent and with more destructive violence than ever. Daily complaints of the outrages committed by his cruisers were brought to the emperor by his subjects, both in Spain and Italy. All Christendom seemed to expect from him, as its greatest and most fortunate prince, that he would put an end to this new and odious species of oppression. At the same time Muley-Hascen, the exiled king of Tunis, . . . applied to Charles as the only person who could assert his rights in opposition to such a formidable usurper." The Emperor, accordingly, in 1535, prepared a great expedition against Tunis, drawing men and ships from every part of his wide dominions — from Spain, Italy, Germany and the Netherlands. "On the 16th of July the fleet, consisting of near 500 vessels, having on board above 30,000 regular troops, set sail from Cagliari, and, after a prosperous navigation, landed within sight of Tunis." The fort of Goletta, commanding the bay, was invested and taken; the corsair's fleet surrendered, and Barbarossa, advancing boldly from Tunis to attack the invaders, was overwhelmingly beaten, and fled, abandoning his capital. Charles's soldiers rushed into the unfortunate town, escaping all restraint, and making it a scene of indescribable horrors. "Above 30,000 of the innocent inhabitants perished on that unhappy day, and 10,000 were carried away as slaves. Muley-Hascen took possession of a throne surrounded with carnage, abhorred by his subjects, on whom he had brought such calamities." Before quitting the country, Charles concluded a treaty with Muley-Hascen, under which the latter acknowledged that he held his kingdom in fee of the crown of Spain, doing homage to the Emperor as his liege, and maintaining a Spanish garrison in the Goletta. He also released, without ransom, all the Christian slaves in his dominions, 20,000 in number, and promised to detain in servitude no subject of the Emperor thereafter. He opened his kingdom to the Christian religion, and to free trade, and pledged himself to exclude Turkish corsairs from his ports.—W. Robertson, *Hist. of the Reign of Charles V.*, bk. 5 (v. 2).

A. D. 1541.—The disastrous expedition of Charles V. against Algiers.—Encouraged, and deceived, by his easy success at Tunis, the emperor, Charles V., determined, in 1541, to undertake the reduction of Algiers, and to wholly exterminate the freebooters of the north African coast. Before his preparations were completed, "the season unfortunately was far advanced, on which account the Pope entreated, and Doria conjured him not to expose his whole armament to a destruction almost unavoidable on a wild shore during the violence of the autumnal gales. Adhering, however, to his plan with determined obstinacy, he embarked at Porto Venere. . . . The force . . . which he had collected . . . consisted of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, mostly veterans, together with 8,000 volunteers. . . .

Besides these there had joined his standard 1,000 soldiers sent by the Order of St. John, and led by 100 of its most valiant knights. Landing near Algiers without opposition, Charles immediately advanced towards the town. To oppose the invaders, Hassan had only 800 Turks, and 5,000 Moors, partly natives of Africa, and partly refugees from Spain. When summoned to surrender he, nevertheless, returned a fierce and haughty answer. But with such a handful of troops, neither his desperate courage nor consummate skill in war could have long resisted forces superior to those which had formerly defeated Barbarossa at the head of 60,000 men." He was speedily relieved from danger, however, by an opportune storm, which burst upon the region during the second day after Charles's debarkation. The Spanish camp was flooded; the soldiers drenched, chilled, sleepless and dispirited. In this condition they were attacked by the Moors at dawn, and narrowly escaped a rout. "But all feeling of this disaster was soon obliterated by a more affecting spectacle. As the tempest continued with unabated violence, the full light of day showed the ships, on which alone their safety depended, driving from their anchors, dashing against one another, and many of them forced on the rocks, or sinking in the waters. In less than an hour, 15 ships of war and 140 transports, with 8,000 men, perished before their eyes; and such of the unhappy sailors as escaped the fury of the sea, were murdered by the Arabs as soon as they reached land." With such ships as he could save, Doria sought shelter behind Cape Matafuz, sending a message to the emperor, advising that he follow with the army to that point. Charles could not do otherwise than act according to the suggestion; but his army suffered horribly in the retreat, which occupied three days. "Many perished by famine, as the whole army subsisted chiefly on roots and berries, or on the flesh of horses, killed for that purpose by the emperor's orders; numbers were drowned in the swollen brooks; and not a few were slain by the enemy." Even after the army had regained the fleet, and was reembarked, it was scattered by a second storm, and several weeks passed before the emperor reached his Spanish dominions, a wiser and a sadder man.—M. Russell, *Hist. of the Barbary States*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: W. Robertson, *Hist. of the Reign of Charles V.*, bk. 6 (v. 2.)

A. D. 1543-1560.—The pirate Dragut and his exploits.—Turkish capture of Tripoli.—Disastrous Christian attempt to recover the place.—Dragut, or Torgüüd, a native of the Caramanian coast, opposite the island of Rhodes, began his career as a Mediterranean corsair some time before the last of the Barbarossas quitted the scene and was advanced by the favor of the Algerine. In 1540 he fell into the hands of one of the Dorias and was bound to the oar as a galley-slave for three years,—which did not sweeten his temper toward the Christian world. In 1548 he was ransomed, and resumed his piracies, with more energy than before. "Dragut's lair was at the island of Jerba [called Gelves, by the Spaniards]. . . . Not content with the rich spoils of Europe, Dragut took the Spanish outposts in Africa, one by one — Susa, Sfax, Monastir; and finally set forth to conquer 'Africa.' It is not uncommon in Arabic to call

a country and its capital by the same name. . . . 'Africa' meant to the Arabs the province of Carthage or Tunis and its capital, which was not at first Tunis but successively Kayrawan and Mahdiya. Throughout the later middle ages the name 'Africa' is applied by Christian writers to the latter city. . . . This was the city which Dragut took without a blow in the spring of 1550. Mahdiya was then in an anarchic state, ruled by a council of chiefs, each ready to betray the other, and none owing the smallest allegiance to any king, least of all the despised king of Tunis, Hamid, who had deposed and blinded his father, Hasan, Charles V.'s protégé. One of these chiefs let Dragut and his merry men into the city by night. . . . So easy a triumph roused the emulation of Christendom. . . . Don Garcia de Toledo dreamed of outshining the Corsair's glory. His father, the Viceroy of Naples, the Pope, and others, promised their aid, and old Andrea Doria took the command. After much delay and consultation a large body of troops was conveyed to Mahdiya and disembarked on June 28, 1550. Dragut, though aware of the project, was at sea, devastating the Gulf of Genoa, and paying himself in advance for any loss the Christians might inflict in Africa: his nephew Hisar Reis commanded in the city. When Dragut returned, the siege had gone on for a month," but he failed in attempting to raise it and retired to Jerba. Mahdiya was carried by assault on the 8th of September. "Next year, 1551, Dragut's place was with the Ottoman navy, then commanded by Sinan Pasha. . . . With nearly 150 galleys or galleots, 10,000 soldiers, and numerous siege-guns, Sinan and Dragut sailed out of the Dardanelles—whither bound no Christian could tell. They ravaged, as usual, the Straits of Messina, and then revealed the point of attack by making direct for Malta." But the demonstration made against the strong fortifications of the Knights of St. John was ill-planned and feebly executed; it was easily repelled. To wipe out his defeat, Sinan "sailed straight for Tripoli, some 64 leagues away. Tripoli was the natural antidote to Malta: for Tripoli, too, belonged to the Knights of St. John—much against their will—inasmuch as the Emperor had made their defence of this easternmost Barbary state a condition of their tenure of Malta." But the fortifications of Tripoli were not strong enough to resist the Turkish bombardment, and Gaspard de Villiers, the commandant, was forced to surrender (August 15th), "on terms, as he believed, identical with those which Suleyman granted to the Knights of Rhodes. But Sinan was no Suleyman; moreover, he was in a furious rage with the whole Order. He put the garrison—all save a few—in chains and carried them off to grace his triumph at Stambol. Thus did Tripoli fall once more into the hands of the Moslems. . . . The misfortunes of the Christians did not end here. Year after year the Ottoman fleet appeared in Italian waters. . . . Unable as they felt themselves to cope with the Turks at sea, the powers of Southern Europe resolved to strike one more blow on land, and recover Tripoli. A fleet of nearly 100 galleys and ships, gathered from Spain, Genoa, 'the Religion,' the Pope, from all quarters, with the Duke de Medina-Celi at their head, assembled at Messina. . . . Five times the expedition put to sea; five times was it driven

back by contrary winds. At last, on February 10, 1560, it was fairly away for the African coast. Here fresh troubles awaited it. Long delays in crowded vessels had produced their disastrous effects: fevers and scurvy and dysentery were working their terrible ravages among the crews, and 2,000 corpses were flung into the sea. It was impossible to lay siege to Tripoli with a diseased army, and when actually in sight of their object the admirals gave orders to return to Jerba. A sudden descent quickly gave them the command of the beautiful island. . . . In two months a strong castle was built, with all scientific earthworks, and the admiral prepared to carry home such troops as were not needed for its defence. Unhappily for him, he had lingered too long. . . . He was about to prepare for departure when news came that the Turkish fleet had been seen at Goza. Instantly all was panic. Valiant gentlemen forgot their valour, forgot their coolness. . . . Before they could make out of the strait . . . the dread Corsair [Dragut] himself, and Ochiali, and Piali Pasha were upon them. Then ensued a scene of confusion that baffles description. Despairing of weathering the north side of Jerba the panic-stricken Christians ran their ships ashore and deserted them, never stopping even to set them on fire. . . . On rowed the Turks; galleys and galleons to the number of 56 fell into their hands; 18,000 Christians bowed down before their scimitars; the beach on that memorable 11th of May, 1560, was a confused medley of stranded ships, helpless prisoners, Turks busy in looting men and galleys—and a hideous heap of mangled bodies. The fleet and the army which had sailed from Messina . . . were absolutely lost."—S. Lane-Poole, *Story of the Barbary Corsairs*.

ALSO IN: W. H. Prescott, *Hist. of the Reign of Philip II.*, bk. 4, ch. 1.

A. D. 1563-1565.—Repulse of the Moors from Oran and Mazarquivier.—Capture of Penon de Velez.—In the spring of 1563 a most determined and formidable attempt was made by Hassem, the dey of Algiers, to drive the Spaniards from Oran and Mazarquivier, which they had held since the African conquests of Cardinal Ximenes. The siege was fierce and desperate; the defence most heroic. The beleaguered garrisons held their ground until a relieving expedition from Spain came in sight, on the 8th of June, when the Moors retreated hastily. In the summer of the next year the Spaniards took the strong island fortress of Penon de Velez, breaking up one more nest of piracy and strengthening their footing on the Barbary coast. In the course of the year following they blocked the mouth of the river Tetuan, which was a place of refuge for the marauders.—W. H. Prescott, *Hist. of the Reign of Philip II.*, bk. 4, ch. 1 (v. 2).

A. D. 1565.—Participation in the Turkish Siege of Malta.—Death of Dragut. See HOSPITALERS OF ST. JOHN: A. D. 1530-1565.

A. D. 1570-1571.—War with the Holy League of Spain, Venice and the Pope.—The Battle of Lepanto. See TURKS: A. D. 1566-1571.

A. D. 1572-1573.—Capture of Tunis by Don John of Austria.—Its recovery, with Goletta, by the Turks. See TURKS: A. D. 1572-1573.

**A. D. 1579.—Invasion of Morocco by Sebastian of Portugal.—His defeat and death.** See PORTUGAL: A. D. 1579-1580

**A. D. 1664-1684.—Wars of France against the piratical powers.—Destructive bombardments of Algiers.**—"The ancient alliance of the crown of France with the Ottoman Porte, always unpopular, and less necessary since France had become so strong, was at this moment [early in the reign of Louis XIV.] well nigh broken, to the great satisfaction both of the Christian nations of the South and of the Austrian empire."

Divers plans were proposed in the King's council for attacking the Ottoman power on the Moorish coasts, and for repressing the pirates, who were the terror of the merchant shipping and maritime provinces. Colbert induced the king to attempt a military settlement among the Moors as the best means of holding them in check. A squadron commanded by the Duke de Beaufort . . . landed 5,000 picked soldiers before Jijeli (or Djigelli), a small Algerine port between Bougiah and Bona. They took possession of Jijeli without difficulty (July 22, 1664), but discord arose between Beaufort and his officers; they did not work actively enough to fortify themselves," and before the end of September they were obliged to evacuate the place precipitately. "The success of Beaufort's squadron, commanded under the duke by the celebrated Chevalier Paul, ere long effaced the impression of this reverse: two Algerine flotillas were destroyed in the course of 1665." The Dey of Algiers sent one of his French captives, an officer named Du Babinais to France with proposals of peace, making him swear to return if his mission failed. The proposals were rejected; Du Babinais was loyal to his oath and returned—to suffer death, as he expected, at the hands of the furious barbarian. "The devotion of this Breton Regulus was not lost: despondency soon took the place of anger in the heart of the Moorish chiefs. Tunis yielded first to the guns of the French squadron, brought to bear on it from the Bay of Goletta. The Pacha and the Divan of Tunis obligated themselves to restore all the French slaves they possessed, to respect French ships, and thenceforth to release all Frenchmen whom they should capture on foreign ships. . . . Rights of aubaine, and of admiralty and shipwreck, were suppressed as regarded Frenchmen (November 25, 1665). The station at Cape Negro was restored to France. . . . Algiers submitted, six months after, to nearly the same conditions imposed on it by Louis XIV.: one of the articles stipulated that French merchants should be treated as favorably as any foreign nation, and even more so (May 17, 1666). More than 3,000 French slaves were set at liberty." Between 1669 and 1672, Louis XIV. was seriously meditating a great war of conquest with the Turks and their dependencies, but preferred, finally, to enter upon his war with Holland, which brought the other project to naught. France and the Ottoman empire then remained on tolerably good terms until 1681, when a "squadron of Tripolitan corsairs having carried off a French ship on the coast of Provence, Duquesne, at the head of seven vessels, pursued the pirates into the waters of Greece. They took refuge in the harbor of Scio. Duquesne summoned the Pacha of Scio to expel them. The Pacha refused, and fired on the French

squadron, when Duquesne cannonaded both the pirates and the town with such violence that the Pacha, terrified, asked for a truce, in order to refer the matter to the Sultan (July 23, 1681). Duquesne converted the attack into a blockade. At the news of this violation of the Ottoman territory, the Sultan, Mahomet IV., fell into a rage . . . and dispatched the Captain-Pacha to Scio with 32 galleys. Duquesne allowed the Turkish galleys to enter the harbor, then blockaded them with the pirates, and declared that he would burn the whole if satisfaction were not had of the Tripolitans. The Divan hesitated. War was about to recommence with the Emperor; it was not the moment to kindle it against France." In the end there was a compromise, and the Tripolitans gave up the French vessel and the slaves they had captured, promising, also, to receive a French consul at Tripoli. "During this time another squadron, commanded by Chateau Renault, blockaded the coasts of Morocco, the men of Maghreb having rivalled in depredations the vassals of Turkey. The powerful Emperor of Morocco, Muley Ismael, sent the governor of Tetuan to France to solicit peace of Louis XIV. The treaty was signed at Saint Germain, January 29, 1682, on advantageous conditions," including restitution of French slaves. "Affairs did not terminate so amicably with Algiers. From this piratical centre had proceeded the gravest offenses. A captain of the royal navy was held in slavery there, with many other Frenchmen. It was resolved to inflict a terrible punishment on the Algerines. The thought of conquering Algeria had more than once presented itself to the king and Colbert, and they appreciated the value of this conquest, the Jijeli expedition had been formerly a first attempt. They did not, however, deem it incumbent on them to embark in such an enterprise, a descent, a siege, would have required too great preparations; they had recourse to another means of attack. The regenerator of the art of naval construction, Petit-Renau, invented bomb-ketches expressly for the purpose.

July 23, 1682, Duquesne anchored before Algiers, with 11 ships, 15 galleys, 5 bomb-ketches, and Petit-Renau to guide them. After five weeks' delay caused by bad weather, then by a fire on one of the bomb-ketches, the thorough trial took place during the night of August 30. The effect was terrible: a part of the great mosque fell on the crowd that had taken refuge there. During the night of September 3-4, the Algerines attempted to capture the bomb ketches moored at the entrance of their harbor, they were repulsed, and the bombardment continued. The Dey wished to negotiate; the people, exasperated, prevented him. The wind shifting to the northwest presaged the equinoctial storm; Duquesne set sail again, September 12. The expedition had not been decisive. It was begun anew. June 18, 1683, Duquesne reappeared in the road of Algiers; he had, this time, seven bomb-ketches instead of five. These instruments of extermination had been perfected in the interval. The nights of June 26-27 witnessed the overthrow of a great number of houses, several mosques, and the palace of the Dey. A thousand men perished in the harbor and the town." The Dey opened negotiations, giving up 700 French slaves, but was killed by his Janizaries, and one Hadgi-Husseln



proclaimed in his stead. "The bombardment was resumed with increasing violence. . . The Algerines avenged themselves by binding to the muzzles of their guns a number of Frenchmen who remained in their hands. . . The fury of the Algerines drew upon them redoubled calamities. . . The bombs rained almost without intermission. The harbor was strewn with the wrecks of vessels. The city was. . . a heap of bloody ruins." But "the bomb ketches had exhausted their ammunition. September was approaching. Duquesne again departed, but a strong blockading force was kept up, during the whole winter, as a standing threat of the return of the 'internal vessels.' The Algerines finally bowed their head, and, April 25, 1684, peace was accorded by Tourville, the commander of the blockade, to the Pacha, Dey, Divan, and troops of Algiers. The Algerines restored 320 French slaves remaining in their power, and 180 other Christians claimed by the King; the janizaries only which had been taken from them were restored, they engaged to make no prizes within ten leagues of the coast of France, not to assist the other Moorish corsairs at war with France; to recognize the precedence of the flag of France over all other flags, &c., &c., lastly, they sent an embassy to carry their submission to Louis XIV., they did not however, pay the damages which Duquesne had wished to exact of them."—H. Martin, *Hist. of France: Age of Louis XIV.*, c. 1, ch. 4 and 7.

**A. D. 1785-1801.—Piratical depredations upon American commerce.—Humiliating treaties and tribute.—The example of resistance given by the United States.**—"It is difficult for us to realize that only 70 years ago the Mediterranean was so unsafe that the merchant ships of every nation stood in danger of being captured by pirates, unless they were protected either by an armed convoy or by tribute paid to the petty Barbary powers. Yet we can scarcely open a book of travels during the last century without mention being made of the immense risks to which every one was exposed who ventured by sea from Marseilles to Naples. . . The European states, in order to protect their commerce, had the choice either of paying certain sums per head for each captive, which in reality was a premium on capture, or of buying entire freedom for their commerce by the expenditure of large sums yearly. The treaty renewed by France, in 1788, with Algiers, was for fifty years, and it was agreed to pay \$200,000 annually, besides large presents distributed according to custom every ten years, and a great sum given down. The peace of Spain with Algiers is said to have cost from three to five millions of dollars. There is reason to believe that at the same time England was paying an annual tribute of about \$280,000. England was the only power sufficiently strong on the sea to put down these pirates; but in order to keep her own position as mistress of the seas she preferred to leave them in existence in order to be a scourge to the commerce of other European powers, and even to support them by paying a sum so great that other states might find it difficult to make peace with them. When the Revolution broke out, we [of the United States of America] no longer had the safeguards for our commerce that had been given to us by England, and it was therefore that in our very first negotiations for a treaty with France we

desired to have an article inserted into the treaty, that the king of France should secure the inhabitants of the United States, and their vessels and effects, against all attacks or depredations from any of the Barbary powers. It was found impossible to insert this article in the treaty of 1778, and instead of that the king agreed to 'employ his good offices and interposition in order to provide as fully and efficaciously as possible for the benefit, convenience and safety of the United States against the princes and the states of Barbary or their subjects.'—Direct negotiations between the United States and the piratical powers were opened in 1785, by a call which Mr. Adams made upon the Tripolitan ambassador. The latter announced to Mr. Adams that "'Turkey, Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco were the sovereigns of the Mediterranean; and that no nation could navigate that sea without a treaty of peace with them.' The ambassador demanded as the lowest price for a perpetual peace 30,000 guineas for his employers and £3,000 for himself, that Tunis would probably treat on the same terms, but he could not answer for Algiers or Morocco. Peace with all four powers would cost at least \$1,000,000, and Congress had appropriated only \$80,000. Mr. Adams was strongly opposed to war, on account of the expense, and preferred the payment of tribute. . . Mr. Jefferson quite as decidedly preferred war." The opinion in favor of a trial of pacific negotiations prevailed, and a treaty with the Emperor of Morocco was concluded in 1787. An attempt at the same time to make terms with the Dey of Algiers and to redeem a number of American captives in his hands, came to nothing. "For the sake of saving a few thousand dollars, fourteen men were allowed to remain in imprisonment for ten years. . . In November, 1793, the number of [American] prisoners at Algiers amounted to 115 men, among whom there remained only ten of the original captives of 1785." At last, the nation began to realize the intolerable shame of the matter, and, "on January 2, 1794, the House of Representatives resolved that a 'naval force adequate for the protection of the commerce of the United States against the Algerine forces ought to be provided.' In the same year authority was given to build six frigates, and to procure ten smaller vessels to be equipped as galleys. Negotiations, however, continued to go on," and in September, 1795, a treaty with the Dey was concluded. "In making this treaty, however, we had been obliged to follow the usage of European powers—not only pay a large sum for the purpose of obtaining peace, but an annual tribute, in order to keep our vessels from being captured in the future. The total cost of fulfilling the treaty was estimated at \$992,463.25"—E. Schuyler, *American Diplomacy*, pt. 4.—"The first treaty of 1795, with Algiers, which was negotiated during Washington's administration, cost the United States, for the ransom of American captives, and the Dey's forbearance, a round \$1,000,000, in addition to which an annuity was promised. Treaties with other Barbary States followed, one of which purchased peace from Tripoli by the payment of a gross sum. Nearly \$2,000,000 had been squandered thus far in bribing these powers to respect our flag, and President Adams complained in 1800 that the United States had to pay three times the tribute imposed upon Sweden and Denmark.

But this temporizing policy only made matters worse. Captain Bainbridge arrived at Algiers in 1800, bearing the annual tribute money for the Dey in a national frigate, and the Dey ordered him to proceed to Constantinople to deliver Algerine dispatches. "English, French, and Spanish ships of war have done the same," said the Dey, insolently, when Bainbridge and the American consul remonstrated. "You pay me tribute because you are my slaves." Bainbridge had to obey. . . . The lesser Barbary States were still more exasperating. The Bashaw of Tripoli had threatened to seize American vessels unless President Adams sent him a present like that bestowed upon Algiers. The Bashaw of Tunis made a similar demand upon the new President [Jefferson]. . . . Jefferson had, while in Washington's cabinet, expressed his detestation of the method hitherto favored for pacifying these pests of commerce; and, availing himself of the present favorable opportunity, he sent out Commodore Dale with a squadron of three frigates and a sloop of war, to make a naval demonstration on the coast of Barbary. . . . Commodore Dale, upon arriving at Gibraltar [July, 1801], found two Tripolitan cruisers watching for American vessels; for, as had been suspected, Tripoli already meditated war. The frigate *Philadelphia* blockaded these vessels, while Bainbridge, with the frigate *Essex*, convoyed American vessels in the Mediterranean. Dale, in the frigate *President*, proceeded to cruise off Tripoli, followed by the schooner *Experiment*, which presently captured a Tripolitan cruiser of 14 guns after a spirited action. The Barbary powers were for a time overawed, and the United States thus set the first example among Christian nations of making reprisals instead of ransom the rule of security against these commercial marauders. In this respect Jefferson's conduct was applauded at home by men of all parties."—J. Schouler, *Hist. of the U. S.*, ch. 5, sect. 1 (p. 2).

ALSO IN: R. L. Playfair, *The Scourge of Christendom*, ch. 16.

