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ANCIENT, MEDIEVAL & MODERN HISTORY

Summary of Events, Including Review Questions
Chronology, Lists of Rulers, and Map Exercises

by
J. A. RICKARD
ALBERT HYMA



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ANCIENT, MEDIEVAL & MODERN HISTORY

About the Authors

Professor Rickard received the degrees of M.A. and Ph.D. at the University of Texas. He has taught at the University of Texas, North Texas State Teachers College, Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, and the Texas College of Arts and Industries, where he is now professor of history. Dr. Rickard was one of the founders of the Tennessee Folklore Society, and for several years edited its publications. He is the author of the College Outline, *History of England*, and the co-author of *Introduction to American Government*, *Introduction to the Social Sciences*, and *Our National Constitution*. He has also contributed numerous articles to professional journals and popular magazines.

Professor Hyma received the degrees of M.A. and Ph.D. at the University of Michigan. He has taught history at that institution for thirty years. In addition, he has lectured at various foreign universities. In 1936 he was knighted by Queen Wilhelmina of Holland for his work on Dutch history. He is the author or coauthor of more than twenty books on historical and scholarly subjects, including the College Outline, *Ancient History*.

COLLEGE OUTLINE SERIES

ANCIENT, MEDIEVAL
& MODERN HISTORY

J. A. RICKARD

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PREFACE

It is not always clear to students and teachers in the general course in history. It is not always clear to students and teachers in the general course in history. It is not always clear to students and teachers in the general course in history.

To

James and Mary Adelyn

The author wishes to thank the publishers of the series, Messrs. Methuen & Co. Ltd., London, for their kind and generous offer of the use of their premises for the printing of this book. The author also wishes to thank the publishers of the series, Messrs. Methuen & Co. Ltd., London, for their kind and generous offer of the use of their premises for the printing of this book.

Thanks are also due to Mr. J. A. McKendrick for the valuable help and criticism which he has given to the author. Thanks are also due to Mr. J. A. McKendrick for the valuable help and criticism which he has given to the author.

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PREFACE

This volume should aid students and teachers in the general survey course in history. It should prove a valuable supplement to the textbook and should help the teacher in organizing the course and the student in reviewing it. The questions may be used in oral or written review or to provide material for tests. Teachers who conduct their courses on the multiple text plan will find the reading references especially suggestive. The incompleting maps provide exercises in the geography of history, a phase of activity too often neglected by teachers.

Special attention is called to the statement of aims and the lists of important dates at the beginning of each chapter, both of which should serve as signposts for the student. Each chapter, though a separate unit, forms a part of a continuous whole. While no attempt is made to provide for each individual lesson hour, nevertheless the work as a whole covers an ordinary school year, and the day-by-day assignments can be made easily from the outline.

This, the twelfth edition of *An Outline of Ancient, Medieval and Modern History*, differs from earlier volumes chiefly in the addition of material on the problems following World War II. Certain mistakes in earlier volumes have been corrected, and a number of passages have been revised in the light of recent developments.

Thanks are due to Mrs. J. A. Rickard for the execution of the map exercises and to Dean A. W. Smith, of Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, for aid in preparing the original outline and for proof reading the manuscript. Professor May H. Dickens, of the Texas College of Arts and Industries, has offered valuable suggestions as to the contents, and Miss Goldie Young has acted as typist for part of the manuscript and as proofreader for the rest of it. To these and to all others who have aided in the effort, the authors are grateful.

J. A. R.—A. H.

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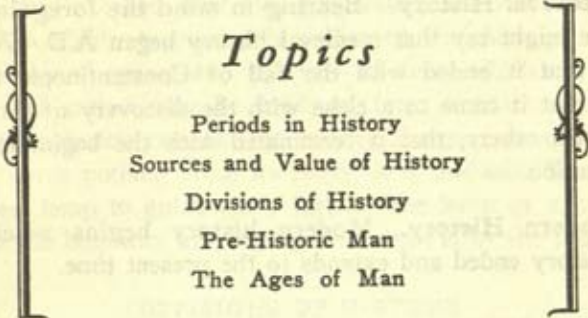
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Topics

- Periods in History
- Sources and Value of History
- Divisions of History
- Pre-Historic Man
- The Ages of Man

CHAPTER I

PRE-HISTORY

*Purpose: To Approach the Study of History;
to Learn of Pre-historic Man.*

The New International Dictionary defines history as: "A narrative of events connected with a real or imaginary object, person, or career . . . a systematic written account of events, particularly of those affecting a nation, institution, science, or art, and usually connected with a philosophical explanation of their causes. . . . The branch of knowledge that records and explains past events as steps in human progress." In the light of this definition it appears at once that history is one of the most highly cultural and useful studies in the curriculum.

PERIODS IN HISTORY

Ancient History. Strictly speaking, ancient history began with the beginning of written records. As a matter of practice, however, many historians include in this field the long period of pre-history also. The most commonly accepted end of the

period of ancient history is the fall of the Roman Empire of the West, 476 A.D. One cannot be too exact, however, for movements or periods of history do not have definite beginnings and endings.

Medieval History. Bearing in mind the foregoing warning, one might say that medieval history began A.D. 476. Some record that it ended with the fall of Constantinople in 1453; others, that it came to a close with the discovery of America in 1492; still others, that it terminated with the beginning of the Reformation.

Modern History. Modern history begins where medieval history ended and extends to the present time.

SOURCES AND VALUE OF HISTORY

Sources. Written records, which are found on stones, pieces of bone, or leaves, or in chronicles, letters, and treaties, are the most common sources for later history. Inscriptions, remains of ancient art, weapons, kitchen middens, ornaments, utensils, and dwellings are also sources. A few peoples still exist with elements of primitive civilization; these are also useful for study. When the historian says "No document, no history," he uses the term "document" in its broadest sense.

Why Study History? Many students study history to gain credit-hours, or because it is required in their curricula. Some doubtless like the subject and pursue it because they can learn it easily. In the old days, when Latin and Greek formed the principal studies, ancient history was used to form a background for the Classics. All these motives are, to a certain extent, creditable.

More Important Motives. Historical study teaches a student to use books correctly; and that accomplishment, in a day when most knowledge is derived from books, is important. He learns facts, then learns how to evaluate them and place them in their proper relationship. He gains a better understanding of other races and nations; he knows how to appreciate their views and actions, their good and bad qualities. His judgment is trained

in the consideration of the many complicated situations which history presents. He learns to love his own particular state or nation while studying its annals; indeed, he can not exercise the functions of citizenship to the best advantage unless he does have such training. In studying of other peoples and times, he learns wherein they excelled, how they progressed, and what he owes to them. His ability to reason is cultivated, for history is simply a succession of causes and effects — of facts which are not unrelated, but rather may be made to form a continuous whole. Despite the cynic's remark that history always repeats itself and that we learn nothing from its pages, it is undoubtedly true that the surest lamp to guide one's feet is "the lamp of experience," and that the best way of judging the future is by the past.

DIVISIONS OF HISTORY

Pre-history — The Stone Ages. Although historians differ in terminology, they generally agree in dividing the pre-historic period into three ages corresponding with the material from which man fashioned his weapons and with the skill he showed in making them. These divisions are the old stone age, the middle stone age, and the late stone age. Some add a fourth which they call the age of metals. But some primitive peoples did not reach this stage at all, and still others attained it after they had developed a written language, and had thus passed out of the pre-historic period.

History According to Time and Place. Most historians cling to the time division of ancient, medieval, and modern history, but a few insist on adding an ultra-modern period dating from 1900 to the present. According to place, Oriental, or eastern history, and Occidental, or western history, are often mentioned in this connection. Oriental history may have reference to the Far East — Japan, China, and neighboring regions — or it may refer to the Near East, which embraces Western Asia and other nearby areas. Since the people of the Near East have played the most important rôle in our past, we shall confine our study largely to them, mentioning the Far East only when we come into direct contact with it in modern times.

PRE-HISTORIC MAN

Evidences of His Existence. Even though written records do not begin until comparatively late, many tombs and cities have been uncovered, weapons have been found, homes have been located, and other proofs discovered, all of which tell us about primitive man. He differed from animals in that he walked in an upright manner, made extensive use of his hands, especially his thumbs, had the power of speech, possessed a brain greatly developed so as to give him the power of sustained reasoning, and was capable of political organization.

Institutions of Present-Day Savages. The Tasmanians have been a modern example of a people who have progressed little since ancient times. They wore no clothing, had neither roofed houses nor bows and arrows, had no domesticated plants or animals, and possessed only a limited knowledge of the uses of fire. But even these people made fires, had stone spears and knives, made pottery, and spoke a crude language — arts which primitive man learned slowly and painfully. The pre-historic European was at one time no more advanced than the Tasmanian of a century ago.

THE AGES OF MAN

The Old Stone Age. At this stage of development, man's food was chiefly roots, seeds, nuts, berries, fruits, or small game and fish, eaten raw. He wore no clothing, except possibly a girdle at the waist. Usually he did not have a fixed abode, but sometimes he took shelter in caves or the tops of trees for protection from enemies. His weapons were made of rough stone, shaped by percussion or blows. Wooden clubs or other weapons may have been used, but if so, none have survived. He used the fist hatchet to cut roots and branches, to kindle fires, to hew clubs, and to combat his enemies. His occupations were concerned with securing food and hence were chiefly hunting and foraging; there was no agricultural or pastoral life. He finally discovered the use of fire, probably accidentally, and also began to develop a crude language. He lived in warm regions, probably first in Western Asia.

The Middle Stone Age. During the middle stone age, man's weapons were made of flint, with pressure-chipped edges. The bow and arrow, as well as the spear, were added, and ivory was used. More meat than before was eaten, skins were prepared for clothing, and the cave became a common abode. The man of the middle stone age could draw, carve, and paint. He had definite religious ideas, as is demonstrated by the fact that he was buried in full dress and with the tools of life, his resting place often being beneath his own hearth.

The Late Stone Age. In Europe and Asia the climate changed and the ice of great glaciers melted, thereby altering man's living conditions and bringing the late stone age. Man's tools were now made with whetstone edges and were equipped with handles. New weapons included the axe, chisel, knife, drill, and saw. Millet, barley, and wheat were domesticated, as were the jackal and later the ox. Along the shores of Swiss lakes have been found houses that contained wooden furniture, pitchers, spoons, pottery, vessels, and other household implements. The change to agriculture, which some made, brought a more permanent dwelling place, less hunting, and definite land ownership.

The Age of Metals. In some places, copper, bronze, and iron displaced stone in weapon making. War and slavery became more important, and class distinctions began to appear. Man began to live in cities, to have kings, and to engage in river, coastal, and caravan trade. In the Nile valley he practiced irrigation; in Sumeria he made gold, silver, and copper vessels; in Asia Minor and the Black Sea region he produced many iron implements; and in Crete he used bronze vessels and copper ornaments. Recent excavations indicate that in northern Mesopotamia civilized man lived as early as about 5000 B.C.

QUESTIONS

1. Define: history, ancient history, medieval history, modern history, kitchen middens, Orient, Occident, Near East, Far East.
2. From what sources do we learn history?
3. Why should one study history? Discuss.
4. Name and explain the divisions of history and pre-history.
5. Who are the Tasmanians? To what extent are they civilized?
6. Trace the progress of the stone age man in food, clothing, shelter, occupations, and weapons.

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Significant Dates

Upper and Lower Egypt United	3000 B.C.
Egyptian Calendar Invented	2776 B.C.
Age of Hammurapi . . .	2050-1950 B.C.
The Hyksos Conquer Egypt	1750 B.C.
Assyrian Supremacy . . .	745-606 B.C.

CHAPTER II

ANCIENT EGYPT, BABYLONIA, AND ASSYRIA

*Purpose: To Learn about the Civilization of the
Oldest Nations of the Ancient Near East.*

Egypt may not have been the first country to produce civilized life, but it was the first to achieve political unity and thereby to become a great state. Furthermore, no country in the ancient world enjoyed so long a period of union and independence as did Egypt. For that reason our story opens with its history.

EGYPT

The Land and the People. The Nile River is the heart of Egypt. This stream, rising in east central Africa, flows northward and overflows its valley once a year, thereby changing a desert into a garden. Its valley averages ten miles in width and contains about ten thousand square miles. On each side lies a desert plateau, except near the mouth, where the Nile deposits the remainder of its sediment and broadens into a delta.

The Earliest Inhabitants. Into this valley came stone age man. Though he had only stone tools at first, he soon became a farmer and cultivated barley, flax, and wheat. Each river village had its own chief, who collected tolls and forced his villagers to pay a tax in grain.

EARLIEST CULTURAL DEVELOPMENTS

Development of the Alphabet. This great boon to humanity is, perhaps, Egypt's supreme gift to civilization. It grew by distinct stages. The first step was a picture writing, in which drawings represented ideas, not words. The second step was the phonetic stage, where each object developed a fixed form and stood for a special word and finally a syllable. This made possible compound words and word combinations and eliminated pictures. But the Egyptians took still a third step and created an alphabet, in which a sign represented an elemental sound, and in which only a few signs were needed. Materials for writing were soon utilized: an ink was made of vegetable gum and soot; the papyrus, or river reed, was used to write on; and a pen was manufactured from a pointed reed.

The Egyptian Calendar. The moon month first came into use to measure time, but it proved impracticable, for it varied in length and did not exactly divide the year. The Egyptians, therefore, invented a calendar (2776 B.C.) of twelve months of thirty days each, with five additional feast days. At first they named each year after some person or event, but later they numbered the years consecutively.

THE PYRAMID AGE OR THE OLD KINGDOM

(2980-2270 B. C.)

The Pyramids. These giant structures of stone, which now attract so much attention, originally served as tombs for kings, who had constructed them, probably, with forced labor, and by methods of engineering that are not now known. The pyramids indicate that the Egyptian had learned to use metal implements skillfully. The largest pyramid, Cheops, covers thirteen acres at the base and is one of the largest structures in the world.

Government. One powerful king, Pharaoh, ruled, and to him the Egyptians paid religious devotion. The capital, Memphis, located near the pyramids, contained the palace and its gardens and served as the home of many subjects, soldiers, and officials. The law was written. Taxes were collected in produce.

Economic Life. Shipping, both by river and by caravan, was important. Caravans made long journeys, bringing back such articles as ebony, ivory, and vegetable gums. Grains grown by forced labor, often by irrigation, were the principal crops.

Classes of Society. The nobles lived luxuriously and filled important government positions. Soldiers and government officials gradually secured control of much land. The priests attended the temples, paid no taxes, and did not serve in the army. Freemen and slaves, the most numerous classes, worked the land but owned little of it.

Art and Architecture. Houses contained beautifully carved and decorated furniture, massive architecture, life-like portrait sculpture, and elaborate carpets, paintings, and pictures. Artists, though skilled, lacked a knowledge of perspective.

Religion. The Egyptians worshiped many gods, some national, and some local. Sacred animals were the crocodile, the bull, and the cat. They believed that a person's spirit, or double, survived after his death. For that reason they tried to preserve the dead bodies for the use of the spirit. This process is called mummification. Osiris was the ruler of the dead.

SUBSEQUENT HISTORY

The Feudal Age, or the Middle Kingdom (2060-1788 B.C.). The kings of Memphis were supreme. Many libraries of the period have been uncovered. The writings deal with poetry, drama, medicine, anatomy, geometry, astronomy, and algebra. Trade by land and sea was increasing. The Hyksos conquered Egypt (1750 B.C.), destroyed records, and ruled through tributary kings. They adopted Egyptian culture.

The Empire (1600-1200 B.C.). A native ruler expelled the Hyksos and ruled from Thebes. His successors conquered Ethiopia and Syria and extended the empire to the Tigris River. All this required a large standing army and a highly centralized administration. Even so, Egyptian kings could not hold all they had gained; the Hittites seized much territory in Syria, the Libyans overran other territory (1320 B.C.), and the Hebrew serfs escaped from bondage.

Decline. About five centuries of decline followed until in 672 B.C., Egypt was conquered by the Assyrians. After a period of freedom came Persian conquerors; then Alexander the Great. Next came the kingdom of the Ptolemies, then Roman rule. The Turks later gained control, until a native ruler, Mehemet Ali, practically gained Egypt's freedom in 1841. From 1914 to 1922 Egypt was a protectorate of England; the country is now ruled by a premier and a cabinet.

ANCIENT BABYLONIA AND ADJOINING REGIONS

The Waters. To the north lie the Black and Caspian seas, while to the south lies the Indian Ocean. The Tigris and Euphrates rivers rise in the mountains of Asia Minor and empty into the Persian Gulf, enriching their valleys as does the Nile its valley. Between Asia and Africa lies the Red Sea, while along the northeast coast is the Mediterranean.

The Land. The Fertile Crescent extends in a huge semi-circle from the Persian Gulf on the east, around the Arabian Peninsula to Palestine on the west. It is a well-watered fertile region, quite different from the Arabian Desert, which has only a slight winter rainfall and contains no permanent rivers of considerable length.

The People. In the Arabian Desert lived a semi-nomadic Semitic people, who raised stock, traveled in caravans, and traded. They had a tribal government. Most of the people, though, lived in the Fertile Crescent, and especially in the Plain of Shinar, in its lower eastern reaches.

Sumeria. The Plain of Shinar, called Babylonia after 2100 B.C., was a fertile region that contained about eight thou-

sand square miles of land. About 3500 B.C. it was inhabited by the Sumerians. These people lived in cities when history began there, cultivated the land, raised stock, and engaged in river trade. They had reached the phonetic stage of cuneiform writing and had a moon month calendar, a numeral system, and a religious center at Nippur. They had temples and gods of the air, earth, sky, and sea, but seemed to have little conception of a hereafter.

The Akkadian Conquest. The Akkadians were a Semitic people from the desert, who settled to the north of the Sumerians. Because of their open style of fighting they were at first unsuccessful in their conflicts with their southern neighbors. Later, however, a powerful chief, Sargon, established his rule over all the Plain of Shinar. After this conquest the Akkadians quit their nomadic life, adopted Sumerian civilization, and eventually fused with the conquered people. They gradually created a considerable body of myths and legends, such as the stories of Adapa, Etana, and Gilgamesh. They also had their version of the flood.

The Age of Hammurapi. Another group of desert Semites invaded the region, made Babylon their capital, and finally conquered the old Sumeria and Akkadia. The land was then called Babylonia. Their greatest king was Hammurapi. He made the Euphrates river navigable again, reformed the calendar, collected taxes carefully and uniformly, dispensed justice evenly, and otherwise showed himself a great ruler. Perhaps his greatest contribution was a code of laws, in which he collected and systematized all the existing customs and added new regulations of his own. Farming and commerce were the principal occupations. Marduk and Ishtar were the chief dieties. Divination by examining the liver of a sheep and by observation of the stars was developed. Education was in charge of the priests. Although little architecture has survived, it is known that the arch and the tower were used. The kingdom was finally overcome by the Kassites, a mixed people from the Zagros mountains.

ASSYRIA

Early History. Assur, the early capital, was founded about 3000 B.C. by Semitic nomads, who early adopted the Sumerian civilization. Its location in the mountains northeast of

Arabia gave it an invigorating climate and supplied it with plenty of building stones. Nineveh was the later capital. The region was tributary to the Babylonian Empire and the Hittites until 1300 B.C., after which it became independent.

Period of Greatness. After achieving their freedom, the Assyrians started on a career of expansion. They conquered Damascus, Tarsus, Ionia, Babylonia, Egypt, and Palestine — indeed, they founded the greatest empire that had existed up to that time. These achievements seem all the more remarkable when one considers the number and strength of Assyria's rivals. The Phoenicians, on the Mediterranean coast, established a thriving city-state government, with commerce as the basis of its prosperity. The Hebrews were already occupying Palestine. The Syrians, a trading people, with Damascus as the leading city, held the Assyrians at bay for three centuries. They obtained the alphabet from the Hebrews and Phoenicians and spread it. Their language supplanted the native Hebrew tongue. All these people offered stubborn resistance to Assyrian conquests.

Decline. The harshness of Assyrian rule made many enemies. Death was the usual treatment meted out to enemies taken in battle. Subject-states were ruled by provincial governors, who collected heavy taxes, maintained an army of occupation at local expense, and recruited it locally. Beset by the Chaldeans, Medes, Persians, and other enemies, Assyria fell, and its capital, Nineveh, became a pile of ruins (612 B.C.).

Assyrian Contributions. The Assyrians received the cuneiform signs from Babylonia and improved them before handing them on to others. They gave to the world the first great example of an empire. Their capital, Nineveh, was famed for its buildings and libraries. Especially did they affect Hebrew history, although they also influenced to some extent all their contemporaries.

CHALDEA

Rise and Decline. Another Semitic desert people known as the Kaldi, or Chaldeans, invaded and conquered Babylonia; then from that vantage point turned and overcame the Assyrians. They rebuilt Babylon, which became their capital, and under their

king, Nebuchadnezzar, made it the center of a mighty empire, although it was a short-lived one (612-536 B.C.). Nebuchadnezzar is best known for his act in carrying off the Hebrews into captivity, and for having built the Hanging Gardens of Babylon. After his death the empire declined rapidly and shortly was overrun by the Medes and Persians.

Contributions. The Chaldeans carried on a flourishing commerce and business life and left many clay tablets that tell of their civilization. In the realm of astronomy, they divided the circle into 360 degrees, originated the signs of the Zodiac, and named five planets after their gods.

ESTIMATE OF THE MOST ANCIENT CIVILIZATION

Achievements in the Near East. Many inventions may be credited to the people of the Ancient Near East, especially in metal work, weaving, glass making, and sea-going ships. In the field of architecture they used the colonnade, the arch, and the tower; in sculpture they made many colossal figures and statues. They gave to the world its first alphabet, calendar, and systems of weights, measures, and coinage. In literature they produced myths, legends, histories, poetry, and dramas. They also founded the first great empire. Probably their most lasting contribution was in the realm of religion.

Limitations. There was practically no democracy, or rule by the people. Furthermore, there was much superstition—all events were attributed to the gods.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the Nile valley, and show how its geography affected the history of Egypt.
2. Trace the development of the Egyptian alphabet.
3. Discuss the appearance, structure, and uses of the pyramids.
4. Compare the Egyptian and Sumerian calendars and alphabets.
5. Compare the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates valleys in size and historic importance.
6. Describe the government of Egypt during its four successive stages.
7. How did the geography of Western Asia affect its early history?

8. Tell of the rise and decline of four Semitic nations of Western Asia.
9. Tell of the work of Hammurpi and Nebuchadnezzar.
10. What were the chief contributions of each nation of the Ancient Near East?
11. Give an estimate of the civilizations of the Ancient Near East.
12. Identify: Pharaoh, Gizeh, Sphinx, Hyksos, Osiris, Ra, Tut-ankh-amen, Enlil, alabaster, Karnak, Shinar, Amorites, cuneiform, Ur, astrology, Zodiac.

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Significant Dates

Division of Hebrew Kingdom . 920 B.C.

Fall of Kingdom of Israel . . 722 B.C.

Fall of Kingdom of Judah . . 586 B.C.

Egypt Conquered by Persians . 525 B.C.

CHAPTER III

PERSIA, ISRAEL, AND PHOENICIA

Purpose: To Study the Rise and Fall of Three Influential Nations in the Period from 1000 to 500 B.C.

The Persians and Medes were of the Indo-European stock and originally lived in the Northern Grasslands of southeastern Europe. Being a nomadic people, they eventually scattered widely, some Indo-Europeans going as far east as India and others as far west as Western Europe. In many places they came into conflict with their Semitic rivals and in most instances were victorious over them. Before their dispersion they had developed a tribal form of government and had domesticated the dog, sheep, horse, and ox.

PERSIA

Rise of the Persian Empire under Cyrus. Two Indo-European tribes, the Medes and the Persians, had settled in the Zagros mountains, just north of the Persian Gulf. At first the Medes were the more important; but a great leader, Cyrus, united

them into one nation and started them on a career of greatness. By making skillful use of archers and horsemen he soon became a menace to nearby nations; so much so, indeed, that they formed a coalition against him. But their efforts were in vain: Cyrus conquered Lydia and her rich king, Croesus; next he defeated Belshazzar, the Chaldean king; and Cambyses, son of Cyrus, conquered Egypt.

Political Organization. In the organization of their empire the Persians set a model for later peoples. The country was divided into twenty provinces, each ruled by a satrap, who was appointed by the king and was assisted by a secretary and a general. Subject peoples were allowed considerable local self-government and were taxed justly. Good systems of coinage, roads, and postal service were maintained.

System of Writing. The Persians used the old cuneiform system but simplified and improved it. The recent deciphering of the Behistun Rock has enabled modern scholars to learn much of the history of the ancient Near East.

Religion. Their religious leader, Zoroaster, established an advanced religion among them. This creed taught that the forces for good were represented by Ahura-Mazda and his helpers, and that it was man's duty to aid them. The forces of evil were represented by Ahriman and his helpers. There were priestly leaders, sacred hymns, a sacred book, the *Avesta*, and a belief in the last judgment.

Results of Persian Rule. The Persians established the best system of government that had yet been devised. They also contributed an advanced religion, similar in many respects to Christianity. Their kingdom continued to exist until much later, but gradually lost its virility.

THE HEBREW NATION

Palestine and Its Early Inhabitants. Palestine is a region containing about 10,000 square miles and is located directly north of the Arabian peninsula. The northern part of the country lies in the tip of the Fertile Crescent and is, therefore, very productive; but the southern portion is largely a desert, with no

rainfall in the summer. The country was cut off from the sea by the Phoenicians and the Philistines. It also lies on the path between Asia and Africa, hence it saw the armies of Egypt, or other foes, many times, and was no stranger to the wandering merchant or trader from many lands. The earliest inhabitants came from Asia Minor or the desert. Many Cretans, or Philistines, fled from the Indo-European invaders to this new land and gave it its name — Palestine. The exposed position of Palestine forced its inhabitants to struggle for freedom successively against the Egyptians, Assyrians, Chaldeans, and others.

The Coming of the Hebrews. The ancestors of the Hebrews lived in the lower reaches of the Tigris-Euphrates rivers but emigrated up the valley to Haran. From there in the city of Ur the patriarch Abraham set out to find the Promised Land, finally settling in Palestine. Many of his descendants and followers remained there, but others went to Egypt. In that country they eventually became serfs of the state, to be rescued by Moses and led back into Palestine. The invaders adopted much of the Canaanite civilization which they found around them, lived in houses instead of tents, wore wool garments instead of sheepskin, and intermarried, in some instances, with the natives. A modified language and changed physical features resulted.

The Hebrew Kingdom. From the earlier tribal form of government the Hebrews soon advanced to a theocracy, in which certain religious leaders, called Judges, exercised leadership. Their increasing number and the examples of other peoples around them, however, eventually led them to clamor for a king. The first ruler, Saul, a man chosen largely because of his commanding personal appearance, engaged in numerous conflicts with the non-Hebrew neighbors and finally met death on his own sword. His successor, David, continued this conflict with more success. He was a poet, as well as a warrior, and gave to the world many of the Psalms. He also made preparations for the building of a great religious temple at Jerusalem, a work which his successor, Solomon, completed. Under Solomon the Hebrew kingdom reached its greatest glory. He established contact with neighboring peoples and encouraged commerce. Jerusalem became a magnificent city.

Division of the Kingdom. The reign of Solomon was brilliant, but disastrous, for his ambitious projects caused him to tax his people unmercifully. When his successor refused to lighten these taxes, a rebellion occurred which led to a division of the kingdom. There were other causes for the separation, however: the northern portion was agricultural and boasted a town life, while the southern part was pastoral and rural; moreover, there was some jealousy because the capital, Jerusalem, was located in the southern division. After the break-up, the two kingdoms proved to be rather quarrelsome neighbors. The northern kingdom, Israel, consisted of ten tribes, while the southern, Judah, contained only one tribe. The twelfth tribe, that of Levi, was the priestly tribe, hence it held no land.

Later History. The Assyrians conquered Israel in 722 B.C., and carried away many of the unfortunate inhabitants; therefore one reads of "the lost tribes of Israel." The Chaldean king, Nebuchadnezzar, did likewise for the southern kingdom, but the Persian king, Cyrus, allowed its inhabitants to return and reestablish themselves in their old homes. Most of them, however, remained in Mesopotamia. After the break-up of Alexander's empire the Jews enjoyed a brief period of freedom under the Maccabees. The Romans eventually conquered the region; and one of their military leaders, Titus, destroyed Jerusalem because of a Jewish rebellion. The inhabitants became scattered and have remained so to this day. The Arabs, and later the Turks, seized Palestine. This last seizure led the Christian world to undertake crusades for its recapture; crusades which failed in their ultimate aim. The Turks were ousted during World War I, and the region was subsequently placed under British mandate. In 1948 Palestine was partitioned and the Republic of Israel was established.

The Hebrew Religion. The one supreme contribution of the Hebrew world is in the realm of religion. In their early history they seemed to consider their god, Yahweh, as only a tribal war god, and as only one of many gods. But as a result of their deliverance from Egyptian bondage, their inheritance of the "Promised Land," and their later national career, the Hebrews eventually learned to conceive of one supreme God who ruled the universe through love.

Literary Contributions. The Hebrews made greater contributions to the development of western civilization than did some of the large empires, such as Assyria, for example. Though they failed to produce great mathematicians, sculptors, painters, and scientists, they more than made up for this apparent neglect by giving to the western world their superb literature, their enlightened code of laws, and their unique religion. The Old Testament contains the oldest and the most reliable history of the human race up to the time of Abraham. Moreover, the prophetic and the poetical books show an overwhelming superiority over all similar productions of the ancient world, including those of India and China. There is certainly nothing in the literature of Egypt and Babylonia that can at all be compared with the book of Psalms.

The Code of Moses. Even the celebrated code of Hammurapi is but a simple and crude document when studied side by side with the much more extensive code of Moses to be found in the first five books of the Old Testament. Although Hammurapi's code is about six hundred years older than that of Moses, there is no need of drawing the conclusion that for this reason Moses must have copied the older code. Both codes appear to have had a common Semitic source, for they repeat certain older laws and theories, such as that of "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." If a person knocked out a tooth in the mouth of another person, he would have to forfeit one of his teeth, as we have already seen. But the peculiarity of Hammurapi's code is that this was only required if a person of prestige had lost his tooth. In case he had knocked out several teeth in the head of a poorer person, he merely paid a small fine.