**A. D. 1803-1805.—American War with the pirates of Tripoli.**—"The war with Tripoli dragged tediously along, and seemed no nearer its end at the close of 1803 than 18 months before. Commodore Morris, whom the President sent to command the Mediterranean squadron, cruised from port to port between May, 1802, and August, 1803, convoying merchant vessels from Gibraltar to Leghorn and Malta, or lay in harbor and repaired his ships, but neither blockaded nor molested Tripoli; until at length, June 21, 1803, the President called him home and dismissed him from the service. His successor was Commodore Preble, who Sept. 12, 1803, reached Gibraltar with the relief-squadron which Secretary Gallatin thought unnecessarily strong. . . . He found Morocco taking part with Tripoli. Captain Bainbridge, who reached Gibraltar in the '*Philadelphia*' August 24, some three weeks before Preble arrived, caught in the neighborhood a Moorish cruiser of 23 guns with an American brig in its clutches. Another American brig had just been seized at Mogador. Determined to stop this peril at the outset, Preble united to his own squadron the ships which he had come to relieve, and with this combined force, . . . sending the '*Philadelphia*' to blockade Tripoli, he crossed to Tangiers October 8, and brought the Emperor of Morocco

to reason. On both sides prizes and prisoners were restored, and the old treaty was renewed. This affair consumed time; and when at length Preble got the '*Constitution*' under way for the Tripolitan coast, he spoke a British frigate off the Island of Sardinia, which reported that the '*Philadelphia*' had been captured October 21, more than three weeks before. Bainbridge, cruising off Tripoli, had chased a Tripolitan cruiser into shoal water, and was hauling off, when the frigate struck on a reef at the mouth of the harbor. Every effort was made without success to float her; but at last she was surrounded by Tripolitan gunboats, and Bainbridge struck his flag. The Tripolitans, after a few days work, floated the frigate, and brought her under the guns of the castle. The officers became prisoners of war, and the crew, in number 300 or more, were put to hard labor. The affair was in no way discreditable to the squadron. . . . The Tripolitans gained nothing except the prisoners; for at Bainbridge's suggestion Preble, some time afterward, ordered Stephen Decatur, a young lieutenant in command of the '*Enterprise*,' to take a captured Tripolitan craft renamed the '*Intrepid*,' and with a crew of 75 men to sail from Syracuse, enter the harbor of Tripoli by night, board the '*Philadelphia*,' and burn her under the castle guns. The order was literally obeyed. Decatur ran into the harbor at ten o'clock in the night of Feb. 16, 1804, boarded the frigate within half gun-shot of the Pacha's castle, drove the Tripolitan crew overboard, set the ship on fire, remained alongside until the flames were beyond control, and then withdrew without losing a man."—H. Adams, *Hist. of the U. S.: Administration of Jefferson*, v. 2, ch. 7.—"Commodore Preble, in the meantime, hurried his preparations for more serious work, and on July 25th arrived off Tripoli with a squadron, consisting of the frigate *Constitution*, three brigs, three schooners, six gunboats, and two bomb vessels. Opposed to him were arrayed over a hundred guns mounted on shore batteries, nineteen gunboats, one ten-gun brig, two schooners mounting eight guns each, and twelve galleys. Between August 3rd and September 3rd five attacks were made, and though the town was never reduced, substantial damage was inflicted, and the subsequent satisfactory peace rendered possible. Preble was relieved by Barron in September, not because of any loss of confidence in his ability, but from exigencies of the service, which forbade the Government sending out an officer junior to him in the relief squadron which reinforced his own. Upon his return to the United States he was presented with a gold medal, and the thanks of Congress were tendered him, his officers, and men, for gallant and faithful services. The blockade was maintained vigorously, and in 1805 an attack was made upon the Tripolitan town of Derna, by a combined land and naval force; the former being under command of Consul-General Eaton, who had been a captain in the American army, and of Lieutenant O'Bannon of the Marines. The enemy made a spirited though disorganized defence, but the shells of the war-ships drove them from point to point, and finally their principal work was carried by the force under O'Bannon and Midshipman Mann. Eaton was eager to press forward, but he was denied reinforcements and military stores, and much of his

advantage was lost. All further operations were, however, discontinued in June, 1805, when, after the usual intrigues, delays, and prevarications, a treaty was signed by the Pasha, which provided that no further tribute should be exacted, and that American vessels should be forever free of his rovers. Satisfactory as was this conclusion, the uncomfortable fact remains that tribute entered into the settlement. After all the prisoners had been exchanged man for man, the Tripolitan Government demanded, and the United States paid, the handsome sum of sixty thousand dollars to close the contract. This treaty, however, awakened the conscience of Europe, and from the day it was signed the power of the Barbary Corsairs began to wane. The older countries saw their duty more clearly, and ceased to legalize robbery on the high seas."—S. Lane-Poole, *Story of the Barbary Corsairs*, ch. 20.

ALSO IN: J. F. Cooper, *Hist. of the U. S. Navy*, v. 1, ch. 18 and v. 2, ch. 1-7.—The same, *Life of Preble*.—A. S. Mackenzie, *Life of Decatur*, ch. 3-7.

**A. D. 1815.—Final War of Algiers with the United States.—Death-blow to Algerine piracy.**—"Just as the late war with Great Britain broke out, the Dey of Algiers, taking offense at not having received from America the precise articles in the way of tribute demanded, had unceremoniously dismissed Lear, the consul, had declared war, and had since captured an American vessel, and reduced her crew to slavery. Immediately after the ratification of the treaty with England, this declaration had been reciprocated. Efforts had been at once made to fit out ships, new and old, including several small ones lately purchased for the proposed squadrons of Porter and Perry, and before many weeks Decatur sailed from New York with the *Guerrière*, *Macedonian*, and *Constellation* frigates, now released from blockade; the *Ontario*, new sloop of war, four brigs, and two schooners. Two days after passing Gibraltar, he fell in with and captured an Algerine frigate of 44 guns, the largest ship in the Algerine navy, which struck to the *Guerrière* after a running fight of twenty-five minutes. A day or two after, an Algerine brig was chased into shoal water on the Spanish coast, and captured by the smaller vessels. Decatur having appeared off Algiers, the terrified Dey at once consented to a treaty, which he submitted to sign on Decatur's quarter deck, surrendering all prisoners on hand, making certain pecuniary indemnities, renouncing all future claim to any American tribute or presents, and the practice, also, of reducing prisoners of war to slavery. Decatur then proceeded to Tunis and Tripoli, and obtained from both indemnity for certain American vessels captured under the guns of their forts by British cruisers during the late war. The Bey of Tripoli being short of cash, Decatur agreed to accept in part payment the restoration of liberty to eight Danes and two Neapolitans held as slaves."—R. Hildreth, *Hist. of the U. S.*, *Second Series*, ch. 80 (v. 3).

ALSO IN: A. S. Mackenzie, *Life of Decatur*, ch. 13-14.

**A. D. 1816.—Bombardment of Algiers by Lord Exmouth.—Relinquishment of Christian slavery in Algiers, Tripolis and Tunis.**—"The corsairs of Barbary still scourged the Mediter-

anean; the captives, whom they had taken from Christian vessels, still languished in captivity in Algiers; and, to the disgrace of the civilized world, a piratical state was suffered to exist in its very centre. . . . The conclusion of the war [of the Coalition against Napoleon and France] made the continuance of these ravages utterly intolerable. In the interests of civilization it was essential that piracy should be put down; Britain was mistress of the seas, and it therefore devolved upon her to do the work. . . . Happily for this country the Mediterranean command was held by an officer [Lord Exmouth] whose bravery and skill were fully equal to the dangers before him. . . . Early in 1816 Exmouth was instructed to proceed to the several states of Barbary; to require them to recognize the cession of the Ionian Islands to Britain; to conclude peace with the kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples; and to abolish Christian slavery. The Dey of Algiers readily assented to the two first of these conditions; the Beys of Tripolis and Tunis followed the example of the Dey of Algiers, and in addition consented to refrain in future from treating prisoners of war as slaves. Exmouth thereupon returned to Algiers, and endeavoured to obtain a similar concession from the Dey. The Dey pleaded that Algiers was subject to the Ottoman Porte, and obtained a truce of three months in order to confer with the Sultan. But meantime the Algerines made an unprovoked attack upon a neighbouring coral fishery, which was protected by the British flag, massacring the fishermen and destroying the flag. This brought Exmouth back to Algiers in great haste, with an ultimatum which he delivered on the 27th of August. No answer to it was returned, and the fleet (which had been joined by some vessels of the Dutch navy) sailed into battle range that same afternoon. "The Algerines permitted the ships to move into their stations. The British reserved their fire till they could deliver it with good effect. A crowd of spectators watched the ships from the shore; and Exmouth waved his hat to them to move and save themselves from the fire. They had not the prudence to avail themselves of his timely warning. A signal shot was fired by the Algerines from the mole. The 'Queen Charlotte' replied by delivering her entire broadside. Five hundred men were struck down by the first discharge. . . . The battle, which had thus begun at two o'clock in the afternoon, continued till ten o'clock in the evening. By that time half Algiers had been destroyed; the whole of the Algerine navy had been burned; and, though a few of the enemy's batteries still maintained a casual fire, their principal fortifications were crumbling ruins; the majority of their guns were dismounted." The Dey humbled himself to the terms proposed by the British commander. "On the first day of September Exmouth had the satisfaction of acquainting his government with the liberation of all the slaves in the city of Algiers, and the restitution of the money paid since the commencement of the year by the Neapolitan and Sardinian Governments for the redemption of slaves." He had also extorted from the piratical Dey a solemn declaration that he would, in future wars, treat all prisoners according to the usages of European nations. In the battle which won these important results, 128 men were killed and 690 wounded on



board the British fleet; the Dutch lost 13 killed and 52 wounded."—S. Walpole, *Hist. of Eng. from 1815*, ch. 2 (v. 1).

ALSO IN: H. Martineau, *Hist. of the Thirty Years Peace*, bk. 1, ch. 6 (v. 1).—L. Hertslet, *Collection of Treaties and Conventions*, v. 1.

**A. D. 1830.—French conquest of Algiers.**—"During the Napoleonic wars, the Dey of Algiers supplied grain for the use of the French armies; it was bought by merchants of Marseilles, and there was a dispute about the matter which was unsettled as late as 1829. Several instalments had been paid; the dey demanded payment in full according to his own figures, while the French government, believing the demand excessive, required an investigation. In one of the numerous debates on the subject, Hussein Pasha, the reigning dey, became very angry, struck the consul with a fan, and ordered him out of the house. He refused all reparation for the insult, even on the formal demand of the French government, and consequently there was no alternative but war." The expedition launched from the port of Toulon, for the chastisement of the insolent Algerine, "comprised 37,500 men, 3,000 horses, and 180 pieces of artillery. . . . The sea-forces included 11 ships of the line, 23 frigates, 70 smaller vessels, 377 transports, and 230 boats for landing troops. General Bourmont, Minister of War, commanded the expedition, which appeared in front of Algiers on the 13th of June, 1830." Hussein Pasha "had previously asked for aid from the Sultan of Turkey, but that wily ruler had blankly refused. The beys of Tunis and Tripoli had also declined to meddle with the affair." The landing of the French was effected safely and without serious opposition, at Sidi-Ferruch, about 16 miles west of Algiers. The Algerine army, 40,000 to 50,000 strong, commanded by Aga Ibrahim, son-in-law of the dey, took its position on the table-land of Staoueli, overlooking the French, where it waited while their landing was made. On the 19th General Bourmont was ready to advance. His antagonist, instead of adhering to the waiting attitude, and forcing the French to attack him, on his own ground, now went out to meet them, and flung his disorderly mob against their disciplined battalions, with the result that seldom fails. "The Arab loss in killed and wounded was about 3,000, . . . while the French loss was less than 500. In little more than an hour the battle was over, and the Osmanlis were in full and disorderly retreat." General Bourmont took possession of the Algerine camp at Staoueli, where he was again attacked on the 24th of June, with a similar disastrous result to the Arabs. He then advanced upon the city of Algiers, established his army in position behind the city, constructed batteries, and opened, on the 4th of July, a bombardment so terrific that the dey hoisted the white flag in a few hours. "Hussein Pasha hoped to the last moment to retain his country and its independence by making liberal concessions in the way of indemnity for the expenses of the war, and offered to liberate all Christian slaves in addition to paying them for their services and sufferings. The English consul tried to mediate on this basis, but his offers of mediation were politely declined. . . . It was finally agreed that the dey should surrender Algiers with all its forts and military stores, and be permitted to retire wherever he chose with

his wives, children, and personal belongings, but he was not to remain in the country under any circumstances. On the 5th of July the French entered Algiers in great pomp and took possession of the city. . . . The spoils of war were such as rarely fall to the lot of a conquering army, when its numbers and the circumstances of the campaign are considered. In the treasury was found a large room filled with gold and silver coins heaped together indiscriminately, the fruits of three centuries of piracy; they were the coins of all the nations that had suffered from the depredations of the Algerines, and the variety in the dates showed very clearly that the accumulation had been the work of two or three hundred years. How much money was contained in this vast pile is not known; certain it is that nearly 50,000,000 francs, or £2,000,000 sterling, actually reached the French treasury. . . . The cost of the war was much more than covered by the captured property. . . . Many slaves were liberated. . . . The Algerine power was forever broken, and from that day Algeria has been a prosperous colony of France. Hussein Pasha embarked on the 10th of July with a suite of 110 persons, of whom 55 were women. He proceeded to Naples, where he remained for a time, went afterwards to Leghorn, and finally to Egypt." In Egypt he died, under circumstances which indicated poison.—T. W. Knox, *Decisive Battles Since Waterloo*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: R. L. Playfair, *The Scourge of Christendom*, ch. 19.—E. E. Crowe, *Hist. of the Reigns of Louis XVIII. and Charles X.*, v. 2, ch. 18.

**A. D. 1830-1846.—The French war of Subjugation in Algeria with Abd-el-Kader.**—"When Louis Philippe ascended the throne [of France, A. D. 1830] the generals of his predecessor had overrun the country [of Algiers]—though they did not effectually subdue it; their absolute dominion not extending far round Algiers—from Bona, on the east, in lat. 36° 53' N., long. 7° 46' W., to Oran, on the west—nearly the entire extent of the ancient Libya. . . . There was always a party in the chamber of deputies opposed to the conquest who deprecated the colonisation of Algeria, and who steadily opposed any grants of either men or money to be devoted to the African enterprise. The natural result followed. Ten thousand men could not effect the work for which 40,000 were required; and, whilst the young colony languished, the natives became emboldened, and encouraged to make that resistance which cost the French so dear. Marshal Clausel, when entrusted with the government of the colony, and the supreme command of the troops . . . established a series of fortified posts, which were adequately garrisoned; and roads were opened to enable the garrisons promptly to communicate with each other. These positions, rapidly acquired, he was unable to maintain, in consequence of the home government recalling the greater part of his force. To recruit his army he resolved to enlist some corps of the natives; and, in October, 1830, the first regiment of zouaves was raised." . . . In 1838 we "first hear of Abd-el-Kader. This chief was the son of a marabout, or priest, in the province of Oran. He united consummate ability with great valour; was a devout Mohammedan; and when he raised the standard of the prophet, he called the Arabs around him, with the fullest confidence of success. His countrymen obeyed his

call in great numbers; and, encouraged by the enthusiasm they displayed, he first, at the close of 1833, proclaimed himself emir of Tlemsen (the former name of Oran), and then seized on the port of Arzew, on the west side of the gulf of that name; and the port of Mostaganem, on the opposite coast. The province of Mascara, lying at the foot of the Atlas, was also under his rule. At that time general Desmichels commanded at Oran. He had not a very large force, but he acted promptly. Marching against Abd-el-Kader, he defeated him in two pitched battles; retook Arzew and Mostaganem; and, on the 26th of February, 1834, entered into a treaty with the emir, by which both parties were bound to keep the peace towards each other. During that year the terms were observed; but, in 1835, the Arab chief again commenced hostilities. He marched to the east, entered the French territories, and took possession of Medeah, being received with the utmost joy by the inhabitants. On the 26th of June, general Trezel, with only 2,300 men, marched against him. Abd-el-Kader had 8,000 Arabs under his command; and a sanguinary combat took place in the defiles of Mouley Ismael. After a severe combat, the French forced the passage, but with considerable loss. . . . The French general, finding his position untenable, commenced a retrograde movement on the 28th of June. In his retreat he was pursued by the Arabs; and before he reached Oran, on the 4th of July, he lost all his waggons, train, and baggage; besides having ten officers, and 252 sous-officers and rank-and-file killed, and 308 wounded. The heads of many of the killed were displayed in triumph by the victors. This was a severe blow to the French, and the cause of great rejoicing to the Arabs. The former called for marshal Clausel to be restored to his command, and the government at home complied; at the same time issuing a proclamation, declaring that Algeria should not be abandoned, but that the honour of the French arms should be maintained. The marshal left France on the 28th of July; and as soon as he landed, he organised an expedition against Mascara, which was Abd-el-Kader's capital. . . . The Arab chieftain advanced to meet the enemy; but, being twice defeated, he resolved to abandon his capital, which the French entered on the 6th of December, and found completely deserted. The streets and houses were alike empty and desolate; and the only living creature they encountered was an old woman, lying on some mats, who could not move of herself, and had been either forgotten or abandoned. The French set fire to the deserted houses; and having effected the destruction of Mascara, they marched to Mostaganem, which Clausel determined to make the centre of French power in that district."—Thos. Wright. *History of France*, v. 3, pp. 633-635.—"A camp was established on the Taafna in April 1836, and an action took place there on the 25th, when the Tableau states that 8,000 French engaged 10,000 natives; and some of the enemies being troops of Morocco, an explanation was required of Muley-Abd-er-Rachman, the emperor, who said that the assistance was given to the Algerines without his knowledge. On July 6th, 1836, Abd-el-Kader suffered a disastrous defeat on the river Sikkak, near Tlemsen, at the hands of Marshal Bugeaud. November 1836, the first expedition was formed against Constantina. . . . After the failure of Clausel,

General Damrémont was appointed governor, Feb. 12th, 1837; and on the 30th of May the treaty of the Taafna between General Bugeaud and Abd-el-Kader left the French government at liberty to direct all their attention against Constantina, a camp being formed at Medjoy-el-Ahmar in that direction. An army of 10,000 men set out thence on the 1st of October, 1837, for Constantina. On the 6th it arrived before Constantina; and on the 13th the town was taken with a severe loss, including Damrémont. Marshal Vallée succeeded Damrémont as governor. The fall of Constantina destroyed the last relic of the old Turkish government. . . . By the 27th January, 1838, 100 tribes had submitted to the French. A road was cleared in April by General Negrier from Constantina to Stora on the sea. This road, passing by the camps of Smendou and the Arrouch, was 23 leagues in length. The coast of the Bay of Stora, on the site of the ancient Rusicada, became covered with French settlers; and Philippeville was founded Oct. 1838, threatening to supplant Bona. Abd-el-Kader advancing in December 1837 to the province of Constantina, the French advanced also to observe him; then both retired, without coming to blows. A misunderstanding which arose respecting the second article of the treaty of Taafna was settled in the beginning of 1838. . . . When Abd-el-Kader assumed the royal title of Sultan and the command of a numerous army, the French, with republican charity and fraternal sympathy, sought to infringe the Taafna treaty, and embroil the Arab hero, in order to ruin his rising empire, and found their own on its ashes. The Emir had been recognised by the whole country, from the gates of Ouchda to the river Mijerda. . . . The war was resumed, and many French razzias took place. They once marched a large force from Algiers on Milianah to surprise the sultan's camp. They failed in their chief object, but nearly captured the sultan himself. He was surrounded in the middle of a French square, which thought itself sure of the reward of 100,000 francs (£4,000) offered for him; but uttering his favourite 'en-shallah' (with the will of God), he gave his white horse the spur, and came over their bayonets unwounded. He lost, however, thirty of his body-guard and friends, but killed six Frenchmen with his own hand. Still, notwithstanding his successes, Abd-el-Kader had been losing all his former power, as his Arabs, though brave, could not match 80,000 French troops, with artillery and all the other ornaments of civilised warfare. Seven actions were fought at the Col de Mouzala, where the Arabs were overthrown by the royal dukes, in 1841; and at the Oued Fodda, where Changarnier, with a handful of troops, defeated a whole population in a frightful gorge. It was on this occasion that, having no guns, he launched his Chasseurs d'Afrique against the fort, saying, 'Voilà mon artillerie!' Abd-el-Kader had then only two chances,—the support of Muley-Abd-er-Rahman, Emperor of Morocco; or the peace that the latter might conclude with France for him. General Bugeaud, who had replaced Marshal Vallée, organised a plan of campaign by movable columns radiating from Algiers, Oran, and Constantina; and having 100,000 excellent soldiers at his disposal, the results as against the Emir were slowly but surely effective. General Negrier at Constantina, Changarnier amongst the Hadjouts about Medeah and Milianah. Cavalraac

and Lamoricière in Oran,—carried out the commander-in-chief's instructions with untiring energy and perseverance, and in the spring of 1843 the Duc d'Aumale in company with General Changarnier, surprised the Emir's camp in the absence of the greatest part of his force, and it was with difficulty that he himself escaped. Not long afterwards he took refuge in Morocco, excited the fanatical passions of the populace of that empire, and thereby forced its ruler, Muley Abd-el Rahman, much against his own inclination, into a war with France—a war very speedily terminated by General Bugeaud's victory of Isly, with some slight assistance from the bombardment of Tangier and Mogador by the Prince de Joinville. In 1845 the struggle was maintained amidst the hills by the partisans of Abd-el Kader, but our limits prevent us from dwelling on its particulars, save in one instance. On the night of the 12th of June 1845, about three months before Marshal Bugeaud left Algeria, Colonels Pellissier and St. Arnaud, at the head of a considerable force, attempted a *razzia* upon the tribe of the Beni Ouled Rih numbering in men, women, and children about 700 persons. This was in the Dahra. The Arabs escaped the first clutch of their pursuers, and when hard pressed, as they soon were, took refuge in the cave of Khartam, which had some odour of sanctity about it—some holy man or marabout had lived and died there, we believe. The French troops came up quickly to the entrance, and the Arabs were summoned to surrender. They made no reply. Possibly they did not hear the summons. As there was no other outlet from the cave than that by which the Arabs entered, a few hours' patience must have been rewarded by the unconditional surrender of the imprisoned tribe. Colonels Pellissier and St. Arnaud were desirous of a speedier result, and by their order an immense fire was kindled at the mouth of the cave, and fed sedulously during the summer night with wood, grass, reeds, anything that would help to keep up the volume of smoke and

flame which the wind drove, in roaring, whirling eddies, into the mouth of the cavern. It was too late now for the unfortunate Arabs to offer to surrender, the discharge of a cannon would not have been heard in the roar of that huge blast furnace, much less smoke-strangled cries of human agony. The fire was kept up throughout the night, and when the day had fully dawned, the then expiring embers were kicked aside, and as soon as a sufficient time had elapsed to render the air of the silent cave breathable, some soldiers were directed to ascertain how matters were within. They were gone but a few minutes, and they came back, we are told, pale, trembling, terrified, hardly daring, it seemed, to confront the light of day. No wonder they trembled and looked pale. They had found all the Arabs dead—men, women, children. St. Arnaud and Pellissier were rewarded by the French minister, and Marshal Soult observed, that 'what would be a crime against civilisation in Europe might be a justifiable necessity in Africa'. A taste of French bayonets at Isly, and the booming of French guns at Mogador, had brought Morocco to reason. Morocco sided with France, and threatened Abd-el-Kader, who cut out of their corps to pieces, and was in June on the point of coming to blows with Muley Abd-el Rahman, the emperor. But the Emperor of Morocco took vigorous measures to oppose him, not only exterminating the tribes friendly to him, which drew off many partisans from the Emir, who tried to pacify the emperor, but unsuccessfully. In December 1816, "he asked to negotiate, offered to surrender, and after 24 hours' discussion he came to Sidi Brahim, the scene of his last exploits against the French, where he was received with military honours, and conducted to the Duke of Aumale at Nemours. France has been severely abused for the detention of Abd-el Kader in Ham"—J. R. Morell *Magasin* ch. 22.

A. D. 1881.—Tunis brought under the protectorate of France. See FRANCE A. D. 1875-1889.

**BARBES.—BARBETS.**—The elders among the early Waldenses were called barbes, which signified "Uncle." Whence came the nickname Barbets, applied to the Waldensian people generally.—E. Comba, *Hist. of the Waldenses of Italy*, p. 147.

**BARCA.** See CYRENE.

**BARCELONA:** A. D. 713.—Surrender to the Arab-Moors. See SPAIN A. D. 711-713.

A. D. 1151.—The County joined to Aragon. See SPAIN A. D. 1035-1258.

**12th-16th Centuries.**—Commercial prosperity and municipal freedom.—"The city of Barcelona, which originally gave its name to the county of which it was the capital, was distinguished from a very early period by ample municipal privileges. After the union with Aragon in the 12th century, the monarchs of the latter kingdom extended towards it the same liberal legislation; so that, by the 13th, Barcelona had reached a degree of commercial prosperity rivaling that of any of the Italian republics. She divided with them the lucrative commerce with Alexandria; and her port, thronged with foreigners from every nation, became a principal emporium in the Mediterranean for the spices, drugs, perfumes, and other rich commodities of the East, whence they were diffused over the in-

terior of Spain and the European continent. Her consuls, and her commercial factories, were established in every considerable port in the Mediterranean and in the north of Europe. The natural products of her soil, and her various domestic fabrics, supplied her with abundant articles of export. Fine wool was imported by her in considerable quantities from England in the 14th and 15th centuries, and returned there manufactured into cloth, an exchange of commodities the reverse of that existing between the two nations at the present day. Barcelona claims the merit of having established the first bank of exchange and deposit in Europe, in 1401; it was devoted to the accommodation of foreigners as well as of her own citizens. She claims the glory, too, of having compiled the most ancient written code, among the moderns, of maritime law now extant, digested from the usages of commercial nations, and which formed the basis of the mercantile jurisprudence of Europe during the Middle Ages. The wealth which flowed in upon Barcelona, as the result of her activity and enterprise, was evinced by her numerous public works, her docks, arsenal, warehouses, exchange, hospitals, and other constructions of general utility. Strangers, who visited Spain in the 14th and 15th centuries, expatiate on the magnificence of this



## BARCELONA.

city, its commodious private edifices, the cleanliness of its streets and public squares (a virtue by no means usual in that day), and on the amenity of its gardens and cultivated environs. But the peculiar glory of Barcelona was the freedom of her municipal institutions. Her government consisted of a senate or council of one hundred, and a body of regidores or counsellors, as they were styled, varying at times from four to six in number; the former intrusted with the legislative, the latter with the executive functions of administration. A large proportion of these bodies were selected from the merchants, tradesmen, and mechanics of the city. They were invested not merely with municipal authority, but with many of the rights of sovereignty. They entered into commercial treaties with foreign powers; superintended the defence of the city in time of war; provided for the security of trade; granted letters of reprisal against any nation who might violate it; and raised and appropriated the public moneys for the construction of useful works, or the encouragement of such commercial adventures as were too hazardous or expensive for individual enterprise. The counsellors, who presided over the municipality, were complimented with certain honorary privileges, not even accorded to the nobility. They were addressed by the title of magnificos; were seated, with their heads covered, in the presence of royalty; were preceded by mace-bearers, or lictors, in their progress through the country; and deputies from their body to the court were admitted on the footing and received the honors of foreign ambassadors. These, it will be recollected, were plebeians,—merchants and mechanics. Trade never was esteemed a degradation in Catalonia, as it came to be in Castile.—W. H. Prescott, *Hist. of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, introd., sect. 2.

**A. D. 1640.**—Insurrection. See SPAIN: A. D. 1640–1642.

**A. D. 1651–1652.**—Siege and capture by the Spaniards. See SPAIN: A. D. 1648–1652.

**A. D. 1705.**—Capture by the Earl of Peterborough. See SPAIN: A. D. 1705.

**A. D. 1706.**—Unsuccessful siege by the French and Spaniards. See SPAIN: A. D. 1706.

**A. D. 1713–1714.**—Betrayal and desertion by the Allies.—Siege, capture and massacre by French and Spaniards. See SPAIN: A. D. 1713–1714.

**A. D. 1842.**—Rebellion and bombardment. See SPAIN: A. D. 1833–1846.

**BARCELONA, Treaty of.** See ITALY: A. D. 1527–1529.

**BARCIDES, OR BARCINE FAMILY, The.**—The family of the great Carthaginian, Hamilcar Barca, father of the more famous Hannibal. The surname Barca, or Barcas, given to Hamilcar, is equivalent to the Hebrew Barak and signified lightning.

**\* BARDI.** See MONEY AND BANKING: FLORENCE.

**BARDS.** See FILL.

**BARDULIA.** See SPAIN: A. D. 1026–1030.

**BAREBONES PARLIAMENT, The.** See ENGLAND: A. D. 1653 (JUNE–DECEMBER).

**BARENTZ, Voyages of.** See POLAR EXPLORATION: A. D. 1594–1595.

**BARÈRE AND THE COMMITTEE OF PUBLIC SAFETY.** See FRANCE: A. D.

## BARNEVELDT.

1793 (MARCH–JUNE); (SEPTEMBER–DECEMBER); TO 1794–1795 (JULY–APRIL).

**BARKIAROK, Seljouk Turkish Sultan,** A. D. 1092–1104.

**BARMECIDES, OR BARMEKIDES, The.**—The Barmecides, or Barmekides, famous in the history of the Caliphate at Bagdad, and made familiar to all the world by the stories of the “Arabian Nights,” were a family which rose to great power and wealth under the Caliph Haroun Alraschid. It took its name from one Khaled ibn Barmek, a Persian, whose father had been the “Barmek” or custodian of one of the most celebrated temples of the Zoroastrian faith. Khaled accepted Mahometanism and became one of the ablest agents of the conspiracy which overthrew the Omniad Caliphs and raised the Abbasides to the throne. The first of the Abbassid Caliphs recognized his ability and made him vizier. His son Yahya succeeded to his power and was the first vizier of the famous Haroun Alraschid. But it was Jaafar, one of the sons of Yahya, who became the prime favorite of Haroun and who raised the family of the Barmecides to its acme of splendor. So much greatness in a Persian house excited wide jealousy, however, among the Arabs, and, in the end, the capricious lord and master of the all powerful vizier Jaafar turned his heart against him, and against all his house. The fall of the Barmecides was made as cruel as their advancement had been unscrupulous. Jaafar was beheaded without a moment’s warning; his father and brother were imprisoned, and a thousand members of the family are said to have been slain.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Khalifs of Bagdad*, pt. 2, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: E. H. Palmer, *Haroun Alraschid*, ch. 3.

**BARNABITES. — PAULINES.** — “The clerks-regular of St. Paul (Paulines), whose congregation was founded by Antonio Maria Zacharia of Cremona and two Milanese associates in 1532, approved by Clement VII. in 1533, and confirmed as independent by Paul III. in 1534, in 1545 took the name of Barnabites, from the church of St. Barnabas, which was given up to them at Milan. The Barnabites . . . actively engaged in the conversion of heretics.”—A. W. Ward, *The Counter Reformation*, p. 29.

**BARNARD COLLEGE.** See EDUCATION, MODERN: REFORMS: A. D. 1804–1891.

**BARNBURNERS.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1845–1846.

**BARNET, Battle of (A. D. 1471).**—The decisive battle, and the last but one fought, in the “Wars of the Roses.” Edward IV., having been driven out of England and Henry VI. reinstated by Warwick, “the King-maker,” the former returned before six months had passed and made his way to London. Warwick hastened to meet him with an army of Lancastrians and the two forces came together on Easter Sunday, April 14, 1471, near Barnet, only ten miles from London. The victory, long doubtful, was won for the white rose of York and it was very bloodily achieved. The Earl of Warwick was among the slain. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1455–1471.

**BARNEVELDT, John of, The religious persecution and death of.** — See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1603–1619.

**BARON.**—"The title of baron, unlike that of Earl, is a creation of the [Norman] Conquest. The word, in its origin equivalent to 'homo,' receives under feudal institutions, like 'homo' itself, the meaning of vassal. Homage (homium) is the ceremony by which the vassal becomes the man of his lord; and the homines of the king are barons. Possibly the king's thegn of Anglo-Saxon times may answer to the Norman baron."—W. Stubbs, *Const. Hist. of Eng.*, ch. 11, sect. 124.

**BARON, Court.** See **MANORS.**

**BARONET.**—"One approaches with reluctance the modern title of baronet. . . . Grammatically, the term is clear enough; it is the diminutive of baron; but baron is emphatically a man, the liege vassal of the king; and baronet, therefore, etymologically would seem to imply a doubt. Degrees of honor admit of no diminution; a 'dameiselle' and a 'donzello' are grammatical diminutives, but they do not lessen the rank of the bearer; for, on the contrary, they denote the heir to the larger honor, being attributed to none but the sons of the prince or nobleman, who bore the paramount title. They did not degrade, even in their etymological signification, which baronet appears to do, and no act of parliament can remove this radical defect. . . . Independently of these considerations, the title arose from the expedient of a needy monarch [James I.] to raise money, and was offered for sale. Any man, provided he were of good birth, might, 'for a consideration,' canton his family shield with the red hand of Ulster."—R. T. Hampson, *Origines Patriciae*, pp. 368-369.

**BARONS' WAR, The.** See **ENGLAND:** A. D. 1216-1274.

**BARONY OF LAND.**—"Fifteen acres, but in some places twenty acres."—N. H. Nicolas, *Notitia Historica*, p. 134.

**BARRIER FORTRESSES, The razing of the.** See **NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND):** A. D. 1748-1787.

**BARRIER TREATIES, The.** See **ENGLAND:** A. D. 1709, and **NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND):** A. D. 1713-1715.

**BARROW.**—"A mound raised over the buried dead. 'This form of memorial, . . . as ancient as it has been lasting, is found in almost all parts of the globe. Barrows, under diverse names, line the coasts of the Mediterranean, the seats of ancient empires and civilisations. . . . They abound in Great Britain and Ireland, differing in shape and size and made of various materials; and are known as barrows (mounds of earth) and cairns (mounds of stone) and popularly in some parts of England as lous, houses, and tumps."—W. Greenwell, *British Barrows*, pp. 1-2.

**BARRUNDIA INCIDENT, The.** See **CENTRAL AMERICA:** A. D. 1886-1894.

**BARTENSTEIN, Treaty of.** See **GERMANY:** A. D. 1307 (FEBRUARY-JUNE).

**BARWALDE, Treaty of.** See **GERMANY:** A. D. 1681 (JANUARY).

**BASHAN.** See **Jews: ISRAEL UNDER THE JUDGES.**

**BASHI BOZOUKS, OR BAZOUKS.**—"For the suppression of the revolt of 1875-77 in the Christian provinces of the Turkish dominions (see **TURKEY: 1861-1876**), 'besides the regular forces engaged against the Bulgarians, great

numbers of the Moslem part of the local population had been armed by the Government and turned loose to fight the insurgents in their own way. These irregular warriors are called Bashi Bozouks, or Rottenheads. The term alludes to their being sent out without regular organization and without officers at their head."—H. O. Dwight, *Turkish Life in War Time*, p. 15.

**BASIL I. (called the Macedonian), Emperor in the East (Byzantine, or Greek),** A. D. 867-886. . . . **Basil, or Vassili, I., Grand Duke of Volodimir,** A. D. 1272-1276. . . . **Basil II., Emperor in the East (Byzantine, or Greek),** A. D. 963-1025. . . . **Basil, or Vassili, II., Grand Prince of Moscow,** A. D. 1389-1425. . . . **Basil III. (The Blind), Grand Prince of Moscow,** A. D. 1425-1462. . . . **Basil IV., Czar of Russia,** A. D. 1505-1533.

**BASILEUS.**—"From the earliest period of history, the sovereigns of Asia had been celebrated in the Greek language by the title of Basileus, or King; and since it was considered as the first distinction among men, it was soon employed by the servile provincials of the east in their humble address to the Roman throne."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 13.

**BASILIAN DYNASTY, The.** See **BYZANTINE EMPIRE:** A. D. 820-1057.

**BASILICÆ.**—"Among the buildings appropriated to the public service at Rome, none were more important than the Basilicæ. Although their name is Greek, yet they were essentially a Roman creation, and were used for practical purposes peculiarly Roman,—the administration of law and the transaction of merchants' business. Historically, considerable interest attaches to them from their connection with the first Christian churches. The name of Basilica was applied by the Romans equally to all large buildings intended for the special needs of public business. . . . Generally, however, they took the form most adapted to their purposes—a semi-circular apse or tribunal for legal trials and a central nave, with arcades and galleries on each side for the transaction of business. They existed not only as separate buildings, but also as reception rooms attached to the great mansions of Rome. . . . It is the opinion of some writers that these private basilicæ, and not the public edifices, served as the model for the Christian Basilica."—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna*, introd.

Also in: A. P. Stanley, *Christian Institutions*, ch. 9.

**BASILIKA, The.**—A compilation or codification of the imperial laws of the Byzantine Empire promulgated A. D. 884, in the reign of Basil I. and afterwards revised and amplified by his son, Leo VI.—G. Finlay, *Hist. of the Byzantine Empire, from 716 to 1057*, bk. 2, ch. 1, sect. 1.

**BASING HOUSE, The Storming and Destruction of.**—"Basing House [mansion of the Marquis of Winchester, near Basingstoke, in Hampshire], an immense fortress, with a feudal castle and a Tudor palace within its ramparts, had long been a thorn in the side of the Parliament. Four years it had held out, with an army within, well provisioned for years, and blocked the road to the west. At last it was resolved to take it; and Cromwell was directly commissioned by Parliament to the work. Its capture is one of the most terrible and stirring incidents of the

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war. After six days' constant cannonade, the storm began at six o'clock in the morning of the 14th of October [A. D. 1645]. After some hours of desperate fighting, one after another its defences were taken and its garrison put to the sword or taken. The plunder was prodigious, the destruction of property unsparing. It was gutted, burnt, and the very ruins carted away."—F. Harrison (*Oliver Cromwell*, ch. 5).

ALSO IN: S. R. Gardiner, *Hist. of the Civil War*, ch. 37 (i. 2).—Mrs. Thompson, *Recollections of Literary Characters and Celebrated Places*, v. 2, ch. 1.

**BASLE, Council of.** See **PAPACY**. A. D. 1431-1448.

**BASLE, Treaties of (1795).** See **FRANCE**. A. D. 1794-1795 (OCTOBER—MAY), and 1795 (JUNE—DECEMBER).

**BASOCHE.—BASOCHIENS.**—"The Basoche was an association of the 'clercs du Parlement' [Parliament of Paris]. The etymology of the name is uncertain. The Basoche is supposed to have been instituted in 1302, by Philippe-le-Bel, who gave it the title of 'Royaume de la Basoche,' and ordered that it should form a tribunal for judging without appeal, all civil and criminal matters that might arise among the clerks and all actions brought against them. He likewise ordered that the president should be called 'Roi de la Basoche,' and that the king and his subjects should have an annual 'montre' or review. . . . Under the reign of Henry III. the number of subjects of the roi de la Basoche amounted to nearly 10,000. . . . The members of the Basoche took upon themselves to exhibit plays in the 'Palais,' in which they censured the public manners, indeed they may be said to have been the first comic authors and actors that appeared in Paris. . . . At the commencement of the Revolution, the Basochiens formed a troop, the uniform of which was red, with epaulettes and silver buttons, but they were afterwards disbanded by a decree of the National Assembly."—*Hist. of Paris* (London: G. B. Whittaker, 1827), v. 2, p. 106.

**BASQUES, The.**—"The western extremity of the Pyrenees, where France and Spain join, gives us a locality where, although the towns, like Bayonne, Pampeluna, and Bilbao, are French or Spanish, the country people are Basques or Biscayans—Basques or Biscayans not only in the provinces of Biscay, but in Alava, Upper Navarre, and the French districts of Labourd and Soule. Their name is Spanish (the word having originated in that of the ancient Vascones), and it is not the one by which they designate themselves, though possibly it is indirectly connected with it. The native name is derived from the root Eusk-, which becomes Euskara when the language, Euskkerria when the country, and Euskaldunac when the people are spoken of."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: I. Taylor, *Origin of the Aryans*, ch. 4, sect. 4.—See, also, **IBERIANS, THE WESTERN**, and **APPENDIX A**, v. 1.

**BASSANO, Battle of.** See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER.)

**BASSEIN, Treaty of (1802).** See **INDIA**: A. D. 1798-1805.

**BASSORAH.** See **BUSSORAH**.

**BASTARNÆ, The.** See **PRÆCINI**.

**BASTILLE, The.**—"The name of Bastille or Bastel was, in ancient times, given to any

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kind of erection calculated to withstand a military force; and thus, formerly in England and on the borders of Scotland, the term Bastel-house was usually applied to places of strength and fancied security. Of the many Bastilles in France that of Paris, . . . which at first was called the Bastille St-Antoine, from being erected near the suburb of St-Antoine, retained the name longest. This fortress, of melancholy celebrity, was erected under the following circumstances. In the year 1356, when the English, then at war with France, were in the neighbourhood of Paris, it was considered necessary by the inhabitants of the French capital to repair the bulwarks of their city. Stephen Marcel, provost of the merchants, undertook this task, and, amongst other defences, added to the fortifications at the eastern entrance of the town a gate flanked with a tower on each side. This was the beginning of the constructions of the Bastille. They were enlarged in 1369 by Hugh Aubriot, provost of Paris under Charles V. He "added two towers, which, being placed opposite to those already existing on each side of the gate, made of the Bastille a square fort, with a tower at each of the four angles." After the death of Charles V., Aubriot, who had many enemies, was prosecuted for alleged crimes, "was condemned to perpetual confinement, and placed in the Bastille, of which, according to some historians, he was the first prisoner. After some time, he was removed thence to Fort l'Evêque, another prison," from which he was liberated in 1381, by the insurrection of the Maillotins (see **PARIS**. A. D. 1381). "After the insurrection of the Maillotins, in 1382, the young king, Charles VI., still further enlarged the Bastille by adding four towers to it, thus giving it, instead of the square form it formerly possessed, the shape of an oblong or parallelogram. The fortress now consisted of eight towers, each 100 feet high, and, like the wall which united them, nine feet thick. Four of these towers looked on the city, and four on the suburb of St-Antoine. To increase its strength, the Bastille was surrounded by a ditch 25 feet deep and 120 feet wide. The road which formerly passed through it was turned on one side. . . . The Bastille was now completed (1383), and though additions were subsequently made to it, the body of the fortress underwent no important change. Both as a place of military defence, and as a state prison of great strength, the Bastille was, even at an early period, very formidable."—*Hist. of the Bastille* (Chambers's Miscellany, no. 132, v. 17).—For an account of the taking and destruction of the Bastille by the people, in 1789, see **FRANCE**. A. D. 1789 (JULY).

ALSO IN: D. Bingham, *The Bastille*.—R. A. Davenport, *Hist. of the Bastille*.

**BASTITANI, The.** See **TURDETANI**.

**BASUTOS, The.** See **SOUTH AFRICA**: A. D. 1811-1868.

**BATAVIA (Java), Origin of.** See **NETHERLANDS**. A. D. 1594-1620.

**BATAVIAN REPUBLIC, The.** See **FRANCE**: A. D. 1794-1795 (OCTOBER—MAY).

**BATAVIANS, OR BATAVI, The.**—"The Germanic Batavi had been peacefully united with the [Roman] Empire, not by Cæsar, but not long afterwards, perhaps by Drusus. They were settled in the Rhine delta, that is on the left bank of the Rhine and on the islands formed



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by its arms, upwards as far at least as the Old Rhine, and so nearly from Antwerp to Utrecht and Leyden in Zealand and southern Holland, on territory originally Celtic—at least the local names are predominantly Celtic; their name is still borne by the Betuwe, the lowland between the Waal and the Leek with the capital Noviomagus, now Nimeguen. They were, especially compared with the restless and refractory Celts, obedient and useful subjects, and hence occupied a distinctive position in the aggregate, and particularly in the military system of the Roman Empire. They remained quite free from taxation, but were on the other hand drawn upon more largely than any other canton in the recruiting; this one canton furnished to the army 1,000 horsemen and 9,000 foot soldiers, besides, the men of the imperial body-guard were taken especially from them. The command of these Batavian divisions was conferred exclusively on native Batavi. The Batavi were accounted in disputably not merely as the best riders and swimmers of the army, but also as the model of true soldiers.—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 4.—“When the Cimbri and their associates, about a century before our era, made their memorable onslaught upon Rome, the early inhabitants of the Rhine island of Batavia, who were probably Celts, joined in the expedition. A recent and tremendous inundation had swept away their miserable homes. . . . The island was deserted of its population. At about the same period a civil dissension among the Chatti—a powerful German race within the Hercynian forest—resulted in the expatriation of a portion of the people. The exiles sought a new home in the empty Rhine island, called it ‘Bet-auw,’ or ‘good meadow,’ and were themselves called, thenceforward, Batavi, or Batavians.”—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch Republic*, introd., sect. 2.

**A. D. 69.—Revolt of Civilis.**—“Galba [Roman Emperor], succeeding to the purple upon the suicide of Nero, dismissed the Batavian life-guards to whom he owed his elevation. He is murdered, Otho and Vitellius contend for the succession, while all eyes are turned upon the eight Batavian regiments. In their hands the scales of Empire seem to rest. They declare for Vitellius and the civil war begins. Otho is defeated; Vitellius acknowledged by Senate and people. Fearing, like his predecessors, the imperious turbulence of the Batavian legions, he, too, sends them into Germany. It was the signal for a long and extensive revolt, which had well-nigh overturned the Roman power in Gaul and Lower Germany. Claudius Civilis was a Batavian of noble race, who had served twenty-five years in the Roman armies. His Teutonic name has perished. . . . After a quarter of a century’s service he was sent in chains to Rome and his brother executed, both falsely charged with conspiracy. . . . Desire to avenge his own wrongs was mingled with loftier motives in his breast. He knew that the sceptre was in the gift of the Batavian soldiery. . . . By his courage, eloquence and talent for political combinations, Civilis effected a general confederation of all the Netherland tribes, both Celtic and German. For a brief moment there was a united people, a Batavian commonwealth. . . . The details of the revolt [A. D. 69] have been carefully preserved by Tacitus, and form

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one of his grandest and most elaborate pictures. . . . The battles, the sieges, the defeats, the indomitable spirit of Civilis, still flaming most brightly when the clouds were darkest around him, have been described by the great historian in his most powerful manner. . . . The struggle was an unsuccessful one. After many victories and many overthrows, Civilis was left alone. . . . He accepted the offer of negotiation from Cerialis [the Roman commander]. . . . A colloquy was agreed upon. The bridge across the Nabalua was broken asunder in the middle and Cerialis and Civilis met upon the severed sides. . . . Here the story abruptly terminates. The remainder of the Roman’s narrative is lost, and upon that broken bridge the form of the Batavian hero disappears forever.”—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch Republic*, introd., sects. 3-4. Also in Tacitus, *History*, bks. 4-5.

**BATH, The Order of the.**—“The present Military Order of the Bath, founded by King George I in the year 1725, differs so essentially from the Knighthood of the Bath, or the custom of making Knights with various rites and ceremonies, of which one was Bathing, that it may almost be considered a distinct and new fraternity of chivalry. The last Knights of the Bath, made according to the ancient forms, were at the coronation of King Charles II, and from that period until the reign of the first George, the old institution fell into total oblivion. At the latter epoch, however, it was determined to revive, as it was termed, The Order of the Bath, by erecting it into a regular Military Order; and on the 25th May, 1725, Letters Patent were issued for that purpose. By the Statutes then promulgated, the number of Knights, independent of the Sovereign, a Prince of the Blood Royal, and a Great Master, was restricted to 85.” It has since been greatly increased, and the Order divided into three classes: First Class, consisting of “Knights Grand Cross,” not to exceed 50 for military and 25 for civil service; Second Class, consisting of “Knights Commanders,” not to exceed 102 for military and 50 for civil service; Third Class, “Companions,” not to exceed 325 for military and 200 for civil service.—Sir B. Burke, *Book of Orders of Knighthood*, p. 104.

**BATH, in Roman times.** See *AQUÆ SOLIS*.  
**BATHS OF CARACALLA, Nero, etc.** See *Therma*.

**BATONIAN WAR, The.**—A formidable revolt of the Dalmatians and Pannonians, A. D. 6, involved the Roman Empire, under Augustus, in a serious war of three years duration, which was called the Batonian War, from the names of two leaders of the insurgents.—Bato the Dalmatian, and Bato the Pannonian.—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 1.