Moses and Hammurapi. Moses, who lived in the fifteenth century B.C., had been instructed at the court of an Egyptian princess and was thoroughly familiar with the most advanced legal thought in Egypt. He had not the slightest desire to copy the inferior code of Hammurapi, which had nothing to do with the quality of sin and the spiritual values or powers. There are also no Babylonian expressions to be found in the code of Moses. Moreover, the spirit of the two codes and the modes of expression are entirely different.

Hebrew Laws are Superior to All Others. The code of Moses places a comparatively high value on human life and requires kind treatment of slaves. It demands proper care of the poor and of strangers, something neglected by the Babylonians. The code of Moses requires that witchcraft and idolatrous sacrifices are punishable by death, but the Babylonian lawgivers thought such practices were not wrong. The reason for the difference is simple. The Hebrews were expected to trust in God and His prophets, who would tell them all they had to know. There was no need to resort to mediums and ask questions of spirits of departed persons. Thus we read in the first book of Samuel that when King Saul refused to listen to Samuel any longer and God would not tell him anything of value in dreams, and when he went to see a "witch" — that is, in this case a medium — he committed a serious crime.

The Hebrews Pass on Their Alphabet to the Phoenicians Recent excavations upon the site of Lachish, the chief walled city of Judah, have revealed that the Hebrews invented much of our alphabet and passed on their knowledge to the Phoenicians, who in turn instructed the Greeks. From the Greeks, the Romans derived their alphabet, but the common source of all is that devised by the Hebrews about the fourteenth century B.C. During the wanderings of the Hebrews on the Sinai Peninsula they had learned to develop the rudiments of their alphabet, which was fully completed by the middle of the fourteenth century B.C.

THE PHOENICIANS

The Land and the People. North of Palestine lived the Phoenicians, who, like the Hebrews, belonged to the Semitic race. Their country was too mountainous to make possible a flourishing agriculture on any large scale, with the result that the Phoenicians turned toward the sea for a living. They became the most enterprising merchants in the period from 1200-350 B.C.

Their Chief Ports and Colonies. Tyre and Sidon were world-famed ports, from which the Phoenicians carried on their commerce with Egypt, the coasts of Asia Minor, the Balkan Peninsula, Italy, and the western Mediterranean. Their chief colony was the mighty city of Carthage, which in the sixth

century B.C. was the largest city in northern Africa, with a population of about 750,000. The Phoenicians also founded flourishing industries.

Their Religion and Literary Attainments. They worshiped many gods, the best-known of which was Baal. Their religious literature was very inferior to that of the Hebrews. Moreover, their contribution to the shaping of our alphabet used to be greatly overestimated, although it is true that the Greeks took over from them the names of most of the letters, *aleph* becoming *alpha*, and *beth*, *beta*; hence the word *alphabet*, named after the first two letters in the Greek alphabet.

QUESTIONS

1. Distinguish between the Indo-Europeans, or Aryans (named after the plateau of Iran in Persia), and the Semites.
2. Explain the success of the Persians in building up the greatest empire the world had known.
3. Who was Zoroaster (Zarathustra) and what was the *Avesta*?
4. Name and compare four religions of the Ancient Near East.
5. Trace the rise, decline, and later history of the Hebrews and the Jews.
6. What is the Old Testament?
7. Compare the Code of Moses with that of Hammurapi.
8. Locate Persepolis, Susa, Jerusalem, Tyre, Sidon, Carthage, and Damascus.
9. Discuss the story of the alphabet up to 300 B.C.
10. Were the Hebrews a great commercial people before 500 B.C.?
11. Who were Abraham, Moses, Cyrus, David, and Solomon?

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Significant Dates

Aryan Peoples Invade India	1500 B.C.
Rise of Buddhism	550-500 B.C.
Career of Confucius	550-478 B.C.
Golden Age of Chinese Civilization	618-907 A.D.
Japan Opened to Western Civilization	1854 A.D.

CHAPTER IV

THE FAR EAST

Purpose: To Study the Historical Background of Present-Day India, China, and Japan

The Far East comprises China, India, Japan, the Malay Archipelago, Australia, and New Zealand, as well as eastern Siberia and Korea. Its most ancient inhabitants probably had migrated from Mesopotamia in the period 4000-2000 B.C. Of these countries, only India, China, and Japan will be considered here.

INDIA

The Land. India is a peninsula having the shape of a rough triangle, about two-thirds as large as the United States. Its long regular coast line has few harbors. North of it lie the world's tallest mountains, the Himalayas, which act both as a barrier and as a protection. The richest and most populous part of India is the fertile plain of the Ganges River. In contrast to this is the Deccan plateau, a broken rocky region covering the southern half of the country. The seasons are alternately wet and dry. The hot damp climate has had an enervating effect upon the inhabitants.

The People. The population of India in 1941 was about 389,000,000 and consisted of a number of races. Of these the Dravidians, a short dark people, scattered from Ceylon to the Ganges, are aboriginal. There are numerous Mongolians also, especially in the provinces of Nepal and Bhutan. The Indo-Aryans, descendants of the Aryan invaders, are most prominent in Punjab and Kashmir. Various mixtures of these and other races are to be found.

Religions and Castes. India is a land of many religions. Chief among these is the Hindu or Brahmin, a polytheistic belief, with Brahma as the supreme deity, and with the Vedas, or sacred books, written in Sanskrit. Four castes were recognized: 1. The Brahmins; 2. the nobles and warriors; 3. the peasants and traders; 4. the Sudras. These have changed until at present there are more than two thousand groups, of which the lowest, the "untouchables," comprise 30 per cent of the population. Brahmins believe in the transmigration of souls and ultimate absorption of the pure into Brahma. In the sixth century B.C. there arose a reformer named Buddha, who taught that salvation came through honesty, purity, and charity, and that all classes could attain perfection. His creed, triumphant at first, was later crowded out, so that today only about ten million people in India follow his teachings. It spread elsewhere, nevertheless, and now numbers more followers than any other religion. There are also seventy-odd million people, chiefly of Arab and Turkish descent, who profess Mohammedanism. Christianity has gained only a few million followers.

Early Invasions. At the time of the Indo-Aryan dispersion, perhaps about 1500 B.C. or earlier, the Aryans penetrated India as far as the Ganges River and imposed their civilization on the natives. Alexander the Great in the fourth century B.C. also invaded a part of India, introduced Greek civilization, founded cities, and developed commerce. Various Mongolian tribes from Central Asia have entered India from time to time, the most notable of these being the Huns in the fifth century. Arab Moslems conquered the province of Punjab, and other Mongol followers of the Prophet under the leadership of Baber

(1525) established the Great Mogul empire, which lasted until overthrown by the English two or three centuries later.

Later History — European Dominion. The Portuguese established trading posts in India at the dawn of the modern era. The Dutch soon followed but interested themselves mainly in the near-by Spice Islands. Then came the English and the French, who struggled both with each other and with the weak, hopelessly divided natives for control of the land. This struggle ended with an English victory in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), since which time the British extended their sway to include almost the whole of India. They introduced Western civilization and made many changes and improvements, not all of which were appreciated. Gradually the people of India became more nationally minded and demanded a larger and larger share in their own government. While remaining loyal to England during World War I, they asked at its conclusion for more self-rule. Under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi this demand was supported by economic boycott, civil disobedience, unrest, and rioting. The division of India into the dominions of Pakistan and India occurred August 15, 1947, British troops having previously been withdrawn.

CHINA

The Land. China is a land somewhat larger than India and with greater natural resources. It has fertile valleys, navigable rivers, rich minerals, and a varied climate. For many centuries the high mountains protected it from invasions. These factors have tended to make China a great nation and to isolate it from other peoples.

The People. The Yellow River valley was inhabited almost five thousand years ago by a people who were probably aborigines. They gradually conquered and absorbed surrounding territories and peoples. This ability to fuse with other races has given the Chinese a marked physical sameness which few other people possess.

Earliest History. There was a long mythical period when China was ruled by heroes, and concerning which there is little reliable information. Wu Wang, founder of the Chow

dynasty (1122-249 B.C.), emerges as a real character. He perfected a feudal system and established schools and hospitals. His successors gradually lost control over their feudal lords. During this period the reformer Confucius lived (551-478 B.C.). He made no claims to miraculous power but taught obedience to parents, reverence for ancestors, and the Golden rule, negatively stated. Mencius (372-289 B.C.), a disciple of Confucius, exerted an influence second to that of his teacher.

Religions. The Chinese are ancestor and nature worshippers. Connected with this worship are two divinities, Shangti (heaven), and Ti (the earth). There are five sacred mountains and four sacred streams but no priests. Taoism, founded by the philosopher Lao-tze, also has many adherents. It is a mystical nature worship which features many superstitions. Confucianism, which includes the moral philosophy of its founder, has many followers. Buddhism spread into China in the fourth century B.C. It borrowed much from the native religions.

The Empire. After the collapse of the Chow dynasty, (1123-255 B.C.), Shih Hwang-ti (246-221 B.C.) founded an empire. He divided China into 36 provinces, each ruled by a governor-general and a treasurer, whom he appointed. He broke with the past, ordered the works of Confucius and other classics burned, and built the Great Wall to keep out the Huns. After his death there was a period of disorder, followed by the rulers of the Han dynasty (206 B.C.-221 A.D.), who extended their dominion over Korea and elsewhere, checked feudalism, and consolidated the empire. Several centuries of confusion followed the decline of this dynasty until Li Yuen founded the T'ang dynasty (618-907), during which time China became the most powerful state in the world. After another period of confusion, the Sung dynasty arose (960-1280). These rulers fought first the Tartars, then the Mongols. Finally a Mongol leader, Kublai Khan, overthrew the Sung dynasty and established the Yuan dynasty (1280-1368). He proved to be a capable sovereign. Natives later overthrew the Mongols and accepted the leadership of the Ming dynasty (1368-1644), which now ruled the country. During this period European traders and missionaries tried without avail to penetrate the region and establish themselves. The last dynasty

was that of the Manchus, a Tartar people from southern Manchuria. Although these conquerors retained Chinese civilization, they kept the natives in subjection and forced them to wear queues as a badge of submission. They reorganized China proper into eighteen districts and extended the boundaries of the empire to its farthest limits in history. The present puppet king of Manchukuo is the last of the Manchu dynasty, his predecessors having been overthrown in a revolution (1911-1912), at which time a republic was established.

Foreign Intervention. Portuguese and other Europeans entered China for trading purposes as early as the sixteenth century, but for a long time they could make little headway on account of the Chinese attitude of exclusiveness. In the so-called Opium War (1839-1842), the English defeated the Chinese and compelled them to make trade concessions. Soon other nations made similar gains. These encroachments aroused Japan, who gained control of Korea as the result of a war with China (1894-1895). European powers now began to secure "spheres of influence" in China. This step led to a war between Japan and Russia (1904-1905), in which Russia met defeat. Both China and Japan entered the World War on the side of the Allies. Since that time, much of China's history has dealt with Japanese aggressions and with the painful process of becoming westernized.

Civilization. The Chinese reached the phonetic stage of writing by 2000 B.C., but have not yet developed an alphabet. They also printed books from movable type as early as the tenth or eleventh century of our era. The Nine Classics, which Confucius collected and which taught his beliefs, have exerted a potent influence on Chinese thought. Until 1905 they formed the basis for civil service examinations. There are many old colleges, academies, and other schools. In art, architecture, and related fields of culture the Chinese have made great advancement.

JAPAN

The Land. The Japanese archipelago consists of a number of islands off the eastern coast of Asia with a total area of about 175,000 square miles. It is a region of short rivers, vol-

canoes, and numerous lakes and harbors. Its rather poor soil nevertheless produces valuable forests and, under careful cultivation, large quantities of rice, barley, wheat, tobacco, and other crops; while the nearby waters abound in fish. The climate is temperate and bracing. The mineral supply, especially of iron, is limited.

The People. The Japanese are of mixed origin. There are Mongolians, Koreans, North Chinese, and aborigines. Some are Malays. As a whole, the Japanese are frugal, polite, patriotic, and imitative. Their high birth rate has caused Japan to be the home of eighty-odd million people, and has given rise to serious problems of emigration and expansion.

Religions. The Japanese, like the Chinese, worship their ancestors. To them, the dead are very real and living. Their Mikados are generally deified. Shintoism, the national faith, emphasizes nature and ancestor worship and features many spirits, gods, and deified men. Ameratsu, the sun goddess, is regarded as the ancestor of the Mikado. Shintoism pays little heed to morality or immorality and has no sacred book. There are many temples, each with a prayer hall and a sanctuary, where priests offer daily sacrifices. Buddhism was introduced in the sixth century and soon became the most prominent religion. Indeed, many Japanese are both Shintoists and Buddhists. The land is filled with beautiful Buddhist temples and statues. Christianity was introduced in the sixteenth century, but the Mikado frowned upon it and persecuted its followers. Only a small proportion of the Japanese are Christians.

Early History. While it is difficult to separate myth from history, it appears that Jimmu Tenno made conquests in Japan in 660 B.C. and established the dynasty that still exists. In the third century the Empress Jingu invaded and conquered a part of Korea and, more important, brought the Japanese into contact with Chinese civilization, much of which they adopted and improved. In the seventh century an official called the Shogun became the active hereditary ruler, and the Mikado went into seclusion. Late in the thirteenth century the Chinese ruler, Kublai Khan, made an unsuccessful attempt to conquer Japan. Three centuries later the Japanese made a counter attack on China and,

although they continued to claim Korea, they failed in their major purpose of conquest.

Later History. The Portuguese, Dutch, and others penetrated Japan in the sixteenth century; and for a while it appeared that Japan would adopt western ways. But with the suppression of Christianity the Japanese became exclusive and shut out foreign influences. In 1854 Commodore Perry of the United States induced the Japanese to sign a commercial agreement. Other nations soon obtained like concessions, since which time the Westernizing of Japan has gone on apace. The old feudal system was ended, as was the Shogunate, and a constitution was adopted, with the Mikado as the real sovereign, but with a legislative body and a cabinet to aid him. The Industrial Revolution with its machinery soon transformed and industrialized Japan. The nation became imperialistic and fought two successful wars, one with China (1894-1895), and the other with Russia (1904-1905). By 1945 Japan had gained control of Korea, Formosa, and Manchuria. Finding that the Four Power Pact (1922) bound her to a position of naval inferiority to the United States and Great Britain, she denounced it. She also withdrew from the League of Nations because that body criticized her policy of aggression in China. Although Japan and Russia rivaled each other in East Asia, they signed a non-aggression pact. In 1937 the Japanese attacked Shanghai and began an undeclared war with China.

Civilization. The Japanese have developed a syllabic writing system that approaches an alphabet. In literature they have followed Chinese leadership but have some historical novels, dramas, and poetry of their own, as well as translations of Western authors. There is a state supported system of education from the elementary schools to the universities. Taking Chinese art as a model, they have quite generally improved upon it. Feudalism was long an established institution, with its land-owning nobles, its knights, and its serfs; but this has been abolished with the coming of Western influences.

QUESTIONS

1. Compare the religions of India, China, and Japan.
2. Describe the land and the people of India, China, and Japan.
3. Trace the coming of Europeans into India and China.

4. Trace the relations of China and Japan from early times to date.
5. Why has Japan become more thoroughly "westernized" than China or India?
6. Trace the course of Japanese conquests since 1941.

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Significant Dates

Draco's Code	621 B.C.
Reforms of Solon	594 B.C.
Greco-Persian Wars	492-479 B.C.
The Athenian Empire	461-404 B.C.
The Alexandrian Empire	336-275 B.C.

CHAPTER V

GREECE

*Purpose: To Trace the Main Events of
Greek History.*

In the whole history of the civilized world no country so small as Greece and no part of any country of the same size as Greece has shown such a profusion of learning, sane standards of living, enlightened experiments in practically every known form of government, industrial and commercial development, successful colonization, and artistic production as did the Greeks in the short period from 600 to 300 B.C.

PREDECESSORS OF THE GREEKS

In the Late Stone Age. The man of the late stone age had made considerable progress in the Aegean world by 3000 B.C. Owing to the abundance of ores, he had reached the age of metals in southeastern Europe and Asia Minor and was doing considerable trading with other peoples. Such articles as pottery, beads, copper trinkets, and metal daggers or axes formed objects of bargaining, both with Western Asia and with Egypt. In some

respects, though, this man was backward: he had not learned to write, he had no ships worthy of the name, and he had developed no hewn or stone masonry.

The Aegean World. Lying almost hemmed in by the shores of the Greek peninsula, Asia Minor, and southern Europe, is the Aegean Sea. It is small in size and is dotted with many islands, some of which are too tiny to show on an ordinary map. The closeness of these islands made them accessible to the small boats of people unaccustomed to the sea. The climate is mild and sufficiently rainy to produce wheat, barley, grapes, and olives. The Aegean Sea is near Egypt and Western Asia, while to its east and west lay the less developed regions of Asia Minor and the Greek peninsula. This peninsula had an extremely irregular sea coast, many ports and bays, and short mountain ranges, but no river worthy of the name. The climate and products of Asia Minor and the Greek peninsula resembled those of the islands, except that Asia Minor produced iron. The physical features of these regions encouraged a diversity of occupations, made sea-faring easy and commerce natural, and hindered political unity.

The Aegeans and Their Civilization. People occupied the Aegean islands, and especially Crete, at an early day. They knew how to make and use bronze, the potter's wheel, the closed oven, and stone vases, bowls, and jars. They had developed a system of phonetic writing and had made much progress in military affairs. Their merchants and city workers lived in sun-dried brick buildings, but the nobles dwelt in more pretentious houses.

The Grand Age of the Cretans (1600-1500 B.C.). Cnosus, on the island of Crete, became the center of an advanced civilization, with magnificent palaces, skilled workers, and a flourishing commerce. But Egypt asserted political control over the island, and its period of greatest glory soon passed.

The Mycenaean Age (1500-1200 B.C.). The city of Mycenae, on the plain of Argos in southern Greece, and Troy, on the coast of Asia Minor, next became centers of advanced civilizations and remained so for some time.

The Hittites and Their Influence. Asia Minor is a vast peninsula, bounded by seas, bordered by mountain ranges and

fertile valleys, and containing a desert core. Here lived the Hittites, a people who migrated both to Western Asia and to the Aegean World. They influenced the Greeks in commerce, coinage, religion, and architecture. They penetrated Western Asia as far as Assur and spread the cuneiform and Egyptian systems of writing. With their horses, chariots, and large armies they conquered much of the surrounding country and made their walled capital, Khatti, a city of imposing palaces and temples.

Excavations and Discoveries. A German-American named Heinrich Schliemann uncovered nine successive cities on the site of Troy and sponsored similar excavations at Mycenae and Tiryns. Others have made excavations on the island of Crete and at Khatti. Many Cretan and Hittite records have been uncovered, but not all have been deciphered.

GREEK COLONIZATION

Origin and Early History of the Greeks. The original Greeks were Indo-Europeans and were from the grasslands of southeastern Europe. They were a nomadic pastoral people, less civilized than the Cretans or Hittites.

Migrations and Settlements. The first bands, called Achaeans, probably reached the Greek peninsula about 2000 B.C. The next group, the Dorians, reached southern Greece about 1500 B.C., conquered the Achaeans and Aegeans, and took possession of the country, including Crete, Troy, and the coast of Asia Minor. Sparta became their leading city. The Ionians also settled around Athens, while the Aeolians dwelt farther north. By 1000 B.C., these people had conquered the Aegean world. Armenian and Phrygian invaders also entered Asia Minor in two waves and conquered the Hittites.

Fusion of Greeks and Aegeans. The invaders kept their own language but adopted much of the civilization of their foes. The art of writing disappeared. The two peoples intermarried and thus produced the later Greek.

The Transition to Settled Life. The invaders had a tribal government, with a chief to lead the tribe. The smallest unit, the clan, consisted of several families related by blood. Several clans in a tribe often united into a phratry to supersede

the tribe. The chief held his place so long as he could win victories in war. An assembly of the armed men, meeting infrequently, discussed only important questions. A smaller group, the Council of Elders, met oftener and aided the chief in governing. Influenced by the Aegeans, the invaders made kings of their chiefs, quit wandering, took to seafaring and farming, began to live in cities, and adopted a city-state type of government.

THE AGE OF THE KINGS (1000-750 B.C.)

The Greeks and Their Neighbors. Both the Aegeans and the Phoenicians influenced Greek life. The Phoenicians brought them the products of the world, among which may be mentioned the alphabet. This gift the Greeks perfected to meet their needs.

Greek Civilization Before 800 B.C. The noble, with his chariot and weapons of iron or bronze, was pictured in the Homeric ballads as an heroic figure. The bard Homer has been credited with their authorship, but a number of singers doubtless composed them. Because they tell of the deeds of the gods, these songs became the sacred book of the Greeks.

The Greek Religion. Before the Homeric songs the Greeks spiritualized nature. To them almost all natural objects had spirits and might be worshipped with gifts of food or sacrifices. Gradually the Greeks added many gods and goddesses. A partial list follows: Zeus was supreme god; Poseidon was god of the sea; Hera, wife of Zeus; Ares, god of war; Apollo, god of light, agriculture, and repentance; Demeter, earth mother; Dionysius, god of suffering and wine; Athena, protectress of cities; Aphrodite, goddess of love; Artemis, goddess of the moon and guardian of the forests and wild animals; and Hermes, messenger of the gods. These gods showed human defects but were immortal. Mount Olympus was their home, but they often visited the earth. Hades was a gloomy region ruled by Pluto and Persephone, where almost everyone went after death. Heroes and a favored few went to the Elysian Fields. Tartarus was a region below Hades peopled by wicked immortals. The earth was a curved disk, with Olympus as the center. Temples and oracles were built in honor of Zeus, Apollo, and Athena.

THE AGE OF THE NOBLES (800-600 B.C.)

Overthrow of the Kings. Four city-states developed: Argos, Sparta, Athens, and Thebes; and kings ruled these. But the Greeks had none of the Oriental reverence for kings, and hence often aided restless nobles in their overthrow.

Continued Colonization. The nobles built ships and encouraged commerce, especially with the Phoenicians and other neighbors. Three leading causes promoted the establishment of colonies: the harshness of the nobles, the poverty of the peasants, and the desire to promote commerce. Under such impulses, Greek colonists went out in every direction, until they fairly dotted the Mediterranean world. These colonists spread Greek civilization and made it supreme in the Mediterranean.

Government. The nobles gained leadership of the government and the army. Sometimes they overthrew the king, but often they simply usurped his powers and allowed him to remain.

Economic and Cultural Progress. Commerce developed greatly, and architecture showed some advancement, especially in the erection of temples. The Homeric poems, moral animal tales, and the songs of Hesiod formed the principal literature.

Influences For and Against Unity. The Greeks had many interests in common. The athletic contests, held in honor of the gods, served to dispel suspicion and distrust. Their religion and the common management of temples made coöperation necessary. Their common language and inheritance acted as bonds of unity. To counterbalance this was the powerful geographical factor—the separation into isolated valleys that made for strong local feelings. Moreover, they had no unity resulting from earlier habits and customs, or even from trade, and seemed to lack political ability.

THE AGE OF THE TYRANTS (650-500 B.C.)

Nature and Position of a Tyrant. A tyrant was one who seized control by violence and who had no royal ancestry. Some tyrants were good men and able rulers; and toward such the Greeks might have gratitude, perhaps, but no love. To kill a tyrant was to do a noble deed.

Causes for the Rise of Tyrants. Many were dissatisfied with their losses of political privilege and of land. Then certain military changes deprived the nobles of exclusive control over the army. The foot soldier became more prominent and the chariot less so. Many of the newly rich industrial leaders could equip themselves without the aid of nobles, who were weakened by factions. The increasing use of money made many independent of the nobles and caused its possessors to desire the positions that were denied them. The migration of peasants to colonies deprived the nobles of their following.

Examples of Tyrants. Thrasybulus of Miletus kept his city independent of Thebes. Periander of Corinth encouraged commerce and letters. Gelon of Syracuse maintained a great army and navy. Pisistratus of Athens encouraged commerce, manufacturing, art, music, drama, and literature. Many others might be added to this list.

Growth of Commerce and Industry. Corinth and Athens led, but others followed, and the new colonies contributed much. Greek cities exported such articles as metals, woven goods, and pottery; and they imported grain, fish, amber, and bronze utensils. Slaves became plentiful. By doing most of the labor, they made possible a life of intellectual attainments. They increased the output of factories, especially of vases. Ships were improved, and money came into general use. A regular monetary system arose, with coins stamped by the state.

THE RISE OF DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT AT ATHENS

Causes for the Adoption of Law Codes. Many felt that written law would be easier to follow than mere custom, and that oppression would be less likely. Once the process was begun, reforms were necessary to correct the defects of existing codes.

Draco's Code (621 B.C.). This was a collection of existing customs, especially regarding court procedure. It acquainted the people with the law and limited the power of officials; but it was too harsh, forfeiture of mortgages and enslavement for debt being common.

The Reforms of Solon (639—559 B.C.). He abolished land mortgages and slavery for debt, provided a citizen jury to hear appeals, and made all citizens members of the Public Assembly. He divided the citizens of Athens into four classes, according to income, and created a Council of Four Hundred (*boule*) not only to prepare laws for the Public Assembly but also to act as a check on it. This code remedied many defects, but did not prove entirely satisfactory.

The Reforms of Cleisthenes. He rearranged the citizens along territorial lines into tribes, or demes, and increased the Council to five hundred. To minimize the danger of tyrants, he introduced ostracism (temporary banishment by popular vote).

CIVILIZATION OF THE AGE OF THE TYRANTS

Education and the Theater. Open air gymnasium work, writing, and music formed most of the boy's education. Chorus work developed, and from this came tragedy, which the actors presented in state-owned outdoor theatres.

Architecture and Painting. Limestone replaced sun-dried bricks as building material. Temples with Doric columns and relief figures of the gods became common. Sculptors created bronze and marble statues of heroes and athletes. Vases bore scenes depicting stories of the gods, myths, legends, or scenes of life.

Religious Changes. There was a growing feeling of right and wrong in connection with religion, and there was also a tendency to deprive the gods of human traits.

Science and Invention. Thales of Miletus foretold eclipses; Pythagoras discovered important laws of geometry, physics, and geography. One scientist taught the evolution of lower animals to higher forms, another made a map of the then-known world.

THE PERSIAN WARS

The Coming of the Persians. In Italy and Sicily the Greek colonies lay open to invading Carthaginians, while those

in Asia Minor were subject to attack from the interior. Moreover, the colonies had no political unity and suffered from jealousy and class struggles.

The Lydian Kingdom in Asia Minor Falls. The Lydians had occupied much of Asia Minor and many had drifted into Greek colonies, where they became known as Anatolian Greeks. In 546 B.C. Persian forces defeated King Croesus and captured Sardis, his capital. They allowed the conquered their local freedom but required tribute and army service.

Causes of the Persian Wars. The Persians, having started to conquer the Greeks, had to retreat or go all the way. Moreover, Persia and Greece were naval and commercial rivals and represented conflicting racial and cultural standards. The immediate cause was a revolt of Ionian cities against Persian rule, in which Athens and Eretria assisted. In revenge the Persians annexed Macedonia (497 B.C.) and prepared to conquer Greece proper.

The Battle of Marathon. Persian messengers went to all Greek cities to demand submission. In the first attempted invasion, the Persian fleet was wrecked near Mt. Athos, but a second attempt straight across the Aegean was more successful. The rival armies engaged in the battle of Marathon, which proved to be a decisive Greek victory.

Final Repulse of the Persians. After a delay of several years, the new Persian king, Xerxes, invaded Greece by land and sea from the north. His army overcame the Greeks at Thermopylae, but his navy suffered defeats at Salamis and Mycale. These failures ended all danger from Persian invasions of Greece.

THE RISE OF SPARTA

The Land and the People. Sparta was located in southern Greece, on a level spot, but with mountains nearby. The ruling class, or Spartans, probably never numbered over ten or fifteen thousand. The Perioeci (allied subjects) were remnants of earlier settlers that had been conquered by the Spartans. The lowest class, or *Helots*, were state slaves.

Government. Two kings, co-equal in power, led the armies. The Council of Elders and the Public Assembly resembled the original institutions that the Greeks had brought with them. Five magistrates called Ephors exercised great power.

Education. Unhealthy children were turned over to Helots or exposed in a mountain glen. From seven to twenty years of age, the boy received military training in camps. Girls also received similar physical discipline.

Occupations and Life. From twenty to thirty, Spartan men continued their military life. At thirty a man married but continued in the army. The Helots worked the land, furnished the food, and paid most of the taxes. The Perioeci had a monopoly of trade and manufacturing. Foreigners were not welcome. Sparta organized and headed the Spartan League, which later opposed Athens.

THE GOLDEN AGE OF ATHENIAN DEMOCRACY

Establishment of the Delian League. Many Ionian states feared another Persian invasion and sought to resist it by organizing a fleet, which was financed through contributions of ships or money. Athens, as the strongest city, led the enterprise. The money was kept at Delos, whence comes the name of the League.

Conversion of This League into an Empire. More funds than ships were collected. When cities grew tired of paying they were compelled to continue; even new cities were added by force. The treasury was finally moved to Athens and its contents spent on public works. The League had become an Athenian Empire.

Development of the Democratic Form of Government. After the rule of Cleisthenes, Athenians overthrew the Council of Elders. Other reforms remodeled the Council of Five Hundred, added to its powers that of law making, and provided pay for jury service. All offices, except those of the military commanders, were filled by lot. The ten military leaders controlled the army, navy, treasury, and foreign affairs. A combined military leader and orator, such as Pericles, could still be powerful.

Commercial Development of Greek Cities. Almost every city had a harbor, which was dotted with ships. The perils of seafaring were many, but the profits for successful voyages were large. Money was used more and more to pay citizens for state service, to erect temples, theatres, and other public undertakings, and to defray the costs of war and military service.

Government Income. To defray such expenses, Athens worked mines, collected a one per cent tariff, and levied tribute on her subject cities in the Delian League. Direct taxes were levied only occasionally.

Social Developments in the Age of Pericles. Pericles was the outstanding leader and the greatest orator. So prominent was he that this period has been named after him. Few really wealthy people were to be found. Land ownership was the most desirable form of wealth, but service to the state and enjoyment of life were placed above riches. There were many city workers and farmers in or near Athens, and all participated in the government. Slaves sometimes outnumbered freemen. They were often honored and trusted and dressed like freemen.