**BATOUM: Ceded to Russia.**—Declared free port. See *TURKS*: A. D. 1878.

**BATTIADÆ, The.** See *CYRENE*.

**BATTLE ABBEY.** See *ENGLAND*: A. D. 1066 (OCTOBER).

**BATTLE ABOVE THE CLOUDS, The.** See *UNITED STATES OF AM.*: A. D. 1863 (OCTOBER—NOVEMBER: TENNESSEE).

**BATTLE OF THE CAMEL.** See *MAHOMETAN CONQUEST*: A. D. 661.

**BATTLE OF THE KEGS, The.** See *PHILADELPHIA*: A. D. 1777-1778.

**BATTLE OF THE NATIONS (Leipsic).**

See GERMANY: A. D. 1818 (SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER), and (OCTOBER).

**BATTLE OF THE THREE EMPERORS.**

The battle of Austerlitz—see FRANCE: A. D. 1805 (MARCH—DECEMBER)—was also called by Napoleon

**BATTLE, Trial by.** See LAW, COMMON: A. D. 1077; and LAW, CRIMINAL: A. D. 1818

**BATTLES.**—The battles of which account is given in this work are severally indexed under the names by which they are historically known.

**BAURE, The.** See AMERICAN ABORIGINES—ANDESIANS

**BAUTZEN, Battle of.** See GERMANY A D 1813 (MAY—AUGUST)

**BAUX, Lords of; Gothic Origin of the.**—The illustrious Visigothic race of the "Balthi" or "Baltha" ("the bold"), from which sprang Alaric, "continued to flourish in France in the Gothic province of Septimania, or Languedoc, under the corrupted appellation of Baux, and a branch of that family afterwards settled in the kingdom of Naples"—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 30, note

**BAVARIA: The name.**—Bavaria derived its name from the Boii—R. G. Latham, *The Germania of Tacitus; Epilegomena*, sect. 20—See, also, BOIIANS

**The Ethnology of.**—"Bavaria . . . falls into two divisions, the Bavaria of the Rhine, and the Bavaria of the Danube. In Rhenish Bavaria the descent is from the ancient Vangiones and Nemetes, either Germanized Gauls or Gallicized Germans, with Roman superadditions. Afterwards, an extension of the Alemannic and Suevic populations from the right bank of the Upper Rhine completes the evolution of their present Germanic character. Danubian Bavaria falls into two subdivisions. North of the Danube the valley of the Naab, at least, was originally Slavonic, containing an extension of the Slavonic population of Bohemia. But disturbance and displacement began early . . . In the third and fourth centuries, the Suevi and Alemanni extended themselves from the Upper Rhine. . . . The northwestern parts of Bavaria were probably German from the beginning. South of the Danube the ethnology changes. In the first place the Roman elements increase; since Vindelicis was a Roman province. . . . Its present character has arisen from an extension of the Germans of the Upper Rhine."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 8.

**A. D. 547.—Subjection of the Bavarians to the Franks.**—"It is about this period [A. D. 547] that the Bavarians first become known in history as tributaries of the Franks; but at what time they became so is matter of dispute. From the previous silence of the annalists respecting this people, we may perhaps infer that both they and the Suabians remained independent until the fall of the Ostrogothic Empire in Italy." The Gothic dominions were bounded on the north by Rætia and Noricum; and between these countries and the Thuringians, who lived still further to the north, was the country of the Bavarians and Suabians. Thuringia had long been possessed by the Franks, Rætia was ceded by Vitiges, king of Italy, and Venetia was conquered by Theudebert [the Austrasian Frank King]. The Bavarians were therefore, at this

period, almost surrounded by the Frankish territories. . . . Whenever they may have first submitted to the yoke, it is certain that at the time of Theudebert's death [A. D. 547], or shortly after that event, both Bavarians and Suabians (or Alemannians), had become subjects of the Merovingian kings."—W. C. Perry, *The Franks*, ch. 3

**A. D. 843-962.—The ancient Duchy.** See GERMANY. A. D. 843-962

**A. D. 876.—Added to the Austrian March.** See AUSTRIA A D 805-1246

**A. D. 1071-1178.—The Dukes of the House of Guelph.** See GUELPHS AND Ghibellines, and SAXONY. A. D. 1178-1183

**A. D. 1101.—Disastrous Crusade of Duke Welf.** See CRUSADES A D 1101-1102

**A. D. 1125-1152.—The origin of the Electorate.** See GERMANY A D 1125-1272

**A. D. 1138-1183.—Involved in the beginnings of the Guelph and Ghibelline Conflicts.—The struggles of Henry the Proud and Henry the Lion.** See GUELPHS AND Ghibellines, and SAXONY. A. D. 1178-1183

**A. D. 1156.—Separation of the Austrian March, which becomes a distinct Duchy.** See AUSTRIA A D 805-1246

**A. D. 1180-1356.—The House of Wittelsbach.**—Its acquisition of Bavaria and the Palatinate of the Rhine.—Loss of the Electoral Vote by Bavaria.—When, in 1180, the dominions of Henry the Lion, under the ban of the Empire, were stripped from him (see SAXONY. A. D. 1178-1183), by the imperial sentence of forfeiture, and were divided and conferred upon others by Frederick Barbarossa, the Duchy of Bavaria was given to Otto, Count Palatine of Wittelsbach. "As he claimed a descent from an ancient royal family of Bavaria, it was alleged that, in obtaining the sovereignty of that state, he had only in some measure regained those rights which in former times belonged to his ancestors."—Sir A. Halliday, *Annals of the House of Hanover*, v. 1, p. 276—"Otto . . . was a descendant of that Duke Luitpold who fell in combat with the Hungarians, and whose sons and grandsons had already worn the ducal cap of Bavaria. No princely race in Europe is of such ancient extraction . . . Bavaria was as yet destitute of towns: Landshut and Munich first rose into consideration in the course of the 13th century; Ratisbon, already a flourishing town, was regarded as the capital and residence of the Dukes of Bavaria . . . A further accession of dignity and power awaited the family in 1214 in the acquisition of the Palatinate of the Rhine. Duke Ludwig was now the most powerful prince of Southern Germany. . . . His son Otto the Illustrious, remaining . . . true to the imperial house, died excommunicate, and his dominions were placed for several years under an interdict. . . . Upon the death of Otto a partition of the inheritance took place. This partition became to the family an hereditary evil, a fatal source of quarrel and of secret or open enmity. . . . In [the] dark and dreadful period of interregnum [see GERMANY: A. D. 1250-1272], when all men waited for the final dissolution of the empire, nothing appears concerning the Wittelsbach family. . . . Finally in 1378 Rudolf, the first of the Habsburgs, ascended the long-unoccupied throne. . . . He won over the Bavarian princes by bestowing his daughters upon them in

marriage Louis remained faithful and rendered him good service, but the turbulent Henry, who had already made war upon his brother for the possession of the electoral vote, deserted him, and for this Bavaria was punished by the loss of the vote, and of the territory above the Enns. Afterwards, for a time, the Duke of Bavaria and the Count Palatine exercised the right of the electoral vote alternately, but in 1356 by the Golden Bull of Charles IV [see GERMANY A D 1347-1493], the vote was given wholly to the Count Palatine, and lost to Bavaria for nearly 300 years.—J I von Dollinger *The House of Wittelsbach (Studies in European History ch 2)*

A. D. 1314.—Election of Louis to the imperial throne. See GERMANY A D 1314-1347

A. D. 1500.—Formation of the Circle. See GERMANY A D 1493-1519

A. D. 1610.—The Duke at the head of the Catholic League. See GERMANY A D 1608-1618

A. D. 1619.—The Duke in command of the forces of the Catholic League. See GERMANY A D 1618-1620

A. D. 1623.—Transfer to the Duke of the Electoral dignity of the Elector Palatine. See GERMANY A D 1621-1633

A. D. 1632.—Occupation by Gustavus Adolphus. See GERMANY A D 1631-1632

A. D. 1646-1648.—Ravaged by the Swedes and French.—Truce made and renounced by the Elector.—The last campaigns of the war. See GERMANY A D 1646-1648

A. D. 1648.—Acquisition of the Upper Palatinate in the Peace of Westphalia. See GERMANY A D 1648

A. D. 1686.—The League of Augsburg. See GERMANY A D 1686

A. D. 1689-1696.—The war of the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV. See FRANCE A D 1689-1690 1689-1691, 1692 1693 (JULY), 1694, 1695-1696

A. D. 1700.—Claims of the Electoral Prince on the Spanish Crown. See SPAIN A D 1698-1700

A. D. 1702.—The Elector joins France against the Allies. See GERMANY A D 1702

A. D. 1703.—Successes of the French and Bavarians. See GERMANY A D 1703

A. D. 1704.—Ravaged, crushed and surrendered by the Elector. See GERMANY A D 1704

A. D. 1705.—Dissolution of the Electorate. See GERMANY A D 1705

A. D. 1714.—The Elector restored to his Dominions. See UTRECHT A D 1712-1714

A. D. 1740.—Claims of the Elector to the Austrian succession. See AUSTRIA A D 1740 (OCTOBER)

A. D. 1742.—The Elector crowned Emperor. See AUSTRIA A D 1741 (OCTOBER)

A. D. 1743 (April).—The Emperor-Elector recovers his Electoral territory. See AUSTRIA A D 1742 (JUNE-DECEMBER), and 1743

A. D. 1743 (June).—The Emperor-Elector again a fugitive.—The Austrians in Possession. See AUSTRIA A D 1743

A. D. 1745.—Death of the Emperor-Elector.—Peace with Austria. See AUSTRIA A D 1744-1745

A. D. 1748.—Termination and results of the war of the Austrian Succession. See AIX LA-CHAPELLE, THE CONGRESS.

A. D. 1767.—Expulsion of the Jesuits. See JESUITS A D 1761-1769

A. D. 1777-1779.—The Succession question.

—"With the death of Maximilian Joseph, of Bavaria (30 December 1777), the younger branch of the house of Wittelsbach became extinct, and the electorate of Bavaria came to an end. By virtue of the original partition in 1310, the duchy of Bavaria ought to pass to the elder branch of the family, represented by Charles Theodore, the Elector Palatine. But Joseph [the Second, the Emperor], saw the possibility of securing valuable additions to Austria which would round off the frontier on the west. The Austrian claims were legally worthless. They were based chiefly upon a gift of the Straubingen territory which Sigismund was said to have made in 1426 to his son-in-law, Albert of Austria, but which had never taken effect and had since been utterly forgotten. It would be impossible to induce the diet to recognise such claims, but it might be possible to come to an understanding with the aged Charles Theodore, who had no legitimate children and was not likely to feel any very keen interest in his new inheritance. Without much difficulty the elector was half frightened, half induced to sign a treaty (3 January, 1778), by which he recognised the claims put forward by Austria while the rest of Bavaria was guaranteed to him and his successors. Austrian troops were at once despatched to occupy the ceded districts. The condition of Europe seemed to assure the success of Joseph's bold venture. There was only one quarter from which opposition was to be expected Prussia. Frederick promptly appealed to the fundamental laws of the Empire, and declared his intention of upholding them with arms. But he could find no supporters except those who were immediately interested, the elector of Saxony, whose mother, as a sister of the late elector of Bavaria had a legal claim to his allodial property and Charles of Zweibrücken, the heir apparent of the childless Charles Theodore. Frederick, left to himself, despatched an army into Bohemia where the Austrian troops had been joined by the emperor in person. But nothing came of the threatened hostilities. Frederick was unable to force on a battle, and the so called war was little more than an armed negotiation. France and Russia undertook to mediate and negotiations were opened in 1779 at Teschen where peace was signed on the 13th of May. Austria withdrew the claims which had been recognised in the treaty with the Elector Palatine, and received the 'quarter of the Inn,' i.e. the district from Passau to Wildshut. Frederick's eventual claims to the succession in the Franconian principalities of Ansbach and Bayreuth, which Austria had every interest in opposing were recognised by the treaty. The claims of Saxony were bought off by a payment of 4,000,000 thalers. The most unsatisfactory part of the treaty was that it was guaranteed by France and Russia. On the whole, it was a great triumph for Frederick and an equal humiliation for Joseph II. His schemes of aggrandisement had been foiled."—R Lodge, *Hist of Modern Europe*, ch 20, sect 3

ALSO IN T H Dyer, *Hist of Modern Europe*, bk 6, ch 8 (p 3)

A. D. 1801-1803.—Acquisition of territory under the Treaty of Luneville. See GERMANY: A. D. 1801-1808.



## BAVARIA

**A. D. 1805-1806.**—Aggrandized by Napoleon.—Created a Kingdom.—Joined to the Confederation of the Rhine. See GERMANY A D 1805-1806, and 1806 (JANUARY—AUGUST)

**A. D. 1809**—The revolt in the Tyrol.—Heroic struggle of Hofer and his countrymen. See GERMANY A D 1809-1810 (APRIL—FEBRUARY)

**A. D. 1813.**—Abandonment of Napoleon and the Rhenish Confederation.—Union with the Allies. See GERMANY A D 1813 (SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER) and (OCTOBER—DECEMBER)

**A. D. 1814-1815**—Restoration of the Tyrol to Austria.—Territorial compensations. See VIENNA THE CONGRESS OF, and FRANCE A D 1814 (APRIL—JUNE)

**A. D. 1848 (March).**—Revolutionary outbreak.—Expulsion of Lola Montez.—Abdication of the King. See GERMANY A D 1848 (MARCH)

**A. D. 1866**—The Seven Weeks War.—Indemnity and territorial cession to Prussia. See GERMANY A D 1866

**A. D. 1870-1871**—Treaty of Union with the Germanic Confederation, soon transformed into the German Empire. See GERMANY A D 1870 (SEPTEMBER—DECEMBER) and 1871

**BAVAY**, Origin of. See NERVII  
**BAXAR OR BAKSAR, OR BUXAR**, Battle of (1764). See INDIA A D 1757-1772  
**BAYARD**, The Chevalier: His knightly deeds and his death. See ITALY A D 1501-1504, and FRANCE A D 1523-1525

**BAYEUX TAPESTRY.**—A remarkable roll of mediæval tapestry, 214 feet long and 20 inches wide, preserved for centuries in the cathedral at Bayeux Normandy, on which a pictorial history of the Norman invasion and conquest of England is represented, with more or less of names and explanatory inscriptions. Mr E A Freeman (*Norman Conquest*, i 3, note A) says "It will be seen that throughout this volume, I accept the witness of the Bayeux Tapestry as one of my highest authorities. I do not hesitate to say that I look on it as holding the first place among the authorities on the Norman side. That it is a contemporary work I entertain no doubt whatever, and I entertain just as little doubt as to its being a work fully entitled to our general confidence. I believe the tapestry to have been made for Bishop Odo, and to have been most probably designed by him as an ornament for his newly rebuilt cathedral church of Bayeux." The precious tapestry is now preserved in the public library at Bayeux.

**BAYEUX**, The Saxons of. See SAXONS OF BAYEUX

**BAYLEN**, Battle of (1808). See SPAIN A D 1808 (MAY—SEPTEMBER)

**BAYOGOUAS**, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY

**BAYONNE** (1565). See FRANCE A D 1565-1570

**BAZAINE'S SURRENDER AT METZ.** See FRANCE A D 1870 (JULY—AUGUST), (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER), and (SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER)

**BEACHY HEAD**, Battle of. See ENGLAND A D 1890 (JUNE)

**BEACONSFIELD** (Disraeli) Ministries. See ENGLAND A D 1851-1852; 1858-1859; 1868-1870, and 1873-1880

## BEC

**BEAR FLAG**, The. See CALIFORNIA A D 1846-1847

**BEARN**: The rise of the Counts. See BURGUNDY A D 1082

**A. D. 1620.**—Absorbed and incorporated in the Kingdom of France. See FRANCE A D 1620-1622

**A. D. 1685.**—The Dragonnade.—Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. See FRANCE A D 1681-1698

**BEATOUN**, Cardinal, The assassination of. See SCOTLAND A D 1546

**BEAUFORT**, N. C., Capture of, by the National forces (1862). See UNITED STATES OF AM A D 1862 (JANUARY—APRIL NORTH CAROLINA)

**BEAUGÉ**, Battle of.—The English commanded by the Duke of Clarence, defeated in Anjou by an army of French and Scots, under the Dauphin of France the Duke of Clarence slain

**BEAUMARCHAIS'S TRANSACTIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES** See UNITED STATES OF AM A D 1778-1778

**BEAUMONT**, Battle of. See FRANCE A D 1870 (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER)

**BEAUREGARD**, General G T.—Bombardment of Fort Sumter. See UNITED STATES OF AM A D 1861 (MARCH—APRIL) At the first Battle of Bull Run. See UNITED STATES OF AM A D 1861 (JULY VIRGINIA)

**Command in the Potomac district** See UNITED STATES OF AM A D 1861-1862 (DECEMBER—APRIL VIRGINIA) **Command in the West.** See UNITED STATES OF AM A D 1862 (FEBRUARY—APRIL TENNESSEE), and (APRIL—MAY TENNESSEE—MISSISSIPPI)

**The Defence of Charleston** See UNITED STATES OF AM A D 1863 (AUGUST—DECEMBER SOUTH CAROLINA)

**BEAUVAIS**, Origin of. See BELGÆ

**BEBRYKIANS**, The. See BITHYNIA

**BEC**, Abbey of.—One of the most famous abbeys and ecclesiastical schools of the middle ages. Its name was derived from the little beck or rivulet of a valley in Normandy, on the banks of which a pious knight, Herloun, retiring from the world, had fixed his hermitage. The renown of the piety of Herloun drew others around him and resulted in the formation of a religious community with himself at its head. Among those attracted to Herloun's retreat were a noble Lombard scholar, Lanfranc of Pavia, who afterwards became the great Norman archbishop of Canterbury and Anselm of Aosta, another Italian who succeeded Lanfranc at Canterbury with still more fame. The teaching of Lanfranc at Bec raised it says Mr Green in his *Short History of the English People*, into the most famous school of Christendom, it was, in fact, the first wave of the intellectual movement which was spreading from Italy to the ruder countries of the West. The fabric of the canon law and of mediæval scholasticism, with the philosophical skepticism which first awoke under its influence, all trace their origin to Bec. "The glory of Bec would have been as transitory as that of other monastic houses, but for the appearance of one illustrious man [Lanfranc] who came to be enrolled as a private member of the brotherhood, and who gave Bec for a while a special and honorable character with which hardly any other monastery in Christendom could

compare."—E A Freeman, *Norman Conquest*

**BÉCHUANALAND**—The country of the Bechuanaas, S Africa, between the Transvaal and German territory. Partly a possession and partly a protectorate of Great Britain since 1884-5.

**BECKET, Thomas, and King Henry II.** See ENGLAND A D 1162-1170

**BED-CHAMBER QUESTION, The** See ENGLAND A D 1837-1839

**BED OF JUSTICE.**—'The ceremony by which the French kings compelled the registration of their edicts by the Parliament was called a 'lit de justice' [bed of justice]. The monarch proceeded in state to the Grand Chambre and the chancellor, having taken his pleasure announced that the king required such and such a decree to be entered on their records in his presence. It was held that this personal interference of the sovereign suspended for the time being the functions of all inferior magistrates and the edict was accordingly registered without a word of objection. The form of registration was as follows: 'Le roi seant en son lit de justice a ordonné et ordonne que les presents edicts soient enregistrés', and at the end of the decree, 'Fut en Parlement le roi y seant en son lit de justice.'—*Students' Hist. of France note to ch 19*—See, also, **PARLIAMENT OF PARIS**—The origin of this term [bed of justice] has been much discussed. The wits complained it was so styled because their justice was put to sleep. The term was probably derived from the arrangement of the throne on which the king sat. The back and sides were made of bolsters and it was called a bed.—J B Perkins *France under Mazarin*, i 1, p 385 foot note—An elaborate and entertaining account of a notable Bed of Justice held under the Regency in the early part of the reign of Louis XV will be found in the *Memoirs of the Duke de Saint Simon* abridged translation of St John v 4 ch 5-7.

**BEDR, Battle of** See MAHOMITAN CONQUEST A D 609-632

**BEDRIACUM, Battles of.** See ROME A D 69

**BEEF-EATERS, The** Certain palace attendants on the English sovereign whose duty is to carry up the royal dinner. See WOMEN OF THE GUARD

**BEEF STEAK CLUB, The.** See CLUBS THE BEEF STEAK

**BEER-ZATH, Battle of**—The field on which the great Jewish soldier and patriot Judas Maccabæus, having but 800 men with him was beset by an army of the Syrians and slain, B C 161—Josephus, *Antiq. of the Jews*, bk 12 ch 11

Also in H Ewald *Hist. of Israel*, bk 5 sect 2

**BEG.**—A Turkish title, signifying prince or lord, whence, also, Bey. See BEY

**BEGGARS (Gueux) of the Netherland Revolt.** See NETHERLANDS A D 1562-1566

**BEGGARS OF THE SEA.** See NEUTRAL LANDS A D 1572

**BEGUINES, OR BEGHINES.**—**BEGHARDS.**—Weaving Brothers.—Lollards.—Brethren of the Free Spirit.—Fratricelli.—Bisochi.—Turlupins.—'In the year 1150 there lived in Liege a certain kindly, stammering priest, known from his infirmity as Lambert le Begue. This man took pity on the destitute widows of the town. Despite the impediment in his speech, he was, as often happens, a man of a certain power and eloquence in preaching

This Lambert so moved the hearts of his hearers that gold and silver poured in on him, given to relieve such of the destitute women of Liege as were still of good and pious life. With the moneys thus collected, Lambert built a little square of cottages, with a church in the middle and a hospital, and at the side a cemetery. Here he housed these homeless widows one or two in each little house, and then he drew up a half monastic rule which was to guide their lives. The rule was very simple, quite informal no vows no great renunciation bound the 'Swes trons Brod durch Got'. A certain time of the day was set apart for prayer and pious meditation, the other hours they spent in spinning or sewing in keeping their houses clean, or they went as nurses in time of sickness into the homes of the townspeople. Thus these women, though pious and sequestered, were still in the world and of the world. Soon we find the name 'Swestrons Brod durch Got' set aside for the more usual title of Beguines or Beghines. Different authorities give different origins of this word. Some have thought it was taken in memory of the founder, the charitable Lambert le Begut. Others think that, even as the Mystics or Mutterers, the Lollards or Hummers the Popelards or Babblerers, so the Beguines or Stammerers were thus nicknamed from their continual murmuring in prayer. This is plausible but not so plausible as the suggestion of Dr Mosheim and M Auguste Jundt, who derive the word Beguine from the Flemish word *buggen* to beg. For we know that these pious women had been veritable beggars, and beggars should they again become. With surprising swiftness the new order spread through the Netherlands and into France and Germany. Lambert may have lived to see a beguine in every great town within his ken, but we hear no more of him. The Beguines are no longer for Liege but for all the world. Each city possessed its quiet congregation, and at any sick bed you might meet a woman clad in a simple smock and a great veil like mantle, who lived only to pray and do deeds of mercy. The success of the Beguines had made them an example. Before St Francis and St Dominic instituted the mendicant orders, there had silently grown up in every town of the Netherlands a spirit of fraternity, not imposed by any rule, but the natural impulse of a people. The weavers sat all day long alone at their rattling looms, the armourers beating out their thoughts in iron, the cross legged tailors and busy cobblers thinking and stitching together—these men silent, pious thoughtful joined themselves in a fraternity modelled on that of the Beguines. They were called the Weaving Brothers. Bound by no vows and fettered by no rule, they still lived the worldly life and plied their trade for hire. Only in their leisure they met together and prayed and dreamed and thought. . . . Such were the founders of the great fraternity of 'Fratres Textores', or Beghards as in later years the people more generally called them.—A. M. F. Robinson, *The End of the Middle Ages*, i—'The Lollards differed from the Beghards less in reality than in name. We are informed respecting them that, at their origin in Antwerp, shortly after 1300, they associated together for the purpose of waiting upon patients dangerously sick, and burying the dead. . . . Very

early, however, an element of a different kind began to work in those fellowships. Even about the close of the 13th century irregularities and extravagances are laid to their charge . . . The charges brought against the later Beghards and Lollards, in connection, on the one hand, with the fanatical Franciscans, who were violently contending with the Church, and on the other, with the Brethren and Sisters of the Free Spirit, relate to three particulars, viz., an aversion to all useful industry, conjoined with a propensity to mendicancy and idleness, an intemperate spirit of opposition to the Church, and a skeptical and more or less pantheistical mysticism. . . . They . . . declared that the time of Antichrist was come, and on all hands endeavoured to embroil the people with their spiritual guides. Their own professed object was to restore the pure primeval state, the divine life of freedom, innocence, and nature. The idea they formed of that state was, that man, being in and of himself one with God, requires only to act in the consciousness of this unity, and to follow unrestrained the divinely implanted impulses and inclinations of his nature, in order to be good and godly"—C. Ullmann, *Reformers before the Reformation*, v. 2, pp. 14-16.—"The names of beghards and beguines came not unnaturally to be used for devotees who, without being members of any regular monastic society, made a profession of religious strictness; and thus the applications of the names to some kinds of sectaries was easy—more especially as many of these found it convenient to assume the outward appearance of beghards, in the hope of disguising their differences from the church. But on the other hand, this drew on the orthodox beghards frequent persecutions, and many of them, for the sake of safety, were glad to connect themselves as tertiaryaries with the great mendicant orders. . . . In the 14th century, the popes dealt hardly with the beghards; yet orthodox societies under this name still remained in Germany; and in Belgium, the country of their origin, sisterhoods of beguines flourish to the present day. . . . Matthias of Janow, the Bohemian reformer, in the end of the 14th century, says that all who act differently from the profane vulgar are called beghards or turlupini, or by other blasphemous names. . . . Among those who were confounded with the beghards—partly because, like them, they abounded along the Rhine—were the brethren and sisters of the Free Spirit. These appear in various places under various names. They wore a peculiarly simple dress, professed to give themselves to contemplation, and, holding that labour is a hindrance to contemplation and to the elevation of the soul to God, they lived by beggary. Their doctrines were mystical and almost pantheistic. . . . The brethren and sisters of the Free Spirit were much persecuted, and probably formed a large proportion of those who were burnt under the name of beghards."—J. C. Robertson, *Hist. of Christian Church*, bk. 7, ch. 7 (v. 6).—"Near the close of this century [the 13th] originated in Italy the Fratricelli and Bizochi, parties that in Germany and France were denominated Beguards; and which, first Boniface VIII., and afterwards other pontiffs condemned, and wished to see persecuted by the Inquisition and exterminated in every possible way. The Fratricelli, who also called themselves in Latin 'Frates parvi'

(Little Brethren), or 'Fratriculi de paupere vita' (Little Brothers of the Poor Life), were Franciscan monks, but detached from the great family of Franciscans; who wished to observe the regulations prescribed by their founder St. Francis more perfectly than the others, and therefore possessed no property, either individually or collectively, but obtained their necessary food from day to day by begging. . . . They predicted a reformation and purification of the church. . . . They extolled Celestine V. as the legal founder of their sect, but Boniface and the succeeding pontiffs, who opposed the Fratricelli, they denied to be true pontiffs. As the great Franciscan family had its associates and dependents, who observed the third rule prescribed by St. Francis [which required only certain pious observances, such as fasts, prayers, continence, a coarse, cheap dress, gravity of manners, &c., but did not prohibit private property, marriage, public offices, and worldly occupations], and who were usually called Tertiarii, so also the sect of the Fratricelli . . . had numerous Tertiarii of its own. These were called, in Italy, Bizochi and Bocasoti; in France Beguini, and in Germany Beghards, by which name all the Tertiarii were commonly designated. These differed from the Fratricelli . . . only in their mode of life. The Fratricelli were real monks, living under the rule of St. Francis; but the Bizochi or Beguini lived in the manner of other people. . . . Totally different from these austere Beguini and Beguine, were the German and Belgic Beguines, who did not indeed originate in this century, but now first came into notice. . . . Concerning the Turlupins, many have written; but none accurately. . . . The origin of the name, I know not, but I am able to prove from substantial documents, that the Turlupins who were burned at Paris, and in other parts of France were no other than the Brethren of the Free Spirit whom the pontiffs and councils condemned."—J. L. Von Mosheim, *Inst. of Ecclesiastical Hist.*, bk. 3, century 13, pt. 2, ch. 2, sect. 39-41, and ch. 5, sect. 9, foot-note.

ALSO IN: L. Mariotti (A. Gallenga), *Fra Dolcino and his Times*.—See, also, PIVARDS.

**BEGUMS OF OUDH (OUDE), Warren Hastings and the.** See INDIA: A. D. 1773-1785.

**BEHISTUN, Rock of.**—"This remarkable spot, lying on the direct route between Babylon and Ecbatana, and presenting the unusual combination of a copious fountain, a rich plain and a rock suitable for sculpture, must have early attracted the attention of the great monarchs who marched their armies through the Zagros range, as a place where they might conveniently set up memorials of their exploits. . . . The tablet and inscriptions of Darius, which have made Behistun famous in modern times, are in a recess to the right of the scarped face of the rock, and at a considerable elevation."—G. Rawlinson, *Five Great Monarchies: Media*, ch. 1.—The mountain or rock of Behistun fixes the location of the district known to the Greeks as Bagistana. "It lies southwest of Elvedg, between that mountain and the Zagrus in the valley of the Choaspes, and is the district now known as Kirmenshah."—M. Duncker, *Hist. of Antiquity*, bk. 8, ch. 1.

**BEHRING SEA CONTROVERSY, and Arbitration.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.; A. D. 1896-1898.



## BELRUT.

**BELRUT**, Origin of. See BERYTUS.

**BELA I.**, King of Hungary, A. D. 1060-1068. . . . **Bela II.**, A. D. 1131-1141. . . . **Bela III.**, A. D. 1173-1196. . . . **Bela IV.**, A. D. 1235-1270.

**BELCHITE**, Battle of. See SPAIN: A. D. 1809 (FEBRUARY-JUNE).

**BELERION**, OR **BOLERIUM**.—The Roman name of Land's End, England. See BRITAIN: CELTIC TRIBES.

**BELFORT**.—Siege by the Germans (1870-1871). See FRANCE: A. D. 1870-1871.

**BELGÆ**, The.—“This Belgian confederation included the people of all the country north of the Seine and Marne, bounded by the Atlantic on the west and the Rhine on the north and east, except the Mediomatrici and Treviri. . . . The old divisions of France before the great revolution of 1789 corresponded in some degree to the divisions of the country in the time of Cæsar, and the names of the people are still retained with little alteration in the names of the chief towns or the names of the ante-revolutionary divisions of France. In the country of the Remi between the Marne and the Aisne there is the town of Reims. In the territory of the Suessiones between the Marne and the Aisne there is Soissons on the Aisne. The Bellovaci were west of the Oise (Isara) a branch of the Seine; their chief town, which at some time received the name of Cæsaromagus, is now Beauvais. The Nervii were between and on the Sambre and the Schelde. The Atrebatæ were north of the Bellovaci between the Somme and the upper Schelde; their chief place was Nemetacum or Nemetocenna, now Arras in the old division of Artois. The Ambiani were on the Somme (Samara); their name is represented by Amiens (Samarobriua). The Morini, or sea-coast men extended from Boulogne towards Dunkerque. The Menapii bordered on the northern Morini and were on both sides of the lower Rhine (B. G. iv., 4). The Caleti were north of the lower Seine along the coast in the Pays de Caux. The Velocasses were east of the Caleti on the north side of the Seine as far as the Oise; their chief town was Rotomagus (Rouen) and their country was afterwards Vexin Normand and Vexin Français. The Veromandui were north of the Suessiones; their chief town under the Roman dominion, Augusta Veromanduorum, is now St. Quentin. The Aduatuci were on the lower Maas. The Condrusi and the others included under the name of Germani were on the Maas, or between the Maas and the Rhine. The Eburones had the country about Tongern and Spa, and were the immediate neighbours of the Menapii on the Rhine.”—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic*, v. 4, ch. 3.—“Cæsar . . . informs us that, in their own estimation, they [the Belgæ] were principally descended from a German stock, the offspring of some early migration across the Rhine. . . . Strabo . . . by no means concurred in Cæsar's view of the origin of this . . . race, which he believed to be Gaulish and not German, though differing widely from the Galli, or Gauls of the central region.”—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 5.

Also in: E. Guest, *Origines Celticae*, v. 1, ch. 12.

**B. C. 57**.—Cæsar's campaign against the confederacy.—In the second year of Cæsar's command in Gaul, B. C. 57, he led his legions against the Belgæ, whom he characterized in his

## BELGRADE.

Commentaries as the bravest of all the people of Gaul. The many tribes of the Belgian country had joined themselves in a great league to oppose the advancing Roman power, and were able to bring into the field no less than 290,000 men. The tribe of the Remi alone refused to join the confederacy and placed themselves on the Roman side. Cæsar who had quartered his army during the winter in the country of the Sequani, marched boldly, with eight legions, into the midst of these swarming enemies. In his first encounter with them on the banks of the Aisne, the Belgic barbarians were terribly cut to pieces and were so disheartened that tribe after tribe made submission to the proconsul as he advanced. But the Nervii, who boasted a Germanic descent, together with the Aduatuci, the Atrebatæ and the Veromandui, rallied their forces for a struggle to the death. The Nervii succeeded in surprising the Romans, while the latter were preparing their camp on the banks of the Sambre, and very nearly swept Cæsar and his veterans off the field, by their furious and tremendous charge. But the energy and personal influence of the one, with the steady discipline of the other, prevailed in the end over the untrained valour of the Nervii, and the proud nation was not only defeated but annihilated. “Their eulogy is preserved in the written testimony of their conqueror; and the Romans long remembered, and never failed to signalize their formidable valour. But this recollection of their ancient prowess became from that day the principal monument of their name and history, for the defeat they now sustained well nigh annihilated the nation. Their combatants were cut off almost to a man. The elders and the women, who had been left in secure retreats, came forth of their own accord to solicit the conqueror's clemency. . . . ‘Of 600 senators,’ they said, ‘we have lost all but three; of 60,000 fighting men 500 only remain.’ Cæsar treated the survivors with compassion.”—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, ch. 7.

Also in: Julius Cæsar, *Gallie Wars*, bk. 2.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic*, v. 4, ch. 3.—Napoleon III., *Hist. of Cæsar*, bk. 3, ch. 5.

**BELGÆ OF BRITAIN**, The.—Supposed to be a colony from the Belgæ of the continent. See BRITAIN: CELTIC TRIBES.

**BELGIUM**: Ancient and Mediæval History. See BELGÆ, NERVII, FRANKS, LORRAINE, FLANDERS, LIÈGE, NETHERLANDS.

Modern History. See NETHERLANDS.

Constitution of 1893. See CONSTITUTION OF BELGIUM.

**BELGRADE**: Origin.—During the attacks of the Avars upon the territory of the Eastern Empire, in the last years of the 6th century, the city of Singidunum, at the junction of the Save with the Danube, was taken and totally destroyed. The advantageous site of the extinct town soon attracted a colony of Slavonians, who raised out of the ruins a new and strongly fortified city—the Belgrade, or the White City of later times. “The Slavonic name of Belgrade is mentioned in the 10th century by Constantine Porphyrogenitus: the Latin appellation of Alba Græca is used by the Franks in the beginning of the 9th.”—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 48, note.

A. D. 1425.—Acquired by Hungary and fortified against the Turks. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1801-1442.

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**A. D. 1442.**—First repulse of the Turks. See **TURKS (THE OTTOMANS)**: A. D. 1402-1451.

**A. D. 1456.**—Second repulse of the Turks. See **HUNGARY**: A. D. 1442-1458; and **TURKS (THE OTTOMANS)**: A. D. 1451-1481.

**A. D. 1521.**—Siege and capture by Solyman the Magnificent. See **HUNGARY**: A. D. 1487-1526.

**A. D. 1688-1690.**—Taken by the Austrians and recovered by the Turks. See **HUNGARY**: A. D. 1683-1699.

**A. D. 1717.**—Recovery from the Turks. See **HUNGARY**: A. D. 1699-1718.

**A. D. 1739.**—Restored to the Turks. See **RUSSIA**: A. D. 1725-1739.

**A. D. 1789-1791.**—Taken by the Austrians and restored to the Turks. See **TURKS**: A. D. 1776-1792.

**A. D. 1806.**—Surprised and taken by the Servians. See **BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES**: 14TH-19TH CENTURIES (SERVIA).

**A. D. 1862.**—Withdrawal of Turkish troops. See **BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES**: 14TH-19TH CENTURIES (SERVIA).

**BELGRADE, The Peace of.** See **RUSSIA**: A. D. 1725-1739.

**BELIK, Battle on the (Carrhæ—B. C. 53).** See **ROME**: B. C. 57-52.

**BELISARIUS, Campaigns of.** See **VANDALS**: A. D. 533-534, and **ROME**: A. D. 535-553.

**BELIZE, or British Honduras.** See **NICARAGUA**: A. D. 1850.

**BELL ROLAND, The great.** See **GHENT**: A. D. 1539-1540.

**BELL TELEPHONE, The invention of the.** See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY AND INVENTION**: A. D. 1876-1892.

**BELLE ISLE PRISON-PEN, The.** See **PRISONS AND PRISON-PENS, CONFEDERATE**.

**BELLOVACI, The.** See **BELGÆ**.

**BELLVILLE, Battle of.** See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1863 (JULY: KENTUCKY).

**BELMONT, Battle of.** See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1861 (SEPTEMBER—NOVEMBER: ON THE MISSISSIPPI).

**BELOIT COLLEGE.** See **EDUCATION, MODERN: AMERICA**: A. D. 1769-1884.

**BEMA, The.** See **PNYX**.

**BEMIS HEIGHTS, Battle of.** See **UNITED STATES OF AM.**: A. D. 1777 (JULY—OCTOBER).

**BENARES.**—Benares "may even date from the time when the Aryan race first spread itself over Northern India. . . . It is certain that the city is regarded by all Hindus as coeval with the birth of Hinduism, a notion derived both from tradition and from their own writings. Allusions to Benares are exceedingly abundant in ancient Sanskrit literature; and perhaps there is no city in all Hindustan more frequently referred to. By reason of some subtle and mysterious charm, it has linked itself with the religious sympathies of the Hindus through every century of its existence. For the sanctity of its inhabitants—of its temples and reservoirs—of its wells and streams—of the very soil that is trodden—of the very air that is breathed—and of everything in and around it, Benares has been famed for thousands of years. . . . Previously to the introduction of the Buddhist faith into India, she was already the sacred city of the land,—the centre of Hinduism, and chief seat of its authority. Judging from the strong feelings

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of veneration and affection with which the native community regard her in the present day, and bearing in mind that the founder of Buddhism commenced his ministry at this spot, it seems indisputable that, in those early times preceding the Buddhist reformation, the city must have exerted a powerful and wide-spread religious influence over the land. Throughout the Buddhist period in India—a period extending from 700 to 1,000 years—she gave the same support to Buddhism which she had previously given to the Hindu faith. Buddhist works of that era . . . clearly establish the fact that the Buddhists of those days regarded the city with much the same kind of veneration as the Hindu does now."—M. A. Sherring, *The Sacred City of the Hindus*, ch. 1.—For an account of the English annexation of Benares, see **INDIA**: A. D. 1773-1785.

**BENEDICT II., Pope, A. D. 684-685. . . . Benedict III., Pope, A. D. 855-858. . . . Benedict IV., Pope, A. D. 900-903. . . . Benedict V., Pope, A. D. 964-965. . . . Benedict VI., Pope, A. D. 972-974. . . . Benedict VII., Pope, A. D. 975-984. . . . Benedict VIII., Pope, A. D. 1012-1024. . . . Benedict IX., Pope, A. D. 1033-1044, 1047-1048. . . . Benedict X., Antipope, A. D. 1058-1059. . . . Benedict XI., Pope, A. D. 1303-1304. . . . Benedict XII., Pope, A. D. 1334-1342. . . . Benedict XIII., Pope, A. D. 1394-1423 (at Avignon). . . . Benedict XIII., Pope, A. D. 1724-1730. . . . Benedict XIV., Pope, A. D. 1740-1758.**

**BENEDICTINE ORDERS.**—The rule of St. Benedict.—"There were many monasteries in the West before the time of St. Benedict of Nursia (A. D. 480); but he has been rightly considered the father of Western monasticism; for he not only founded an order to which many religious houses became attached, but he established a rule for their government which, in its main features, was adopted as the rule of monastic life by all the orders for more than five centuries, or until the time of St. Dominic and St. Francis of Assisi. Benedict was first a hermit, living in the mountains of Southern Italy, and in that region he afterwards established in succession twelve monasteries, each with twelve monks and a superior. In the year 520 he founded the great monastery of Monte Casino as the mother-house of his order, a house which became the most celebrated and powerful monastery, according to Montalembert, in the Catholic universe, celebrated especially because there Benedict prepared his rule and formed the type which was to serve as a model to the innumerable communities submitting to that sovereign code. . . . Neither in the East nor in the West were the monks originally ecclesiastics; and it was not until the eighth century that they became priests, called regulars, in contrast with the ordinary parish clergy, who were called seculars. . . . As missionaries, they proved the most powerful instruments in extending the authority and the boundaries of the church. The monk had no individual property; even his dress belonged to the monastery. . . . To enable him to work efficiently, it was necessary to feed him well; and such was the injunction of Benedict, as opposed to the former practice of strict asceticism."—C. J. Stillé, *Studies in Medieval Hist.*, ch. 12.—"Benedict would not have the monks limit themselves to spiritual

labour, to the action of the soul upon itself; he made external labour, manual or literary, a strict obligation of his rule. . . . In order to banish indolence, which he called the enemy of the soul, he regulated minutely the employment of every hour of the day according to the seasons, and ordained that, after having celebrated the praises of God seven times a-day, seven hours a-day should be given to manual labour, and two hours to reading. . . . Those who are skilled in the practice of an art or trade, could only exercise it by the permission of the abbot, in all humility; and if any one prided himself on his talent, or the profit which resulted from it to the house, he was to have his occupation changed until he had humbled himself. . . . Obedience is also to his eyes a work, obedientiae laborem, the most meritorious and essential of all. A monk entered into monastic life only to make the sacrifice of self. This sacrifice implied especially that of the will. . . . Thus the rule pursued pride into its most secret hiding-place. Submission had to be prompt, perfect, and absolute. The monk must obey always, without reserve, and without murmur, even in those things which seemed impossible and above his strength, trusting in the succour of God, if a humble and seasonable remonstrance, the only thing permitted to him, was not accepted by his superiors."—The Count de Montalembert, *The Monks of the West*, bk. 4, sect. 2 (v. 2).

ALSO IN: E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and Characters of the Middle Ages*, ch. 2.—S. R. Maitland, *The Dark Ages*, No. 10.—J. H. Newman, *Mission of St. Benedict* (*Hist. Sketches*, v. 2).—P. Schaff, *Hist. of the Christian Church*, v. 2, ch. 4, sect. 43-45.—E. F. Henderson, *Select Hist. Docs. of the Middle Ages*, bk. 3, no. 1.—See, also, CAPUCHINS.

**BENEFICIUM.—COMMENDATION.**—Feudalism "had grown up from two great sources—the beneficum, and the practice of commendation, and had been specially fostered on Gallic soil by the existence of a subject population which admitted of any amount of extension in the methods of dependence. The beneficiary system originated partly in gifts of land made by the kings out of their own estates to their kinsmen and servants, with a special undertaking to be faithful; partly in the surrender by landowners of their estates to churches or powerful men, to be received back again and held by them as tenants for rent or service. By the latter arrangement the weaker man obtained the protection of the stronger, and he who felt himself insecure placed his title under the defence of the Church. By the practice of commendation, on the other hand, the inferior put himself under the personal care of a lord, but without altering his title or divesting himself of his right to his estate; he became a vassal and did homage. The placing of his hands between those of his lord was the typical act by which the connexion was formed."—W. Stubbs, *Const. Hist. of Eng.*, ch. 9, sect. 98.

ALSO IN: H. Hallam, *The Middle Ages*, ch. 2, pt. 1.—See, also, SCOTLAND: 10TH-11TH CENTURIES.

**BENEFIT OF CLERGY.**—"Among the most important and dearly-prized privileges of the church was that which conferred on its members immunity from the operation of secular law, and relieved them from the jurisdiction of secular tribunals. . . . So priceless a

prerogative was not obtained without a long and resolute struggle. . . . To ask that a monk or priest guilty of crime should not be subject to the ordinary tribunals, and that civil suits between laymen and ecclesiastics should be referred exclusively to courts composed of the latter, was a claim too repugnant to the common sense of mankind to be lightly accorded. . . . The persistence of the church, backed up by the unfailing resource of excommunication, finally triumphed, and the sacred immunity of the priesthood was acknowledged, sooner or later, in the laws of every nation of Europe." In England, when Henry II. in 1164, "endeavored, in the Constitutions of Clarendon, to set bounds to the privileges of the church, he therefore especially attacked the benefit of clergy. . . . The disastrous result of the quarrel between the King and the archbishop [Becket] rendered it necessary to abandon all such schemes of reform. . . . As time passed on, the benefit of clergy gradually extended itself. That the laity were illiterate and the clergy educated was taken for granted, and the test of churchmanship came to be the ability to read, so that the privilege became in fact a free pardon on a first offence for all who knew their letters. . . . Under Elizabeth, certain heinous offences were declared felonies without benefit of clergy. . . . Much legislation ensued from time to time, effecting the limitation of the privilege in various offences. . . . Early in the reign of Anne the benefit of clergy was extended to all malefactors by abrogating the reading test, thus placing the unlettered felon on a par with his better educated fellows, and it was not until the present century was well advanced that this remnant of mediæval ecclesiastical prerogative was abolished by 7 and 8 Geo. iv. c. 28."—H. C. Lea, *Studies in Church Hist.*, pt. 2.

ALSO IN: W. Stubbs, *Const. Hist. of Eng.*, sect. 722-725 (ch. 19, v. 3).—See, also, ENGLAND: A. D. 1162-1170.

**BENEVENTO, OR GRANDELLA, Battle of (1266).** See ITALY (SOUTHERN): A. D. 1250-1268.

**BENEVENTUM: The Lombard Duchy.**—The Duchy of Beneventum was a Lombard fief of the 8th and 9th centuries, in southern Italy, which survived the fall of the Lombard kingdom in northern Italy. It covered nearly the territory of the modern kingdom of Naples. Charlemagne reduced the Duchy to submission with considerable difficulty, after he had extinguished the Lombard kingdom. It was afterwards divided into the minor principalities of Benevento, Salerno and Capua, and became part of the Norman conquest.—See ITALY (SOUTHERN): A. D. 800-1016; and 1000-1090; also, LOMBARDS: A. D. 573-774, and AMALFI.

**BENEVENTUM, Battle of (B. C. 275).** See ROME: B. C. 282-275.

**BENEVOLENCES.**—"The collection of benevolences, regarded even at the time [England, reign of Edward IV.] as an innovation, was perhaps a resuscitated form of some of the worst measures of Edward II. and Richard II., but the attention which it aroused under Edward IV. shows how strange it had become under the intervening kings. . . . Such evidence as exists shows us Edward IV. canvassing by word of mouth or by letter for direct gifts of money from his subjects. Henry III. had thus



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begged for new year's gifts. Edward IV. requested and extorted 'free-will offerings' from every one who could not say no to the pleadings of such a king."—W. Stubbs, *Const. Hist. of Eng.*, ch. 18, sect. 696.—See ENGLAND: A. D. 1471-1485.

**BENGAL**, The English acquisition of. See INDIA: A. D. 1755-1757; 1757; and 1757-1772.

**BENGAL**: "Permanent Settlement." See INDIA: A. D. 1785-1793.

**BENNINGTON**, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1777 (JULY—OCTOBER).

**BENTINCK**, Lord William, The Indian Administration of. See INDIA: A. D. 1823-1833.

**BENTONVILLE**, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1865 (FEBRUARY—MARCH: THE CAROLINAS).

**BEOTHUK**, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: BEOTHUKAN FAMILY.

**BERBERS**, The. See LIBYANS; NUMIDIANS; EGYPT, ORIGIN OF THE ANCIENT PEOPLE; and MAROCCO.

**BERENICE**, Cities of.—There were three cities of this name (given in honor of Berenice, mother of the second of the Ptolemies) on the Egyptian coast of the Red Sea, and a fourth in Cyrenaica.