Family and Home Life. The houses were one-story affairs, built of sun-dried brick or limestone, with few windows, poor heating and ventilation systems, and no plumbing. The man spent most of his waking hours in the city. Little attention was paid to the education of the girl. The woman supervised the household and slaves, and brought her husband a dowry, which he forfeited if divorce occurred. Women were generally treated as inferior beings.

Education. When the youth reached eighteen he took an oath of loyalty to the state and to the gods, after which he spent a year in military training at the harbor of Piraeus. At nineteen he became a citizen in a public ceremony, followed sometimes by another year spent in the cavalry or on the frontier. The citizen continued to learn in the gymnasium, lyceum, academy, or public theater, and in state service. Teachers known as Sophists taught the youths to argue, reason, and speak; but the older generation disliked these teachers. Hippocrates, the "father of medicine," made many discoveries in his chosen field.

Intellectual and Artistic Athens. The Parthenon, built on the Acropolis in honor of Athena, was unrivalled in architecture. On the side of the Acropolis was the theater of Dionysius, which seated 30,000 people. Several great play writers appeared: Sophocles, who exalted the gods; Aeschylus, who emphasized old heroes and taught moral lessons; and Euripides, who depicted common life. Comedy developed later than tragedy and centered around topics of the day. Aristophanes, supreme in this field, subjected men and events to ridicule and laughter. Athenian plays had almost no scenery, but they reached an astonishing degree of literary perfection and exerted a tremendous influence upon Athenian life and character.

Great Men of Athens, Before and After Pericles. Pericles led Athens for forty years. Three great historians wrote: Herodotus, whose work on the Persian wars is brilliant, but not always reliable; Thucydides, whose treatise on the Peloponnesian war is scholarly and more reliable; and Xenophon, whose historically-accurate *Anabasis* includes the great military exploit known as the Expedition of the Ten Thousand. Phidias was the greatest sculptor; but Praxiteles, who lived later, was a strong rival. Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle were the greatest philosophers; and Demosthenes was the greatest orator. No city in world history could boast of so pure a democracy, so many great men, or so highly cultured a citizenship, as could Athens.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WARS

The Building of an Empire by Athens. Because Athens was the greatest sea power in Greece, she was chosen to lead the Delian League. This organization soon drove the Persians out of Asia Minor. Then, spurred on by ambition, Athens converted the League into an empire, composed of unwilling subject cities anxious to rebel, with jealous rivals nearby ready to aid them.

Jealousy of Its Rivals. Other cities not controlled by Athens were jealous of her power. Sparta, her ancient rival, formed a confederacy that opposed the Delian League. Corinth, Boeotia, and other cities, were also commercial rivals of Athens. This tendency toward separation was attributable largely to the

geography of Greece and to early Greek institutions. It was now promoted greatly by the desire of subject cities to regain their independence.

First Phase of the Struggle (459-446 B.C.). Athens forced Aegina into the Delian League and likewise gained control over Megara and Boeotia, in spite of Spartan aid to these cities. One Athenian fleet blockaded the harbor of Sparta's ally, Corinth, while another met disaster on the sea. Sparta, on account of trouble at home, could do little. At the end of the struggle Athens retained the islands of Aegina and Euboea, and the warring cities agreed to fight no more for thirty years.

Second Phase (431-421 B.C.). Corcyra, a colony of Corinth, became involved in a quarrel with the mother city. She then sought to enter the Delian League, and Athens admitted her. This meant war with the Peloponnesian League and especially with Corinth, but Corcyra had a great fleet, and Athens wanted to use it. War was therefore declared. Sparta and her allies planned to invade Attica; Athens planned to confine the war to the sea or coast alone. During the struggle Athens faced serious difficulties: disease killed many of her citizens, the enemy ravaged her fields, and some of her sea campaigns miscarried. On the other hand, Sparta and her allies could not control the sea, and hence could not starve out their rival; nor were they able to secure an open battle. The Peace of Nicias ended the peculiar struggle; each side was to give up all recent conquests and was to maintain peace for fifty years.

Third Phase (421-404 B.C.). Athens was dissatisfied with the previous contest, for she felt that there was a good chance for a complete victory. Moreover, the Persians were again threatening, and the subject allies of Athens were very restless. Alcibiades, who had gained the ascendancy after the death of Pericles, planned to force the Greeks in Italy and in Sicily into the Athenian Empire. His expedition to Syracuse for this purpose failed, his opponents in Athens deposed him, and he deserted to Sparta. The destruction of an Athenian army and navy, 413 B.C., dampened the ardor of the Athenians and correspondingly encouraged the enemy. Sparta, who had no fleet and little money,

sought and secured Persian aid. The Athenians recalled Alcibiades, but his forces suffered defeat at the naval battle of Arginusae and were finally defeated at Aegospotami. At the end of the war the walls of Athens were leveled and the fleet was destroyed. She was made dependent upon Sparta in foreign affairs but retained her local independence. The fundamental result was a triumph for decentralization.

THE FAILURE OF THE GREEK POLITICAL SYSTEM

Limitations of the Athenian Democracy. The Athenian law courts became centers of bribery, corruption, and prejudice, with a penchant for assessing fines to pay jurors rather than a desire to render justice. The lower classes gained control and exploited the rich unjustly. The treasury of Athens became drained by the constant expenses incident to free public entertainment, pay to the juries, and wars; a deficit that was made greater through bad methods of collecting taxes and an expensive program of public works. War decimated her farms and caused the disappearance of her peasant farmers, and great estate owners took their places. Her government, therefore, failed to function in a crisis.

Inability of the Greeks to Form a Nation. Had the Greeks united into one nation they might have ruled the world, but they could not do so. Athens, Sparta, and Thebes successively failed to achieve such unity. Failing in this object, they were destined to be ruled by others with less intelligence.

Spartan Supremacy (404-371 B.C.). Athens was by no means crushed; she soon rebuilt her walls, and more slowly acquired another fleet. Her commercial prosperity continued. Sparta was unfitted for the role of leadership, for she was almost constantly confronted with a threat of revolt at home, she lacked men and money, and she was unable to rule the sea. Moreover, her harsh rule soon aroused opposition in Greece; especially galling were her policies of stationing soldiers and military governors over some of the Greek cities. Also, there was still some danger from Persia. Her strength was declining, as was proved by the Expedition of the Ten Thousand, but she still seemed determined to prevent a national union of the Greek cities and was also

anxious to regain control of Asia Minor. The Persian danger was averted, however, by the King's Peace of 386 B.C. This provided that the island of Cyprus and certain cities in Asia Minor were to be under Persian control, that the islands of Lemnos, Imbros, and Scyros were to be ruled by Athens, and that Spartan supremacy on the mainland of Greece was to be recognized.

The End of Spartan Leadership. This peace hurt Spartan prestige and led to the formation of an anti-Spartan alliance, 395 B.C., consisting of Corinth, Argos, Athens, and Thebes. The Thebans, who were especially resentful because of the Spartan seizure of a citadel in Thebes, took the lead in the overthrow of their Laconian rivals. Pelopidas, a Theban leader, drove the Spartans from his city in 379 B.C., and the next year Thebes induced Athens to join the coalition that was being formed.

Theban Supremacy (371-362 B.C.). Spartan leadership ended and Theban supremacy began with the Theban victory at Leuctra. Thebes pursued the policies of suppressing Sparta and of maintaining her own supremacy on the sea. The war was renewed with another Theban victory, but Epaminondas, commander of the victorious forces, was killed, and with him fell Theban hopes.

MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY (338-275 B.C.)

The Land and the People. The land of Macedonia lay north of Greece proper and skirted the Aegean Sea for some distance. The region was the home of a mixed people. Some of them were Greeks, and many were Thracians in whose veins flowed Greek blood. To the north and west lay the non-Greek Illyrians. The nation was ruled by a king who wielded much power. Macedonia and Greece were friendly. In the Persian wars the Macedonians had objected to the passing of Persian troops through their territory; they also encouraged Greeks to settle in Macedonia, and sent young men to the Olympic contests.

Philip of Macedon, (359-336 B.C.)—Training and Ambitions. From boyhood Philip had been sympathetic with the Greeks in their struggle for unity. He learned the art of war

under Epaminondas. When he became king he set about consolidating his own power. He conquered the surrounding tribes, unified his kingdom, and acquired control of the sea coast, including a number of Greek towns. Presently he saw an opportunity to enter Greece proper; it came in the shape of an invitation to punish the Phocians for looting the temple at Delphi. Once there, he stayed.

Philip as Ruler of Greece. The Greek cities did not all welcome him with open arms. Although many men like Isocrates and Aeschines hailed him as the savior of Greece, a considerable element, led by Demosthenes, opposed him. But Philip defeated the opposition at the battle of Chaeronea in 338 B.C. and became master of all Greece. He called a congress of Greeks at Corinth, to whom he presented his plan of uniting all Greece into one government and of leading them against the Persians. His assassination cut short his plans.

THE WORK OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Preparation for the Throne. It was said that Alexander was so like his father, Philip, that the two could not agree. Be this as it may, Philip neglected no opportunity of giving his son the best training possible. He educated him in his own army, gave him the philosopher Aristotle for his teacher when he was not fighting, and made him thoroughly Greek in sympathy. Alexander had barely reached manhood when the assassination of his father called him to the throne.

The First Invasion of Persia. After subduing rebellions in Greece and Macedonia, he set out to carry out Philip's plan of invading Persia. That country had degenerated from its earlier greatness; although it was still large, it contained many restless subjects. The king, Darius, was not a brilliant warrior. Alexander, after dividing his army and leaving part of it at home, and adding some Greek soldiers, boldly crossed into Asia Minor. He defeated the Persians at Granicus (334 B.C.) and spent the rest of the year winning Asia Minor.

Invasion of Syria and Egypt. The next year he defeated the Persians at the important battle of Issus and put the Persian king to flight. This battle opened up the way to the conquest of

Syria, and from there it was but a step to Egypt. The Egyptians welcomed Alexander with open arms. While there, he founded Alexandria and visited the temple of Zeus-Amon, where he is said to have had himself declared a god.

The Second Invasion of Persia. Alexander's protracted stay in Egypt had enabled the enemy to gather another army, which he routed at the battle of Arbela. He turned aside long enough to seize immense treasures at Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis and to complete the final conquest of Persia.

The Campaign in India. The young Macedonian King now formed the daring plan of invading India. After calling together his army and granting the Greeks permission to go home if they desired to do so, he set out on the campaign. For five years he was gone; during which time he penetrated India to the Ganges River. The complaints of his army finally impelled him to turn back, and he made the return to Babylon by land and sea. There, in the midst of revelries celebrating his victories, he died.

Alexander's Plans. It was his ambition to create a world empire, with himself as head. To this end he had himself declared an Oriental god-king, in order to win the allegiance of his Eastern subjects. The extreme servility thus required galled his own soldiers, though, and led to more than one sad episode. He planned to unite into one nation all the conquered peoples. One means of achieving this aim was intermarriage. To this end, he and several thousand of his troops took Eastern wives. To further this same aim he began the practice of establishing cities and Greek colonies throughout the conquered regions and of spreading Greek civilization everywhere.

Estimate of His Work. He was undoubtedly a supreme military genius and was unquestionably a ruler with far-reaching plans. As a founder of cities he was prëminent, over seventy cities having sprung up at his command, many of them bearing his own name. Moreover, he distributed Greek civilization and made it supreme in the Near East, and gained political supremacy for the Greek world.

The Break-up of Alexander's Empire. No one could rule the huge empire that he had built up, so it fell into three distinct pieces shortly after his death: (1) Ptolemy, one of Alexander's generals, founded at Alexandria a far-flung, Oriental, despotic, bureaucratic government, similar to that of the earlier Egyptian Empire. Cleopatra, the last ruler of the line, lost her throne to Augustus. (2) Seleucus made Antioch the capital of Alexander's Asiatic kingdom, but it had many self-governing cities and some democracy. He insisted, however, on being recognized as a god to whom all should pay tribute. (3) Another of Alexander's generals, Antigonus, became supreme, after a long struggle with enemies in Thrace, Greece, Egypt, and Macedonia.

GREECE FROM THE TIME OF ALEXANDER TO ITS SUBJECTION BY ROME (280-146 B.C.)

The Political Situation. In Greece, two loose organizations of cities grew up—the Achaean and Aetolian Leagues. Both met in congresses, had armies, and levied taxes. Macedonia befriended the Achaean League; Rome, the Aetolian. Some Greek cities, however, held aloof from both organizations. After the defeat of Leuctra, Spartan leadership declined. Cleomenes rebuilt Sparta's power but it could not long withstand the powerful enemies to the north and west. Though Athens was not always politically independent, it continued its commercial and cultural leadership, even after Rome controlled it.

Civilization of the Hellenistic Age. The term *Hellenistic* is used to refer to the territory embraced in Alexander's Empire, and to the period from his death to the extension of Roman control over that region.

The Cities. There was a great development in cities, both in number and size. Furthermore, the new cities were systematically planned and built in blocks with long straight streets. State buildings were larger and better than before, and even the residences were greatly improved. With their stone houses and floors, plastered and adorned walls, elaborate furniture, carpets, and hangings, and private water supply and drain pipes, they bore scant resemblance to their predecessors. Moreover, the cities were frequently equipped with market squares, indoor

theaters, gymnasia, and baths. Probably the most outstanding of the newer cities was Alexandria, with its prominent harbor, docks and lighthouses, rich palaces, royal library, museum, and other buildings. Pergamum was also a center of architecture and beautiful buildings.

Education, Philosophy, and Religion. This age witnessed the beginning of city and state support of education and of increased opportunities for girls. Rhetoric and philosophy became popular subjects for young men. Two distinct schools of philosophy sprang up. The Stoics, founded by Zeno, emphasized virtue and taught fortitude and indifference to suffering. The Epicureans, named after their founder Epicurus, contended that happiness was the greatest good. The doctrine was later corrupted and degenerated into the idea that the appetite is supreme. People were rapidly losing confidence in the old gods and were turning to Oriental cults.

Limitations of the Greeks. Throughout Greek history one notices a lack of national feeling. The Greeks attained a high degree of civilization but reared their government on a poor political foundation, and hence were unable to maintain an independent existence. Rome became the heir of Greek culture.

THE HERITAGE OF GREEK CIVILIZATION

Summary of Greek History. Greece was distinctly European in character. Its history was a prefigurement of the rising power of Europe. Its civilization became one of the bases of European civilization. One might almost call ancient Greece a miniature Europe. She had shorter rivers and smaller islands, lesser gulfs, and fewer extremes in climate than any other European country of equal or greater size. In Greece was first displayed the result of those peculiar physical conditions which more than any other factors made Europe for more than fifteen centuries the center of civilization, the mistress of the seas, and the conqueror of three other whole continents and half of Asia.

The Greek Language. Less than two hundred years after the first armies from Persia had met with defeat on the battle-fields of Greece, the victorious soldiers of Alexander the

Great overran the whole of the former Persian Empire, spreading wherever they went the culture of Greece; and, although in a few years Alexander's empire fell to pieces in turn, his downfall did not imply the end of Greek hegemony. Greek was for ten centuries to remain the language of millions in Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, and Palestine (the Holy Land). It is probable that all the books in the New Testament were originally written in the Greek tongue, although Jesus of Nazareth spoke Aramaic, a Semitic language.

Greek Philosophy. In the field of philosophy the Greeks learned much from the peoples of the Near East, and in the fourth century B.C., Plato and his pupil Aristotle developed new systems of thought far surpassing those of more remote antiquity. Plato taught *realism*, that is, all things exist in a spiritual form in the mind of God before they appear in a visible form. This idea was taken over by many Christian writers. Plato also taught the immortality of the soul.

Greek Science and Mathematics. Aristotle left valuable textbooks of the natural sciences. Galen and Hippocrates remained great authorities in medicine. Euclid's geometry was the standard text in European schools for many centuries.

Greek Literature and Art. Greek literature reached a very high level, particularly in the drama. Moreover, the architects of ancient Greece left monuments which for ages have inspired the artists of all European countries. In short, the Greeks assimilated the best fruits of the civilizations which had preceded theirs, and they added very valuable contributions of their own, some of which were not fully appreciated in Europe and in America until the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the civilization of the Aegeans and the Hittites.
2. Tell of the origin, early history, and migrations of the Greeks.
3. What original institutions did the Greeks have? What new ones did they add after they came to Greece?
4. Explain the influence of geography upon Greek history.
5. Give a brief description of the early and later Greek religion.
6. How did the Greeks feel toward a king?

7. What influences opposed and favored Greek unity?
8. Who were the tyrants? Give notable examples of tyrants.
9. Trace the rise of democratic government in Athens.
10. Give a brief account of the wars between the Greek cities and Persia.
11. Explain the growth and effects of colonization; of the Industrial Revolution.
12. Describe the land and the people of Sparta.
13. Discuss social and intellectual conditions in Athens during the days of Pericles.
14. Discuss the causes, phases, and results of the Peloponnesian wars.
15. Under what defects did the Athenian democracy labor? Explain.
16. Discuss the efforts of Sparta and Thebes to unite Greece.
17. Trace the campaigns of Alexander the Great, discuss his plans, and make an estimate of his work.
18. Into what parts did Alexander's empire divide? Give a brief history of each nation.
19. Give an account of the work of the Achean and Aetolian Leagues.
20. Discuss Hellenistic civilization as to cities, education, philosophy, and religion.
21. Identify: Crete, Mycenae, Dorians, Aetolians, Hermes, Aphrodite, Draco, Solon, Croesus, Miltiades, Ephors, Perioeci, Lycurgus, Nicias, Alcibiades, Herodotus, Thucydides, Aeschines, Antigonus, Hellenistic.

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Significant Dates

Founding of the Republic	510 B.C.
The Punic Wars	264-146 B.C.
Founding of the Empire	27 B.C.
Fall of Empire of the West	476 A.D.

CHAPTER VI

ROME

*Purpose: To Learn the Outstanding Facts
of Roman History.*

Long before the Greek city-states entered upon their period of decline, a new power was rising in the Italian Peninsula which was destined some day to overthrow the states which succeeded the empire so hastily constructed by Alexander the Great. At first Rome was but an insignificant town in the region called Latium. Then it conquered its own Latin allies. Not satisfied with that, it proceeded to subdue the whole peninsula, defeated and destroyed Carthage, seized the lands comprising the Near East, and occupied northern Africa up to the Strait of Gibraltar. Finally, it added Gaul (France) and Britain to its empire and ruled practically the whole civilized world for several hundred years.

EARLIEST DAYS

Geographical Features of Italy. In area, the Italian Peninsula is about four times the size of Greece. It is shaped like a boot, with its straps in the Alps mountains and its heel and

toe extending to southern Italy. It may be divided into four zones: (1) the Apennines mountains, about eight hundred miles in length and occupying the center of the Peninsula, (2) the eastern slope, narrow and steep in the north and wider in the south, (3) the western slope, just the opposite, and (4) the northern plain, which stretches from the Apennines to the Alps. A fifth division might be added — Sicily, a large island almost touching southern Italy.

Predecessors and Early Neighbors of the Romans. The Ligurians, in the mountains of the northwest, were comparatively unimportant. The Etruscans entered the Po valley as early as 1000 B.C., and spread to the south. The Illyrians dwelt chiefly on the eastern slope and at the head of the Adriatic Sea. The Italians consisted of three groups: the Latins, who lived in the lowlands, the south, and Sicily; the Umbrians, whose homes were in the northern mountains; and the Samnites, who dwelt chiefly in the mountain valleys of the center and south. The Carthaginians were a Semitic people of Phoenician descent, who established a kingdom across the Mediterranean in Northern Africa. The Greeks lived mainly in southern Italy and Sicily; Syracuse was their chief city.

The Romans. The early Romans were of the Indo-European race and migrated to Italy, just as did their kinsmen, the Greeks and the Persians. But it can be seen quite easily that in the course of time they should fuse with other peoples whom they found already there. They were, in fact, a very mixed people.

Effects of the Land Upon the People. Italy's central location gave it a dominant position in the Mediterranean world. The comparative absence of harbors discouraged early shipping, while the presence of rich valleys and pastures led to farming and stock raising. Since invaders found the peninsula easy to approach, while defenders found it hard to protect, the situation made necessary a martial people. The geographic unity of Italy helped bring about one government, while its propinquity to other civilizations led to the ready adoption of additional arts and cultures.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC

Overthrow of the Etruscan Kingdom. The Etruscans gradually conquered native tribes until they reached the center of the peninsula about 750 B.C. There they established a kingdom with Rome as its capital and maintained it for more than two centuries. This city-state ruled over the Latin people but also made contact with the nearby Greeks. Their city was on the south bank of the Tiber River, at a ford, out of reach of sea rovers, and on a series of hills that could be fortified with ease. Legend says that the last Etruscan King was overthrown by force; whether that be true or not, certain it is that the Romans eventually crowded out the Etruscans and gained the ascendancy in Rome and surrounding regions.

The Early Roman Government. The *Comitia Curiata* was a gathering of the people by groups of families, each group having one vote. As such, it took part in government matters. The *Comitia Centuriata* were the fighters, in groups of hundreds, with wealthy men predominant, on account of the cost of arming for war. It soon overshadowed the *Curiata*, or Brotherhood. The *Comitia Tributa*, or Tribal Assembly, was presided over by Tribunes, all members having an equal voice. It looked after matters of local interest. The Senate, which under the kings was the Council of Elders, was at first composed of the most important men of the realm; but later it consisted of ex-officeholders and became the most important body. It took over the powers of the Consuls and the Tribunes, gained the initiative in law making, and came to hold practically all governmental powers. After the overthrow of the king, two Consuls, serving one year only, took his place. Only Patricians, or upper class citizens, held this office. Four or more Tribunes came to represent the Plebs, or lower classes, and to exercise the veto power over the acts of any official. The Quaestors were assistant judges and treasury officials. The Censors collected taxes and acted as moral guardians of the people. The Praetors were judges. The Roman constitution was written on twelve tables (tablets) and posted at the Forum. Part of the education of every youth was to memorize these laws

Religion. The Romans adopted the Greek religion almost bodily, as the following table will show:

Roman Deity	Duties	Similar Greek Deity
Jupiter	supreme god	Zeus
Mars	god of war	Ares
Venus	goddess of love	Aphrodite
Bacchus	god of wine	Dionysius
Juno	goddess of the sky, marriage, and birth	Hera
Minerva	goddess of wisdom and commerce	Athena
Ceres	goddess of the fields	Demeter
Neptune	god of the sea	Poseidon
Mercury	messenger of the gods	Hermes

The list could be extended. There were other notable features of the Roman religion: the Sibylline Books, supposed to foretell the future of the state; taking the auspices, a means of foretelling the will of the gods; and the prevalence of household gods, called the lares and penates.

Conquest of Italy. The Romans and Latins had earlier coöperated in a Latin League, for mutual defense against enemies, but the Romans subjugated their allies, thereby gaining in population and territory. The Gauls made several invasions of Italy during the early days of the Republic, and on one occasion they sacked Rome. This act led to the building of a wall around the city. Throughout the days of the Republic these enemies continued to be a threat to the Roman power.

Subjugation of the Etruscans. The Etruscans gradually fell from their position of supremacy. Syracuse wrested from them the control of the sea, the Gauls weakened them, and the Romans, after a ten-year siege, captured their chief city, Veii.

Subjugation of the Samnites. These people proved to be worthy foes; indeed, they defeated more than one Roman army before the Romans crushed them at Sinternum.

Subjugation of the Greeks. These people were long in control of southern Italy and Sicily, and to them the Romans owed their ideas of ships, coins, weights and measures, and

religion. They even adopted the Greek alphabet, modified by the Latin language. At one time it seemed as though the Greeks would occupy the whole peninsula of Italy; for two victories by Pyrrhus, leader of Epirus, who had brought over some war elephants, at first threatened to wipe out the Roman colonies. The Romans finally defeated him, however, after which they conquered the Greek cities in Italy.

Treatment of Conquered Peoples. Much of Rome's success lay in her treatment of those whom she conquered. She accorded them all the liberties possible and often made citizens of them in the course of time. This was especially true of the inhabitants of Italy whom she first subdued, then assimilated.

THE STRUGGLE WITH CARTHAGE

Causes. Now that Rome was the ruling city of Italy, she was responsible for the protection of the Italian coast against invaders and for the defense of Italy's commerce against any people that might seek to damage it—and Carthage was the chief offender in both instances. Furthermore, there were now certain clashes of interest between Rome and Carthage that had not before existed. This was true on the sea, to a limited extent, but it was especially true in southern Italy. Most of Sicily was under Carthaginian control, and each power was a threat to the other. The immediate cause of the struggle, however, had to do with a quarrel among the natives of Sicily. Because the Samnites were plundering Sicily, Heiro, king of the principal Sicilian city of Syracuse, laid siege to the Samnite town of Messina, which controlled the entrance to the Strait of that name lying between Italy and Sicily. One group in Messina appealed for Roman aid; another, for Carthaginian aid; and both cities responded. The war thus began.

Carthaginian Civilization. Phoenician merchants founded the city of Carthage, in what is now Tunis, and made of it a great center of commerce. In the course of time it gained control of northern Africa, southern Spain, and many islands in the Mediterranean. It was a land of merchant princes, slaves, and hired soldiers, but contained few small scale farmers. Its culture

was more nearly Oriental than Grecian, but its powerful fleet and myriads of merchant ships touched all portions of the Mediterranean.

Comparison of the Combatants. Rome had the better army; Carthage, the better fleet. Carthage ruled over a larger territory, but the Roman territory was more compact and thus was more easily defended. Carthage also outnumbered Rome in population, but the Roman people were the more loyal. The Carthaginians at first had the better military commanders; it was not until the Romans overcame this deficiency that permanent success crowned their efforts.

The First Punic War (264-241 B.C.). Heiro espoused the cause of Rome, and the two forces gradually conquered Sicily. On the sea, the Romans, by making use of "boarding bridges," won two victories, but subsequently lost four fleets—two by storms and two by the enemy. A Roman fleet was finally triumphant in a battle near the Aegatian islands, after which a successful invasion of Africa forced Carthage to sue for peace. In the resulting treaty, Carthage paid an indemnity of 3,200 talents, and ceded Sicily and the Lipari islands.

The Second Punic War (218-201 B.C.). In the interval of peace, Carthage subdued a rebellion at home and extended her interests in Spain, while Rome seized Sardinia and Corsica. Hannibal, the Carthaginian leader, deliberately began the struggle by capturing the Roman protected city of Saguntum. He then crossed the Alps and entered Italy from the north and for about fifteen years defeated every army sent against him, but he did not capture the city of Rome. The enemy made up for their defeats in Italy by victories in Spain and by punishing Hannibal's allies. They finally carried the war to Carthage itself, where Hannibal met his first and only defeat at the decisive battle of Zama. At the end of the contest, Carthage paid an indemnity of 10,000 talents, lost most of her fleet, and agreed to make no more war without Roman consent.

The Third Punic War (149-146 B.C.). The continued commercial prosperity of Carthage roused Roman fears of future

trouble, and caused the final destruction of the African city, after a three years' siege.

CONQUEST OF THE HELLENISTIC EAST

The Situation There. At that time, Syria and Macedonia were allies and were planning to extend their empires. Egypt was weak and friendly to Rome. Some of the lesser states of Greece were vassals of Macedonia and were anxious to secure Roman aid; others were divided into the hostile Achaean and Aetolian Leagues.

The Wars with Macedonia. Rome desired to punish Philip, King of Macedonia, for the aid he had extended to Hannibal. Moreover, Macedonia was too close and too powerful for safety. Greek influence at Rome also favored war. Rome's first struggle (214-205 B.C.), waged through her Aetolian allies, broke up Philip's league with Hannibal. The second war (200-196 B.C.) forced him to recognize the freedom of all Greek cities. The third contest (190 B.C.) pushed Antiochus of Syria out of Asia Minor and destroyed his fleet. At the end of a fourth war against Macedonia and some Greek allies, Rome's patience was exhausted. She therefore made Macedonia and Greece into Roman provinces (148 B.C.).

Results of Roman Expansion. Through necessity, rather than design, Rome found herself mistress of the Mediterranean world. She soon found it necessary to adopt a system of government for the conquered territories. She divided them into provinces, stationed troops there, and placed over each province a governor, who for one year ruled there with almost unlimited power. Other results of expansion soon became apparent. A new wealthy class grew up, the city of Rome increased in population, slaves multiplied, small farms disappeared, and great estates took their places. The provinces became tax-burdened and misgoverned, the populace of Rome degenerated into a mob, her Italian allies became discontented, her boundaries were more and more uncertain, and barbarians threatened to invade her territory. It was evident that the old city-state republican government was failing to function, and that a new system of ruling was needed.

THE OVERTHROW OF THE REPUBLIC

(133-27 B.C.)

The Struggle for the Land. The Roman Senate had become a body of aristocrats and had usurped most of the powers of the other assemblies. Too, the senators or their friends had gained control of much of the land, in flagrant disregard of existing land laws. Two brothers, Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus, who were successively elected Tribunes, sponsored land reform laws designed to end this inequality. Both met death by violence, however, and the intolerable conditions regarding land were little improved.

The Social, or Marsic, War. Many of the Italian allies in Italy were not full Roman citizens. Drusus led in an attempt to gain this coveted privilege but failed. These people then resorted to war and defeated the armies sent against them. Rome's tardy concession of citizenship brought peace.

The Dictatorship of Marius. At this time a new leader appeared — Marius. He won notice by his defeat of the Numidian general, Jugurtha, and came to be known as the Savior of Italy because he defeated the Cimbri and Teutons, Germanic invaders. As a reward, he became dictator, but was a failure as a political leader.

Triumph of the Senate. A military champion of the Senate now appeared — Sulla. After displacing Marius from command of the army, he won popular fame by leading a successful expedition against Mithridates, King of Pontus. He then returned in triumph and had many of his enemies put to death. After having restored the Senate to full power, he voluntarily abdicated his dictatorship.

Leadership of Pompey. It was evident, though, that the Roman mind was turning to a one-man deliverer, for Pompey next became prominent. As a Consul representing the people, he restored to the Assembly and the Tribunes their lost powers. But his fame rested on military successes — a successful campaign against the Mediterranean pirates and a brilliant expedition against Mithridates.

Other Prominent Leaders in Rome. Julius Caesar, then a young man, had been a supporter of Marius, was a liberal spender, and possessed the gift of oratory. Cataline, a ruined spendthrift of a noble family, ran for Consul, but Cicero defeated him and later had him executed on a charge of armed treason. Cicero, Rome's greatest orator, was a member of the Equestrian order. He desired a return of the republic.

The First Triumvirate. Three of the men seeking leadership agreed to combine their interests in an arrangement known as the First Triumvirate. By the terms of this agreement, Caesar was to become Consul; Pompey was to get land for his troops, have his peace treaty for Asia Minor ratified, and become governor of Spain; Crassus was to furnish money for the undertakings, was to become Consul, and later was to command an army for an invasion of Syria.

The Conquest of Gaul. Caesar was soon made governor of Illyria and Gaul, with command of an army. He conquered Gaul (58-51 B.C.), and also invaded Britain, after which he wrote a history of his conquests.

Caesar, Master of Rome. Caesar's appointment of five years in Gaul was too short a period, so he asked that it be renewed. Crassus was defeated by the Parthians. Pompey, now jealous of Caesar, persuaded the Senate to refuse a re-appointment and to ask him to resign at once. Caesar's refusal to resign meant war. He soon met and defeated Pompey, now representing the Senate, and thus became virtual ruler.

His Political and Economic Reforms. Caesar made provincial governors strictly responsible to him, gave them fixed salaries and no other pay, and sent other officials to report as to their behavior. He also extended citizenship to many provincials. He increased the membership of the Senate to six hundred, including many provincials, and dominated that body himself. He became Tribune, Censor, and Dictator for life, and held the office of Imperator for himself and descendants. He required landlords to employ one free laborer for each two slaves, reclaimed and allotted more public lands, and settled eighty thousand citizens in the provinces. He sponsored agrarian relief laws and aid for

insolvent debtors, reformed the calendar and the coinage system, took a census, drained marshes, improved roads, and erected public buildings. A group of political enemies assassinated him, 44 B.C.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE AUGUSTAN AGE

(27 B.C.-70 A.D.)

The Second Triumvirate. Octavius (later Augustus), a grand nephew of Julius Caesar, upon receiving news of his uncle's death, went to Rome and placed himself at the head of the army to secure the place his uncle had held. He succeeded in obtaining the office of Consul and then made an alliance with Antony and Lepidus known as the Second Triumvirate, in which the three agreed to a general execution of all enemies and to an overthrow of the Republicans, headed by Brutus. Lepidus soon retired with the office of Pontifex Maximus, and the other two men fought for supremacy. Octavius defeated the forces of Antony and Cleopatra at Actium and made Egypt into a Roman province. Thus was the Second Triumvirate broken up.

Organization of the Roman State. The republic was now no more. Octavius received the titles of Emperor, Princeps, Augustus, and Pontifex Maximus. He became a Consul with Pro-Consular powers, which meant that he commanded the army and navy and controlled all provinces. As Tribune he could summon the Senate, propose laws, make treaties, and declare war and peace. He created an army of twenty-five legions, responsible directly to him. The Senate retained legislative and judicial powers, but Augustus gave it an inadequate treasury and held the veto power over its acts. In the provinces he carried out and extended Julius Caesar's reforms. The Assemblies continued to exist, but Augustus could veto their acts. During his long reign (27 B.C.-A.D. 14), he gathered into his hands all the reins of government.

Tiberius (Emperor, 14-37). He proved to be a wise, but unpopular, ruler. He alienated the army by his policy of peace, angered the Senate because he spent money on the Asiatic provinces and refused to pension the nobility, and aroused the populace because he cut down the supply of free wheat.

Caligula (Emperor, 37-41). He was of unsound mind and squandered much money. His own officers finally assassinated him.

Claudius (Emperor, 41-54). The Praetorian Guard forced the Senate to select him. Though lacking firmness, he accomplished much. He brought many provincial governors to task, bettered conditions of slave life, constructed aqueducts, and made use of ministers, or advisers.

Nero (54-68). His mother pushed him into power. For a while he ruled well but soon became despotic and developed assassination to a fine art. Rome was practically destroyed by fire, an event which was followed by a vicious persecution of the Christians. Finally, facing a revolt, he killed himself.

Attempts to Restore Old Roman Life. Laws were passed to protect the sanctity of marriage and to banish the Oriental gods and restore the old religion. Moreover, old temples were rebuilt and new ones were erected.

Improvements in the Capital. New police, fire, and water departments were created; and beautiful theaters, public baths, and government edifices were built.

Art, Architecture, and Science. Greek and Oriental influences predominated, except for the arch. Little sculpture and painting existed. The lack of achievements in science is illustrated by Strabo's geography and Agrippa's map, both of which are inaccurate.

Literature. Greek influence predominated, for Roman youths studied in Athens, where they copied Greek writers. But Rome produced many prominent writers on her own account. Julius Caesar wrote narratives of his campaigns. Cicero wrote an inaccurate history of Rome from its founding to the time of Augustus. Horace, early an enemy of Augustus, but later a friend, wrote incomparable odes depicting the men and life of his time. Virgil is chiefly famous for the *Aeneid*, an epic poem that paid tribute to Augustus.

THE SECOND CENTURY OF PEACE (70-180)

Problems Facing the Government. The wise reforms instituted in political and economic affairs, plus a succession of able rulers, gave Rome a new lease of life. Although the Augustan rulers had done much, two important matters still faced the government: protection of the frontiers, and the organization of a more efficient government. To correct the first, the emperor stationed troops along the northern boundary, the Danube frontier, and Parthia. Various steps were taken to remedy the second fault: a civil service system was created, tax farmers were largely replaced by government collectors, a uniform system of law was developed, and the government of the provinces was improved.

Rulers of the Period. (1) Vespasian (69-79). This man, proclaimed Emperor by his soldiers, conducted a thrifty and economical administration. (2) Titus (79-81). Titus, popular on account of his generosity, is, however, remembered for the destruction of Jerusalem and the scattering of the Jews. A volcano destroyed Pompeii and Herculaneum during his reign. (3) Domitian (81-96). This ruler fortified the frontiers, conquered Britain and Gaul, quieted the Dacians, and persecuted the Christians. He fell at the hands of a Republican assassin. (4) Nerva (96-98). Nerva was the first of the so-called "five good emperors." As a member of the Senate, he increased the importance of that body. (5) Trajan (98-117). This war-like ruler subdued Dacia and established a Roman colony there. He also conquered Arabia, Armenia, and Parthia, and made these regions into Roman provinces. (6) Hadrian (117-138). This Emperor gave up some of Trajan's conquests, built a wall across Britain, and established a Federal civil service system. He also reorganized the army by introducing morals and discipline, extended citizenship to many provincials, and encouraged learning. (7) Antoninus Pius (138-161). He improved the lot of the slave and adopted the principle that a man is innocent until proved guilty. He neglected the defense of the frontier. (8) Marcus Aurelius (161-180). He was a Stoic philosopher and writer. While his *Meditations* approach Christianity in spirit, yet he persecuted the Christians. He died while defending the frontier against the barbarians.

Civilization of the Period. The Empire by this time embraced almost every known tongue and people. To weld these discordant elements together there was an excellent system of communication and a law that was uniform and just. Commerce was extensive but was confined to the Mediterranean and was under Roman control. Rome, Athens, and Alexandria were the centers of higher learning, where law, medicine, philosophy, Latin, and Greek were taught. Grammar schools, endowed by the state, existed in all the larger towns, as did lower schools in the smaller towns. Education was chiefly for the upper classes. Rome was a magnificent city of one million people, with many public buildings. The Oriental religions were popular, many persons having lost faith in the old Roman gods. Increasing numbers of Jews, with their own exclusive religion, were to be found in Roman cities. Christianity, which began in Palestine and was spread in Rome by the Apostle Paul and others, was also gaining many adherents. In spite of persecution of its believers, Christianity thrived. (See the next chapter.)

A CENTURY OF REVOLUTION (180-284)

Evidences of Internal Disruption. The process of concentrating land into great estates, or villas, which had been noticeable for some time, now went on apace. The small-scale farmers, no longer able to keep their land, became bound to some lord for their holdings, which could not be sold. They were called *coloni*. The supply of slaves decreased with the decline of war. Those remaining had their condition improved by law, some became *coloni*, and others were even set free. Wasteful methods of villa farming led to decreased productiveness.

The Decline in Population. Increased luxury produced a lower birth rate, while the higher cost of living made for smaller families. The Asiatic Plague also caused the death of many.

Industrial and Commercial Stagnation. The lowered purchasing ability of country communities produced a consequent decline of city industries and increased unemployment. In order to remedy the scarcity of money, rulers resorted to debasing the coinage — a remedy that made matters only worse.

The ROMAN EMPIRE about 395

Scale of Miles
0 50 100 150 200

WESTERN PART

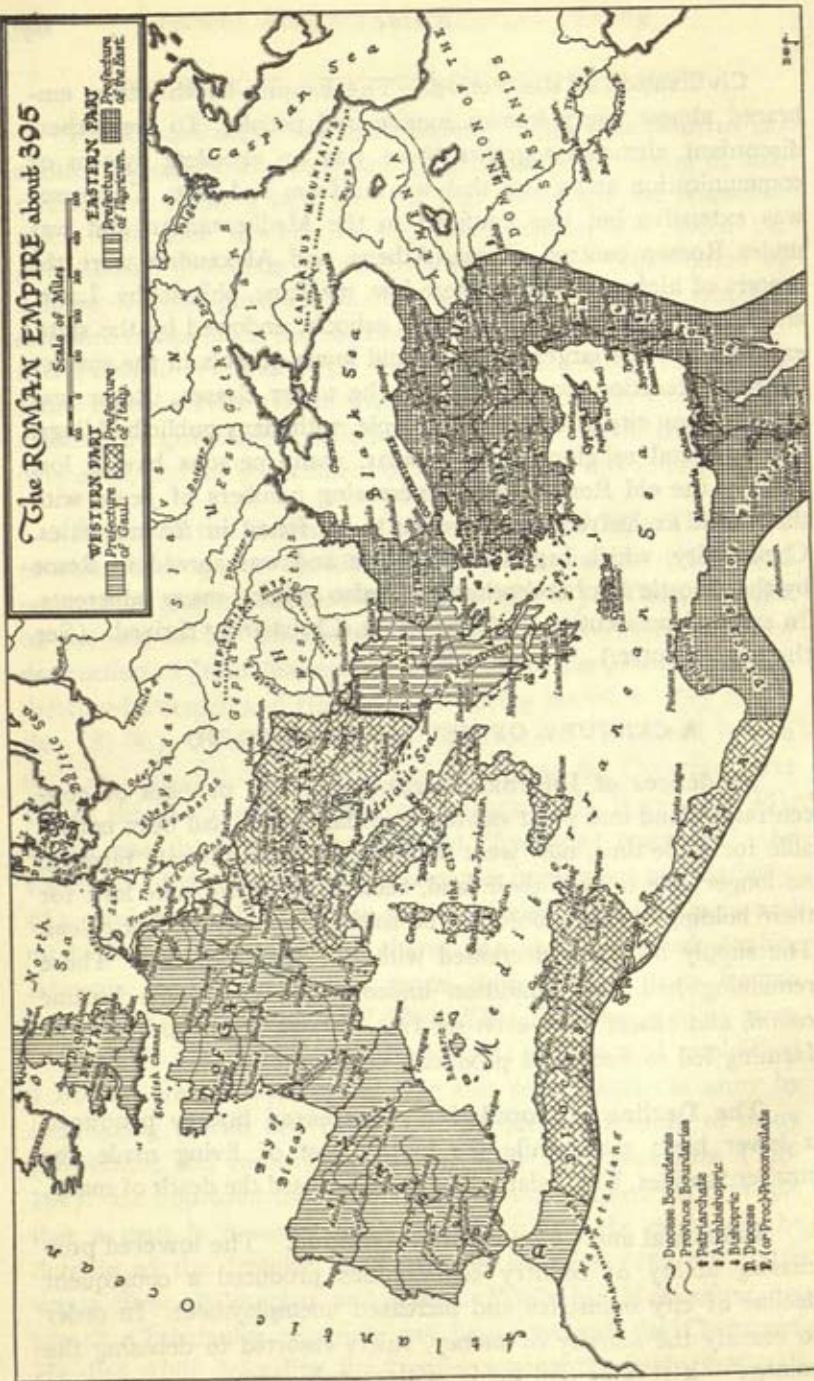
Province of Gaul

Province of Hispania

EASTERN PART

Province of the East

Province of the East



- ~ Province Boundaries
- ⊕ Patriarchate
- ⊙ Archbishopric
- ⊙ Bishopric
- ⊙ Diocese
- ⊙ E. (or Proconsularis)

Demoralization of State and Army. Lacking money, the government paid soldiers in land and received taxes in grain. Because there was no law of succession, the army through force often put incompetent rulers into power. Because Romans would not serve, barbarian recruits were accepted.

The Political and Military Situation. So low had Rome sunk that Julianus bought the throne at public auction (193). There were some signs of a revival under Septimius Severus (193-211), but nothing permanent was accomplished. Eighty rulers occupied the throne within a period of ninety years, and most of them met death by violence. Goths from the East ravaged the coast; others overran northern Italy, Gaul, and Spain. The Gauls achieved independence, while a new Persia arose to threaten Rome from Asia.

REORGANIZATION AND DECLINE (284-476)

The Work of Diocletian. Diocletian made Rome into an undisguised Oriental monarchy. He deprived the Senate of all power and assumed the rôle of a god-king. For administrative purposes, the government was divided into two grand divisions ruled over by Augusti, who further subdivided it and chose two Caesars as co-rulers; thus creating the Eastern and Western Empires. He also divided the provinces into four groups, reorganized their boundaries, and made them responsible directly to him. Finally, he engaged in the last and bitterest major persecution of the Christians in Roman history.

Results of His Work. Diocletian's reorganization infused new energy into the government, ended anarchy and lawlessness, and undoubtedly prolonged the life of the empire. On the other hand, it brought about a more oppressive system of taxation to support the new Courts, ended all semblance of liberty and democracy, and paved the way for the eventual separation of the East and the West.

The Successors of Diocletian in the West. Diocletian's plan of succession failed with the resignation of the Augusti in 305, and the period of civil war that followed was ended by the triumph of Constantine. This Emperor (323-337) is chiefly im-

portant for two acts: the recognition of Christianity as the state religion, and the removal of the capital to Constantinople. There were temporary reunions of the East and the West under Constantius (350) and Theodosius (379-395), but the period as a whole is a sad story of anarchy and confusion. The Roman Empire of the West came to an end with the removal (476 A.D.) of the last Emperor and the bestowal of his powers on the Emperor of the East.

Extent of the Roman Empire. The Roman Empire at one time included practically all the Mediterranean world. Modern Egypt, Syria, Palestine, Turkey, Spain, Portugal, France, the British Isles, Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, and most of the Balkan states lay in its realm.

Diverse Nationalities. There were sixty million people in this huge empire, and they consisted of almost every human race and tongue, from the rough barbarians to the cultured Greeks.

Bonds of Union. In spite of the vast extent and widely different peoples composing it, the Roman Empire existed for several centuries, and many considered it eternal. Evidently some strong ties bound it together.

(1) **Government.** Perhaps one of the strongest of these bonds was the government itself. It was headed by an emperor who was all-powerful and who was sometimes deified. It was active in maintaining order, establishing justice, and defending the boundaries. In some instances it even provided amusements and furnished food for its inhabitants. In the course of time it developed a superior system of law that was humane, uniform, just, and adapted to the needs of a complex society such as existed within the empire. The Roman law still exerts a profound influence on the world, for it is the basis of many modern law systems. Moreover, the government preserved a peace that was effective, most of the time, throughout its domain.

(2) **Roads.** "All roads lead to Rome" was the old saying. These roads were solidly built and widely extended. Aside from their military importance, they were also useful for commerce and other communication.

(3) **Education.** Elementary, grammar, and higher schools were established in every town of importance, where teachers paid by the state taught similar subjects, such as law, medicine, Latin, Greek, rhetoric, oratory, and patriotism. Though this education was chiefly for those of the upper and middle classes, nevertheless it acted as a unifying factor.

CAUSES AND EVIDENCES OF ROMAN DECLINE

Decline in Character. There was a decline of the old Roman character; a process that was aided by the infusion of lower blood and by luxury and was illustrated by the growth of immorality and divorces and by the increasing disrespect for law.

Economic Phases. Land, by graft and fraud, fell into the hands of a few, and farms became less productive. Food prices declined because of the competition of slave labor and government-owned grain. Taxation became intolerable, especially on land. Furthermore, the prevalence and cheapness of slaves created disrespect for work and made the Romans a nation of loafers. In time the *coloni* system of bound labor arose, but this scarcely bettered conditions. War, slavery, plague, and unprofitable living conditions also caused a decline in population.

Barbarian Inroads. Barbarians entered either peacefully, marrying Romans and lowering their living standards, or by force, capturing portions of the empire.

Christianity. This factor destroyed the religious unity of the empire, kept some good men out of the government, and encouraged celibacy and depopulation.

Political Aspects. The great size of the empire made it difficult to govern. Moreover, people lost interest in political affairs, and the government became so corrupt at times that it required reforms to save it from destruction.

Military Problems. As the old Roman willingness to fight declined, mercenary troops, especially Germans, were used. The army became involved in politics, lost its discipline, and was unequal to the huge task of defending the frontier.

QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the geography of Italy, and show how it affected Roman history.
2. Who were the Romans? Tell of their predecessors and neighbors.
3. Describe the Roman conquest of Italy.
4. Trace to its conclusion the struggle between Rome and Carthage.
5. Tell of Rome's conquest of the Hellenistic East.
6. Who was the greater general, Hannibal or Alexander? Why?
7. Mention and explain eight results of Roman expansion.
8. Describe the land situation after Rome's expansion. What reforms were attempted?
9. Tell of the work of Marius, Sulla, Pompey, Cataline, Cicero, Julius Caesar.
10. How did Augustus organize the state? What reforms did he undertake?
11. Discuss Augustan art, architecture, science, and literature.
12. Outline the work of the successors of the Augustan line.
13. Outline the work of the Flavian Emperors; of the "Five Good Emperors."
14. Explain Diocletian's work, and give its good and bad points.
15. What evidences of decay existed in Rome during the century of conflict?
16. Compare the Roman and Greek religions.
17. Identify: Romulus, Etruscans, Quaestors, Antiochus, Jugurtha, Cimbri, *Aeneid*, Lepidus, Crassus, Livy, Strabo, Parthians, Dacia, *Meditations*, Caracalla, Julianus, Theodosius, Justinian.
18. Compare the two Triumvirates.

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Significant Dates

Crucifixion of Jesus	ca. 31 A.D.
Destruction of Jerusalem	70 A.D.
The Edict of Milan	313
Church Council of Nicaea	325
Pope Leo the Great	440-461

CHAPTER VII

THE RISE OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH

*Purpose: To Study the Early History of the Christian Church
and to Make an Analysis of the Christian Religion.*

Since the Christian Church became the greatest institution in the whole history of Europe and of the Western World, and since it profoundly affected the literature of all the countries of Europe and America, no one can understand the history of western civilization without being fairly familiar with the history of the Christian Church and of the Christian religion. When the civilization of the ancient world decayed and when the nations that had been conquered by the Romans relapsed into barbarism and chaos, the Christian Church restored order, rebuilt libraries, preserved thousands of manuscripts, founded new schools in many countries, and perfected a new code of law for the nations of the Western World. Gradually the Christian religion overswept western Asia and the whole of Europe, conquering wherever it went the religions of the Egyptians, the Persians, the Greeks, and the Romans.

**THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH IN THE
FIRST CENTURY OF OUR ERA**

Literary Sources of the Christian Religion. The whole of the Bible, which is made up of the Old Testament and the New Testament, forms the basis of the Christian religion. The New Testament is made up of the four Gospels of Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John; the Acts of the Apostles; the Epistles of the leading Apostles; and the Revelation of the Apostle John. These works tell about the life and death of Jesus of Nazareth, who is called Jesus Christ. They describe the most important features of the Christian faith. They also tell about the missionary labors of the leading apostles. However, the historian is not in a position to tell whether these books which make up the New Testament were divinely inspired and for that reason infallible, or whether they are merely human documents. The reader must judge for himself as to their authenticity. In addition to the New Testament, the other important literary sources of the Christian religion are the works of the Church Fathers, who were leaders in the Christian Church during the first five centuries. Furthermore, the decisions of the early church councils are also important literary sources.

Reasons for the Success of the Early Christian Church. First of all, it possessed a book, the Bible, which was considered the divinely inspired Word of God. In the second place, the members of the Church believed that Jesus Christ was the only-begotten Son of God, and since he was the Founder of the Church, the Christian religion surpassed all others. Thirdly, the Christian religion proclaimed the highest code of ethics that the world had ever known, including the Ten Commandments of Moses and the Two Commandments of Jesus. Fourthly, to all human beings who wished to accept Jesus Christ as their Savior, it held out hope of redemption from sin and the devil, and an eternal life hereafter. Fifthly, it promised not merely eternal life, but also the resurrection of the body. Sixthly, it taught that God was the Father of all human beings, and that He was sincerely interested in the welfare of every one of them. Seventhly, it raised the status of women, and it proclaimed that all human beings, in a certain sense at least, were equal before God. Finally, it gave to

its members an enlightened viewpoint as to their duties toward rulers, superiors, inferiors, and in short toward all other human beings. As a result, Christians became respectable and orderly citizens of all nations in which they lived.

SUBSEQUENT HISTORY OF THE EARLY CHURCH

Persecution of the Christians. Since the Christians refused to worship the emperors, and since they were accused of various crimes for which as a rule they were not at all responsible, several emperors, beginning with Nero, persecuted them severely. Many of them were thrown before the wild beasts in the arena of the Coliseum. Others were burned to death in the same place or elsewhere in Rome, the capital of the Roman Empire, as well as in other cities. The last persecution occurred at the opening of the fourth century, but Emperor Constantine in 313 promulgated the famous Edict of Milan, in which he stated that all religions, including the religion of the Christians, were to be tolerated henceforth.

The Council of Nicaea (325). This was an assembly attended by the leading clergy throughout the Roman Empire, and was convened by Emperor Constantine. Among the many decisions made was the condemnation of the heresy of Arius, who taught that God the Father is from eternity, but that God the Son and God the Holy Spirit are His creations. The council accepted the confession of Athanasius, which stated that the Son is of the same substance as the Father.

Final Conquest of the Christian Religion. During the course of the fifth century, after Emperor Julian had tried to restore paganism to its ancient position of power within the Roman Empire, in which undertaking he had completely failed, the Christian religion became the only legitimate religion in the empire. The emperors themselves accepted the teachings of the Christian Church, and a large number of the officials in the empire also called themselves Christians. Unfortunately for the Church, the adherence of so many wealthy and influential persons tended to make the Church more worldly and less interested in purely spiritual things. Furthermore, the Church also received an immense number of holdings of real estate, bequeathed by persons

anxious to have prayers said for them after they had passed away. For that reason they often gave their property to the Church on condition that they would be remembered in prayers by various important members in the Church.

Church Government. Each congregation had a minister or pastor, who was originally called a bishop (*episcopus*) or elder (*presbyter*). The word "priest" was derived from the term *presbyter*. The pastor as a rule was assisted by elders and deacons. The latter were in charge of the finances of the congregation and also visited the poor and needy. The elders often substituted for the pastors in the administration of the sacraments and in preaching. They also helped in visiting the sick. A number of congregations were united into a district called a bishopric, governed by an official called "bishop." Furthermore, a number of bishoprics, or dioceses, were grouped into a larger unit called an archbishopric, governed over by an archbishop. This unit was also called a "province." Gradually the democratic features of early Church government made room for a monarchical system of government, which afterwards was called the "hierarchy."

THE BEGINNING OF MONASTICISM

Origin and Spread. The idea of separating from the world to avoid its snares and pitfalls is of pagan origin, but soon it found vogue among the Christians. Some devotees of the practice lived as hermits, but the more common method was to live in groups, or monasteries. St. Basil early founded such communities, and others took up the idea and spread it throughout Europe. Monastic life attracted many. Those who wished to mortify the body, to escape from the Barbarians, to spend a life in study and contemplation, or to flee from crime and disgrace—all such found a refuge in monasteries.

Monastery Life. St. Benedict formulated a set of rules for monastic life that others widely copied. According to this system, a person who entered a monastery took the vows of poverty, obedience, and chastity. He spent his time in a regular routine of meditation and prayer, farming, draining marshes, copying manuscripts, writing, and similar activities. The monastery strove to be a complete economic and social unit.

Influence of the Monasteries. These organizations produced many church leaders and upheld the Popes in all matters. They also kept alive learning, dispensed charity, taught new methods of farming, gave new dignity to manual labor, and sent out missionaries. Augustine and forty followers went as missionaries to the British Isles and later his successors in that region won the leaders of the original Celtic Church to the Catholic fold. The final victory came at the Council of Whitby (664). St. Columban acted as a missionary to the Gauls and Lombards. St. Boniface established churches and monasteries among the Germans. These are only a few of the many missionary activities of the monks.

THE RISE OF THE PAPACY

Relation of Church and State. Mention has been made of the growth of the primitive religion till it became the state religion under Constantine. After that time it not only grew in size and complexity of organization, but it also began a persecution of pagans and Arian Christians. At first, church and state coöperated, for the church was dependent on the Emperor, who rewarded it and punished its enemies. But as the Empire grew weaker from barbarian inroads the church tended to become more independent of the government, and even to assume certain governmental functions, such as the dispensing of charity, the defense of widows and orphans, and the control of education, marriage, and divorce.

Origin of the Powers of the Pope. The term *Pope* is not mentioned in the Bible or the early church codes. Catholics, however, maintain that Peter was leader among the apostles and was first bishop of Rome, and that his powers were handed down to subsequent bishops of that city, or to the Popes. Historically speaking, it is easy to understand how the bishop of Rome came to be leader of the church. Rome had been the capital of the old world, and people had become used to looking to it for leadership. The fall of the Empire of the West increased the prestige of the Pope. One bishop in particular — Leo (440-461) — greatly increased the powers of his office. He persuaded Valentinian III to issue a decree recognizing the supremacy of the Church of Rome over the Gallic Church. This active bishop also

turned back Attila and helped to save Rome from destruction. The name *Pope* finally came to be applied to the bishop of Rome only. The leading prelate in the East was called the Patriarch.

Gregory, the First Great Pope, 590-604. Raised in a pious home, Gregory was well-educated and at an early age entered monastic life. When he became Pope he revolutionized the administration of affairs in the city of Rome and increased the private patrimony of the Pope. He also made peace with the Lombards and even converted the king, thereby ridding Rome of a troublesome enemy. He established numerous ecclesiastical courts and gained control over many bishops. He was also a leading writer of the day.

THE CHURCH FATHERS

Apostolic Fathers. The Church Fathers who lived in the first century of our era were commonly referred to as the Apostolic Fathers. Among them may be mentioned Clement of Rome, who is considered, at least by the Roman Catholics, as one of the early Popes. He wrote influential letters to the churches in the Near East, and in this manner kept in close touch with them.

The Defense of the Christian Religion. A large number of Christian writers of prominence wrote treatises, called *Apolo-gies*, in defense of their religion. They tried to show that the Greeks had been poorly led even by so great a thinker as Plato. They condemned the immoral teachings of the mystery religions of the ancient Greeks, and they pointed out that the polytheism of both the Greeks and the Romans was an abomination in the sight of God. They compared the virtues of the Christians with the immoral lives of the greatest thinkers among the Greeks, including Plato, who had taught that all women should be held in common. Many of them made elaborate lists of all the heresies, both among the Christians and among the pagans. Among these apologists was Irenaeus.

St. Ambrose. Perhaps the most influential Church Father in the fourth century was St. Ambrose, who not only wrote important books but also exercised much influence in his capacity as the Bishop of Milan. At that time the Emperor lived

in Milan instead of Rome, and for that reason the position of Ambrose was of great importance. The emperor at this time was Theodosius, who at least on one occasion was severely reprimanded by Ambrose for certain massacres that had been perpetrated by imperial command.

St. Jerome. This great writer lived at the end of the fourth century and at the beginning of the fifth century. A great linguist, he made a new version of the Bible which is commonly called the Vulgate, written in the Latin language, and translated out of the original Hebrew and Greek tongues.

St. Augustine. The most important among all the Church Fathers was St. Augustine, whose books, including his famous *Confessions* and *The City of God*, were read by more persons in the Middle Ages than the books of any other person. In *The City of God* he told about the Christian Church, which he contrasted with the Roman Empire. He pointed out that all nations were full of corruption, and all would in time pass away, but that the Christian Church had an eternal inheritance reserved for it in the heavens. St. Augustine also became famous for his excellent exposition of the most important doctrines that comprised the Christian faith, or the Christian creed. Like Plato, he believed in "realism." He also taught the doctrine of predestination, according to which God determines in advance what would be the fate of human beings as far as their salvation was concerned. However, St. Augustine has often been misunderstood, and it should be remembered that he did not teach that God forced people into heaven or hell, but that, although man was not able to do very much, there was a real coöperation between God and man.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the books that make up the New Testament?
2. Who were the disciples and the apostles?
3. Where was the first Christian Church located?
4. How were the early Christian churches governed?
5. Who were some of the earliest Christian missionaries?
6. Explain why the Christian religion triumphed over all other religions of the ancient world.
7. Why were the Christians persecuted by certain Roman Emperors?
8. Who decided at last to tolerate the Christian religion, and to protect it to some extent?

9. Describe the Arian heresy.
10. Explain how monasticism originated.
11. Explain why the bishop of Rome became the leader of the Church in the West.
12. Name some of the early popes.
13. Why was St. Ambrose an important Church Father?
14. What was the most important work done by St. Jerome?
15. Discuss the works and the most important teachings of St. Augustine.

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Significant Dates

Battle of Adrianople	378
Sack of Rome by Goths	410
Battle of Châlons	451
Battle of Tours	732
Charlemagne's Empire	768-814

CHAPTER VIII

THE GERMAN MIGRATIONS AND KINGDOMS

Purpose: To Learn About the Most Important Germanic Tribes and the Kingdoms Which They Established Upon the Ruins of the Roman Empire in the West.