**BERESINA**, Passage of the. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1812 (OCTOBER—DECEMBER).

**BERESTECZKO**, Battle of (1651). See POLAND: A. D. 1648-1654.

**BERGEN**, Battles of (1759 and 1799). See GERMANY: A. D. 1759 (APRIL—AUGUST); and FRANCE: A. D. 1799 (SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER).

**BERGEN-OP-ZOOM**, A. D. 1588.—The siege raised. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1588-1593.

A. D. 1622.—Unsuccessful siege by the Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1621-1633.

A. D. 1747-1748.—Taken by the French and restored to Holland. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1746-1747, and AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, THE CONGRESS.

**BERGER**. See BIGGER.

**BERGERAC**, Peace of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1577-1578.

**BERING SEA CONTROVERSY AND ARBITRATION**. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1886-1893.

**BERKELEY**, Lord, The Jersey Grant to. See NEW JERSEY: A. D. 1664-1667, to 1688-1738.

**BERKELEY**, Sir William, Government of Virginia. See VIRGINIA: A. D. 1642-1649, to 1660-1677.

**BERLIN**: A. D. 1631.—Forcible entry of Gustavus Adolphus. See GERMANY: A. D. 1631.

A. D. 1675.—Threatened by the Swedes. See BRANDENBURG: A. D. 1640-1688.

A. D. 1757.—Dashing Austrian attack. See GERMANY: A. D. 1757 (JULY—DECEMBER).

A. D. 1760.—Taken and plundered by the Austrians and Russians. See GERMANY: A. D. 1760.

A. D. 1806.—Napoleon in possession. See GERMANY: A. D. 1806 (OCTOBER).

A. D. 1848.—Mistaken battle of soldiers and citizens.—Continued disorder.—State of siege. See GERMANY: A. D. 1848 (MARCH), and 1848-1850.

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**BERLIN CONFERENCE** (1884-1885), The. See AFRICA: A. D. 1884-1889; and CONGO FREE STATE.

**BERLIN**, Congress and Treaty of. See TURKS: A. D. 1878.

**BERLIN DECREE**, The. See FRANCE: A. D. 1806-1810; and UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1804-1809.

**BERMUDA HUNDRED**. See HUNDRED.

**BERMUDA HUNDRED**, Butler's Army at. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MAY: VIRGINIA), THE ARMY OF THE JAMES.

**BERMUDAS**, or Somers Islands.—This group of small islands, situated in the western Atlantic, nearly 600 miles eastward of Cape Hatteras, was discovered in 1515 by a Spanish mariner, Juan Bermudes, and was well known throughout the next century, but never occupied. The region bore a bad reputation for storms. By the wrecking of the English ship "Sea Venture," with Admiral Sir George Somers on board, in 1609 (see VIRGINIA: A. D. 1609-1616), the islands were brought into relations with the Virginia colony, and were soon afterwards included in the grant to the Virginia Company, but sold presently to another colonizing company. An important British naval station has been established in the islands since 1810. "In the Atlantic they are to some extent what Mauritius is in the Indian Ocean, but far more of a fortress."—C. P. Lucas, *Hist. Geog. of the British Colonies*, v. 2, sect. 1.

**BERN**, Dietrich of. See VERONA: A. D. 493-525.

**BERNADOTTE**, Career of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1798-1799 (AUGUST—APRIL); 1799 (NOVEMBER); 1806 (JANUARY—OCTOBER); 1814 (JANUARY—MARCH); 1806-1807; SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1810; GERMANY: A. D. 1812-1813; 1813 (AUGUST), (SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER), (OCTOBER—DECEMBER).

**BERNARD**, St., and the Second Crusade. See CRUSADES: A. D. 1147-1149.

**BERNE**, A. D. 1353.—Joined to the original Swiss Confederation, or Old League of High Germany. See SWITZERLAND: A. D. 1332-1460.

A. D. 1798.—Occupation by the French.—The plundering of the Treasury. See SWITZERLAND: A. D. 1792-1798.

**BERNICIA**, The Kingdom of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 547-633; and SCOTLAND: 7th CENTURY.

**BERSERKER**. — **BÆRSÆRK**. — "The word Bærsærk is variously spelt, and stated to be derived from 'bar' and 'særk,' or 'bareshirt.' The men to whom the title was applied [among the Northmen] . . . were stated to be in the habit of fighting without armour, and wearing only a shirt of skins, or at times naked. In Iceland they were sometimes called *Ulfrhedin*, i. e., wolfskin. The derivation of Bærsærk has been questioned, as in philology is not uncommon. The habit of their wearing bear (*björn*) skins, is said to afford the meaning of the word. In philology, to agree to differ is best. The Bærsærks, according to the sagas, appear to have been men of unusual physical development and savagery. They were, moreover, liable to what was called Bærsærkegang, or a state of excitement in which they exhibited superhuman strength, and then spared neither friend nor foe. . . . After an attack of Bærsærk frenzy, it was

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believed that the superhuman influence or spirit left the Berserk's body as a 'ham,' or fast-off shape or form, with the result that the Berserk suffered great exhaustion, his natural forces being used up"—J F Vicary, *Saga Time*, ch 3

Also in B Du Chaillu, *The Viking Age*, v. 2, ch. 26

**BERWICK-UPON-TWEED: A. D. 1293-1333.**—Conquest by the English.—At the beginning, in 1293, of the struggle of the Scottish nation to cast off the feudal yoke which Edward I had laid upon it, the English king, marching angrily northwards, made his first assault upon Berwick. The citizens, whose only rampart was a wooden stockade, foolishly aggravated his wrath by gibes and taunts. "The stockade was stormed with the loss of a single knight, and nearly 8,000 of the citizens were mown down in a ruthless carnage, while a handful of Flemish traders who held the town hall stoutly against all assailants were burned alive in it. The town was ruined forever, and the great merchant city of the North sank from that time into a petty seaport." Subsequently recovered by the Scotch, Berwick was held by them in 1333 when Edward III attempted to seat Edward Balliol, as his vassal, on the Scottish throne. The English laid siege to the place, and an army under the regent Douglas came to its relief. The battle of Halidon Hill, in which the Scotch were utterly routed, decided the fate of Berwick. "From that time the town remained the one part of Edward's conquests which was preserved by the English crown. Fragment as it was it was viewed as legally representing the realm of which it had once formed a part. As Scotland it had its chancellor, chamberlain, and other officers of state, and the peculiar heading of acts of Parliament enacted for England 'and the town of Berwick-upon Tweed' still preserves the memory of its peculiar position"—J R Green, *Short Hist of the English People*, ch 4, sect 3 and 6

Also in J H Burton, *Hist of Scotland*, ch 17—See SCOTLAND A D 1290-1305

**BERWICK, Pacification of.** See SCOTLAND A D 1638-1640

**BERWICK, Treaty of.** See SCOTLAND A D 1558-1560

**BERYTUS.**—The colony of Berytus (modern Beirut) was founded by Agrippa, B C 15, and made a station for two legions

**A. D. 551.**—Its Schools—Its Destruction by Earthquake.—The city of Berytus, modern Beirut, was destroyed by earthquake on the 9th of July, A. D. 551. "That city, on the coast of Phœnicia, was illustrated by the study of the civil law, which opened the surest road to wealth and dignity: the schools of Berytus were filled with the rising spirits of the age, and many a youth was lost in the earthquake who might have lived to be the scourge or the guardian of his country"—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch 48.

**A. D. 1111.**—Taken by the Crusaders. See CRUSADES: A. D. 1104-1111

**BESANÇON: Origin.** See VESONTIO.

**A. D. 1152-1648.**—A Free City of the Empire. See FRANCE COMTÉ.

**A. D. 1674.**—Siege and capture by Vauban. See NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): A. D. 1674-1678.

## BEY

**BESSI, The.**—The Bessi were an ancient Thracian tribe who occupied the mountain range of Hæmus (the Balkan) and the upper valley of the Hebrus. They were subdued by Lucullus, brother of the conqueror of Mithridates—E H Bunbury, *Hist of Ancient Geog*, ch 18, sect 6

**BESSIN, The.**—The district of Bayeux. See SAXONS OF BAYEUX

**BETH-HORON, Battles of.**—The victory of Joshua over "the five kings of the Amorites" who laid siege to Gibeon, the decisive battle of the Jewish conquest of Canaan. "The battle of Beth horon or Gibeon is one of the most important in the history of the world, and yet so profound has been the indifference, first of the religious world, and then (through their example or influence) of the common world, to the historical study of the Hebrew annals, that the very name of this great battle is far less known to most of us than that of Marathon or Cannæ"—Dean Stanley, *Lects on the Hist of the Jewish Church*, lect 11—In the Maccabean war, Beth-horon was the scene of two of the brilliant victories of Judas Maccabeus, in B. C 167 and 162.—Josephus *Antiq of the Jews*, bk 12—Later, at the time of the Jewish revolt against the Romans, it witnessed the disastrous retreat of the Roman general Cestius

**BETHSHEMESH, Battle of.**—Fought by Joash, king of Israel, with Amaziah, king of Judah, defeating the latter and causing part of the walls of Jerusalem to be thrown down—2 *Chronicles*, 28

**BETH-ZACHARIAH, Battle of.**—A defeat suffered (B. C. 163) by the Jewish patriot, Judas Maccabeus, at the hands of the Syrian monarch Antiochus Eupator, the youngest of the Maccabees being slain—Josephus, *Antiq of the Jews*, bk 12, ch 9

**BETHZUR, Battle of.**—Defeat of an army sent by Antiochus, against Judas Maccabeus, the Jewish patriot, B. C. 165, Josephus, *Antiq. of the Jews*, bk 12, ch 7

**BEVERHOLT, Battle of (1381).** See FLANDERS A D 1379-1381

**BEY.—BEYLERBEY.—PACHA.—PAD-ISCIAH.**—"The administration of the [Turkish] provinces was in the time of Mahomet II. [the Sultan, A. D. 1451-1481, whose legislation organized the Ottoman government] principally intrusted to the Beys and Beylerbeys. These were the natural chiefs of the class of feudatories [Spahis], whom their tenure of office obliged to serve on horseback in time of war. They mustered under the Sanjak, the banner of the chief of their district, and the districts themselves were thence called Sanjaks, and their rulers Sanjak-beys. The title of Pacha, so familiar to us when speaking of a Turkish provincial ruler, is not strictly a term implying territorial jurisdiction, or even military authority. It is a title of honour, meaning literally the Shah's or sovereign's foot, and implying that the person to whom that title was given was one whom the sovereign employed.

The title of Pacha was not at first applied among the Ottomans exclusively to those officers who commanded armies or ruled provinces or cities. Of the five first Pachas, that are mentioned by Ottoman writers, three were literary men. By degrees this honorary title was appropriated to those whom the Sultan employed in war and set over districts and important

**TOWNS**, so that the word Pacha became almost synonymous with the word governor. The title Padischah, which the Sultan himself bears, and which the Turkish diplomatists have been very jealous in allowing to Christian Sovereigns, is an entirely different word and means the great, the imperial Schah or Sovereign. In the time of Mahomet II the Ottoman Empire contained in Europe alone thirty six Sanjaks, or banners around each of which assembled about 400 cavaliers.—Sir E S Creasy, *Hist of the Ottoman Turks*, ch 6

**BEYLAN, Battle of (1832).** See **TURKS** A D 1831-1840

**BEYROUT, Origin of.** See **BERYTUS**

**BEZANT, The.**—The bezant was a Byzantine gold coin (whence its name) worth a little less than ten English shillings—\$2 50

**BEZIERES, The Massacre at.** See **ALBIGENSES** A D 1209

**BHARADARS.** See **INDIA** A D 1805-1816

**BHONSLA RAJA, The.** See **INDIA** A D 1798-1805

**BHURTPORE, Siege of (1805).** See **INDIA** A D 1798-1805

**BIANCHI AND NERI (The Whites and Blacks).** See **FLORENCE** A D 1295-1300, and 1301-1313

**BIANCHI, or White Penitents.** See **WHITE PENITENTS**

**BIBERACH, Battles of (1796 and 1800).** See **FRANCE** A D 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER), and A D 1800-1801 (MAY—FEBRUARY)

**BIBLIOTHEQUE NATIONALE.** See **LIBRARIES, MODERN FRANCE**

**BIBRACTE.** See **GAUL**

**BIBROCI, The.**—A tribe of ancient Britons who dwelt near the Thames

**BICAMERAL SYSTEM, The.**—This term was applied by Jeremy Bentham to the division of a legislative body into two chambers—such as the House of Lords and House of Commons

**BICHAT, and physiological science.** See **MEDICAL SCIENCE, 18TH CENTURY**

**BICOQUE, OR BICOCCA, La, Battle of (1522).** See **FRANCE** A D 1520-1523

**BIG BETHEL, Battle of.** See **UNITED STATES OF AM** A D 1861 (JUNE VIRGINIA)

**BIG BLACK, Battle of the.** See **UNITED STATES OF AM** A D 1863 (APRIL—JULY: ON THE MISSISSIPPI)

**BIGERRIONES, The.** See **AQUITAINE, THE ANCIENT TRIBES**

**BIGI, OR GREYS, The.**—One of the three factions which divided Florence in the time of Savonarola, and after The Bigi, or Greys, were the partisans of the Medici

**BILL OF ATTAINDER.** See **ATTAINDER**

**BILL OF RIGHTS.** See **ENGLAND** A D 1689 (OCTOBER)

**BILLS OF EXCHANGE.** See **LAW, COMMON** A D 1603

**BILLAUD-VARENNE, and the French Revolutionary Committee of Public Safety.** See **FRANCE** A D 1793 (JUNE—OCTOBER), (SEPTEMBER—DECEMBER), to 1794-1795 (JULY—APRIL)

**BILOXIS, The.** See **AMERICAN ABORIGINES**

**BIMUAN FAMILY**

**BIMINI, The island of.** See **AMERICA** A D 1512

**BIRAPARACH, Fortress of.** See **JURUPACK**

**BIRGER, King of Sweden, A D 1290-1319** Birger, Regent, A D 1250-1266.

**BISHOPS' WARS, The.** See **SCOTLAND**: A D 1638-1640; and **ENGLAND** A D 1640

**BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO.** See **MELANESIA**

**BISMARCK'S MINISTRY.** See **GERMANY** A D 1861-1866, to 1880-1890, and **FRANCE**: A D 1870 (JUNE—JULY) 1870-1871, 1871 (JANUARY—MAY) and **PAPACY** A D 1870-1874

**BISSEXTILE YEAR.** See **CALENDAR, JULIAN**

**BITHYNIANS, THYNIANS.**—"Along the coast of the Euxine, from the Thracian Bosphorus eastward to the river Halys, dwelt Bithynians or Thynians, Mariandynians and Paphlagonians,—all recognized branches of the widely extended Thracian race. The Bithynians especially, in the northwestern portion of this territory, and reaching from the Euxine to the Propontis are often spoken of as Asiatic Thracians,—while on the other hand various tribes among the Thracians of Europe are denominated Thym or Thynians—so little difference was there in the population on the two sides of the Bosphorus, alike brave predatory, and sanguinary. The Bithynians of Asia are also sometimes called Bebrykians under which denomination they extend as far southward as the gulf of Kios in the Propontis.—G Grote, *Hist of Greece*, pt 2, ch 16.—The Bithynians were among the people in Asia Minor subjugated by Cræsus, king of Lydia, and fell, with his fall, under the Persian rule. But in some way not clearly understood, an independent kingdom of Bithynia was formed, about the middle of the 5th century B C which resisted the Persians successfully resisted Alexander the Great and his successors in Asia Minor, resisted Mithridates of Pontus, and existed until B C 74, when its last king Nicomedes III bequeathed his kingdom to Rome and it was made a Roman province

**BITONTO, Battle of (1734).** See **FRANCE** A D 1733-1735

**BITURIGES, The.** See **ÆDUI**, also **BOURGES ORIGIN OF**

**BIZOCHI, The.** See **BEGUINES, ETC**

**BIZYE.** See **THRACIANS**

**BLACK ACTS, The.** See **SCOTLAND** A D 1584

**BLACK DEATH, The.**—"The Black Death appears to have had its origin in the centre of China, in or about the year 1333. It is said that it was accompanied at its outbreak by various terrestrial and atmospheric phenomena of a novel and most destructive character, phenomena similar to those which characterized the first appearance of the Asiatic Cholera, of the Influenza, and even in more remote times of the Athenian Plague. It is a singular fact that all epidemics of an unusually destructive character have had their homes in the farthest East, and have travelled slowly from those regions towards Europe. It appears, too, that the disease exhausted itself in the place of its origin at about the same time in which it made its appearance in Europe. . . . The disease still exists under the name of the Levant or Oriental Plague, and is endemic in Asia Minor, in parts of Turkey, and in Egypt. It is specifically a disease in which the blood is poisoned, in which the system seeks to relieve itself by suppuration of the glands, and in which, the tissues becoming dis-



organized, and the blood thereupon being infiltrated into them, dark blotches appear on the skin. Hence the earliest name by which the Plague was described. The storm burst on the Island of Cyprus at the end of the year 1347, and was accompanied, we are told, by remarkable physical phenomena, as convulsions of the earth, and a total change in the atmosphere. Many persons affected died instantly. The Black Death seemed, not only to the frightened imagination of the people, but even to the more sober observation of the few men of science of the time, to move forward with measured steps from the desolated East, under the form of a dark and fetid mist. It is very likely that consequent upon the great physical convulsions which had rent the earth and preceded the disease, foreign substances of a deleterious character had been projected into the atmosphere. . . . The Black Death appeared at Avignon in January 1348, visited Florence by the middle of April, and had thoroughly penetrated France and Germany by August. It entered Poland in 1349, reached Sweden in the winter of that year, and Norway by infection from England at about the same time. It spread even to Iceland and Greenland. . . . It made its appearance in Russia in 1351, after it had well-nigh exhausted itself in Europe. It thus took the circuit of the Mediterranean, and unlike most plagues which have penetrated from the Eastern to the Western world, was checked, it would seem, by the barrier of the Caucasus. . . . Hecker calculates the loss to Europe as amounting to 25,000,000." —J. E. T. Rogers, *Hist. of Agriculture and Prices*, v. 1, ch. 15.

ALSO IN: J. F. C. Hecker, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*.—See, also, ENGLAND: A. D. 1348-1349; FRANCE: A. D. 1347-1348; FLORENCE: A. D. 1348; JEWS: A. D. 1348-1349.

**BLACK EAGLE**, Order of the.—A Prussian order of knighthood instituted by Frederick III., elector of Brandenburg, in 1701.

**BLACK FLAGS**, The. See FRANCE: A. D. 1875-1889.

**BLACK FRIARS**. See MENDICANT ORDERS.

**BLACK FRIDAY**. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1869.

**BLACK HAWK WAR**, The. See ILLINOIS: A. D. 1832.

**BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA**, The. See INDIA: A. D. 1755-1757.

**BLACK PRINCE**, The wars of the. See POITIERS; FRANCE: A. D. 1360-1380; and SPAIN (CASTILE): A. D. 1366-1369.

**BLACK ROBE**, Counsellors of the. See VENICE: A. D. 1032-1319.

**BLACK ROD**.—"The gentleman whose duty it is to preserve decorum in the House of Lords, just as it is the duty of the Sergeant-at-Arms to maintain order in the House of Commons. These officials are bound to execute the commands of their respective chambers, even though the task involves the forcible ejection of an obnoxious member. . . . His [Black Rod's] most disturbing occupation, now-a-days, is when he conveys a message from the Lords to the Commons. . . . No sooner do the policemen herald his approach from the lobbies than the doors of the Lower Chamber are closed against him, and he is compelled to ask for admission with becoming humility and humbleness. After this has been granted, he advances to the bar,

bows to the chair, and then—with repeated acts of obeisance—walks slowly to the table, where his request is made for the Speaker's attendance in the Upper House. The object may be to listen to the Queen's speech, or it may simply be to hear the Royal assent given to various bills. . . . The consequence is nearly always the same. The Sergeant-at-Arms shoulders the mace, the Speaker joins Black Rod, the members fall in behind, and a more or less orderly procession then starts on its way to the Peer's Chamber. . . . No matter what the subject under consideration, Black Rod's appearance necessitates a check . . . till the journey to the Lords has been completed. The annoyance thus caused has often found expression during recent sessions."—*Popular Account of Parliamentary Procedure*, p. 11.

**BLACK ROD**, of Scotland. See HOLY ROOD OF SCOTLAND.

**"BLACK WARRIOR"**, The case of the. See CUBA: A. D. 1850.

**BLACKBURN'S FORD**, Engagement at. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JULY: VIRGINIA).

**BLACKFEET**. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: BLACKFEET.

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

**BLAIR**, Francis P., Sr., in the "Kitchen Cabinet" of President Jackson. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1829.

**BLAIR**, General Francis P., Jr.—Difficulties with General Fremont. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (AUGUST-OCTOBER: MISSOURI).

**BLAKE**, Admiral Robert, Victories of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1652-1654.

**BLANC**, LOUIS, Industrial scheme of. See SOCIAL MOVEMENTS: A. D. 1840-1848.

**BLANCO**, General Guzman, The dictatorship of. See VENEZUELA: A. D. 1869-1892.

**BLAND SILVER BILL**, The. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1878.

**BLANKETEERS**, The. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1816-1820.

**BLENEAU**, Battle of (1652). See FRANCE: A. D. 1651-1653.

**BLENHEIM**, Battle of. See GERMANY: A. D. 1704.

**BLENNERHASSET**, Harman, and Aaron Burr. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1806-1807.

**BLENNERHASSETT'S ISLAND**.—An island in the Ohio, near Marietta, on which Harman Blennerhassett, a gentleman from Ireland, had created a charming home, at the beginning of the present century. He was drawn into Aaron Burr's mysterious scheme (see UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1806-1807); his island became the rendezvous of the expedition, and he was involved in the ruin of the treasonable project.

**BLOCK BOOKS**. See PRINTING: A. D. 1430-1456.

**BLOCK ISLAND**, The name. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1610-1614.

**BLOCKADE**, Paper.—This term has been applied to the assumption by a belligerent power, in war, of the right to declare a given coast or certain enumerated ports, to be in the state of blockade, without actual presence of blockading squadrons to enforce the declaration; as by the

British "Orders in Council," and the "Berlin" and "Milan Decrees" of Napoleon, in 1806-1807. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1804-1809.

**BLOIS, Treaties of.** See ITALY: A. D. 1504-1506.

**BLOOD COUNCIL, The.** See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1567.

**"BLOOD AND IRON" Speech of Bismarck.** See GERMANY: A. D. 1861-1866.

**BLOODY ANGLE, The.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MAY: VIRGINIA).

**BLOODY ASSIZE, The.** See ENGLAND: A. D. 1685 (SEPTEMBER).

**BLOODY BRIDGE, Ambuscade at (A. D. 1763).** See PONTIAC'S WAR.

**BLOODY BROOK, Battle of.** See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1675.

**BLOODY MARSH, The Battle of the.** See GEORGIA: A. D. 1738-1743.

**BLOREHEATH, Battle of (A. D. 1459).**—Fought on a plain called Bloreheath, near Drayton, in Staffordshire, England, Sept. 23, 1459, between 10,000 Lancastrians, commanded by Lord Andley, and about half that number of Yorkists under the Earl of Salisbury. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1455-1471.

**BLÜCHER'S CAMPAIGNS.** See GERMANY: A. D. 1806 (OCTOBER); 1812-1813; 1813 (APRIL—MAY) to (OCTOBER—DECEMBER); FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (JANUARY—MARCH), and 1815.