The Germans or Teutons, like the Greeks and the Romans, belonged to the Indo-European peoples. But, unlike the Greeks and the Romans, they originally lived to the north of the Alps, and for that reason they are commonly called the "Nordics." The peoples in southern Europe, on the other hand, are generally said to belong to the Mediterranean race. Between the Mediterranean race and the Nordics lived the so-called Alpine race, to which belonged the Celts. There are also many authorities who believe that the Slavs, who inhabited central and east central Europe shortly after the fall of the Roman Empire, also belonged to the Alpine race.

THE COMING OF THE BARBARIANS

Early Invasions of Rome. The Gauls made several incursions into Rome and once sacked the city. Hannibal enlisted many barbarians in his army while he was in Italy. Marius earned the proud title of Savior of the Country because he defeated the Cimbri and the Teutons. Other barbarians entered Rome peacefully and became soldiers or coloni. These early barbarians came for various motives — booty, plunder, adventure, or homes.

Origin and Native Homes of the Early Germans. The German barbarians lived in the vicinity of the Baltic Sea before they invaded Rome. Some historians trace them to an Indo-European origin similar to that of the Persians, Greeks, and Romans.

Their Home Life. The early Germans were tall blonds, lived in rude huts or caves, ate milk products or flesh, and hunted or plundered for a living. Their religion was chiefly a nature worship. Women were held in high esteem, and monogamy was the rule. There were a few nobles and slaves, but most of them were simply freemen.

Their Government. There was a Popular Assembly, which all freemen attended. It decided such important questions as peace, war, migrations, selection of leaders, and crime. The Old Men's Council discussed matters of state when the Assembly was not in session. Each tribe had a military chief, or king, who held his position by virtue of ability in war. Youthful followers sometimes attached themselves to certain older leaders in war and peace: a relationship known as *comitatus*. Guilt or innocence was determined by ordeals of fire and water, by oath taking, or by wager of battle. To be outlawed from the tribe was considered the severest punishment, but fines, slavery, and death were also resorted to as penalties.

The Goths. Driven by the Huns, these people sought to cross the Danube River into Rome and succeeded in doing so. They defeated the Romans at Adrianople (378) and later, under Alaric, sacked the city of Rome (410). The West Goths (Visigoths) settled in Spain and southern Gaul, where they founded

a kingdom and helped the Romans defeat Attila at Châlons (451). They also ended the Empire of the West in 476. The Eastern Goths (Ostrogoths), under Theodoric, set up a kingdom in Italy, but Justinian later forced them to leave (533).

The Franks. The Franks came from the region of the lower Rhine, and spread slowly, but permanently. Their leader, Clovis, conquered Gaul and also defeated three other German tribes: the Alemanni, West Goths, and Burgundians. He and his soldiers became Christians. After his death three kingdoms appeared: Neustria, Austrasia, and Burgundy; but these kingdoms were later merged under Pippin.

Other Tribes. The Vandals migrated to Spain, thence to northern Africa, where they established a kingdom. They became pirates and sacked Rome (455). The Burgundians settled in the region northwest of Italy but submitted to Frankish domination for a time. Burgundy became a province of France. The Lombards overran the Italian Peninsula after the death of Justinian, settled in northern Italy, and founded a kingdom that lasted two hundred years. The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes invaded and conquered Britain.

The Mingling of Roman and Barbarian. No reliable estimate can be made of the number who came into the Roman Empire. They accepted Christianity readily and soon began to speak a modified Latin but kept their own laws. Their coming had a disastrous effect on learning, of which they knew nothing. Writers disappeared, centers of learning were destroyed, and civilization in general declined. The so-called "Dark Ages" resulted.

THE FRANKS AND THEIR EMPIRE

Charles Martel. The Merovingian successors of Clovis became so feeble that an official of the Royal household, called the Mayor of the Palace, actually usurped the powers of the king; and one of these, Pippin, succeeded in making the office hereditary in his family. It was Charles Martel, though, who really made the position prominent enough to enable his successor to become king of the Franks. This man commanded the army at the battle of Tours, thereby gaining great honor. He also consolidated his power by subduing refractory bishops and abbots.

Pippin. This son of Charles Martel pushed the nominal king from the throne and became king by Papal sanction. He also conquered Lombardy, thus ridding the Pope of a dangerous enemy and cementing the close relations between the Papal office and the new line of Carolingian kings.

Personality and Conquests of Charlemagne. This king, who is the foremost figure in medieval history, possessed a pleasing personal appearance and was unusually temperate in his daily habits. In the course of his long reign (he lived 742-814) he made many conquests. Especially troublesome did the Saxons prove to be, for they rebelled against him nine times. There was less trouble, however, in establishing Christianity among them. He also conquered the Lombards in Italy, who were again threatening the Pope, and placed the iron crown of their king on his own head. In the course of his expeditions, he likewise acquired Aquitaine, Bavaria, Bohemia, other nearby Slavic regions, and northeastern Spain.

Charlemagne as Emperor. While Charlemagne was kneeling at worship, the Pope proclaimed him Emperor of the Romans (800). The head of the church doubtless desired to continue his good relations with the Frankish king, to reward him for past favors, and to give him a title in keeping with his dignity. It seemed fitting, also, to take that step, since there was no emperor in the East just then, and it was felt that there should be one somewhere. The act started the Frankish empire, which in turn led to the creation of the shadowy Holy Roman Empire. It also caused later trouble between Germany and Italy, aided the forces of disunity in both countries, and strengthened the Papal claim of superiority over kings.

His Plan of Government. Charlemagne had no general system of taxation but depended largely upon the income from his estates, which he guarded carefully. He put counts in various places and charged them with the duties of maintaining order and justice and raising troops. To check the work of these counts, he sent out royal commissioners in pairs to investigate and report. He traveled much and often made personal inspection of the work of his officials.

His Promotion of Education. It was an age of ignorance; books were scarce and interest in education was generally lacking. Charlemagne, however, not only improved his own limited opportunities to learn but also promoted the establishment of numerous bishops' and abbots' schools, where sons of the poor, as well as the rich, might learn. He likewise founded a school near his home for the instruction of his own children and those of nearby nobles and invited some of the foremost educators in Europe to teach there. His work bore little fruit, however, so far as dispelling the general ignorance of the period was concerned.

THE BREAK-UP OF CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE

Division of the Kingdom. Charlemagne planned a division of his kingdom among his three sons (806), but two of them died before their father did, leaving to a third son, Louis the Pious, the territory still united. Three of his sons, Lothaire, Charles the Bald, and Louis the German, after much quarreling, finally divided their grandfather's domains at the Treaty of Verdun (843). To Charles went the western part, or France; to Lothaire went the imperial title and a central strip, including later Lorraine and northern Italy; while to Louis went the eastern division, or Germany.

Completion of the Disruption. There was a temporary reunion of the kingdoms under Charles the Fat, but he proved to be too incompetent to hold his gains, or even his throne. The West Frankish kingdom divided into northern and southern provinces, while in Italy the counts and local landowners held sway.

Causes and Results of the Disruption. Undoubtedly the lack of another Charlemagne was a prominent cause of disruption, for he overcame difficulties that overwhelmed his successors. Poor means of communication and a scarcity of money were other causes, for they increased the difficulties of the government. Barbarian invasions contributed to the break-up, the Northmen invading by sea and by the rivers, the Slavs entering from the east, the Hungarians coming into central Germany and northern Italy, and the Saracens overrunning portions of Spain, Sicily, Italy, and southern France. The granting of immunities — land

grants exempting the owner from visits or supervision of government officials — also increased the prevailing confusion and weakened the king. The German custom of dividing the heritage, rather than handing it down to the oldest son, also led to divisions that weakened the once great empire. The results were increasing disunity, the weakening of the royal power, and the growth of feudalism.

The Last of the Carolingians in France. The successors of Charlemagne divided his kingdom in 843. The portion that fell to Charles, which may be called France, contained many rebellious nobles, and faced Saracens, Northmen, and German foes. Little unity existed in the territory; powerful lords held much of it, and feudalism had become firmly entrenched. Under these circumstances, disunity increased in the latter days of the Carolingians. Great fiefs arose such as Normandy, Brittany, the Flemish towns, Burgundy, Aquitaine, Toulouse, and Champagne.

Germany and Italy. Germany, the easternmost division ceded by the Verdun Treaty, was smaller and more uncivilized than the other two divisions and contained few people except Germans. There was a sharp tendency toward disunity; because of the fact that kings were elected, old tribal divisions persisted, and border enemies often invaded the land.

THE GERMANIC KINGDOMS IN ENGLAND BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST

Earliest Inhabitants of Britain. Long before the Romans came under Julius Caesar to invade England and make it a Roman province, the island of Great Britain had been settled by Celtic peoples. Those who lived in what is now England were called the Britons, while those in Ireland were called the Gaels. They were closely related to the Celts, who about the year 1000 B.C. or a little later settled in what is now France and the country to the north, that is, the Netherlands. The peninsula in France called Brittany was named after the same people from whom the name "Britain" was derived.

The Roman Occupation. As we have seen, Caesar and his legions invaded Great Britain about the year 55 B.C., but

England did not become a Roman province until much later. It was about the year 50 A.D. that England was finally incorporated into the Roman Empire. This province remained a part of the Roman dominions until the fifth century, when the Roman legions were withdrawn in order to defend the territories closer to Italy.

The Coming of the Germanic Tribes. During the fifth and sixth centuries several Teutonic tribes migrated to England and to Scotland. The most numerous perhaps were the Saxons, who settled in east central England, particularly around what is now the city of London. The Angles occupied the area to the north, while in the extreme southeast, in the county of Kent, the Jutes settled. These were people who had arrived from the mainland of Denmark, which is called Jutland. In addition to these three tribes there were also a large number of Frisians who had come from the Netherlands. The Scotch highlands remained for the most part in the possession of the original Celtic inhabitants, but in the lowlands, around what is now the city of Edinburgh, Angles and Frisians settled.

Union of the Germanic Kingdoms in England. For a time there were at least four kingdoms in England, but gradually these kingdoms were all consolidated into that of the west Saxons, or Wessex. About the year 830 Egbert was the king of this united kingdom, and he ruled almost all of England.

The First Danish Conquest of England. Between 840 and 875 England was invaded upon several occasions by the Danes from the region which later was known as Denmark, that is, the country of the Danes. In 878 they were defeated by the king of the west Saxons, Alfred the Great (871-901), but the Danes were still so strong that Alfred was compelled to set aside a region to the north of his own kingdom, which was called the Danelaw.

The Reign of Alfred the Great. Alfred the Great is noted for his scholarly work, for he codified the laws of England and he made possible the writing of the first part of the famous *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, in which much information may be found about the England of his reign. This chronicle, together with many other important works, was written in the Anglo-Saxon

language. It should be noted that during the eighth and ninth centuries the English were famous for their scholarship. Alcuin, one of their educators, had been the chief teacher at the court of Charlemagne. Furthermore, a number of English missionaries had worked among the Germans, notably St. Boniface, who was called the Apostle of the Germans.

England in the Tenth Century. It was in this century that the Anglo-Saxons pushed the Danes back farther and farther into the north, until eventually they had occupied the whole of what was called the Danelaw. At the same time, England was divided into shires, that is, counties, and the latter were subdivided into hundreds, which were small units of land occupied by about one hundred families. Each shire or county was ruled by a shire reeve, that is, a *sheriff*. Great progress was also made in the administration of justice. In each hundred there was a local court, which met once a month, and in each shire there was a higher court, which met twice a year. There was also the witan, a national court composed of nobles.

The Second Danish Conquest. Since the successors of Alfred the Great were mediocre rulers, the Danes once more returned and under King Canute ruled England from 1016 to 1035. Then followed the reigns of two English kings, namely, Edward the Confessor and Harold. The latter was defeated in 1066 by William, Duke of Normandy, whose conquest is called the Norman Conquest of England.

QUESTIONS

1. Who were the Celts and where did they originally live?
2. Which countries were named after the Celts?
3. Name six Germanic tribes and their original homes.
4. Describe the religion of the primitive Germans.
5. What was the *comitatus*?
6. Describe the government of the Germanic tribes.
7. What were the results of the invasions by the Huns?
8. Trace the history of the Franks until the time of Charlemagne.
9. Describe the personality of Charlemagne.
10. Why did the Pope decide to call him Emperor?
11. Describe Charlemagne's government.
12. Tell what he did for the cause of education.

13. Mention three causes for the decline and fall of the Frankish empire.
14. What is the significance of the Treaty of Verdun in 843?
15. Who were the last Carolingians?
16. Whence came the Angles and Saxons and Jutes?
17. Discuss the first and second periods of Danish rule in England.
18. Discuss the career of Alfred the Great.

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Significant Dates

Reign of Emperor Justinian . . .	527-565
Hegira of Mohammed	622
Mohammedans Conquer Egypt . . .	638-640
Mohammedans Conquer Spain . . .	711
Preaching of First Crusade	1095

CHAPTER IX

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND THE RISE OF MOHAMMEDANISM

*Purpose: To Study the History of the Byzantine Empire,
the Growth of Mohammedanism, and the Causes
and the Results of the Crusades.*

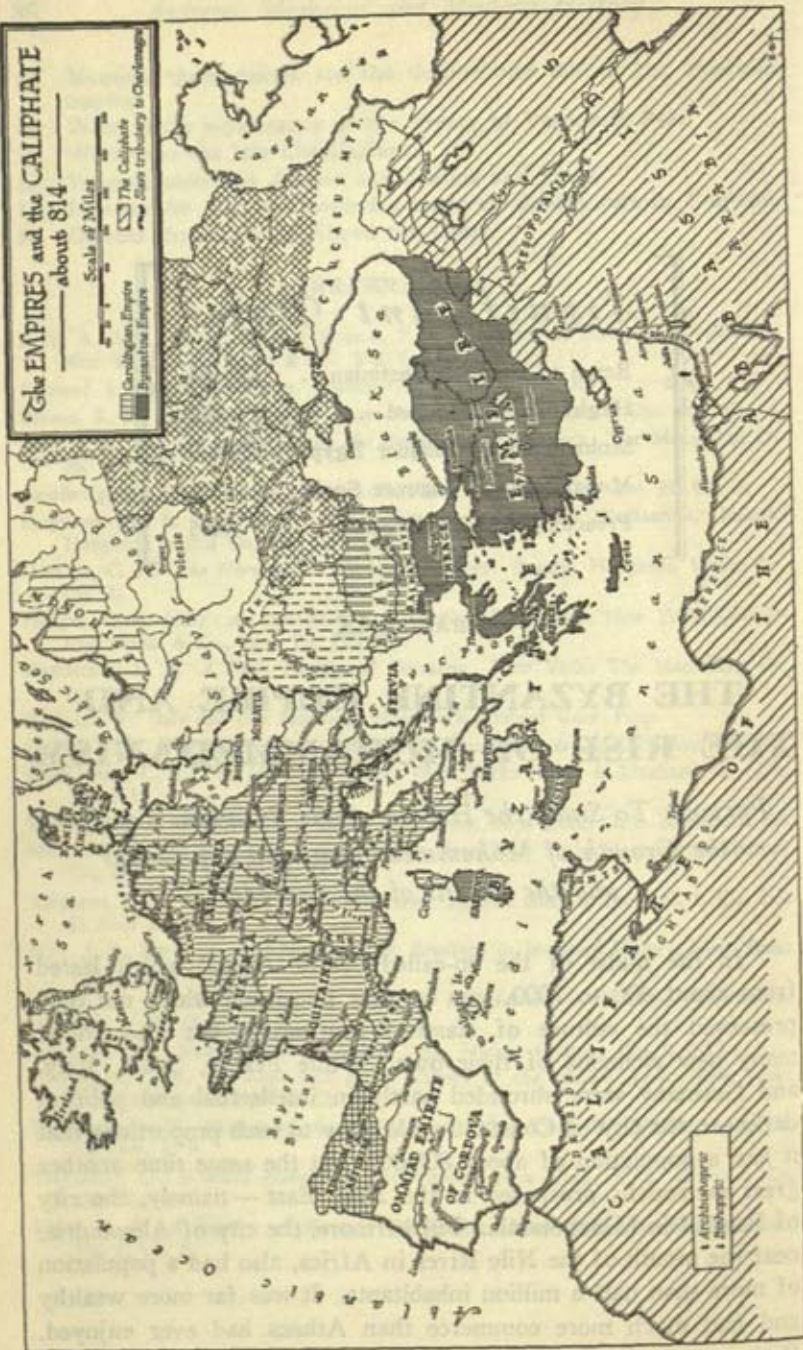
In the midst of the so-called "Dark Ages," which lasted from about 400 to 1000, two empires flourished which not only preserved the culture of classical civilization, but also added many new elements of their own. While France, Spain, Italy, and Germany were shrouded partly in intellectual and political darkness, the city of Constantinople grew to such proportions that it had a population of about 800,000. At the same time another great metropolis prospered in the Near East — namely, the city of Bagdad in Mesopotamia. Furthermore, the city of Alexandria, near the mouth of the Nile River in Africa, also had a population of more than half a million inhabitants. It was far more wealthy and had much more commerce than Athens had ever enjoyed. Both among the Christians in the Byzantine Empire and among

The EMPIRES and the CALIPHATE about 814

Scale of Miles

Carolingian Empire
Byzantine Empire
The Caliphate
Sassanid Empire

0 100 200 Miles



Archbishopric
Bishopric

the Mohammedans in the regions to the east, southwest, and south of this empire, great universities were founded, huge libraries were built, enormous progress was made in scientific studies, and commerce, industry, and agriculture developed rapidly.

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE

Founding and Importance. Before Constantine selected a capital on the banks of the Bosphorus and named it after himself, there had been an organized government in the region, and for a thousand years more his successors continued to rule. This long life was attributable in part to the favorable position of Constantinople. It was on the highway between Asia and Europe, it commanded the water passages between the Mediterranean and the Black seas, it had an excellent harbor, and it drew trade from a large and fertile area, well drained by navigable rivers.

Political and Military History. After the defeat at Adrianople (378), the Byzantine emperors developed a strong army and navy and had a well organized and highly centralized government. One of the greatest of these rulers, Justinian (527-565), collected a great code of Roman law, which was translated into the Greek language and modified to meet the needs of the time. From the first the empire faced many enemies, one of whom was the Goths. Byzantine armies conquered these, however, and spread their control into Italy, Spain, and northern Africa. Again in the sixth and seventh centuries the Byzantine Empire suffered from Persian invasions of Asia Minor but managed to beat them back. From the north came the Avars and the Slavs, who sometimes had to be bought off. The Arabs also conquered much Byzantine territory in the seventh and eighth centuries, but they failed to take Constantinople. The Seljuk Turks captured Asia Minor in the eleventh century, while the Patzinaks and Normans threatened from other directions. Emperor Alexius (1081-1118) repelled the attacks on Constantinople but became fearful and called on the Pope for aid—an act that helped to bring about the first Crusade. The Venetians managed to direct the fourth Crusade against Constantinople, during which time the city was sacked. Although the Greeks managed to regain control in 1261, the empire steadily declined until its capital

fell before the onslaught of the Ottoman Turks in 1453. The niece of the last Byzantine emperor became the bride of a Muscovite prince who later was made Tsar. To their emblem of Saint George slaying the dragon the Tsars now added that of the two-headed eagle of the Caesars and claimed to be successors of the Byzantine emperors.

Byzantine Civilization. The Byzantine empire embraced many peoples, but Greek was the official language; and it perpetuated the Greek, rather than the Roman civilization. It suffered much from civil conflicts caused by the absence of a definite rule of succession. Too, the church was less influential than was the Roman Catholic church in the west. Indeed, the emperor often dictated to the Patriarch, who headed the Eastern church, the religious policy that he should follow. This was the case when he ordered that all images be removed from churches. The Pope objected, and a dispute known as the Iconoclastic Controversy resulted. This, and other disagreements on points of doctrine, finally led to a complete separation of the Roman and the Orthodox churches in 1054. Feudalism developed in Byzantium as fully as it did in Western Europe. The Western world profited, as did Russia and the Balkans, from the gifts of Byzantine civilization. Classical literature, especially that of Greece, was preserved there in its purest form and passed on to Western Europe. The Byzantine influence in painting and architecture was also especially prominent.

THE RISE OF MOHAMMEDANISM

The Arabs before Mohammed. The inhabitants of Arabia followed a semi-nomadic life. They had little education but abounded in hospitality, chivalry, and truthfulness. Some of them leaned toward Christianity; others toward Judaism; but most of them had their own native form of worship, with headquarters at Mecca, where they kept the Sacred Stone in the Kaaba, or temple.

Mohammed (571-632). He began life as a poverty-stricken orphan and shepherd boy but found his fortunes improved when he married a rich widow. In the course of time he formulated his doctrine and began to preach it, gaining a few followers from members of his family and near friends. His activities attracted

the attention of religious leaders at Mecca, who caused him to flee to Medina (622). Mohammedans date their calendar from that event. He rapidly built up a following at Medina, returned and captured Mecca, and in a short while made his religion supreme in Arabia.

The Mohammedan Religion. The Koran, or Mohammedan bible, consists of utterances of the Prophet which scribes took down, and which a successor collected in book form. It teaches that there is one God and that Mohammed is His prophet. It emphasizes a final resurrection, a judgment after death, and a hell and a heaven. It demands of its followers four religious practices: prayer, fasting, almsgiving, and a pilgrimage to Mecca. Islam prohibits strong drink and encourages fatalism. Woman occupies a degraded position.

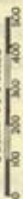
The Conquests of Islam. The Prophet encouraged the use of the sword to spread his religion, and within twenty years after his death the Arabs had conquered most of western Asia and northern Africa. Later they gained a foothold in Sicily, southern Gaul, and Spain. Their defeat at Tours (732) probably prevented them from overrunning Europe. They established an advanced civilization, with Bagdad as the capital and center of culture, and made much progress in literature, medicine, astronomy, mathematics, history, and architecture. After the Arabs had lost their zeal, the Turks became converts and spread Mohammedanism still farther.

THE CRUSADES

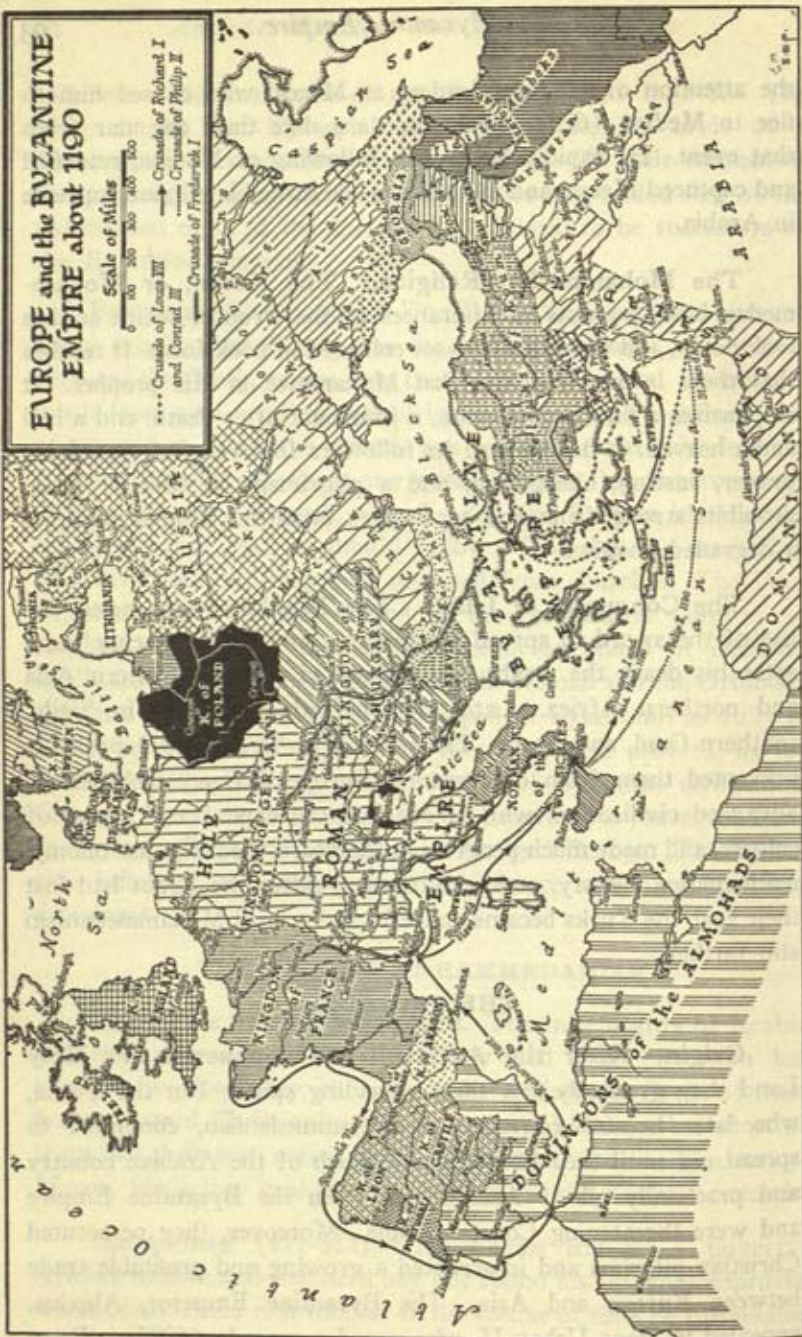
Origin. After the Arabians had conquered the Holy Land they gradually lost their crusading spirit. But the Turks, who later became converts to Mohammedanism, continued to spread out until they had captured much of the Arabian country and practically all of Asia Minor from the Byzantine Empire and were threatening Constantinople. Moreover, they persecuted Christian pilgrims and interrupted a growing and profitable trade between Europe and Asia. The Byzantine Emperor, Alexius, appealed to Pope Urban II, who urged a crusade (1095). Peter the Hermit also made a similar appeal.

EUROPE and the BYZANTINE EMPIRE about 1190

Scale of Miles



- Crusade of Louis III
- Crusade of Richard I and Conrad III
- Crusade of Philip II
- Crusade of Frederick I



Motives of Crusaders. The Pope offered many inducements to crusaders: forgiveness of sins, entrance to heaven if killed, protection of property and family, and cancellation of debts. The expeditions appealed to the religiously inclined, offered the lure of adventure, held out the prospect of commercial gain, satisfied the love of military life, and opened up a way of escape from debts and crimes. Many, therefore, went on these expeditions.

The First Crusade. Peter the Hermit led an ill-fated expedition into Asia Minor. The main body of the crusaders, however, met at Constantinople, crossed into Asia Minor, captured Antioch, and finally took Jerusalem (1099). They created there a feudal kingdom, with Godfrey as its leader. Three other states which they also established later joined the Kingdom of Jerusalem.

Crusading Orders. The Hospitalers, an order of monks and knights, cared for sick and wounded crusaders during the first crusade. Its leaders finally established headquarters on the island of Malta, where the order still exists as the Knights of St. John. French knights originated the Templars (1118), to defend pilgrims to the Holy Lands. The order prospered for a while but finally grew so influential as to call down upon it the wrath of Philip IV of France and Pope Clement V, who combined to suppress it. German leaders founded the Teutonic Knights at Acre (1190). The order established a feudal state in Prussia.

The Second and Later Crusades. News that Edessa had fallen (1144) caused the kings of France and Germany to undertake a crusade. Their armies traveled separately and suffered much in crossing Asia Minor. They reached Syria but accomplished little. The capture of Jerusalem by Saladin (1187) caused Richard I of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederick of Germany to undertake a third crusade. Frederick drowned in Asia Minor, Philip Augustus turned back, and Richard gained little except a truce which left Christians free to visit the Holy Places. Several other crusades to Palestine or nearby regions accomplished little. Crusades were sometimes directed against

peoples in Europe: the Baltic Slavs, the Moors of Portugal, the heathen Prussians, and the Albigenses. But the crusading spirit gradually died out after having lived about 150 years.

RESULTS OF THE CRUSADES

Warning. The crusades merely *hastened* many of the so-called results herein mentioned. With this caution in mind, let us proceed.

Religious. The crusades increased the prestige of the Pope and the church and started some religious orders.

Social. Tournaments, heraldic devices, family names, and genealogies were stimulated, the feudal nobility was weakened, and over-population in France was remedied.

Political. New feudal states arose, and the powers of kings and cities increased.

Economic. Sugar, perfumes, silks, spices, camphor, musk, ivory, and other articles of commerce became common. New inventions, such as the windmill, appeared. New trade routes and a greater and more profitable trade with the East were opened up. The Mediterranean cities profited most.

Intellectual. The benefits of travel and contact with the refinements of the intellectual East added much to Western Europe's languages and ideas.

Military. Many died or were killed by the enemy. The earlier crusades were more successful than the later, but in the end they failed in their major object, for the enemy re-captured Jerusalem in 1244.

QUESTIONS

1. Give the high lights of Byzantine history to 1453.
2. Show how Byzantine civilization affected Russia and western Europe.
3. Sketch the career of Mohammed.
4. Explain the chief teachings of Islam.
5. What contributions did the Arabs make to civilization?
6. What were the causes and the chief results of the crusades?
7. Identify: Bohemond, Saladin, Hospitalers, Pope Urban II.

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Significant Dates

Norman Conquest of England	1066
Henry IV Excommunicated	1075
Frederick Barbarossa	1152-1190
Battle of Legnano	1176
Magna Carta	1215
De Montfort's Parliament	1265

CHAPTER X

FEUDALISM AND THE FEUDAL STATES

*Purpose: To Take Note of Society, State, and Church
While Feudalism Was Supreme.*

Feudalism is a general term that is applied to political, economic, military, and social conditions in Europe during the Middle Ages. It was most prominent after the death of Charlemagne and before the rise of strong nations. It was characterized by a powerful nobility, a numerous peasantry, weak kings, and much petty warfare. Some trace its origin to the Roman villa and *coloni*; others claim that the German *comitatus* was its ancestor. The royal practice of granting *immunities* or other forms of land gifts to followers undoubtedly hastened the supremacy of feudalism.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

Elements. Many land owners, in order to gain protection or benefit their souls, granted land to lords or monasteries, reserving the privilege of living on it. This grant was called a

beneficium, and the land element was called the *benefice*, or *fief*. The process of transfer was known as *commendation* and was permanent. There was also a personal element in the relations of master and man and in the *fief*.

Mutual Obligations of Lord and Vassal. The vassal owed military service, court service, and certain aids, or money payments; for example, the lord had a right to call on his vassals to ransom his person, provide for marrying his oldest daughter, or pay the expenses of knighting his oldest son. Purveyance was the lord's privilege of board and lodging; it was limited by custom. Reliefs were due the lord in case he acted as ward for a vassal, or when a marriage was contracted with a vassal of another lord. The obligations of the lord may be summed up in one word — protection — and it was a significant one.

Apparent Conflicts. Vassalage must not be confused with serfdom, which pertained only to those who were bound to the land. A vassal was often more powerful than his lord, or he might be a vassal for only a part of his holdings. In theory, everyone was a vassal of some other person, except the king, who was a vassal of God.

General Aspects of the System. Feudal bonds could be broken by force or common consent. Quarrels were frequent, and feudal warfare was common. To prevent so much warfare, the church established an arrangement known as the *Truce of God*, which forbade fighting on week-ends and on fast days. Chivalry was the social side of feudalism, and revolved around the activities of the knights. Knights often engaged in mock combats known as jousts and tournaments.

FRANCE IN THE FEUDAL AGE

The Capetians. This new line of kings (987-1328) were counts of Paris and of Orleans and dukes of France, which was then a small territory between the Seine and the Loire. In the course of time the Popes recognized them as kings, as did the lords of most of the powerful fiefs nearby. Because they were an able line of kings and always had ready a male heir to the throne, they were able to gain in power until they had made France into a united kingdom.

The Various Capetian Kings. Hugh Capet, the founder, secured the nominal submission of most of the powerful nobles surrounding him. Louis the Fat (1108-1137) became supreme in his own duchy. Philip Augustus (1180-1223) extended this supremacy and engaged in war with the English Plantagenets for control of French territory, gaining much of it from King John. He also gained control of numerous French towns. Louis IX (1226-1270) arranged a temporary settlement with the English kings, sent out *baillis* to represent him in various provinces of France, and established a council of advisers, a financial advisory body, and a system of justice. Philip the Fair (1285-1314) established the Estates-General and made himself supreme ruler.

ENGLAND

The Norman Conquest. The Normans, who had already invaded France and occupied Normandy, now conquered England. William, Duke of Normandy, claimed the English throne through promises of Edward the Confessor and of Harold, the last king and heir apparent respectively, and through his English wife. He met and defeated Harold at the battle of Hastings (1066) and became undisputed king. He established a centralized feudal system with himself as head, took a census of the country known as the Domesday survey, and maintained a firm control over the church in England. His rule gave England her first really united government, brought her into closer touch with the Continent, and gave her a new language, new blood, and new people.

The Other Norman Rulers. William Rufus next became king, and he was followed by Henry I, both of whom maintained the system of William the Conqueror. A period of civil conflict then followed between the adherents of Stephen and Matilda, rival claimants to the throne. In 1154 the Plantagenet Line began with Matilda's son, Henry II.

Henry II. This notable king restored order and suppressed the civil war. He also made several improvements in the court system: he used traveling or circuit judges, grand juries, and the Court of the King's Bench, and made a general use of *petit* (petty) juries. He and Archbishop Becket became involved



in a bitter quarrel over the three questions of trying clergy in royal courts, making bishops meet feudal obligations, and allowing appeals to the Pope. Some overzealous followers of the King almost ruined his cause by murdering Thomas à Becket.

The English Possessions in France. At that time Henry controlled Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Brittany, and portions of

southern France. He made the mistake, however, of dividing these possessions among his three sons. His oldest son, Richard, who succeeded him as king, spent most of his time in a crusade to the Holy Land. Another son, Geoffrey, met death by murder. The third son, John, allowed the French King, Philip Augustus, to capture all the English possessions in France, except some territory in the southwest.

John's Other Troubles. John's arbitrary and incompetent rule caused him to become involved in a quarrel with the nobles, who forced him to sign the Magna Carta (1215). This document, which laid the basis for many later fundamental rights, such as habeas corpus and trial by jury, forms a landmark in English constitutional history. John also became involved in a struggle with Pope Innocent III, as a result of which he gave up England to the Pope and received it back as a *fief*.

Development of Parliament. Historians used to point to the Witenagemot of the Anglo-Saxons and the Great Council of the Normans as predecessors of the English Parliament. Simon de Montfort called the first Parliament in which representatives from the shires and towns sat (1265). In 1295 Edward extended this practice in his Model Parliament. The division into two houses occurred about the middle of the next century.

Anglo-Scotch Relations. England and Scotland differed in race but existed with only a shadowy border between them. Their closeness, together with the disturbances created by border warfare, caused more than one English king to seek control of Scotland. But the Scotch, led by such national heroes as Balliol, William Wallace, and Robert Bruce, resisted valiantly and successfully all efforts to unite the two nations. The English formally recognized Scotch independence in 1328.

GERMANY AND ITALY

Otto the Great (936-973). This able king managed to gain control of all the important duchies within his own family, thus consolidating his power. He also defeated the Slavs and Hungarians and forced them to settle down. Taking advantage of the disunity of Italy, he had himself crowned Emperor at

Rome (962). He made several invasions of Italy and deposed or created Popes almost at will.

His Successors (973-1056). Otto's successors continued to meddle in Italian affairs and to insist on wearing the Imperial Crown. Conrad II (1024-1039) gained Burgundy and established his son as duke of Poland, Bavaria, Franconia, and Swabia. Henry III (1039-1056) had trouble with the church.

The Empire and the Papacy. The problem of lay investiture was now troubling the church. That institution controlled much land, which its bishops held in feudal tenure as vassals of lords. These lords, by refusing to invest a bishop with his powers as vassal, could often force the selection of an irreligious official. The method of selecting the Pope was also imperfect, for often he was really named by the Emperor. Henry called a church council at Sutri (1046), which deposed three rival claimants to the Popedom and had another one selected. The College of Cardinals was created in 1059, with power to select the Pope. Many clergy, in defiance of church law, were marrying. This hindered them from rendering a whole-hearted devotion to their religious duties and caused them to want church property for their families. Moreover, the great incomes and other benefits pertaining to the holding of church offices, caused a widespread buying and selling of these positions — an evil known as simony.

THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN POPE AND EMPEROR

Early Career and Reforms of Gregory VII (Hildebrand). This remarkable ruler was of humble birth, was educated in a monastery, and had been assistant to Popes Gregory VI and Leo IX. His ideas of the Papal authority are stated in the *Dictatus*, a work in which the writer claimed for the Pope control over princes, as well as over the church. After he became Pope, he enforced celibacy and forbade lay investiture.

Gregory Versus Henry IV. In keeping with his ideas of Papal authority, Gregory wrote a letter to Henry (1075), in

The BRITISH ISLES about the TENTH CENTURY



which he reproached the king for his sins and again asserted the Papal claims of superiority. In reply, the king called Gregory an untrue Pope, threatened to depose him, and had the German bishops denounce him. The Pope thereupon excommunicated Henry, an act which turned many of the King's subjects against

him and compelled him to make a humiliating submission at Canossa. Henry, now restored to power, faced a rebellion of German princes. When Gregory found himself unable to settle this dispute he again excommunicated Henry (1080), but this time the German ruler marched into Rome, drove out the Pope, and replaced him with a rival. The end of both rulers was, in some respects, similar; Gregory died in exile, while Henry suffered defeat at the hands of the Lombard cities and saw his own son revolt against him.

The Concordat of Worms (1122). Henry V reached an agreement with the church over the investiture question. It was provided in the Concordat of Worms that the church officials were to select and invest the bishops and abbots with the symbols of office (the ring and the staff), but the King was to invest them with their lands. Moreover, in Germany the elections were to be held in the King's presence.

Frederick Barbarossa (1152-1190). This German King was ambitious to raise the Empire to its old position, but he found a new opponent in his path—the Italian cities. During the struggle between the Byzantine Empire and the Lombards, and especially after the dissolution of Charlemagne's Empire, these cities had gained local independence. Resident bishops or other leaders became temporal rulers, received special privileges from the Popes, and led their respective cities along paths of commercial prosperity. Encouraged by the Pope, they were now ready to defy the Emperor. Frederick made several expeditions into Italy: to subdue Milan, to define his authority as Roman Emperor, and to conquer the Lombard League of Italian cities. This union defeated him finally, and compelled him, in the Truce of Venice (1183), to restore to them their old rights and to recognize the Pope, in return for which they acknowledged him as overlord.

The Guelfs Versus the Ghibellines. The Guelfs, originally rulers of Saxony and Bavaria, opposed the King, and eventually the term was applied to all who opposed him. The Ghibellines favored the German ruler. During his last days, Frederick defeated

and banished the Guelf leader, Henry the Lion. Frederick was drowned while participating in the Third Crusade. Henry VI subdued a Guelf rebellion and made a disastrous expedition to Italy. In the end, he held southern Italy but did not subdue all his opponents.

INNOCENT III, ARBITER OF EUROPE (1198-1216)

Accession. When Innocent ascended the Papal throne the temporal power of the Popes was almost destroyed and the evils of marriage, investiture, and simony were still unsettled. He soon regained control over the cities of Italy, by taking advantage of the Italian dislike of the Germans, and by the liberal use of interdicts.

Relations with European Nations. He acted as arbiter between the Guelfs and Ghibellines but acknowledged later that he had been deceived. He forced King John of England to accept his choice for archbishop of Canterbury and to become the Pope's vassal. He also interfered in the affairs of Sicily, triumphed in a quarrel with Peter of Aragon, and otherwise demonstrated his great power in the affairs of Europe.

Innocent's Church Reforms and other Work. The Lateran Council (1215) made important church reforms. It forbade church courts to extend their jurisdiction to that of lay courts and prohibited them to shed blood. Bishops were required to instruct priests carefully, to cease drinking, and to celebrate mass more often. Simony and pluralities were outlawed, no old relics were to be sold, and no new ones venerated, without Papal consent. Besides the above-mentioned reforms, Innocent also erected many beautiful church buildings.

End of German Control. Frederick II was the last German who became Holy Roman Emperor in Italy. After his death the German throne lost Sicily. Italy and Germany became hopelessly divided, and city-state government prevailed in northern Italy.

THE CHURCH AT THE HEIGHT OF ITS POWER

Differences Between the Medieval Church and Modern Churches. Practically everyone belonged to the medieval church, but this is not true of modern churches. Moreover, the medieval church, as compared with the modern church, had more lands and other wealth, had its own law and courts, and exercised certain state functions — all of which differentiate it from later churches.

The Pope. The Pope issued decrees and approved all church laws. He also presided over a supreme court in Rome. As executive head, he confirmed bishops and archbishops, settled disputed elections, controlled the regular clergy, and sent and received ambassadors. He claimed the power to make and unmake kings and was himself temporal ruler over Rome and nearby territory. He collected many fees and fines; indeed, he controlled so much money that he had to have experts to handle it.

The Archbishop. This official had control over a diocese, as did the bishop, but also exercised authority over neighboring bishops, whom he could summon to a provincial council. Appeals could be taken from a bishop's court to an archbishop's court.

The Bishop. The bishop was supposed to be a successor of the apostles. He appointed the parish priests in his district, consecrated churches, anointed kings, controlled church property in his diocese, and presided over a special church called a cathedral. He was often a vassal and had vassals. Nominally he was chosen by the clergy of his diocese, but in reality he was often controlled by the king.

The Parish Priest. This official presided over the smallest territorial division, the parish. There he conducted services, absolved, baptized, married, and buried his communicants. Income from parish lands and tithes presumably went to his support, but often they really went to others. He was the hardest worked and poorest paid of the church officials.

The Church Doctrine and System of Worship. This was embodied in decrees of the Popes and church councils and in the Bible, as the church officials interpreted it. It was exemplified in the so-called Seven Sacraments: baptism, confirmation, extreme unction, marriage, penance, ordination, and mass. The central feature of mass was the doctrine of transubstantiation — that Christ became present in body and blood when the elements were blessed.

The Dominant Position of the Clergy. Medieval clergy occupied a prominent place in the life of their time because of the great influence of the church which they represented. Moreover, they had almost a monopoly of education and wrote practically all books. The church was constantly looking for the best minds to enter the ranks of the clergy, and once they were there it allowed no family ties to divide their allegiance. Prominent churchmen often became advisers of kings and held posts of honor and power.

Evils within the Church. But even so powerful an institution as the church had its troubles, and was afflicted with certain inherent or acquired evils. Many of the clergy could not withstand the temptations of wealth, power, and unmarried living; they therefore led lives so scandalous as to draw bitter protests from contemporaries. The evil of simony continued in spite of efforts to stamp it out. Many complained at the excessive fees which the clergy collected and the exorbitant fines which church courts often levied. The holding of more than one church office, an evil known as pluralities, also grew as simony flourished. Furthermore, many grew skeptical and questioned certain doctrines of the church or became doubters because of the existence of so many evils in that institution. All this led skeptics to the unpardonable sin of heresy.

Heresies and Their Suppression. The church tolerated criticism of its evils, but not of its doctrines. No punishment seemed too great for the heretic, or the person who disbelieved some church doctrine. Scattered bands of heretics existed through-

out the Middle Ages, but two of the most prominent were the Albigenses and the Waldenses. The former denounced the Catholic church in toto, but believed in good and evil powers; the latter opposed the clergy on account of their wickedness, and sought to lead lives of apostolic poverty. The higher clergy sought to exterminate heresy in several ways: by reforming recognized evils; by crusades, this method being used against the Albigenses and Waldenses; by the Inquisition, a church court formed especially for the purpose; and by the formation of orders of friars. The latter method deserves special mention.

The Friars. St. Francis of Assisi founded the Franciscan orders of friars (1210). Its members begged for a living, preached to the poor, did missionary work, and endeavored by living upright lives to counteract the evil tendencies of the day. St. Dominic, an educated churchman, also founded an order known as the Dominicans (1214). This order was strongly missionary and was tinged with the military spirit. Its members were prominent in conducting Inquisitions and as teachers in the universities. Both orders acquired wealth and gradually lost sight of their early practices, but they did much to counteract heresy.

Boniface VIII and Philip the Fair. Just as heretics challenged the religious supremacy of the church, so did certain kings challenge its political supremacy. One of these was Philip the Fair of France. Philip insisted on taxing property of the clergy in his kingdom. Pope Boniface forbade this in a bull *clericis laicos* but later had to acknowledge defeat. On another occasion Philip answered with troops the Papal demand that the Count of Flanders be released from prison.

The "Babylonian Captivity" (1309-1377). Philip dictated the selection of the next Pope, Clement V, and the two rulers abolished the order of the Templars. Avignon, France, became the Papal capital, and French influence dominated the Popes. This removal caused other nations, especially England, to distrust the Papal government, alienated many who favored the old capital at Rome, caused the church to lose much revenue, and

forced the Popes to increase taxation to make up the loss. A bitter quarrel ensued, and at one time three Popes existed. Eventually Rome once more became the Papal headquarters, but not until the church had lost greatly in prestige.

QUESTIONS

1. Explain the origin and elements of Feudalism.
2. Discuss the relations between lord and vassal.
3. Trace the development of feudal France to 1328.
4. Summarize the events and results of the Norman conquest of England.
5. What troubles did King John have with the French; with the barons; with the Pope?
6. Why did not Italy and Germany become strong nations? Discuss.
7. Outline the work of Gregory VII, Innocent III, and Otto the Great.
8. How did the medieval church differ from modern churches?
9. What were the duties and powers of various church officials?
10. Name and briefly explain the seven sacraments.
11. What evils afflicted the church, and how did it oppose them?
12. Explain the origin and work of the friars.

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Significant Dates

Feudal Age	900-1300
Domesday Book	1086
The Crusades	1096-1270
Black Death	1348-1349

CHAPTER XI

MEDIEVAL SOCIETY

Purpose: To Learn About the Lives of the Different Classes of People, Both in the Country and in the Cities.

Most European countries in the Feudal Age (900-1300) were strongly affected by the institutions and customs which had been introduced shortly after the collapse of the Roman Empire. During the fourth and fifth centuries, anarchy and disorder had disrupted the fabric of the society constructed by the Romans. For a relatively brief period (*ca.* 600-814), the Franks had restored order and fostered commercial and industrial progress in the territory between the Pyrenees and the river Elbe. The Saracens in Spain likewise had been responsible for a high level of prosperity and civilized society (*ca.* 750-1050). Finally, the Eastern Empire, for a span of about eight centuries (*ca.* 500-1300), preserved much of the heritage of classical antiquity. But the numerous invasions of the Northmen during the ninth and tenth centuries and the onslaughts of Slavic and Hungarian hordes during the same period caused a great change in the lives of the peoples living in western and central Europe.

SERFDOM AND THE VILLAGE

General Features. The village, or manor, developed from gifts to the lords, seizures of land, or voluntary surrender for the sake of protection. It often consisted of a long single road or street, along which usually all houses were built, and which often bordered a stream with its mill, one or more meadows and woods, and three fields of cultivated land. Each village contained a church, which was both the social and religious center, and a house for the lord or his representative. The houses of the serfs were usually one-roomed, thatch-covered, dirt-floored, unsanitary affairs.

The Inhabitants. The villein, who was the most prosperous kind of serf, generally held a virgate (thirty acres) of land and also worked his lord's land, or domain. To this lord he owed certain produce and other dues. The cottar had a smaller holding than that of the villein, and lived entirely on the commons. He often worked for the lords or some villein. Each village boasted its own priest, miller, smith, carpenter, and the like. If the lord owned more than one village, he spent only part of his time in each place.

Economic Factors. The land was cultivated in strips averaging perhaps an acre each, every peasant holding strips in all the fields. Only two fields were worked in any one year. Necessarily, the work was done coöperatively. Rye, wheat, barley, oats, and garden crops were grown. Each manor made its own products and used them; in other words, it was economically self-sufficient. A few products, of course, had to be imported, such as salt, iron, and medicines, but they were the exception, rather than the rule. There was some intercourse between manors of the same owner: there were intermarriages between manors, and serfs were sent on errands for their lords or were even allowed to visit a nearby town or fair. Otherwise, there were few glimpses of the outside world. The lord's income came from the labor of peasants and later from their money payments, from monopoly grants in the village, and from the sale of surplus products.

The Decline of Serfdom. Increases in population, the lure of town life, and the more common use of money were three powerful factors contributing to the decline of serfdom. In France, the movement to emancipate serfs was begun in the thirteenth century and was completed during the French Revolution. In England, the Black Death (1348-1349) depopulated the manors, and the growing towns claimed many serfs. In Germany, the serfs staged an unsuccessful rebellion during Luther's day but were emancipated during the days of Frederick the Great and Napoleon. Russia and Japan did not free their serfs till the latter half of the nineteenth century.

TOWNS AND TOWN LIFE

Origin and Growth of Towns. Many Roman towns survived to medieval days, because they were located on trade routes, were easy to defend, or were otherwise important. Others, such as Frankfort, grew up around castles. Still others grew up around markets, shrines, bishoprics, or mines.

Town Life. Medieval towns were surrounded by walls and ditches and were crowded inside. The streets were narrow, crooked, and filthy, and contained open gutters. The ordinary houses were of straw or reed thatches, with shops below and residences above. On the only open tract of land in the town was located the church, with the nearby market and cemetery. Medieval towns led in the fight for political privileges, many of which they embodied in their charters.

INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

The Merchant Guilds. Each town had its merchant guild, which contained those who engaged in trade and sought monopoly privileges. Guilds had fraternal features similar, in some respects, to those of modern fraternal lodges.

The Craft Guilds. The craft guilds began after the merchant guilds, but the two often existed side by side. They consisted of people in a town of the same trade, or related trades, and had the same monopoly and fraternal features as did their predecessors. Gradually they developed three stages of workmanship; apprentice, journeyman, and master.

Markets and Fairs. Each town had its market square, but markets often grew up outside of towns. To these would come merchants and traders from afar. Markets existed continuously. Fairs, on the other hand, existed in cycles, on the permission of some king or lord, and attracted widespread interest. So important did they become that they developed their own code of trade laws and system of justice.

Hindrances to Trade. Of course there were many hindrances to medieval trade: religious opposition to the collection of interest, tolls, poor roads and bridges, robbery and piracy, and the insistence on the "just price." Merchants and traders formed organizations such as the Hanseatic League to protect themselves, but even at the best, conditions were unpleasant.

MEDIEVAL CULTURE

The Revival of Learning in the Eleventh and Twelfth Centuries. The increase in commerce and industry was accompanied naturally by a revival of learning in the countries of western Europe. Moreover, closer contact with highly civilized Saracen Spain and Sicily, as well as with the Byzantine Empire and the prosperous regions to the southeast of Constantinople, produced a desire for more learning and for better schools in general. It was during the twelfth century that the earliest universities of medieval Europe originated, such as those at Paris, Salerno, and Bologna. Oxford and Cambridge in England were also among the earlier universities. Some of them developed out of cathedral schools, as was the case with the University of Paris, which was developed from the Notre Dame school. Bologna became a center for legal studies, partly because of the demand for a better understanding of Roman law in northern Italy, where the cities were staging a rebellion against the emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. Salerno, on the other hand, became a famous medical school, and owed its origin in part to the Benedictine monastery in the vicinity. Cambridge was an offshoot from Oxford, and the University of Leipzig was founded by some students and professors who moved away from the older university situated at Prague in Bohemia. These early universities revived the study of Roman law, of Greek thinkers like Plato and

Aristotle, and of classical civilization in general. Paris was the greatest of all medieval universities, and it was known as the most important center for theological study in the world.

Organization and Curricula of the Medieval Universities. The University of Paris and the universities of Germany, England, and Scandinavia were controlled by the professors; but the French universities, with the exception of the University of Paris, as well as the universities of Spain, Italy, and Portugal, were dominated by the student bodies. Every university had a liberal arts faculty; and most of the others had additional faculties — namely, those of theology, law, and medicine. Each faculty was governed by a dean, and the whole university was ruled by a rector. The students were divided into "nations," and each nation was governed by a *procurator* or councilor. As a rule, the rector and the procurator were elected for a term of only one year. The liberal arts course was made up of the *trivium* (grammar, logic, and rhetoric), and the *quadrivium* (arithmetic, music, geometry, and astronomy). Among the most famous textbooks may be mentioned that of Euclid in geometry, Aristotle in philosophy, Galen and Hippocrates in medicine, and Donatus in Latin grammar.

University Degrees. At the end of the liberal arts course a student received the degree of Bachelor, that is, the A.B. degree. After taking some work beyond the A.B. degree, he might become Master of Arts, that is, after having produced his masterpiece, just as the men engaged in industries had to make their masterpiece in order to become a member of a guild and be called a master. Sometimes the degree of doctor was granted to a person to indicate that he was permitted to teach, but in general there was little difference between the degree of Master of Arts and the doctor's degree. In the faculty of law, both Canon Law and Civil Law were studied. In the faculty of theology, much attention was paid to the *Sentences*, a work of Peter Lombard. Another famous writer and teacher was Abelard, whose works were also frequently consulted.

Methods of Teaching and Study. The teaching was for the most part in the form of dictation, and the professor would provide the students with his own commentaries for their textbooks. Since the invention of printing had not yet occurred, books,

which were in the form of manuscripts, were far from numerous. There was little experimentation in the universities, and the system of lecturing was not very interesting. On the other hand, students were taught how to think properly, they were trained thoroughly, and they were subjected to an excellent system of discipline.

Scholasticism. Since theology and philosophy were regarded as the most important subjects in the universities, much attention was paid to theological and philosophical studies. These studies were grouped under the heading of scholasticism. Among the greatest scholastic writers may be mentioned Thomas Aquinas. He taught with St. Augustine that all things occur on a spiritual plane before they are manifested in a material or physical way. This conception is commonly called realism. Opposed to this system of thought was that which is called nominalism. The nominalists, unlike the realists, showed little interest in the substance, or spiritual essence, that was said to be back of all material things. For that reason they placed more emphasis upon the concept or the names of things, and so they were called "nominalists," a word derived from *nomen*, the Latin word for name.

Medieval Science. Although in general not much progress was made in science, there were a few distinguished scientists during the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, notably Roger Bacon, who insisted that the experimental method should be used much more widely than had previously been the case. He predicted the manufacture of airplanes. Another important scientist was Abelard of Bath. Much interest was also shown in the practice and teaching of medicine. Excellent hospitals were organized, and operations were upon the whole carefully conducted. At the same time, however, alchemy and astrology (the latter must be distinguished from astronomy) remained very popular.

MEDIEVAL ART

Roman Art. In Rome many types of art were produced. The Romans surpassed the Greeks in the building of arches and roads and the use of cement. One of their buildings called the basilica was transformed by the early Christians into a church, called also the basilica. Very interesting are the paintings that may be seen on the walls of the catacombs under Rome and its

vicinity. Some show the Madonna with her child Jesus. Others are noted for their symbolism, wherein the fish represents Jesus Christ and the dove represents the Holy Spirit.

Byzantine Art. In the East Roman, or Byzantine Empire, all the arts flourished. Manuscripts were decorated with marginal decorations, ornamental designs, and beautiful illustrations, called *illuminations*. These were often bound in magnificent covers, profusely decorated. Byzantine sculpture reveals the influence of classical and Oriental models. The painting was partly mosaic, that is, made up of minute pieces of glass or of stone assembled to make one picture. The architecture can be best studied in such examples as the famous church called *Santa Sophia*, or "Holy Wisdom," at Constantinople. Another example is the church of St. Mark at Venice, which is characterized, like the church just mentioned, by its domes and mosaics. Similarly, many churches in Russia and Scandinavia are Byzantine in structure.

Mohammedan Art. Mohammedan art was a mixture of Byzantine, Persian, and ancient Egyptian styles. The Mohammedans worshipped in mosques which were provided with slender towers called *minarets*. They also constructed famous palaces, such as the Alhambra in Granada, Spain. Very famous also is the Taj Mahal, a huge monument intended as a tomb, located in the town of Agra in India. The Mohammedans, like the Jews, were faithful to the Ten Commandments of Moses, and for that reason usually did not permit their artists to draw paintings or make statues.

Romanesque Art. The word "Romanesque" is derived from the word "Roman," but this art incorporated features based not only upon Roman models but also upon those produced by the Byzantine artists and the Syrians. The most famous examples of Romanesque architecture are the cathedrals which were constructed during the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries. Some of them are still to be seen in the towns along the Rhine and throughout France, Italy, and Spain; while some beautiful examples survive in England. Romanesque buildings are characterized by predominating horizontal lines, thick walls and pillars, small windows, simple decorations, and square doorways.

Gothic Art. Gothic art originated later than Romanesque art — namely, at the end of the twelfth century and during the thirteenth century. It was named "Gothic" art in derision by the Italians, who thought that they alone knew how to make beautiful art. The Italians looked upon the peoples of the north as barbarians still, and for that reason they referred to their ways as "Gothic." Unfortunate though the name is, it has been impossible to change it. In spite of Italian criticism, Gothic architecture is generally considered the highest type ever perfected. Many famous cathedrals belong to the Gothic type, such as the Notre Dame in Paris and the cathedrals in Cologne, Reims, Canterbury, and the Westminster Abbey in London. Gothic architecture is noted for the following features: slender walls and thinner pillars, pointed arches and doorways, vertical lines predominating, rather than horizontal ones, large windows, and beautiful decorations. Certain town halls in Germany, France, and the Netherlands also are classed among the superb examples of Gothic architecture. The Gothic cathedrals as a rule were decorated on the outside with an enormous number of statues, some of which are called the gargoyles. Magnificent stained glass windows are found in some of the cathedrals. Gothic painting is characterized by religious fervor and a wealth of coloring.

MEDIEVAL LANGUAGES AND LITERATURES

The Romance Languages. Out of the classical Latin employed by the literary masters during the Roman Empire, or out of its dialects, various new languages originated such as the Italian, Spanish, French, Portuguese, and Rumanian. At first they were not much more than dialects of the old classical Latin. At the same time there was developed the so-called medieval Latin, distinguished from the classical Latin in various ways in that it included many new words, showed different meters in poetry, paid less attention to grammatical rules, and was subject to change, being a living tongue. Some of the most famous hymns sung in the Catholic churches and many documents promulgated by the civil governments may be considered as good examples of medieval Latin. This must not be interpreted to mean, however, that all of these pieces of literature were written in bad Latin.

The Germanic Languages. In England there was developed by the Angles and the Saxons the so-called Anglo-Saxon language. As already noted, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* was written in that language. The Franks also developed a language of their own, later known as the Dutch or Flemish language, which are practically the same. It is spoken today by eight million Hollanders and four million Flemings (the latter live in northern Belgium). The Goths also had their language, that is, the Gothic language; but this language gradually has died out. Much more important, indeed, is the language of the German people, which is commonly divided into the High German, developed in the south of Germany, and the Low German, spoken in northern Germany. Both languages were amalgamated into one, owing largely to the labors of Martin Luther, who in the sixteenth century translated the Bible into his language, one more closely resembling High German than Low German. Luther's language has become the literary language of modern Germany. Other Germanic languages are: Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish, which are respectively the languages of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark.

The English Language. The English language is unique in that it is neither a purely Germanic nor a purely Romance language. As one result of the Norman Conquest in 1066, a large number of Normans who spoke the French language came over to England. They used this language in preference to the Anglo-Saxon. But in the course of the next three hundred years the language of the Normans became mixed with the Anglo-Saxon of the masses, so that a new language developed, which was partly Germanic and partly Romance. About one-half of the English vocabulary is of Germanic origin, and the other half is for the most part Romance in origin. At the same time, also, a large number of Greek words have crept into the English tongue.

Medieval Literature. In the countries of western Europe all types of literature were produced during the period from 1000 to 1300. Among these may be mentioned the religious drama, which was enacted upon the stage and represented scenes from the Bible and the lives of the saints of medieval Europe. Interesting *romances* were written in the form of lengthy love stories, while at the same time lyrical poetry was produced and set to music.