**BLUE, Boys in.** See BOYS IN BLUE.

**BLUE LAWS, New Haven.** See CONNECTICUT: A. D. 1639-1662.

**BLUE LICKS, Battle of (A. D. 1782).** See KENTUCKY: A. D. 1775-1784.

**BLUE-LIGHT FEDERALISTS.**—"An incident, real or imaginary, which had lately [in 1813] occurred at New London [Connecticut] was seized upon as additional proof of collusion between the Federalists and the enemy. [See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1812.] As the winter approached, Decatur had expected to get to sea with his two frigates. Vexed to find himself thwarted in every attempt by the watchfulness of the enemy, he wrote to the Navy Department in a fit of disgust, that, beyond all doubt, the British had, by signals or otherwise, instantaneous information of all his movements; and as proof of it, he stated that, after several nights of favorable weather, the report circulating in the town that an attempt was to be made to get out, 'in the course of the evening two blue lights were burned on both points of the harbor's mouth.' These 'signals to the enemy,' for such he unhesitatingly pronounced them, had been repeated, so he wrote, and had been seen by twenty persons at least of the squadron, though it does not appear that Decatur himself was one of the number. . . . Such a clamor was raised about it, that one of the Connecticut members of Congress moved for a committee of investigation. . . . The inquiry was . . . quashed; but the story spread and grew, and the more vehement opponents of the war began to be stigmatized as 'blue-light Federalists.'"—R. Hildreth, *Hist. of the U. S.*, v. 6, p. 467.

**BLUE PARTY (of Venezuela), The.** See VENEZUELA: A. D. 1829-1886.

**BLUE RIBBON, The Order of the.** See SERAPHEIM.

**BLUES, Roman Faction of the.** See CRESCUS, FACTIONS OF THE ROMAN.

**BOABDIL, The last Moorish King in Spain.** See SPAIN: A. D. 1476-1492.

**BOADICEA, Revolt of.** See BRITAIN: A. D. 61.

**BOAIRE, The.**—A "Cow-lord," having certain wealth in cattle, among the ancient Irish.

**BOARIAN TRIBUTE, The.**—Also called the *Boruwa*, or *Cow-tribute*. An humiliating exaction said to have been levied on the province of Leinster by a King Tuathal of Erin, in the second century, and which was maintained for five hundred years.

**BOCAGE, The.** See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (MARCH—APRIL).

**BOCLAND.—BOOKLAND.** See ALOD.

**BODLEIAN.** See LIBRARIES, MODERN.

**BÆOTARCHS.** See BÆOTIAN LEAGUE.

**BÆOTIA. — BÆOTIANS.**—"Between Phokis and Lokris on one side, and Attica (from which it is divided by the mountains Kithærôn and Parnes) on the other, we find the important territory called Bæotia, with its ten or twelve autonomous cities, forming a sort of confederacy under the presidency of Thebes, the most powerful among them. Even of this territory, destined during the second period of this history to play a part so conspicuous and effective, we know nothing during the first two centuries after 776 B. C. We first acquire some insight into it on occasion of the disputes between Thebes and Plataea, about the year 520 B. C."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 3.—In the Greek legendary period one part of this territory, subsequently Bæotian—the Copaic valley in the north—was occupied by the enterprising people called the Minyi, whose chief city was Orchomenus. Their neighbors were the Cadmeians of Thebes, who are "rich," as Grote expresses it, "in legendary antiquities." The reputed founder of Thebes was Cadmus, bringer of letters to Hellas, from Phœnicia or from Egypt, according to different representations. Dionysus (Bacchus) and Hēraklēs were both supposed to recognize the Cadmeian city as their birth-place. The terrible legends of Œdipus and his unhappy family connect themselves with the same place, and the incident wars between Thebes and Argos—the assaults of the seven Argive chiefs and of their sons, the Epigoni—were, perhaps, real causes of a real destruction of the power of some race for whom the Cadmeians stand. They and their neighbors, the Minyi of Orchomenus, appear to have given way before another people, from Thessaly, who gave the name Bæotia to the country of both and who were the inhabitants of the Thebes of historic times.—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, pt. 1, ch. 14.—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece*, bk. 1, ch. 4.—"That the Bæotia of history should never have attained to a significance corresponding to the natural advantages of the locality, and to the prosperity of the district in the pre-Homeric age, is due above all to one principal cause. The immigration of the Thessalian Bæotians, from which the country derived its name and the beginnings of its connected history, destroyed the earlier civilization of the land, without succeeding in establishing a new civilization capable of conducting the entire district to a prosperous and harmonious development. It cannot be said that the ancient germs of culture were suppressed, or that barbarous times supervened. The ancient seats of the gods and oracles continued to be

honoured and the ancient festivals of the Muses on Mount Helicon, and of the Charites at Orchomenus, to be celebrated. In Boeotia too the beneficent influence of Delphi was at work, and the poetic school of Hesiod, connected as it was with Delphi, long maintained itself here. And a yet stronger inclination was displayed by the Boeotian immigrants towards music and lyric poetry. The cultivation of the music of the flute was encouraged by the excellent reeds of the Copeaic morasses. This was the genuinely national species of music in Boeotia. . . . And yet the Boeotians lacked the capacity for attracting to themselves the earlier elements of population in such a way as to bring about a happy amalgamation. . . . The Boeotian lords were not much preferable to the Thessalian; nor was there any region far or near, inhabited by Greek tribes, which presented a harsher contrast in culture or manners, than the district where the road led from the Attic side of Mount Parnes across to the Boeotian."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece*, bk. 6, ch. 1.—See, also, GREECE: THE MIGRATIONS.

**BOEOTIAN LEAGUE.**—"The old Boeotian League, as far as its outward forms went, seems to have been fairly entitled to the name of a Federal Government, but in its whole history we trace little more than the gradual advance of Thebes to a practical supremacy over the other cities. . . . The common government was carried on in the name of the whole Boeotian nation. Its most important magistrates bore the title of Boeotarchs; their exact number, 11 or 13, is a disputed point. . . . Thebes chose two Boeotarchs and each of the other cities one."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. of Federal Govt.*, ch. 4, sect. 2.

**BOERHAAVE, and humoral pathology.** See MEDICAL SCIENCE: 17TH CENTURY.

**BOERS, Boer War.** See SOUTH AFRICA: A. D. 1806-1881.

**BOGDANIA.** See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES, 14TH-15TH CENTURIES (ROUMANIA, ETC.).

**BOGESUND, Battle of (1520).** See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: A. D. 1397-1527.

**BOGOMILIANS, The.**—A religious sect which arose among the Slavonians of Thrace and Bulgaria, in the eleventh century, and suffered persecution from the orthodox of the Greek church. They sympathized with the Iconoclasts of former times, were hostile to the adoration of the Virgin and saints, and took more or less from the heretical doctrines of the Paulicians. Their name is derived by some from the two Slavonian words, "Bog," signifying God, and "milui," "have mercy." Others say that "Bogumil," meaning "one beloved by God," was the correct designation. Basilios, the leader of the Bogomilians, was burned by the Emperor Alexius Comnenos, in the hippodrome, at Constantinople; A. D. 1118.—G. Finlay, *Hist. of the Byzantine and Greek Empires*, 716-1453, bk. 3, ch. 2, sect. 1.—See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES: 9TH-16TH CENTURIES (BOSNIA, ETC.).

**BOGOTA, The founding of the city (1538).** See COLOMBIAN STATES: A. D. 1536-1731.

**BOHEMIA, Derivation of the name.** See BOIAVS.

**Its people and their early history.**—"Whatever may be the inferences from the fact of Bohemia having been politically connected with the empire of the Germanic Marcomanni, whatever may be those from the element Boio-

as connecting its population with the Boii of Gaul and Bavaria (Baiovarii), the doctrine that the present Slavonic population of that kingdom—Tshekhs [or Czechs] as they call themselves—is either recent in origin or secondary to any German or Celtic aborigines, is wholly unsupported by history. In other words, at the beginning of the historical period Bohemia was as Slavonic as it is now. From A. D. 526 to A. D. 550, Bohemia belonged to the great Thuringian Empire. The notion that it was then Germanic (except in its political relations) is gratuitous. Nevertheless, Schaffarik's account is, that the ancestors of the present Tshekhs came, probably, from White Croatia: which was either north of the Carpathians, or each side of them. According to other writers, however, the parts above the river Kulpa in Croatia sent them forth. In Bohemian the verb 'ceti'='to begin,' from which Dobrowsky derives the name Czechs=the beginners, the foremost, i. e., the first Slavonians who passed westwards. The powerful Samo, the just Krok, and his daughter, the wise Libussa, the founder of Prague, begin the uncertain list of Bohemian kings, A. D. 624-700. About A. D. 722, a number of petty chiefs become united under Premysl the husband of Libussa. Under his son Nezamysl occurs the first Constitutional Assembly at Wysegrad; and in A. D. 845, Christianity was introduced. But it took no sure footing till about A. D. 966. Till A. D. 1471 the names of the Bohemian kings and heroes are Tshekhs—Wenceslaus, Ottokar, Ziska, Podiebrad. In A. D. 1564, the Austrian connexion and the process of Germanizing began. . . . The history and ethnology of Moravia is nearly that of Bohemia, except that the Marcomannic Germans, the Turks, Huns, Avars, and other less important populations may have effected a greater amount of intermixture. Both populations are Tshekhs, speaking the Tshekhs language—the language, probably, of the ancient Quadi."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 11.

**7th Century.**—The Yoke of the Avars broken.—The Kingdom of Samo. See AVARS: 7TH CENTURY.

**9th Century.**—Subject to the Moravian Kingdom of Svatopluk. See MORAVIA: 9TH CENTURY.

**13th Century.**—The King made a Germanic Elector. See GERMANY: A. D. 1125-1272.

**A. D. 1276.**—War of King Ottocar with the Emperor Rodolph of Hapsburg.—His defeat and death. See AUSTRIA: A. D. 1246-1282.

**A. D. 1310.**—Acquisition of the crown by John of Luxembourg. See GERMANY: A. D. 1308-1313.

**A. D. 1347.**—Charles IV. elected to the imperial throne. See GERMANY: A. D. 1347-1493.

**A. D. 1355.**—The succession fixed in the Luxemburg dynasty.—Incorporation of Moravia, Silesia, &c.—The diet of the nobles, in 1355, joined Charles IV. in "fixing the order of succession in the dynasty of Luxemburg, and in definitely establishing that principle of primogeniture which had already been the custom in the Premyslide dynasty. Moravia, Silesia, Upper Lusatia, Brandenburg, which had been acquired from the margrave Otto, and the county of Glatz (Kladsko), with the consent of



the diets of these provinces, were declared integral and inalienable portions of the kingdom of Bohemia."—L. Leger, *Hist. of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 11.

A. D. 1364.—Reversion of the crown guaranteed to the House of Austria. See AUSTRIA: A. D. 1330-1364.

A. D. 1378-1400.—Imperial election and deposition of Wenceslaus. See GERMANY: A. D. 1347-1493.

A. D. 1405-1415.—John Hus, and the movement of Religious Reformation.—"Some sparks of the fire which Wiclif had lighted [see ENGLAND: A. D. 1360-1414], blown over half Europe, as far as remote Bohemia, quickened into stronger activity a flame which for long years burned and scorched and consumed, defying all efforts to extinguish it. But for all this, it was not Wiclif who kindled the Bohemian fires. His writing did much to fan and feed them; while the assumed and in part erroneously assumed, identity of his teaching with that of Hus contributed not a little to shape the tragic issues of the Bohemian reformer's life. But the Bohemian movement was an independent and eminently a national one. If we look for the proper forerunners of Hus, his true spiritual ancestors, we shall find them in his own land, in a succession of earnest and faithful preachers. . . . John Hus (b. 1369, d. 1415), the central figure of the Bohemian Reformation, took in the year 1394 his degree as Bachelor of Theology in that University of Prague, upon the fortunes of which he was destined to exercise so lasting an influence; and four years later, in 1398, he began to deliver lectures there. . . . He soon signalized himself by his diligence in breaking the bread of life to hungering souls, and his boldness in rebuking vice in high places as in low. So long as he confined himself to reproving the sins of the laity, leaving those of the Clergy and monks unassailed, he found little opposition, nay, rather support and applause from these. But when [1405] he brought them also within the circle of his condemnation, and began to upbraid them for their covetousness, their ambition, their luxury, their sloth, and for other vices, they turned angrily upon him, and sought to undermine his authority, everywhere spreading reports of the unsoundness of his teaching. . . . While matters were in this strained condition, events took place at Prague which are too closely connected with the story that we are telling, exercised too great an influence in bringing about the issues that lie before us, to allow us to pass them by. . . . The University of Prague, though recently founded—it only dated back to the year 1348—was now, next after those of Paris and Oxford, the most illustrious in Europe. . . . This University, like that of Paris, on the pattern of which it had been modelled, was divided into four 'nations'—four groups, that is, or families of scholars—each of these having in academical affairs a single collective vote. These nations were the Bavariani, the Saxon, the Polish, and the Bohemian. This does not appear at first an unfair division—two German and two Slavonic; but in practical working the Polish was so largely recruited from Silesia, and other German or half-German lands, that its vote was in fact German also. The Teutonic votes were thus as three to one; and the Bohemians in their own land and their own University on every

important matter hopelessly outvoted. When, by aid of this preponderance, the University was made to condemn the teaching of Wiclif . . . matters came to a crisis. Urged by Hus, who as a stout patriot, and an earnest lover of the Bohemian language and literature, had more than a theological interest in the matter,—by Jerome [of Prague],—by a large number of the Bohemian nobility,—King Wenzel published an edict whereby the relations of natives and foreigners were completely reversed. There should be henceforth three votes for the Bohemian nation, and only one for the three others. Such a shifting of the weights certainly appears as a redressing of one inequality by creating another. At all events it was so earnestly resented by the Germans, by professors and students alike, that they quitted the University in a body, some say of five, and some of thirty thousand, and founded the rival University of Leipsic, leaving no more than two thousand students at Prague. Full of indignation against Hus, whom they regarded as the prime author of this affront and wrong, they spread throughout all Germany the most unfavourable reports of him and of his teaching. This exodus of the foreigners had left Hus, who was now Rector of the University, with a freer field than before. But Church matters at Prague did not mend; they became more confused and threatening every day; until presently the shameful outrage against all Christian morality which a century later did a still more effectual work, served to put Hus into open opposition to the corrupt hierarchy of his time. Pope John XXIII., having a quarrel with the King of Naples, proclaimed a crusade against him, with what had become a constant accompaniment of this,—Indulgences to match. But to denounce Indulgences, as Hus with fierce and righteous indignation did now, was to wound Rome in her most sensitive part. He was excommunicated at once, and every place which should harbour him stricken with an interdict. While matters were in this frame the Council of Constance [see PAPACY: A. D. 1414-1418] was opened, which should appease all the troubles of Christendom, and correct whatever was amiss. The Bohemian difficulty could not be omitted, and Hus was summoned to make answer at Constance for himself. He had not been there four weeks when he was required to appear before the Pope and Cardinals (Nov. 18, 1414). After a brief informal hearing he was committed to harsh durance from which he never issued as a free man again. Sigismund, the German King and Emperor Elect, who had furnished Hus with a safe-conduct which should protect him, going to the Council, tarrying at the Council, returning from the Council, was absent from Constance at the time, and heard with real displeasure how lightly regarded this promise and pledge of his had been. Some big words too he spoke, threatening to come himself and release the prisoner by force; but, being waited on by a deputation from the Council, who represented to him that he, as a layman, in giving such a safe-conduct had exceeded his powers, and intruded into a region which was not his, Sigismund was convinced, or affected to be convinced. . . . More than seven months elapsed before Hus could obtain a hearing before the Council. This was granted to him at last. Thrice heard (June 5, 7, 8, 1415),—if indeed such tumultuary sittings

where the man speaking for his life, and for much more than his life, was continually interrupted and overborne by hostile voices, by loud cries of 'Recant,' 'Recant,' may be reckoned as hearings at all,—he bore himself, by the confession of all, with courage, meekness and dignity." He refused to recant. Some of the articles brought against him, he said, "charged him with teaching things which he had never taught, and he could not, by this formal act of retraction, admit that he had taught them." He was condemned, sentenced to the stake, and burned, on the 6th of July, 1415. His friend, Jerome, of Prague, suffered the same fate in the following May.—R C Trench, *Lets on Medieval Church History*, lect 22

ALSO IN: E H Gillett, *Life and times of John Hus*—A H Wratislaw, *John Hus*—A Neander, *General Hist of Christian Religion*, v 9 pt 2

A. D. 1410.—Election of King Sigismund to the imperial throne. See GERMANY A D 1347-1493

A. D. 1419-1434.—The Hussite Wars.—The Reformation checked.—"The fate of Huss and Jerome created an instant and fierce excitement among the Bohemians. An address, defending them against the charge of heresy and protesting against the injustice and barbarity of the Council, was signed by 400 or 500 nobles and forwarded to Constance. The only result was that the Council decreed that no safe conduct could be allowed to protect a heretic, that the University of Prague must be reorganized, and the strongest measures applied to suppress the Hussite doctrines in Bohemia. This was a defiance which the Bohemians courageously accepted. Men of all classes united in proclaiming that the doctrines of Huss should be freely taught, and that no Interdict of the Church should be enforced. The University, and even Wenzel's queen, Sophia, favored this movement, which soon became so powerful that all priests who refused to administer the sacrament 'in both forms' were driven from the churches. When the Council of Constance was dissolved [1418], Sigismund [the Emperor] hastened to Hungary to carry on a new war with the Turks, who were already extending their conquests along the Danube. The Hussites in Bohemia employed this opportunity to organize themselves for resistance, 40,000 of them, in July, 1419, assembled on a mountain to which they gave the name of Tabor, and chose as their leader a nobleman who was surnamed Ziska, 'the one-eyed.' The excitement soon rose to such a pitch that several monasteries were stormed and plundered. King Wenzel arrested some of the ringleaders, but this only inflamed the spirit of the people. They formed a procession in Prague, marched through the city, carrying the sacramental cup at their head, and took forcible possession of several churches. When they halted before the city-hall, to demand the release of their imprisoned brethren, stones were thrown at them from the windows, whereupon they broke into the building and hurled the Burgomaster and six other officials upon the upheld spears of those below. . . . The Hussites were already divided into two parties, one moderate in its demands, called the Calixtines, from the Latin 'calix,' a chalice, which was their symbol [referring to their demand for the administration of the eucharistic cup to the laity,

or communion 'sub utraque specie'—whence they were also called 'Utraquists'], the other radical and fanatic, called the 'Taborites,' who proclaimed their separation from the Church of Rome and a new system of brotherly equality through which they expected to establish the Millennium upon earth. The exigencies of their situation obliged these two parties to unite in common defence against the forces of the Church and the Empire, during the sixteen years of war which followed, but they always remained separated in their religious views, and mutually intolerant. Ziska, who called himself 'John Ziska of the Chalice,' commander in the hope of God of the Taborites, had been a friend and was an ardent follower of Huss. He was an old man, bald headed, short, broad-shouldered, with a deep furrow across his brow, an enormous aquiline nose, and a short red moustache. In his genius for military operations, he ranks among the great commanders of the world, his quickness, energy and inventive talent were marvellous, but at the same time he knew neither tolerance nor mercy. Sigismund does not seem to have been aware of the formidable character of the movement, until the end of his war with the Turks, some months afterwards, and he then persuaded the Pope to summon all Christendom to a crusade against Bohemia. During the year 1420 a force of 100,000 soldiers was collected, and Sigismund marched at their head to Prague. The Hussites met him with the demand for the acceptance of the following articles: 1—The word of God to be freely preached, 2—The sacrament to be administered in both forms, 3—The clergy to possess no property or temporal authority; 4—All sins to be punished by the proper authorities. Sigismund was ready to accept these articles as the price of their submission, but the Papal Legate forbade the agreement, and war followed. On the 1st of November, 1420, the Crusaders were totally defeated by Ziska, and all Bohemia was soon relieved of their presence. The dispute between the moderates and the radicals broke out again, the idea of a community of property began to prevail among the Taborites, and most of the Bohemian nobles refused to act with them. Ziska left Prague with his troops and for a time devoted himself to the task of suppressing all opposition through the country, with fire and sword. He burned no less than 550 convents and monasteries, slaying the priests and monks who refused to accept the new doctrines. . . . While besieging the town of Raby, an arrow destroyed his remaining eye, yet he continued to plan battles and sieges as before. The very name of the blind warrior became a terror throughout Germany. In September, 1421, a second Crusade of 200,000 men, commanded by five German Electors, entered Bohemia from the west. . . . But the blind Ziska, nothing daunted, led his wagons, his fall-men, and mace-wielders against the Electors, whose troops began to fly before them. No battle was fought; the 200,000 Crusaders were scattered in all directions, and lost heavily during their retreat. Then Ziska wheeled about and marched against Sigismund, who was late in making his appearance. The two armies met on the 6th of January, 1422 [at Deutschbrod], and the Hussite victory was so complete that the Emperor narrowly escaped falling into their hands. . . . A third Crusade

was arranged and Frederick of Brandenburg (the Hohenzollern) selected to command it, but the plan failed from lack of support. The dissensions among the Hussites became fiercer than ever; Ziska was at one time on the point of attacking Prague, but the leaders of the moderate party succeeded in coming to an understanding with him, and he entered the city in triumph. In October, 1424, while marching against Duke Albert of Austria, who had invaded Moravia, he fell a victim to the plague. Even after death he continued to terrify the German soldiers, who believed that his skin had been made into a drum, and still called the Hussites to battle. A majority of the Taborites elected a priest, called Procopius the Great, as their commander in Ziska's stead; the others who thenceforth styled themselves 'Orphans,' united under another priest, Procopius the Little. The approach of another Imperial army, in 1426, compelled them to forget their differences, and the result was a splendid victory over their enemies. Procopius the Great then invaded Austria and Silesia, which he laid waste without mercy. The Pope called a fourth Crusade, which met the same fate as the former ones: the united armies of the Archbishop of Treves, the Elector Frederick of Brandenburg and the Duke of Saxony, 200,000 strong, were utterly defeated, and fled in disorder, leaving an enormous quantity of stores and munitions of war in the hands of the Bohemians. Procopius, who was almost the equal of Ziska as a military leader, made several unsuccessful attempts to unite the Hussites in one religious body. In order to prevent their dissensions from becoming dangerous to the common cause, he kept the soldiers of all sects under his command, and undertook fierce invasions into Bavaria, Saxony and Brandenburg, which made the Hussite name a terror to all Germany. During these expeditions one hundred towns were destroyed, more than 1,500 villages burned, tens of thousands of the inhabitants slain, and such quantities of plunder collected that it was impossible to transport the whole of it to Bohemia. Frederick of Brandenburg and several other princes were compelled to pay heavy tributes to the Hussites: the Empire was thoroughly humiliated, the people weary of slaughter, yet the Pope refused even to call a Council for the discussion of the difficulty. . . . The German princes made a last and desperate effort: an army of 130,000 men, 40,000 of whom were cavalry, was brought together, under the command of Frederick of Brandenburg, while Albert of Austria was to support it by invading Bohemia from the south. Procopius and his dauntless Hussites met the Crusaders on the 14th of August, 1431, at a place called Thaus, and won another of their marvellous victories. The Imperial army was literally cut to pieces, 8,000 wagons, filled with provisions and munitions of war, and 150 cannons, were left upon the field. The Hussites marched northward to the Baltic, and eastward into Hungary, burning, slaying, and plundering as they went. Even the Pope now yielded, and the Hussites were invited to attend the Council at Basel, with the most solemn stipulations in regard to personal safety and a fair discussion of their demands. . . . In 1433, finally 800 Hussites, headed by Procopius, appeared in Basel. They demanded nothing more than the acceptance of

the four articles upon which they had united in 1420; but after seven weeks of talk, during which the Council agreed upon nothing and promised nothing, they marched away, after stating that any further negotiation must be carried on in Prague. This course compelled the Council to act; an embassy was appointed, which proceeded to Prague, and on the 30th of November, the same year, concluded a treaty with the Hussites. The four demands were granted, but each with a condition attached which gave the Church a chance to regain its lost power. For this reason, the Taborites and 'Orphans' refused to accept the compact; the moderate party united with the nobles and undertook to suppress the former by force. A fierce internal war followed, but it was of short duration. In 1434, the Taborites were defeated [at Lipan, May 30], their fortified mountain taken, Procopius the Great and the Little were both slain, and the members of the sect dispersed. The Bohemian Reformation was never again dangerous to the Church of Rome."—B. Taylor, *Hist. of Germany*, ch. 22.

ALSO IN: C. A. Peschek, *Reformation and Anti-Reformation in Bohemia*, introductory ch. —E. H. Gillett, *Life and Times of John Hus*, v. 2, ch. 13-18.—E. de Schweinitz, *Hist. of the Ch. known as the Unitas Fratrum*, ch. 9.

A. D. 1434-1457.—Organization of the Utraquist National Church.—Minority of Ladislaus Posthumus.—Regency of George Podiebrad.—Origin of the Unitas Fratrum.—"The battle of Lipan was a turning point in the history of the Hussites. It put Bohemia and Moravia into the hands of the Utraquists, and enabled them to carry out their plans unhindered. The man who was foremost in shaping events and who became more and more prominent, until he exercised a commanding influence, was John of Rokycana. . . . At the diet of 1435 he was unanimously elected archbishop. . . . Meantime Sigismund endeavored to regain his kingdom. The Diet made demands which were stringent and humiliating; but he pledged himself to fulfill them, and on the 5th of July, 1436, at a meeting held with great pomp and solemnity, in the market-place of Iglau, was formally acknowledged as King of Bohemia. On the same occasion, the Compactata were anew ratified and the Bohemians readmitted to the fellowship of the mother church. But scarcely had Sigismund reached his capital when he began so serious a reaction in favor of Rome that Rokycana secretly left the city and retired to a castle near Pardubice (1437). The king's treachery was, however, cut short by the hand of death, on the 9th of December, of the same year, at Znaim, while on his way to Hungary; and his successor and son-in-law, Albert of Austria, followed him to the grave in 1439, in the midst of a campaign against the Turks. Bohemia was left without a ruler, for Albert had no children except a posthumous son [Ladislaus Posthumus]. —See HUNGARY: A. D. 1301-1442, and 1442-1458]. A time of anarchy began and various leagues arose, the most powerful of which stood under Baron Ptacek. . . . He . . . called an ecclesiastical convention at Kuttenberg (October 4th). This convention brought about far-reaching results. . . . Rokycana was acknowledged as Archbishop elect, the supreme direction of ecclesiastical affairs was committed into his hands,



the priests promised him obedience, and 24 doctrinal and constitutional articles were adopted which laid the foundation of the Utraquist Church as the National Church of Bohemia. But the Taborites stood aloof. . . . At last a disputation was agreed upon, "as the result of which the Taborites were condemned by the Diet. "They lost all prestige; their towns, with the exception of Tabor, passed out of their hands, their membership was scattered and a large part of it joined the National Church. In the following summer Ptacek died and George Podiebrad succeeded him as the head of the league. Although a young man of only 24 years, he displayed the sagacity of an experienced statesman and was distinguished by the virtues of a patriot. In 1448 a bold stroke made him master of Prague and constituted him practically Regent of all Bohemia; four years later his regency was formally acknowledged. He was a warm friend of Rokycana, whose consecration he endeavored to bring about. "When it was found that Rome could not be reconciled, there were thoughts of cutting loose altogether from the Roman Catholic and uniting with the Greek Church. "Negotiations were actually begun in 1452, but came to an abrupt close in the following year, in consequence of the fall of Constantinople. About the same time Ladislaus Posthumus, Albert's son, assumed the crown, Podiebrad remaining Regent. The latter continued the friend of Rokycana; the former, who was a Catholic, conceived a strong dislike to him. As soon as Rokycana had given up the hope of conciliating Rome, he began to preach, with great power and eloquence, against its corruptions. "It was at this time that a movement arose among certain of his followers which resulted in the formation of the remarkable religious body which called itself *Unitas Fratrum*. The leading spirit in this movement was Rokycana's nephew, commonly called Gregory the Patriarch. The teaching and influence which shaped it was that of Peter Chelcicky. Gregory and his companions, wishing to dwell together, in the Christian unity of which they had formed an ideal in their minds, found a retreat at the secluded village of Kunwald, on the estate of George Podiebrad. "The name which they chose was 'Brethren of the Law of Christ'—'*Fratres Legis Christi*', inasmuch, however, as this name gave rise to the idea that they were a new order of Monks, they changed it simply into 'Brethren.' When the organization of their Church had been completed, they assumed the additional title of '*Jednota Bratrska*,' or *Unitas Fratrum*, that is, the Unity of the Brethren, which has remained the official and significant appellation of the Church to the present day. . . . It was often abbreviated into 'The Unity.' Another name by which the Church called itself was 'The Bohemian Brethren.' It related to all the Brethren, whether they belonged to Bohemia, Moravia, Prussia or Poland. To call them The Bohemian-Moravian Brethren, or the Moravian Brethren, is historically incorrect. The name Moravian arose in the time of the Renewed Brethren's Church, because the men by whom it was renewed came from Moravia. . . . The organization of the *Unitas Fratrum* took place in the year 1457."—E. De Schweinitz, *Hist. of the Church known as Unitas Fratrum*, ch. 10-12.

A. D. 1458.—Election of George Podiebrad to the throne. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1442-1458.

A. D. 1458-1471.—Papal excommunication and deposition of the king, George Podiebrad.—A crusade.—War with the Emperor and Matthias of Hungary.—Death of Podiebrad and election of Ladislaus of Poland.—

George Podiebrad had scarcely ascended the throne before the Catholics, at the instigation of the pope, required him to fulfil his coronation oath, by expelling all heretics from the kingdom. He complied with their request, banished the Taborites, Picards, Adamites, and all other religious sects who did not profess the Catholic doctrines, and issued a decree that all his subjects should become members of the Catholic church, as communicants under one or both kinds. The Catholics, however, were not satisfied; considering the Calixtins as heretics, they entreated him to annul the compacts, or to obtain a new ratification of them from the new pope. To gratify their wishes he sent an embassy to Rome, requesting a confirmation of the compacts; but Pius, under the pretence that the compacts gave occasion to heresy, refused his ratification, and sent Fantino della Valle, as legate to Prague, for the purpose of persuading the king to prohibit the administration of the communion under both kinds. In consequence of this legation the king called a diet, at which the legate and the bishops of Olmutz and Breslau were present. The ill success of the embassy to Rome having been announced, he said, 'I am astonished, and cannot divine the intentions of the pope. The compacts were the only means of terminating the dreadful commotions in Bohemia, and if they are annulled, the kingdom will again relapse into the former disorders. The council of Basle, which was composed of the most learned men in Europe, approved and granted them to the Bohemians, and pope Eugenius confirmed them. They contain no heresy, and are in all respects conformable to the doctrines of the holy church. I and my wife have followed them from our childhood, and I am determined to maintain them till my death.' . . . Fantino replying in a long and virulent invective, the king ordered him to quit the assembly, and imprisoned him in the castle of Podiebrad, allowing him no other sustenance except bread and water. The pope, irritated by this insult, annulled the compacts, in 1463, and fulminated a sentence of excommunication against the king, unless he appeared at Rome within a certain time to justify his conduct. This bull occasioned a great ferment among the Catholics; Podiebrad was induced to liberate the legate, and made an apology to the offended pontiff; while Frederic, grateful for the assistance which he had recently received from the king of Bohemia, when besieged by his brother Albert, interposed his mediation with the pope, and procured the suspension of the sentence of excommunication. Pius dying on the 14th of August, 1464, the new pope, Paul II., persecuted the king of Bohemia with increasing acrimony. He sent his legate to Breslau to excite commotions among the Catholics, endeavoured without effect to gain Casimir, king of Poland, by the offer of the Bohemian crown, and applied with the same ill success to the states of Germany. He at length overcame the gratitude of the emperor by threats and promises, and at the diet of Nuremberg in 1467, the proposal of his legate Fantino, to form a crusade against the

heretic king of Bohemia was supported by the imperial ambassadors. Although this proposal was rejected by the diet the pope published a sentence of deposition against Podiebrad, and his emissaries were allowed to preach the crusade throughout Germany, and in every part of the Austrian territories. The conduct of Frederic drew from the king of Bohemia, in 1468, a violent invective against his ingratitude and a formal declaration of war; he followed this declaration by an irruption into Austria, spreading devastation as far as the Danube. Frederic in vain applied to the princes of the empire for assistance, and at length excited Matthias king of Hungary against his father-in-law, by offering to invest him with the kingdom of Bohemia. Matthias, forgetting his obligations to Podiebrad, to whom he owed his life and crown, was dazzled by the offer, and being assisted by bodies of German marauders, who had assumed the cross, invaded Bohemia. At the same time the intrigues of the pope exciting the Catholics to insurrection, the country again became a prey to the dreadful evils of a civil and religious war. The vigour and activity of George Podiebrad suppressed the internal commotions, and repelled the invasion of the Hungarians; an armistice was concluded, and the two kings, on the 4th of April, 1469, held an amicable conference at Sternberg, in Moravia, where they entered into a treaty of peace. But Matthias, influenced by the perfidious maxim, that no compact should be kept with heretics, was persuaded by the papal legate to resume hostilities. After overrunning Moravia and Silesia, he held a mock diet at Olmutz with some of the Catholic party, where he was chosen king of Bohemia, and solemnly crowned by the legate. Podiebrad, in order to baffle the designs both of the emperor and Matthias, summoned a diet at Prague and proposed to the states as his successor Ladislaus, eldest son of Casimir, king of Poland, by Elizabeth, second daughter of the emperor Albert. The proposal was warmly approved by the nation, . . . as the Catholics were desirous of living under a prince of their own communion, and the Calixtines anxious to prevent the accession of Frederic or Matthias, both of whom were hostile to their doctrines. The states accordingly assented without hesitation, and Ladislaus was unanimously nominated successor to the throne. The indignation of Matthias was inflamed by his disappointment, and hostilities were continued with increasing fury. The two armies, conducted by their respective sovereigns, the ablest generals of the age, for some time kept each other in check, till at length both parties, wearied by the devastation of their respective countries, concluded a kind of armistice, on the 22nd of July, 1470, which put a period to hostilities. On the death of Podiebrad, in the ensuing year, Frederic again presenting himself as a candidate, was supported by still fewer adherents than on the former occasion, a more numerous party espoused the interests of Matthias; but the majority declaring for Ladislaus, he was re-elected, and proclaimed king. Frederic supported Ladislaus in preference to Matthias, and by fomenting the troubles in Hungary, as well as by his intrigues with the king of Poland, endeavoured not only to dispossess Matthias of the throne of Bohemia, but even to drive him from that of Hungary."—W.

Coxe *Hist. of the House of Austria*, ch. 18 (v. 1).

A. D. 1471-1479.—War with Matthias of Hungary.—Surrender of Moravia and Silesia. See HUNGARY A. D. 1471-1487.

A. D. 1490.—King Ladislaus elected to the throne of Hungary. See HUNGARY A. D. 1487-1526.

A. D. 1516-1576.—Accession of the House of Austria.—The Reformation and its strength.—Alternating toleration and persecution.—

In 1489 Vladislav was elected to the throne of Hungary after the death of Mathias Corvinus. He died in 1516, and was succeeded on the throne of Bohemia and Hungary by his minor son, Louis, who perished in 1526 at the battle of Mohacz against the Turks [see HUNGARY A. D. 1487-1526]. An equality of rights was maintained between the Hussites and the Roman Catholics during these two reigns. Louis left no children, and was succeeded on the throne of Hungary and Bohemia by Ferdinand of Austria [see, also AUSTRIA A. D. 1496-1526], brother of the Emperor Charles V., and married to the sister of Louis, a prince of a bigoted and despotic character. The doctrines of Luther had already found a speedy echo amongst the Calixtines under the preceding reign, and Protestantism gained so much ground under that of Ferdinand, that the Bohemians refused to take part in the war against the Protestant league of Smalkalden, and formed a union for the defence of the national and religious liberties, which were menaced by Ferdinand. The defeat of the Protestants at the battle of Muhlberg in 1547, by Charles V., which laid prostrate their cause in Germany, produced a severe reaction in Bohemia. Several leaders of the union were executed, others imprisoned or banished, the property of many nobles was confiscated, the towns were heavily fined, deprived of several privileges, and subjected to new taxes. These measures were carried into execution with the assistance of German, Spanish, and Hungarian soldiers, and legalized by an assembly known under the name of the Bloody Diet. The Jesuits were also introduced during that reign into Bohemia. The privileges of the Calixtine, or, as it was officially called, the Utraquist Church, were not abolished, and Ferdinand, who had succeeded to the imperial crown after the abdication of his brother Charles V., softened, during the latter years of his reign, his harsh and despotic character. He died in 1564, sincerely regretting, it is said, the acts of oppression which he had committed against his Bohemian subjects. He was succeeded by his son, the Emperor Maximilian II., a man of noble character and tolerant disposition, which led to the belief that he himself inclined towards the doctrines of the Reformation. He died in 1576, leaving a name venerated by all parties. . . . Maximilian's son, the Emperor Rudolph, was educated at the court of his cousin, Philip II. of Spain, and could not be but adverse to Protestantism, which had, however, become too strong, not only in Bohemia, but also in Austria proper, to be easily suppressed; but several indirect means were adopted, in order gradually to effect this object."—V. Krasinski, *Lects. on the Religious Hist. of the Slavonic Nations*, lect. 2.

A. D. 1576-1604.—Persecution of Protestants by Rudolph. See HUNGARY: A. D. 1547-1604.

A. D. 1611-1618.—The Letter of Majesty, or Royal Charter, and Matthias's violation of it.—Ferdinand of Styria forced upon the nation as king by hereditary right.—The throwing of the Royal Counsellors from the window.—Beginning of the Thirty Years War.—In 1611, the Emperor Rodolph was forced to surrender the crown of Bohemia to his brother Matthias. The next year he died, and Matthias succeeded him as Emperor also. "The tranquillity which Rodolph II.'s Letter of Majesty [see GERMANY A. D. 1608-1618] had established in Bohemia lasted for some time, under the administration of Matthias, till the nomination of a new heir to this kingdom in the person of Ferdinand of Gratz [Styria]. This prince, whom we shall afterwards become better acquainted with under the title of Ferdinand II., Emperor of Germany, had, by the violent extirpation of the Protestant religion within his hereditary dominions, announced himself as an inexorable zealot for popery, and was consequently looked upon by the Roman Catholic part of Bohemia as the future pillar of their church. The declining health of the Emperor brought on this hour rapidly, and, relying on so powerful a supporter, the Bohemian Papists began to treat the Protestants with little moderation. The Protestant vassals of Roman Catholic nobles in particular, experienced the harshest treatment. At length several of the former were incautious enough to speak somewhat loudly of their hopes, and by threatening hints to awaken among the Protestants a suspicion of their future sovereign. But this mistrust would never have broken out into actual violence, had the Roman Catholics confined themselves to general expressions, and not by attacks on individuals furnished the discontent of the people with enterprising leaders. Henry Matthias, Count Thurn, not a native of Bohemia, but proprietor of some estates in that kingdom, had, by his zeal for the Protestant cause, and an enthusiastic attachment to his newly adopted country, gained the entire confidence of the Utraguists, which opened him the way to the most important posts. Of a hot and impetuous disposition, which loved tumult because his talents shone in it—rash and thoughtless enough to undertake things which cold prudence and a calmer temper would not have ventured upon—unscrupulous enough, where the gratification of his passions was concerned, to sport with the fate of thousands, and at the same time politic enough to hold in leading-strings such a people as the Bohemians then were. He had already taken an active part in the troubles under Rodolph's administration, and the Letter of Majesty which the States had extorted from that Emperor, was chiefly to be laid to his merit. The court had intrusted to him, as burgrave or castellan of Calstein, the custody of the Bohemian crown, and of the national charter. But the nation had placed in his hands something far more important—itsself—with the office of defender or protector of the faith. The aristocracy by which the Emperor was ruled, imprudently deprived him of this harmless guardianship of the dead, to leave him his full influence over the living. They took from him his office of burgrave, or constable of the castle, which had rendered him dependent on the court, thereby opening his eyes to the importance of the other which remained, and

wounded his vanity, which yet was the thing that made his ambition harmless. From this moment he was actuated solely by a desire of revenge; and the opportunity of gratifying it was not long wanting. In the Royal Letter which the Bohemians had extorted from Rodolph II., as well as in the German religious treaty, one material article remained undetermined. All the privileges granted by the latter to the Protestants, were conceived in favour of the Estates or governing bodies, not of the subjects, for only to those of ecclesiastical states had a toleration, and that precarious, been conceded. The Bohemian Letter of Majesty, in the same manner, spoke only of the Estates and the imperial towns, the magistrates of which had contrived to obtain equal privileges with the former. These alone were free to erect churches and schools, and openly to celebrate their Protestant worship. In all other towns, it was left entirely to the government to which they belonged, to determine the religion of the inhabitants. The Estates of the Empire had availed themselves of this privilege in its fullest extent; the secular indeed without opposition; while the ecclesiastical, in whose case the declaration of Ferdinand had limited this privilege, disputed, not without reason, the validity of that limitation. What was a disputed point in the religious treaty, was left still more doubtful in the Letter of Majesty.

In the little town of Klostergrab, subject to the Archbishop of Prague, and in Braunau, which belonged to the abbot of that monastery, churches were founded by the Protestants, and completed notwithstanding the opposition of their superiors, and the disapprobation of the Emperor. By the Emperor's orders, the church at Klostergrab was pulled down, that at Braunau forcibly shut up, and the most turbulent of the citizens thrown into prison. A general commotion among the Protestants was the consequence of this measure, a loud outcry was everywhere raised at this violation of the Letter of Majesty, and Count Thurn, animated by revenge, and particularly called upon by his office of defender, showed himself not a little busy in inflaming the minds of the people. At his instigation deputies were summoned to Prague from every circle in the empire, to concert the necessary measures against the common danger. It was resolved to petition the Emperor to press for the liberation of the prisoners. The answer of the Emperor, already offensive to the states, from its being addressed, not to them, but to his viceroy, denounced their conduct as illegal and rebellious, justified what had been done at Klostergrab and Braunau as the result of an imperial mandate, and contained some passages that might be construed into threats. Count Thurn did not fail to augment the unfavourable impression which this imperial edict made upon the assembled Estates. . . . He held it . . . advisable first to direct their indignation against the Emperor's counsellors, and for that purpose circulated a report, that the imperial proclamation had been drawn up by the government at Prague and only signed in Vienna. Among the imperial delegates, the chief objects of the popular hatred, were the President of the Chamber, Slawata, and Baron Martinitz, who had been elected in place of Count Thurn, Burgrave of Calstein. . . . Against two characters so unpopular the public indignation was easily ex-



cited, and they were marked out for a sacrifice to the general indignation. On the 23rd of May, 1618, the deputies appeared armed, and in great numbers, at the royal palace, and forced their way into the hall where the Commissioners Sternberg, Martinitz, Lobkowitz, and Slawata were assembled. In a threatening tone they demanded to know from each of them, whether he had taken any part, or had consented to, the imperial proclamation. Sternberg received them with composure, Martinitz and Slawata with defiance. This decided their fate; Sternberg and Lobkowitz, less hated, and more feared, were led by the arm out of the room, Martinitz and Slawata were seized, dragged to a window, and precipitated from a height of 80 feet, into the castle trench. Their creature, the secretary Fabricius, was thrown after them. This singular mode of execution naturally excited the surprise of civilized nations. The Bohemians justified it as a national custom, and saw nothing remarkable in the whole affair, excepting that any one should have got up again safe and sound after such a fall. A dunghill, on which the imperial commissioners chanced to be deposited, had saved them from injury. [The incident of the flinging of the obnoxious ministers from the window is often referred to as 'the defenestration at Prague'.] . . . By this brutal act of self redress, no room was left for irresolution or repentance, and it seemed as if a single crime could be absolved only by a series of violences. As the deed itself could not be undone, nothing was left but to disarm the hand of punishment. Thirty directors were appointed to organize a regular insurrection. They seized upon all the offices of state, and all the imperial revenues, took into their own service the royal functionaries and the soldiers, and summoned the whole Bohemian nation to avenge the common cause."—F. Schiller, *Hist. of the Thirty Years' War*, bk. 1, pp. 51-55.

Also in: S. R. Gardiner, *The Thirty Years' War*, ch. 2.—A. Gindely, *Hist. of the Thirty Years' War*, ch. 1.—F. Kohlrausch, *Hist. of Germany*, ch. 22.

A. D. 1618-1620.—Conciliatory measures defeated by Ferdinand.—His election to the Imperial throne, and his deposition in Bohemia.—Acceptance of the crown by Frederick the Palatine Elector.—His unsupported situation. See GERMANY: A. D. 1618-1620.

A. D. 1620.—Disappointment in the newly elected King.—His aggressive Calvinism.—Battle of the White Mountain before Prague.—Frederick's flight.—Annulment of the Royal charter.—Loss of Bohemian Liberties. See GERMANY: A. D. 1620, and HUNGARY: A. D. 1606-1660.

A. D. 1621-1648.—The Reign of Terror.—Death, banishment, confiscation, dragoonades.—The country a desert.—Protestantism crushed, but not slain.—"In June, 1621, a fearful reign of terror began in Bohemia, with the execution of 27 of the most distinguished heretics. For years the unhappy people bled under it; thousands were banished, and yet Protestantism was not fully exterminated. The charter was cut into shreds by the Emperor himself; there could be no forbearance towards 'such acknowledged rebels'. As a matter of course, the Lutheran preaching was forbidden under the heaviest penalties; heretical works, Bibles especially, were taken away in heaps. Jesuit

colleges, churches, and schools came into power; but this was not all. A large number of distinguished Protestant families were deprived of their property, and, as if that were not enough, it was decreed that no non-Catholic could be a citizen, nor carry on a trade, enter into a marriage, nor make a will; any one who harboured a Protestant preacher forfeited his property; whoever permitted Protestant instruction to be given was to be fined, and whipped out of town; the Protestant poor who were not converted were to be driven out of the hospitals, and to be replaced by Catholic poor; he who gave free expression to his opinions about religion was to be executed. In 1624 an order was issued to all preachers and teachers to leave the country within eight days under pain of death; and finally, it was ordained that whoever had not become Catholic by Easter, 1626, must emigrate. . . . But the real conversions were few; thousands quietly remained true to the faith; other thousands wandered as beggars into foreign lands, more than 30,000 Bohemian families, and among them 500 belonging to the aristocracy, went into banishment. Exiled Bohemians were to be found in every country of Europe, and were not wanting in any of the armies that fought against Austria. Those who could not or would not emigrate, held to their faith in secret. Against them dragoonades were employed. Detachments of soldiers were sent into the various districts to torment the heretics till they were converted. The 'Converters' (Seligmacher) went thus throughout all Bohemia, plundering and murdering. . . . No succour reached the unfortunate people, but neither did the victors attain their end. Protestantism and the Hussite memories could not be slain, and only outward submission was extorted. . . . A respectable Protestant party exists to this day in Bohemia and Moravia. But a desert was created, the land was crushed for a generation. Before the war Bohemia had 4,000,000 inhabitants, and in 1648 there were but 700,000 or 800,000. These figures appear preposterous, but they are certified by Bohemian historians. In some parts of the country the population has not attained the standard of 1620 to this day."—L. Häusser, *The Period of the Reformation*, ch. 32.

Also in: C. A. Peschek, *Reformation and Anti-Reformation in Bohemia*, v. 2.—E. de Schweinitz, *Hist. of the Church known as the Unitas Fratrum*, ch. 47-51.

A. D. 1631-1632.—Temporary occupation by the Saxons.—Their expulsion by Wallenstein. See GERMANY: A. D. 1631-1632.

A. D. 1640-1645.—Campaigns of Baner and Torstenson. See GERMANY: A. D. 1640-1645.

A. D. 1646-1648.—Last campaigns of the Thirty Years War.—Surprise and capture of part of Prague by the Swedes.—Siege of the old city.—Peace. See GERMANY: A. D. 1646-1648.

A. D. 1740.—The question of the Austrian Succession.—The Pragmatic Sanction. See AUSTRIA: A. D. 1718-1738, and 1740.

A. D. 1741.—Brief conquest by the French, Bavarians and Saxons. See AUSTRIA: A. D. 1741 (AUGUST-NOVEMBER), and (OCTOBER).

A. D. 1742 (January-May).—Prussian invasion.—Battle of Chotusitz. See AUSTRIA: A. D. 1742 (JANUARY-MAY).