Among the writers of such poetry and music were the celebrated *troubadours*. Excellent, also, were the historical writings called chronicles and memoirs. Among the epic poetry may be mentioned the German *Nibelungenlied*, which was written in medieval High German, and tells about the contest between the Huns and the Franks. The Scandinavians also produced their own epic poetry, such as the famous *Eddas*, which recount the mythical deeds of Scandinavian heroes. During the thirteenth century certain famous pieces of literature were produced, including the celebrated *Parzival* and *Tristan and Isolde*. Some tell about King Arthur and the search for the Holy Grail, the cup used presumably by Jesus Christ during the Last Supper, just before His betrayal.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe life in a medieval village.
2. How did medieval towns originate?
3. Compare the merchant guilds with the craft guilds.
4. How was trade carried on? What hindrances to trade existed?
5. What caused the revival of learning during the eleventh and twelfth centuries?
6. Name eight medieval universities.
7. Why did the University of Paris excel in theology, that of Bologna in law, and that of Salerno in medicine?
8. Did the medieval universities pay any attention to classical learning?
9. In which universities did the professors control the organization of the curriculum?
10. Name some of the textbooks used in the medieval universities.
11. What was the *quadrivium* and the *trivium*?
12. What is Canon Law, and what is Civil Law?
13. Distinguish between Roman and Romanesque art.
14. What are the characteristics of Byzantine art?
15. Contrast Romanesque with Gothic architecture.
16. Name six Romanesque and six Gothic cathedrals.
17. How does the English language differ from German or from French?
18. What are the Romance languages?
19. What is the difference between classical and medieval Latin?
20. What is epic poetry, lyric poetry, religious drama, a chronicle, and a memoir?
21. Have any composers of modern opera made use of the epic or lyric poetry of the Middle Ages?

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Significant Dates

The Model Parliament	1295
Hundred Years' War Begun	1337
Battle of Poitiers	1356
Tamerlane Invades Russia	1395
Battle of Agincourt	1415
Fall of Constantinople	1453

CHAPTER XII

POLITICAL HISTORY IN THE LATER MIDDLE AGES

Purpose: To Trace the Political Events in the Leading European Countries During the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries a great many changes occurred in various European countries. England and France were disturbed by the terrible Hundred Years' War. Germany and Italy finally became separated from each other. Both Switzerland and the Netherlands loosened the ties that had bound them to the Holy Roman Empire, and in this latter state a large number of princes compelled the emperors to give more liberties to the smaller states in the empire. In England, Parliament was developed. In France and Spain, foundations of absolute monarchies were being laid. Poland became a great state, and Russia slowly emerged from centuries of barbarism. The Byzantine Empire declined and finally disappeared in 1453, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks. Italy still remained merely a

collection of several independent states. At the same time Europe once more embarked upon a policy of conquest and colonial expansion.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN ITALY

Lack of Political Unity. The extended struggle between the Emperors and the Popes had operated effectively to prevent the formation of any strong national government in Italy. The Popes held to certain rather insignificant temporal powers, but most of the peninsula gradually fell under the control of despots and city-state governments, who sometimes coöperated, as was the case with the Lombard League, but who were often at war among themselves. The use of *condottieri*, or hired troops, became common, for many of these despots possessed more money than men.

Venice. Refugees from Attila and his Huns founded Venice in the marshy lands at the head of the Adriatic Sea, and in time it became the greatest city in Italy. Even before the Crusades it had expanded into the Adriatic and farther east, and with the impulse of those expeditions it reached out territorially and commercially. It finally gained territory in northern Italy, in order to get ahead of Milan and to secure a convenient source of food supplies. The Doge was the nominal head of the government, but there was a Council of Ten in active charge. It in turn was responsible to the Grand Council, which was composed of a few nobles and which held meetings in secret. This aristocratic government existed for about five centuries (1300-1797), with little or no opposition. It favored the merchants, who were too busy to govern.

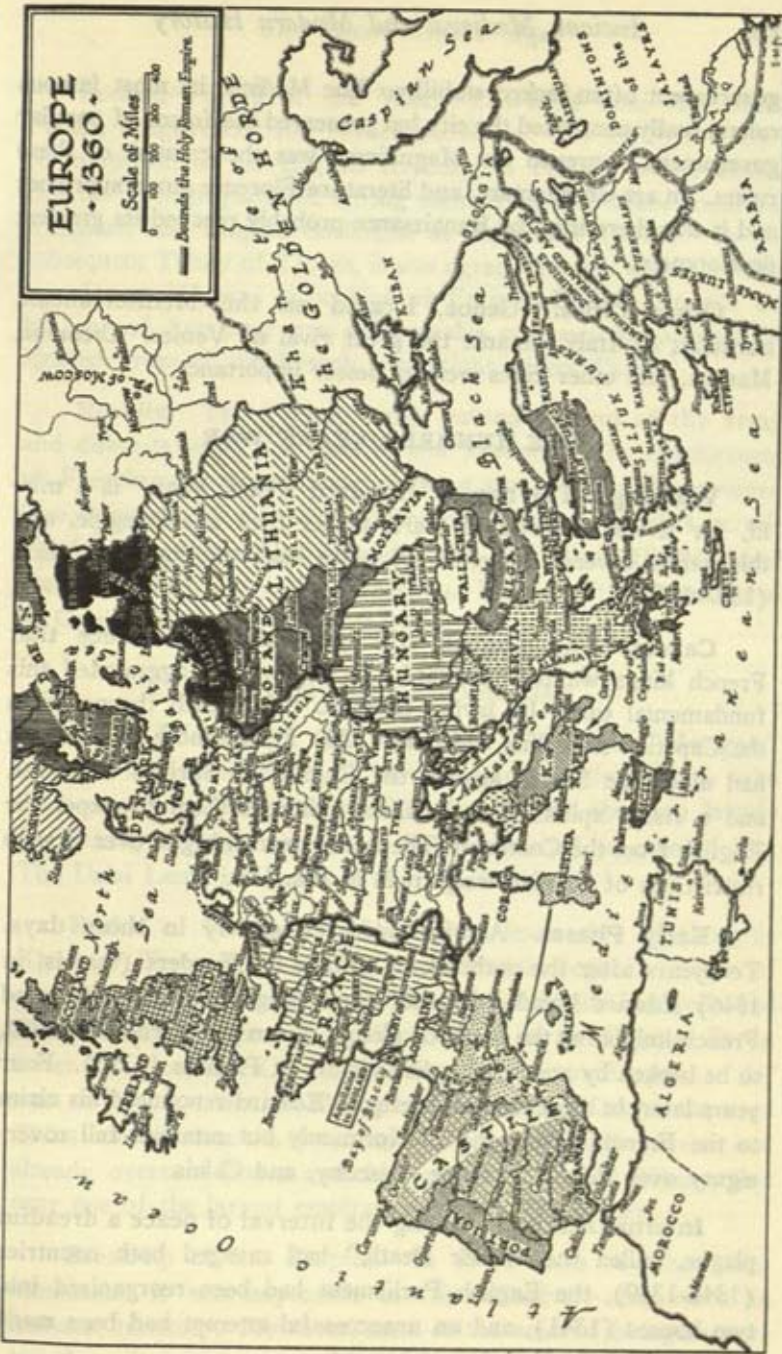
Milan. An archbishop started the rule of the Visconti family, and it continued for 150 years. Gian Galeazzo, the most famous of these rulers, by virtue of sheer ability and murders extended his domains until Florence checked him. He also encouraged art and literature. The Sforzas, successors to the Viscontis, led careers equally as important.

Florence. Owing to the inland location of Florence, it expanded little commercially but developed greatly in manufacturing and banking. It witnessed fierce party conflicts, and its

EUROPE • 1360 •

Scale of Miles
0 100 200 300

— Boundaries the Holy Roman Empire



government often lacked stability. The Medicis, its most famous rulers, really controlled the city but preserved the forms of popular government. Lorenzo the Magnificent was the greatest of these rulers. In art, architecture, and literature Florence stood supreme; and it was there that the Renaissance probably reached its greatest development.

Other Cities. Genoa, located on the Mediterranean, northeast of Italy, became the great rival of Venice. Cremona, Mantua, and other cities were of lesser importance.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

Warning. The name, "Hundred Years' War," is a misfit, for it was a series of wars, rather than one struggle, and this series covered a period of more than one hundred years (1337-1453).

Causes. The English still held lands in France that French kings wanted. Edward III of England aggravated this fundamental cause by laying claim to the French throne when the Capetian male line ended in 1328. Furthermore, the French had aided the Scotch against the English on various occasions, and a rising spirit of nationalism animated them to expel the English from the Continent. The actual quarrel began over French restrictions of English wool trade in Flanders.

Early Phases. Armies operated slowly in those days. Ten years after the outbreak of trouble in Flanders (that is, in 1346) Edward invaded France, where English bowmen defeated French knights at the battle of Crécy. A ten years truce followed, to be broken by another English victory at Poitiers (1356). Four years later, in the Peace of Bretigny, Edward renounced his claim to the French throne and to Normandy but retained full sovereignty over Poitou, Guienne, Gascony, and Calais.

Internal Affairs. During the interval of peace a dreadful plague, called the "Black Death," had ravaged both countries (1348-1349), the English Parliament had been reorganized into two houses (1341), and an unsuccessful attempt had been made to reorganize the French government.

Second Period of the War. Edward's son, the Black Prince, misgoverned the French provinces; this led to a French re-occupation of all English territory in France except Calais. But the French quarreled among themselves, and hence could not withstand the English onslaught at Agincourt (1415). In the subsequent Treaty of Troyes, it was agreed that the English king's son, Henry VI, was to be king of France. But the French, led by Joan of Arc, later won such notable successes as to expel the English from all the French possessions except Calais.

Results. The French kings gained control of the army and direct taxation and thus became supreme. The development of French nationalism during the war also aided in this process. The triumph of English archers over French knights struck Feudalism a strong blow. Incidentally, the "Black Death" freed the villein from many of his shackles. France, with the exception of Calais, was now a united territory.

THE MONGOL INVASIONS

Early History of the Mongols. The term "Mongols" includes numerous tribes of nomadic stock-raising people who came originally from central Asia. In religion they are largely Buddhists, although some have been converted to other faiths. The Dalai Lama in Lhasa is their spiritual head.

Period of Conquests. Under the leadership of Genghis Khan, or Temujin (*b.* 1162), the Mongols began a career of conquest. Before he died he had overrun Western Mongolia and Turkestan and penetrated southern Russia to the Dnieper River. Later his successor, Okkodai, sent an army into Europe, as far west as Silesia. Another Mongol leader, Kublai Khan, conquered China and became its sovereign. Earlier Mongol hordes had already overrun Persia and Mesopotamia. Kublai Khan ruled over one of the largest empires in the world's history.

Break-up of the Empire. In those days of slow communication it was impossible to rule effectively over such an immense territory. Moreover, most of the western Mongols were lost through their conversion to the Moslem religion. The Mongols

held sway in Russia, though, until 1480, when native princes overthrew them. Kublai Khan welcomed Europeans, especially Marco Polo, who later wrote an interesting account of his stay in China. Tamerlane (1336-1405) extended the Mongol sovereignty over vast territories, including India and the Turkish domain in Asia Minor. His great-grandson, Baber (1483-1530), established the Mogul empire in India, which lasted until it was overthrown by the English in 1761. The greatest of Mogul rulers was Akbar (1542-1605), who reorganized the government, granted religious toleration, and promoted peace and security. The kingdom under the weak leadership of Akbar's successors fell into a state of anarchy, making English conquest easy, with the aid of native troops called Marathas.

The Ottoman Turks. These people were kinsmen of the earlier Seljuk Turks, whose capture of the Holy Land brought about the Crusades. Under their leader, Osman, they conquered Asia Minor about 1300 and threatened to overrun western Europe. Only the timely victory of Tamerlane saved Christian Europe from the Mohammedan hordes, who captured Constantinople (1453) and later conquered the whole Balkan peninsula. A later Sultan extended his territory still farther and at one time (1529) appeared at the very walls of Vienna, conquering Hungary, as well as in Egypt, northern Africa, and islands of the Mediterranean Sea. The Turkish empire gradually declined, however, and allowed other powers to capture so many of its possessions that it has been aptly called "the sick man of Europe." Doubtless Turkey would have been dismembered long ago if European nations could have agreed over a division of the spoils. Russia has been the chief aggressor against Turkey, while England has been her best friend. In the years immediately preceding the World War, however, Germany supplanted England in Turkish affections to such an extent as to bring the Turks into the conflict on the side of the Central Powers. As a result of that war, Constantinople has been internationalized and the Turkish capital moved to Angora. There, under the leadership of Mustapha Kemal Pasha (*d.* 1939), the Turkish government and people have once more shown signs of energy and life.

GERMANY AND THE NETHERLANDS

The Period before 1273 in Germany. For nearly forty years Germany and Italy were loosely held together by the illustrious Emperor Frederick II. He had inherited Sicily from his mother; and he spent much of his time in southern Italy, where he lived in Oriental splendor and adopted features of both the Christian and the Mohammedan religions. In Sicily he abolished serfdom and feudalism, and he did away with many hindrances to trade, but in Germany he was not able to do very much. He kept alive the rivalry among various houses. When he died in 1250, he was succeeded by his son, Conrad IV. When the latter passed away in 1254, the house of Hohenstaufen was no longer able to place another member upon the imperial throne in Germany or in Italy. Now followed nineteen years of civil war, during which no ruler was able to secure universal support: a period known as the Interregnum, or the period between the reigns.

The Hapsburgs. Earlier German kings had failed to build a united nation because of their ambition to become Roman Emperors, their failure to make the throne hereditary, and Italian opposition. Though the Hapsburgs did not unite Germany, they at least played an important part in Europe's history. This family, of which Rudolph became the first Holy Roman Emperor (1273), originally came from Switzerland. Rudolph's successors made the crown of the Empire nearly hereditary in their house. Maximilian, by marrying the heir of Charles the Bold, gained the Netherlands. The heir of that union, by marrying the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, added Spain. Charles V thus ruled Austria, the Netherlands, Spain, and the Holy Roman Empire.

Political Events in the Netherlands. This region was made up of about seventeen little states. Some were duchies, and some were counties. Eleven of those were ruled by Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, in eastern France (1419-1467). Among them were Holland and Flanders. His son was Charles the Bold, who ruled for ten years and then lost his life when fighting against the Swiss. Upon his death the duchy of Burgundy was annexed by the king of France, but the county of Burgundy was retained by his daughter, Mary. The latter married Maximilian, who in 1493 became emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. Maximilian

of Hapsburg and Mary of Burgundy were followed by a son, Philip, who married Joan, the oldest daughter of two famous monarchs in Spain—Ferdinand and Isabella. These two rulers in turn had a son who became Charles I of Spain and Charles V, Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. He is often referred to as the modern Charlemagne, because he ruled over so many different dominions.

The Government of the Holy Roman Empire. This state was made up of more than two hundred units, including about sixty imperial cities and over 140 principalities, some duchies, other counties, and so forth. Seven of the princes became the electors, who were to elect the emperor upon the death of his predecessor. Among these was the king of Bohemia and three archbishops. Another elector was the Count of Brandenburg, a member of the celebrated house of Hohenzollern. There was in the Holy Roman Empire no real capital, no real army, no national supreme court, nor a national coinage. The princes and the representatives of the greater cities used to meet in the *Reichstag*, or the National Assembly.

Switzerland Breaks Away from the Holy Roman Empire. Had the Hapsburgs ruled more carefully in Switzerland, it is likely that the German-speaking part of that country would now be a part of Germany. But the Swiss rebelled against the Hapsburg rulers, and in 1315 won the victory at Morgarten. Gradually the original number of provinces called cantons was enlarged until finally in the sixteenth century the republic of Switzerland emerged as an independent state, although its independence was not formally recognized until 1648.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS IN OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Spain. In 1469 King Ferdinand of Aragon married Queen Isabella of Castile. In 1492 Ferdinand conquered Granada in the south of Spain, taking it away from the Mohammedans. Ferdinand and Isabella partly succeeded in the attempt to establish an absolute form of government. They took away some of the power of the church courts, they reduced the prerogatives of the parliaments called *cortes*, and they also weakened the power

of the nobles. In 1492 the two monarchs decreed that all Jews must become Christians or leave Spain, and in 1502 they gave a similar order to the Mohammedans. They greatly increased the strength of the army, so that partly as a result of this and the other factors just mentioned, Spain became during the first half of the sixteenth century the greatest political power in the western world.

Portugal. Portugal was a kingdom, like Castile and Aragon, but it remained an independent nation until 1580 when it was annexed to Spain. For sixty years it was merely a Spanish province, but about the middle of the seventeenth century it was able once more to secure its independence. It has remained an independent state ever since.

Prussia. The Teutonic Order, as we have seen, after its services were finished in the Holy Land, received grants of land on the southern and eastern shores of the Baltic Sea. Here was established the duchy of East Prussia, a fief of the king of Poland. When in 1525 the grand-master of the Teutonic Order became a Lutheran, the order was disbanded and the grand-master became duke of East Prussia. In 1618 his house, that is, a branch of the house of Hohenzollern, became extinct in East Prussia, and this region was annexed to Brandenburg to form the new state called Brandenburg-Prussia. Early in the eighteenth century it became the kingdom of Prussia, and in the nineteenth century it formed the nucleus of the new German empire not destroyed until 1918.

Poland. At the close of the Middle Ages Poland was the largest state in Europe, but it was by no means the strongest state nor the most prosperous one. In 1386 Poland and the state called Lithuania became united by a marriage alliance. Unfortunately the nobility became so strong that they persecuted the masses of the people and weakened the power of the king. This is the chief reason that during the eighteenth century three powerful neighbors dismembered the state, with the result that it disappeared entirely from the map of Europe until it was resurrected in the year 1919. In 1939 the German armies overran the country, and a fourth partition of Poland followed.

Scandinavia. Three Scandinavian countries became united in 1397 and were ruled by one king only, but in 1523 Sweden received its independence. It became a great power during the seventeenth century, annexing a number of Baltic states in addition to Finland, which it had already secured in the Middle Ages. Denmark and Norway remained a united nation until the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1815 Sweden and Norway were united, but in 1905 Norway became independent, so that today there are the three independent Scandinavian nations of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark.

Bohemia and Hungary. These were two old kingdoms, having been established in the ninth and tenth centuries. But early in the sixteenth century, when the Turks annexed a large part of Hungary, the western portion of that kingdom became a province of the Hapsburg dominions. In the third decade of the seventeenth century Bohemia was likewise permanently annexed by the Hapsburg rulers, and it was not until 1918 that Bohemia became independent once more. But in the course of 1938 and the opening months of 1939 the Germans again assumed the position of masters, and what was called the state of Czechoslovakia was partly annexed by Germany and partly formed into a protectorate of Germany.

QUESTIONS

1. Name four Italian city-states.
2. Describe the government of Venice.
3. Which two houses ruled the duchy of Milan?
4. Which family governed Florence during the fifteenth century?
5. Describe the causes of the Hundred Years' War.
6. Name three important battles in that war.
7. What were the results of the Hundred Years' War?
8. Who were the Mongols?
9. Trace the history of the Turks until the end of the fifteenth century.
10. Who were the Hapsburgs and the Hohenzollerns?
11. What was the duty of the electors in the Holy Roman Empire?
12. What was the Interregnum?
13. Name four important emperors in the Holy Roman Empire.
14. Explain how Charles V inherited Spain, the Netherlands, part of America, and the imperial title in the Holy Roman Empire.
15. Trace the early history of Prussia.
16. How did the state called Switzerland originate?

17. What was the chief cause of the decline of Poland?
18. Trace the history of the three Scandinavian nations.
19. When was Portugal a part of Spain?
20. Discuss the early history of the English Parliament.

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Significant Dates

Prince Henry the Navigator .	1394-1460
Voyage of Diaz	1486
Columbus Discovers America .	1492
Voyage of Da Gama to India .	1498

CHAPTER XIII

THE RENAISSANCE AND THE COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION

Purpose: To Study the Revival of Learning, Called Renaissance, and the Nature of the Early Geographical Explorations.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the European nations began to shake off the characteristics of medieval civilization that had marked them for some eight or ten centuries. Instead of being satisfied to retain any longer the old curricula in the universities, to acknowledge the enormous temporal power of the Pope, to stand idly by while the Mohammedans invaded valuable areas in the Mediterranean world, or to adhere to the literary and artistic standards of an age that was slipping away, European thinkers and merchants looked about for new ways of living and thinking. They ushered in the period that is commonly called the Age of the Renaissance.

THE NATURE OF THE RENAISSANCE IN ITALY AND ELSEWHERE

Definition of Terms. The so-called "Dark Ages" might be considered as the period from the Barbarian inundation to the

beginning of the Renaissance. Historians are growing more skeptical of the term, however, and some even assert that no such period as the "Dark Ages" existed. The Renaissance, or re-birth, is a term applied to a great intellectual awakening which affected all phases of European life and history during the latter period of the Middle Ages. The Humanists were scholars who sought to study the classics for their content, or thought, rather than for their form.

Why the Movement Started in Italy. In spite of its backward condition, politically, Italy had been the home of the old Roman civilization. There, hidden away to be found by those who looked, were old manuscripts of the Latin and Greek writers. With a little encouragement from local despots, Italian scholars resurrected these manuscripts and thus began a revival of learning that the German mind was now prepared to receive.

THE NEW INTEREST IN LEARNING

Importance of the Universities. Long before the beginning of the New Learning, the universities had exercised a potent educational influence. Gradually, however, their methods of teaching became stereotyped and consisted largely of a dissection of the Latin and Greek masterpieces, with little or no thought as to their content. Those who sponsored the New Learning, therefore, usually had no connection with the universities.

Dante and Petrarch. To Dante, the Florentine scientist, scholar, and poet, must be given an important place in the new movement. Because he wrote in his native tongue, he set the standard for the Italian language. He held advanced ideas of the earth, heaven, and hell, and respected the ancient worthies, even though they were pagans. Petrarch venerated the ancient classical writers and wrote "love letters" to them. He traveled widely and stimulated other writers. He used the Latin, rather than the Italian language, and opposed the learning of the universities.

Significant Aspects of Humanism. Humanism increased skepticism, because it ridiculed the monks, emphasized the pleasures of this life, and created interest in the pagan gods. It created a new motive for the study of Latin and promoted greatly the use

of Greek. The search for old manuscripts and the need for keeping them safely led to the establishment of many libraries.

Influence of the Printing Press. The invention of the printing press increased the supply of books, and aided the spread of learning. The majority of books, however, dealt with religion and popular fiction, and thus did not contribute directly to the New Learning. John Gutenberg invented a practicable press; others took up the idea and spread it rapidly in Europe.

RENAISSANCE ART

Architecture. The art of Italy was distinguished by the prevalence of the Romanesque and the absence of the Gothic styles of architecture. This style, best exemplified in church buildings, was noted for its simplicity and beauty of proportion, and for its capitals, cornices, and domes.

Sculpture. There was much early dependence on the classical models, but more independence and originality later developed. Michaelangelo stood supreme in this field.

Painting. Painting was chiefly confined to religious topics and was done on frescoes, but there were exceptions to these rules. Renaissance painting is perhaps without a rival in the history of the world, and it continued to flourish long after medieval days. Giotto was an architect and painter. Fra Angelico was noted for his beautiful frescoes. Raphael, Michaelangelo, and Da Vinci are other names that stand supreme in the history of painting. Florence and Rome were the most noted centers of art.

The Renaissance Elsewhere in Europe. In the realm of painting, the Netherlands may boast of her Van Dyck, Rubens, and Rembrandt; Spain, of her Velasquez; and so on. Many of these, it is true, lived at a later date than the Italian painters, but they had been influenced by the Renaissance. Indeed, the spirit of the New Awakening manifested itself in many ways. French troops invading Italy caught this spirit and took it back home. German scholars caught the idea of research, but directed it to a study of Hebrew, rather than Latin and Greek, and gave it a

distinctly religious turn. It would hardly be too much to say that explorers felt the stimulus in their discoveries of new worlds.

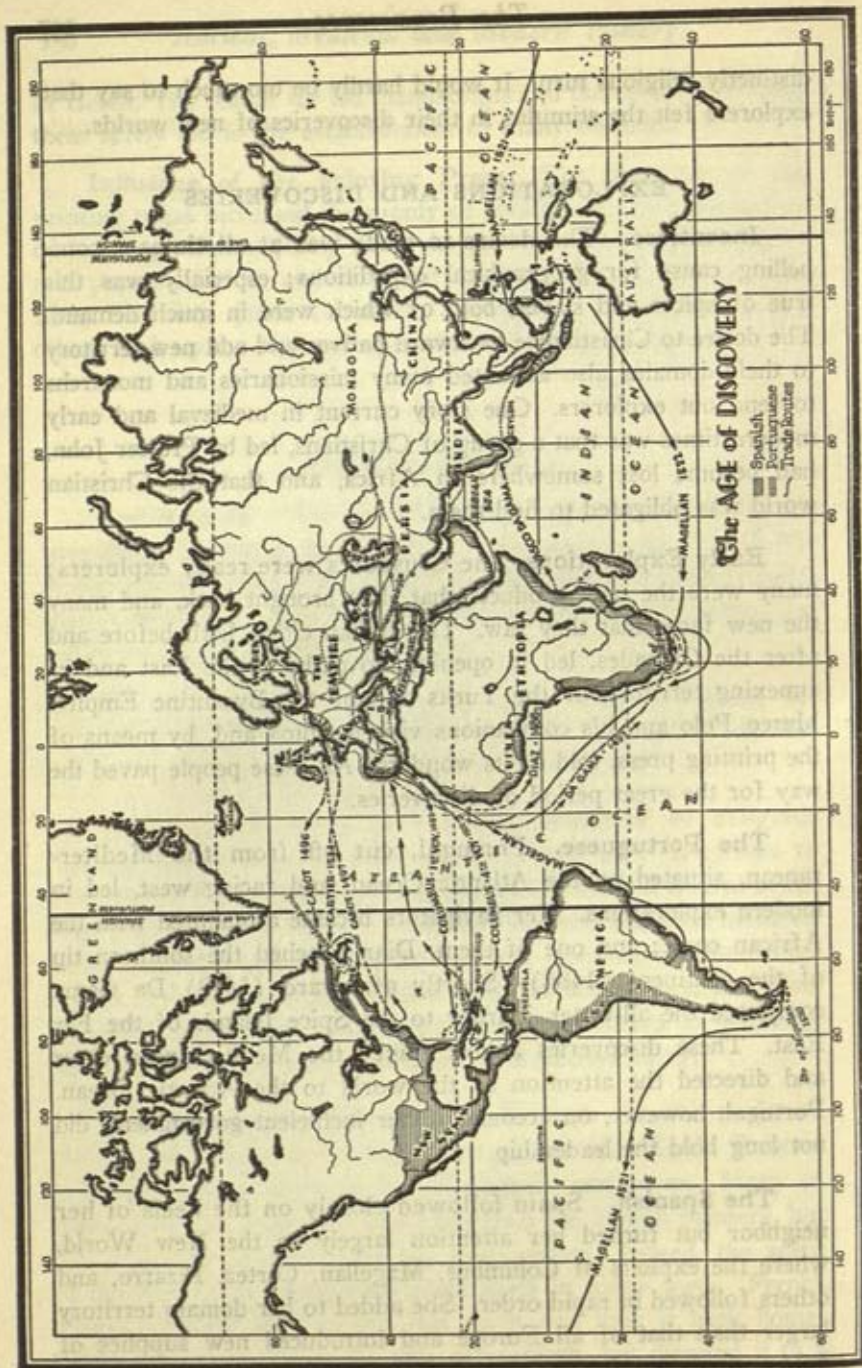
EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES

Incentives. The desire to trade was at all times a compelling cause for geographical expeditions; especially was this true of spices and slaves, both of which were in much demand. The desire to Christianize backward natives and add new territory to their domains also animated many missionaries and monarchs to send out explorers. One story current in medieval and early modern times was that a group of Christians, led by Prester John, had become lost somewhere in Africa, and that the Christian world was obligated to find them.

Early Explorations. The Crusaders were really explorers; many were the new products that they brought back, and many the new faces that they saw. The Italian cities, both before and after the Crusades, led in opening up paths to the East and in annexing territory of the Turks and of the Byzantine Empire. Marco Polo and his companions visited China and, by means of the printing press, told of its wonders. All these people paved the way for the great period of discoveries.

The Portuguese. Portugal, cut off from the Mediterranean, situated on the Atlantic Ocean, and facing west, led in modern explorations. Her navigators became acquainted with the African coast; and one of them, Diaz, reached the southern tip of the continent (1486). Shortly afterward (1498) Da Gama completed the all-water journey to the Spice Islands of the Far East. These discoveries almost ruined the Mediterranean cities and directed the attention of the world to the Atlantic Ocean. Portugal, however, on account of her inefficient government, did not long hold the leadership.

The Spanish. Spain followed closely on the heels of her neighbor but turned her attention largely to the New World, where the exploits of Columbus, Magellan, Cortez, Pizarro, and others followed in rapid order. She added to her domain territory larger than that of all Europe and introduced new supplies of gold and silver.



Other Nations. The English, slow in starting, eventually settled along the Atlantic coast of North America. The French formed rival settlements nearby. The Dutch centered their chief attention on the Far East. Aided by these explorations and by the newly recognized Copernican theory of the world, man in early modern times had at his command a greatly increased knowledge of the universe.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN CHURCH AND STATE

The Papal Schism (1378-1417). Among the many changes introduced during the Age of the Renaissance was the loss of prestige suffered by the papacy. It was bad enough for the Popes to have been exiled for about seventy years from Rome and to have had their court transferred to the French town of Avignon; but it was worse when there were two popes, one at Avignon and one at Rome. The result was that the members of the Roman Catholic Church in the Western World were divided in their allegiance.

Criticism of the Papacy. During the fourteenth century, when the humanists in Italy expounded daring theories about the Christian religion and the Christian Church, a number of other writers boldly stated that not the pope, but the church council, should be considered the leading authority within the Church. One of these was Marsilius of Padua, who wrote a revolutionary work entitled *The Defender of the Peace*. He said that in a state the legislature owes its power directly to the people, and rulers must be held responsible to the people. In like manner, he continued, the Church was governed by the church council, representative of the clergy and the members of the Church as a whole. The book had a wide following, and resulted in the weakening of the papal power. It also contained elements of political democracy. Furthermore, a large number of reformers and mystics and heretics appeared in various countries, and complained bitterly about the many abuses in the Church. Among these were the Waldensians, so named after Peter Waldo of Lyons. In their opinion the Church should be made much more simple and less interested in worldly things. Among the critics of the papacy was John Wycliffe, a famous English writer who used to teach at the

University of Oxford. He pointed out a number of abuses prevailing among the clergy. He was followed in turn by a continental reformer, John Huss, who lived in Bohemia, where he not only spread the doctrines of John Wycliffe but also added some "heresies" of his own. Then there were the mystics, whose claim that a person should seek direct communion with God weakened the Church considerably. One of these writers was Thomas à Kempis, whose *Imitation of Christ* was the most widely read book ever produced in Europe.

The Council of Constance. In 1414 the largest church council that Europe had ever seen was assembled in the town of Constance. Here an attempt was made to reform the church. The council ended the Papal Schism, and it had John Huss burned at the stake as a heretic; but it failed in many other ways to reform the Church. It declared that the church council, rather than the Pope, is the seat of authority and of administration in the Christian Church.

Pope Alexander VI (1492-1503) and his Son Caesar Borgia. Alexander VI was one of the most unscrupulous men that ever occupied the papal chair. Although officially upholding celibacy, he openly acknowledged his own children, one of whom was his son Caesar Borgia. Both father and son immersed themselves in worldly affairs, leading armies to battle and directing the government of the Papal States of Italy. They were less interested in the care of souls than in victory upon the battlefield. As a result, criticism of the papacy increased by leaps and bounds and led indirectly to the religious revolution that is commonly called the Reformation.

Machiavelli and His Work, *The Prince*. At the close of the fifteenth century, when a truly wicked man was head of the Western Church, and when humanism was responsible in part for the revival of paganism in the movement called the Renaissance, a writer appeared who boldly announced that a ruler should not be compelled to keep his promises or his treaties, if in his opinion he could serve his state better by breaking his word and by murdering both guilty and innocent persons. Machiavelli set forth his opinions in his work entitled *The Prince*. Therein he condemned the Christian religion, for he stated that it made states-

men weak rulers. He also referred at length to Pope Alexander VI and his son Caesar Borgia, whom he praised for their lack of sincerity and their brutal tactics. He exerted tremendous influence in the next two centuries, and in a way he prepared the way for the coming of such unscrupulous dictators as Adolph Hitler.

Erasmus and His Book, *The Praise of Folly*. While Machiavelli was busy in Italy condemning the Christian religion and certain aspects of the administration of the Christian Church, another writer, counted even more influential than Machiavelli, was beginning to attack the Church from an entirely different angle. Once a monk, he had become dissatisfied with monasticism; finding it impossible to be released from his monastic vows, he turned about and ridiculed the whole system of monasticism. He wrote a famous book, entitled *The Praise of Folly*, in which he made fun of the popes, the archbishops, the bishops, the professors in the universities, the monks and friars, and all people who continued to support the practices and doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. He was opposed to the system of indulgences, the invocation of saints, pilgrimages, shrines, fasting on holidays, particularly on Fridays and in the season called Lent, the formalism in the Church, the great power wielded by the clergy, and the literal interpretation of certain important passages in the Bible. In this manner he undermined the whole sacramental system of the Church, and he was directly responsible for the disappearance of the above-mentioned practices and beliefs in Protestant countries. The Protestants have given up these things very largely because of the enormous authority wielded by Erasmus in the opening decades of the sixteenth century.

The Oxford Reformers. Erasmus had a number of influential friends in England who are commonly called the Oxford Reformers, because they were directly or indirectly associated with the University of Oxford. Among these was the son of the mayor of London by the name of John Colet, who became the dean of St. Paul's Cathedral in London. He insisted upon doing away with a number of abuses in the Church, although he was not the enemy of monasticism and scholasticism, as Erasmus was. Another member of this group was Thomas More, the author of the celebrated work entitled *Utopia*. More pictured a society in

which all property was held in common, the ideal of the early Christians, as most thinkers knew. His ideal republic was based upon the maintenance of order and peace through love. All citizens in his state were obliged to work, and in order that everybody could be free to devote a reasonable amount of time to study and recreation, he decreed that each person was to work six hours a day. He wished to do away with the distinction between slaves and masters, a distinction that had been the curse of antiquity. Even the most ignorant and incapable workmen in his state were to be free men. The government was to be established by election to a body called the Senate, to be presided over by a president, who was to be assisted by commissioners. Liberty and democracy were among its notable features. A public system of education was to be provided for, while crime was curbed by the attempt to reform evil-minded citizens. Religious toleration was to be granted to everybody, and common public worship was to be available.

The Rise of Modern Democracy. Both Erasmus and Thomas More were decidedly opposed to absolute monarchies. Moreover, in the Netherlands a number of eminent scholars wrote works in defense of popular democracy. They maintained that rulers in a state must not receive their offices through heredity but must all be elected and must constantly be held responsible to the people for their misdemeanors. Should they not know how to rule well, they were to be immediately deposed. Both Erasmus and More also favored the cause of popular education, and they were directly responsible in part for the building of the secondary schools of modern Europe and America. They advocated a more properly balanced curriculum in the elementary and secondary schools, in which the Bible was to be used side by side with the finest works coming from the classical world. Physical punishment should be done away with as much as possible, and religion should be emphasized as being the most valuable asset in a state.

The Beginnings of Modern Autocracy, or Absolutism. At the same time, however, the rulers of England, France, and Spain continued to do all in their power to enhance the prestige of the royal office. They tried to limit the powers of the Parlia-

ment in England, the Estates-General in France, and the Cortes in Spain. They restricted the rights of the nobility and also of the municipal councils. They took many privileges away from the courts of the nobles and from the Church. For example, in France from 1485 until the end of 1560 there was never one meeting held of the national legislature, the Estates-General. In England, during the sixteenth century, although Parliament remained an important institution and was acknowledged by the king as a necessity, the rulers ignored as much as possible this national legislature. Thus the way was prepared for autocracy, such as Europe knew during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It was during the course of the eighteenth century that the English colonies in America, which formed the United States of America, became the leaders in the fight against autocracy and in the establishment of modern democracy.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did the Renaissance start in Italy?
2. Who were the Humanists? Discuss the work of two leading Humanists.
3. Tell of Italian developments in architecture, sculpture, and painting.
4. Mention some significant aspects of Humanism.
5. How did the Renaissance affect others besides the Italians?
6. What incentives prompted medieval explorations? Give examples.
7. Trace the explorations of European nations in early modern times.
8. Describe conditions in Spain, England, France, Germany, and Italy at the beginning of the sixteenth century.
9. Identify: "Dark Ages," Renaissance, humanism, Raphael, Rembrandt, Copernicus, Cortez, *taille*, Calais, Prester John.
10. Which writer stated that the prince or the ruler was not responsible to his own people and could do what he chose?
11. Which writers were opposed to absolute monarchies?
12. Analyze the teachings of Thomas More as expressed in his work, *Utopia*.
13. Why was *The Imitation of Christ* the most widely read book that was ever written in Europe?
14. How was the rise of modern democracy made possible?
15. Explain the importance of Erasmus.
16. Who were the Oxford Reformers?
17. Why was Alexander VI not a satisfactory pope?
18. Discuss the results of the Papal Schism.
19. How did Wycliffe and John Huss prepare for the Reformation?

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Significant Dates

Religious Peace of Augsburg . . .	1555
Defeat of Spanish Armada . . .	1588
Edict of Nantes	1598
Peace of Westphalia	1648

CHAPTER XIV

THE AGE OF THE REFORMATION

*Purpose: To Study the Reformation and Note Its
Effects Upon History.*

In its religious and political effects, both immediate and remote, the Reformation was one of the most important movements in history.

BEGINNING OF THE MOVEMENT IN GERMANY

Early Life and Work of Martin Luther. Martin Luther (1483-1546) was the leader of the Reformation in Germany. He was born at Eisleben, Germany, of relatively well-to-do parents, and acquired his early schooling under favorable conditions. He took his Master's degree at Erfurt in 1505 and, in spite of his father's desire that he be a lawyer, entered an Augustinian friary. He later became a teacher of theology at the University of Wittenberg. He visited Rome in 1510-1511 and was unfavorably impressed by its lax religious conditions. He gradually reached the conclusion that salvation came by faith alone.

His First Steps in Revolt. At that time indulgences, that is, Papal remissions of penalties, after the forgiveness of sins, including penances in this life and during the stay in purgatory in the life to come, were being sold. Luther, repelled by the tactics of Tetzl, a seller of indulgences in his vicinity, posted on the door of the church at Wittenberg ninety-five theses condemning such practices. These attracted widespread attention. In a debate with Eck, a Papal representative, Luther was driven into a position of opposition to the Church. Then followed a series of pamphlets in which he sought converts.






The Break with Rome. The Pope finally excommunicated Luther in 1520, and Luther replied by burning publicly the Papal bull of excommunication. Luther soon discovered that he had many friends, some of whom were even more radical than he. Charles V, however, was opposed to the Lutheran movement and signaled his opposition by summoning the reformer before an Imperial Diet at Worms. There Luther refused to recant unless it could be shown by the Scriptures that he was in error. The Diet accordingly outlawed him and, although he had many friends, he went into hiding for about a year at the castle called the Wartburg. While there he translated the New Testament into German.

THE COMPLETION OF THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY

The Beginning of Church Reform. The newly invented printing press proved to be a powerful agent in the cause of church reform in Germany. As yet, however, there was little unity of belief among the reformers. Some, especially Carlstadt, even advocated breaking up all monasteries, while others, such as Hutten and von Sickingen, attacked the ecclesiastical princes. Luther preached moderation, however, and the radical movements failed.

Further Progress of the Reformation. A new Pope, Adrian VI, evinced a desire for reform and called a Diet at Nuremberg to consider matters. Neither this body nor a succeeding one called under a later Pope in 1524 stopped the Lutheran movement. Several Catholic princes did, however, unite at Regens-

16TH CENTURY EUROPE

-  Spanish Line
-  Hapsburg Dominions
-  German Low
-  Princes the Holy
-  Agn vs. Empire.



burg to oppose the new heresy, thus dividing Germany religiously. The peasants, laboring under intolerable economic grievances and encouraged by the success of Luther's work, demanded a redress of grievances in their Twelve Articles. The movement developed into an armed revolt and was suppressed with great cruelty, Luther joining with those who condemned the rebels. Two meetings of the Imperial Diet were called at Speyer in 1526 and 1529. In the first meeting each ruler in Germany secured the right to determine the religion of his people, but in the second, an attempt was made to revoke this right. Certain princes protested against this, thus originating the term *Protestant*. The Emperor called a Diet meeting at Augsburg and ordered the Protestants to prepare a statement of their beliefs. This statement, known as the Augsburg Confession, became the official doctrine of the Lutheran church. Germany eventually became divided into two hostile groups who did not settle their differences until the Peace of Augsburg, 1555. That treaty allowed each ruler to determine the religion of his people, provided that Catholic officials should surrender control over church property before becoming Protestants, and stipulated that church property secularized before 1552 should remain in the hands of laymen. Only Lutherans and Catholics were included.

THE REFORMATION IN OTHER COUNTRIES

Events in Switzerland. During the Middle Ages Switzerland was a part of the Holy Roman Empire. In the thirteenth century three cantons on Lake Lucerne formed a league against the Hapsburgs. Other towns soon joined; and this union, though weak, maintained its independence. Ulrich Zwingli (1484-1531) led the religious revolt there. He objected to the employment of Swiss troops abroad, especially by the Pope, and in his Sixty-seven theses and other writings denounced abuses in the Church even more vigorously than did Luther. John Calvin (1509-1564), in the city of Geneva, established an aristocratic state and founded a university from which missionaries carried his ideas over the world. In his *Institutes of the Christian Religion* he gave written form to his beliefs, one of the most prominent of which was predestination.

The Work of Henry VIII in England. Henry VIII was no Protestant in doctrine; in fact, he won the title "Defender of the Faith" by his vigorous denunciation of Lutheranism. But he became angered at the Pope because that official did not grant him a divorce from Catherine, and eventually he led England out of the Catholic fold. He secured an annulment of marriage in his own courts, married Anne Boleyn, and forced the English clergy to submit to his leadership. Parliament aided him by forbidding the appeal of religious cases to Rome, by making him supreme head of the English church, and by consenting to the confiscation of the property of the monasteries in England.

Edward VI. Edward VI was but a child when he became ruler, and died after reigning only six years, but both he and his regents were strongly Protestant. Therefore a number of religious changes were made, not the least of which was the adoption of a revised prayer book and a creed comprising forty-two articles of faith.

Mary Tudor. Mary, a daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine, was a devout Catholic who labored to restore her religion in England. Protestant acts of Henry and Edward were repealed, but the confiscated church property was not restored. She married Philip II of Spain, an act unpopular in England. She persecuted many of those who remained Protestants, but in the end she failed in her supreme task of making England Catholic.

Elizabeth. The work of the Reformation was completed under Elizabeth. The acts of Uniformity and Supremacy were passed, the Thirty-nine Articles of Faith were adopted, and Puritanism arose. The Spanish Armada was defeated, commerce developed, and colonization began.

Holland and the Scandinavian Countries. Calvinism was carried into Holland and nearby Dutch provinces, and the Dutch Reformed Church was established. In Norway, Denmark, and Sweden, followers of Luther preached and found ready converts, thus leading these nations into Protestantism.

THE CATHOLIC REFORMATION

The Need of Such a Movement. Thoughtful Catholics had long recognized the existence of serious abuses within their

church and had begun to make reforms even before Luther's day. The widespread and immediate success of the Protestant movement, however, undoubtedly hastened the movement for reform in the Catholic Church.

The Council of Trent. Charles V, the Emperor, wanted to call a church council in Germany to effect a compromise with Protestantism. Trent, almost on the boundary between Italy and Germany, was finally selected as the meeting place, and Catholics dominated the meetings. There were twenty-five sittings of the Council, meeting over a period of eighteen years (1545-1563) and doing much work. A number of church reforms were introduced. Bishops were required to attend to their duties, and educational facilities were improved for clergymen; the doctrines of the church were restated in unmistakable terms; and a committee was formed which soon began the publication of the *Index*, a list of books which no good Catholic would read.

The Jesuits. Ignatius Loyola, a Spaniard (1491-1556), while recovering from a wound received in battle, conceived the idea of dedicating himself to God. In pursuance of his plan he later attended the University of Paris, where he gathered some followers. This group finally secured the consent of the Pope to the founding of the Society of Jesus. The organization is military in form and demands of its members the vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, with a fourth vow for the most prominent members of special obedience to the Pope. Schools with no tuition charges were founded, with new systems and methods of study. Jesuit missionaries went to all parts of the world and zealously fought Protestantism in Europe. The order eventually declined and was suppressed, but was later restored, and exists today.

Philip II, the Enemy of Protestantism. Philip II inherited most of the possessions of his father, Charles V. He was a thorough Spaniard, a devout Catholic, and a prodigious worker, but he did not hesitate to employ deceit and even murder against his enemies. One of the most important events of his reign was the loss of the Netherlands. Calvinism had spread there, and Philip persecuted the Protestants cruelly through the Inquisition. Moreover, he subjected the country to grievous taxes and commercial restrictions, he deprived many cities and nobles of long-

held privileges, and his agents misruled the country. The revolt began in the form of a protest to Philip's half-sister, the Duchess of Parma, who was Philip's agent, but soon led to the destruction of much Catholic Church property. Philip sent Alva, a merciless ruler, to the Netherlands, and for six years this man ruled very harshly. The revolters found a leader in the person of William of Orange, who kept up the unequal struggle until he was assassinated. The provinces were finally divided, the southern portion remaining true to Spain, and the northern provinces gaining their independence.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS DURING THE FIRST HALF OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

England. After the Hundred Years' War had ended, England became immersed in a civil struggle known as the War of the Roses. This conflict, led by the rival houses of York and Lancaster, was primarily a war between restless nobles. It ended with the triumph of Henry Tudor on Bosworth field in 1485. It gave England a new and vigorous line of kings, weakened the nobles, and proved to be a temporary set-back to the power of Parliament. The first of these rulers was the crafty Henry VII (1485-1509), who was succeeded by his son Henry VIII (1509-1547).

France. During the Hundred Years' War the king gained control of the army and the collection of the tax called *taille* — two powers that made him almost absolute. The nobles still stood in his path, until the seventeenth century, when Richelieu and others made them politically dependent on the king. The Estates-General, that is, the national legislature, ceased to meet from 1485 to 1560.

Italy. Italy, divided politically, became a fighting ground for others. The French King, Charles VIII, claiming the throne of Naples, made an unsuccessful invasion of Italy; with the Pope, Maximilian, and Ferdinand of Spain opposing him. His successor, Louis XII, captured Milan, only to surrender it to the Spanish king. Francis I, of France, and Charles V, of Spain, struggled for control of Italy, with Henry VIII, of England, looking on and aiding the loser. Italy, thus disunited, continued long to be a bone of contention in Europe.

Spain. King Charles I (1516-1556) was elected Emperor in Germany shortly after the death of his Hapsburg grandfather Maximilian (1519). During his absence in Germany, a revolt which was soon crushed broke out in Spain. He also fought four wars against Francis I of France and was confronted with an attack by the Turks upon Vienna, the capital of Austria (1529). For these reasons he was unable to check the growth of Protestantism in Germany. But in Spain he subjected nobles, clergy, and *cortes* to his autocratic rule. Here he successfully persecuted Protestants, Jews, and Mohammedans. He abdicated in 1556, because of his many difficulties, and was succeeded in Spain and the Netherlands by his son Philip II. But in the Holy Roman Empire the electors chose Ferdinand, the brother of Charles V, as successor, instead of Philip II, because the latter was a Spaniard.

Sweden. In 1523, under Gustavus Vasa, the founder of a great dynasty, Sweden achieved independence from Denmark. This country became for a time the powerful state in northern Europe.

The Ottoman Empire. At this time the Ottoman Turks reached the greatest height of power in their history. They had the most powerful army and navy in the world. In 1571 they were defeated by the combined fleets of the Venetians and Spaniards in a momentous naval battle at Lepanto. However, they did not yet suffer a decline and even forced Venice to pay them a tribute (tax).

THE SO-CALLED WARS OF RELIGION

In France. The seeds of the Reformation had been sown in France by Lefèvre, his pupil Briconnet, and others, before Luther's day. French kings, however, opposed the introduction of Protestantism. Francis I persecuted the Waldensians and caused Calvin to flee from France. Henry II continued the policy of persecution. Charles IX was a weak ruler, largely influenced by his mother, the unscrupulous and ambitious Catherine de Medici, and by the Guises, prominent Catholic nobles. The Huguenots, or Calvinists, were gaining ground rapidly. The Duke of Guise started a civil conflict by massacring a group of Huguenots at Vassy. There were eight periods or intervals of conflict (1562-

1598). One of the most important events was the massacre of Protestants on St. Bartholomew's day (August 24, 1572). This affected the course of the struggle very little, though, and eventually Henry of Navarre turned Catholic, became undisputed king, and the wars ended. Soon after ascending the throne he issued the Edict of Nantes, in which he gave the Huguenots almost complete religious freedom and civil rights (1598). However, they could not worship publicly in the city of Paris. They were to be protected by law and allowed to hold office, were to be admitted to all hospitals, schools, and colleges, and were to hold certain fortified towns. They paid tithes to support the Catholic Church.

The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648). The Peace of Augsburg (1555) had several weaknesses: it did not include Calvinists, it led to quarrels over church property, and it promoted decentralization in Germany. In spite of these weaknesses, however, there was a long period of peace, due to the rule of peace-loving Emperors and to the desire of both Catholics and Protestants to win the country to their side. Eventually the struggle of arms was renewed, the conflict beginning in Bohemia. This Hapsburg possession was strongly Protestant, and trouble arose because the Emperor apparently failed to grant some promised privileges and destroyed two Protestant churches in the capital, Prague. Bohemia then declared its independence and elected Frederick, ruler of the Palatinate, as king. He was defeated, and both Bohemia and his own province were overrun. This interested Frederick's father-in-law, James I of England, and helped to bring Christian IV of Denmark into the conflict. The armies of the Catholic League defeated the latter, and the Emperor issued the Edict of Restitution, which restored to the Catholics all property that had been seized since 1555. Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, then entered the war, in order to aid the Protestants and to extend his own territory around the Baltic Sea. He defeated the armies of Tilly and Wallenstein but was killed in battle. Cardinal Richelieu, virtual head of the French government, then entered the war on the Protestant side, hoping to gain territory for France. After ten more years of war the Peace of Westphalia was signed. Both

Sweden and France gained territories in Germany, Protestant princes received lands they had held in 1624 and could dictate the religion of their people, and German states retained treaty-making powers. This treaty ended the religious wars.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell of the work of six forerunners of the Reformation.
2. Give an account of the life of Luther to 1519.
3. Trace the Reformation in Germany from 1519 to 1555, inclusive.
4. Trace the rise of Protestantism in Switzerland.
5. Summarize the work of the Council of Trent.
6. Tell of the founding, organization, purposes, and work of the Jesuits.
7. Trace the English Reformation from Henry VIII to Elizabeth, inclusive.
8. Give the provisions of the Edict of Nantes. How was it important?
9. Discuss the causes, events, and results of the Thirty Years' War.
10. Identify: corvée, Granada, Augsburg Confession, indulgences, Treasury of Merits, consubstantiation, Eek, Twelve Articles, Zurich, Kappel, Protestant Union, Catholic League, La Rochelle, Lützen.

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Significant Dates

"Glorious Revolution"	1688
Peace of Utrecht	1713
Peace of Paris	1763
American Independence	1776

CHAPTER XV

EXPANSION AND CONFLICT

Purpose: To Note the Internal and External Expansion of Europe and the Americas, and the Resulting Conflicts.

From the beginning, the Stuart kings faced difficulties. They lacked the ability of their predecessors, the Tudors, they found England at peace and free to think of home affairs, and they had to meet with the growing discontent of Parliament and of the Puritans.

THE RELIGIOUS AND POLITICAL STRUGGLE IN ENGLAND

The First Stuart, James I. James I (already James VI of Scotland) was a son of Mary, Queen of Scots. By training he was a Presbyterian, but he showed a fondness for the Anglican system. He considered himself divinely appointed to rule and paraded his ideas of kingship upon every possible occasion. Shortly after his accession he held a conference with the dissatisfied Protestants at Hampton Court, but nothing resulted from

the meeting except a decision to translate the Bible. He also had difficulties with the House of Commons, and that body in the Goodwin case won a victory by declaring itself the sole judge of the seating of its own members. Nor was he more successful in foreign affairs. A projected alliance with Spain through the marriage of his son with a Spanish princess came to naught, and James labored in vain to get his son-in-law, Frederick, who was then ruler of the Palatinate, out of trouble in the Thirty Years' War. Prospects were none too rosy when he died in 1625.

Early Acts of Charles I. Charles I possessed the same exalted ideas of kingship as did his father, but he was more extravagant, more secretive, and made more enemies. Early in his reign he became involved in a quarrel with Parliament over the collection of certain tariffs known as tonnage and poundage duties. He also wanted to aid the Huguenots whom Richelieu was then besieging at La Rochelle, one of their fortified towns. Moreover, he desired to strike at Spain because that nation was supporting the Catholic cause in Germany. Two expeditions launched for these purposes failed. In his need for money he resorted to gifts and forced loans from his subjects. To end this, Parliament forced him to sign the Petition of Right (1628), which forbade the collection of gifts or forced loans, the imprisonment of people without due cause shown, the declaring of martial law in time of peace, and the quartering of troops on his subjects. But he continued to collect tonnage and poundage, and when Parliament protested he dismissed that body.

Period of Personal Rule (1629-1640). Charles angered many by favoring certain religious practices that seemed to smack of Catholicism. Laud and Wentworth, by their "high church" policies in Scotland and Ireland, angered many more. The Scotch, resenting the attempt to force upon them the Uniform Prayer Book, rebelled. When his army had been driven back, Charles was forced to call on Parliament for aid. Many Englishmen had also deserted him because of his collection of "ship money," a tax levied on inland and coastal towns.

The Long Parliament. Instead of granting Charles money, Parliament proceeded to a redress of grievances. It imprisoned and later executed both Laud and Wentworth, abolished

the royally controlled courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, decreed that Parliament should meet each three years whether the king should call it or not, declared "ship money" illegal, and in the "Grand Remonstrance" presented to the country its side of the controversy.

War and the Execution of the King. The king failed in an attempt to arrest five of the Parliamentary leaders who opposed him, and both sides prepared for war. The nobility, Anglicans, Catholics, and some members of Parliament favored the king; while the Puritans, shipping interests, and middle classes supported Parliament. The king's forces held the initial advantage, but Oliver Cromwell, who became leader for the opponents of the king, soon led them to victory. Charles was captured and negotiated with his army, the Scotch, and Parliament for a return to power. Finding that he was deceiving them, army leaders purged Parliament of the King's friends, created a special court before which the King was brought to trial on a charge of treason, and had him executed.

The Commonwealth. For more than a decade England had no king, but Cromwell was the real ruler. He ruled by virtue of a veteran army and in the face of a hostile majority at home. He suppressed insurrections both in Ireland and Scotland. He favored the shipping interests, and therefore sponsored a navigation act (1651) which struck at Dutch shipping. This act, added to previous difficulties, produced an inconclusive sea conflict with the Dutch. England also became involved in a war with Spain, in which an English fleet captured Jamaica, a possession that England continued to hold.

The Restoration. At Cromwell's death his son Richard succeeded him, but he could not satisfy the English people, who longed for a king. The son of Charles I was called to the throne and ruled as Charles II. He favored toleration, but Parliament disagreed with him and limited freedom of worship to Anglicans. Charles II, who was an abler ruler than his father had been, managed to maintain himself more or less independent of Parliament. In this he was aided by a subsidy from Louis XIV of France and by a large dowry from his Portuguese wife. During

the last years of his reign he was powerful enough to force his opponents to accept his Catholic brother as the next king.

The Revolution of 1688. James II, by his open attempts to restore the Catholics to favor, soon alienated many subjects. When the birth of a son opened up the prospect of another Catholic ruler, the people rebelled, and the "Bloodless Revolution" occurred. James II was overthrown and fled to France. William of Orange and his wife Mary, daughter of James II, were invited to rule England. An act confirming certain fundamental privileges of Englishmen, became the law of the land, and a toleration act soon followed which provided limited freedom of worship for all except Catholics, Jews, and Unitarians. The Act of Settlement provided for the succession to the throne. Parliament had won its fight for supremacy over the king, and the Puritans had won their fight for freedom of worship.

FRANCE AND EUROPE DURING THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV

The Preparatory Work of Others. Henry IV consolidated the French nation and ended the religious strife. Richelieu destroyed the political privileges of the Huguenots, reduced the powers of the nobles, and abolished the Estates-General. Mazarin suppressed the last rebellion of the nobles (the Fronde), secured the bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, a portion of Alsace, and some territory in the Pyrenees. When Louis XIV came to the throne, therefore, he profited by the work of others before him.

The New King. In appearance and temperament Louis XIV was well fitted to be king. He believed in and practiced the policy of Divine Right and absolutism. He called to his aid men of unusual ability. While he refused to grant the nobles their lost privileges, he gathered many of them around him, where they lived as pensioners of his bounty and as servants to his every whim. In keeping with his ideas of kingship he erected a magnificent palace at Versailles, near Paris, where he and many of the nobles lived.

Louis' Constructive Work. He was a patron of art and literature and encouraged men like Molière, Racine, and St. Simon

to write. He also built up the French Academy, started the Royal Library, which has now one of the greatest collection of books in the world, established an astronomical observatory, and otherwise indicated his interest in learning.

General Causes of the Wars of Louis XIV. The possession of the finest army in Europe, the desire to gain glory, and the aim to extend the boundaries of France were controlling motives for his aggressive wars.

War of the Spanish Netherlands (1667-1668). Louis, claiming some of the territory through his Spanish wife, invaded and occupied the region. He was stopped by a coalition of powers which included England, the Netherlands, and Sweden. In the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Louis received a frontier strip of the Spanish Netherlands.

War with the Dutch (1672-1678). Louis was angered at the Dutch for their part in thwarting him in his plans; accordingly, he first isolated them by arranging special treaties with England and Sweden, and then attacked the Netherlands. The Dutch, unable to defeat the French armies, cut the dykes and flooded the country. Brandenburg, the Emperor, and Spain eventually came to their aid and halted Louis once more. In the peace of Nimwegen, Louis gained Franche Comté, but the Dutch lost no territory.

War of the Palatinate (1688-1697). During the period of peace before this war Louis revoked the Edict of Nantes, an act which caused him to lose thousands of his best subjects. He precipitated the war by seizing some German districts of the Palatinate region. A coalition was formed against him consisting of England, Spain, Austria, Holland, and some German states. During the struggle the Palatinate was devastated, but no decisive military result was recorded. In the Peace of Ryswick all former possessions were restored.

War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713). Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV, was named as heir to the Spanish throne. Other rulers of Europe opposed what seemed to be a virtual union of Spain and France. A coalition of powers, therefore, favored the accession of Charles, second son of the Emperor

Leopold of Austria. In the war which followed, French arms for the first time met defeat at the hands of the English general Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy. In the Peace of Utrecht and related treaties Philip was to be king of Spain on condition that Spain and France should never be united; Austria gained the Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Naples, and Sardinia; and England secured extensive French and Spanish territories in the New World and elsewhere, as well as the right to trade in slaves with the Spanish West Indies, and the privilege of sending one ship yearly to the Spanish New World.

General Results of Louis' Wars. The Wars of Louis XIV depleted France's treasury, reduced her army, injured her commerce, decreased her colonial possessions, and left her a five-year-old child for a ruler. The wars also brought about a considerable expansion of International Law.

THE RISE OF RUSSIA

Early Development. The original home of the Russians was Asia. Slavic groups drifted into Southwestern Russia about 500 B.C., and gradually a number of nations appeared. Tradition says that a Northman, Rurik, founded the first Russian state; but it is certain that by the seventh century trading posts were established and that invasions of the Byzantine Empire later occurred. During the thirteenth century the Tartars overran the country and conquered it, but a native ruler, Ivan the Terrible, established a strong kingdom and became the first Tsar. The Russians were influenced greatly by Byzantine civilization.

Peter the Great and His Work (1672-1725). Peter was ambitious to westernize Russia; and in that connection he traveled in Europe, where he gained first-hand knowledge of ship building, military affairs, commerce, and industry. He not only induced foreigners to live in Russia, but also sent young Russians abroad to study, encouraged the printing and translating of books, and attempted to make reforms in Russian dress. After he had suppressed an uprising of the Royal body guard, he created a new army on the Prussian model. He also displaced the Patriarch and made himself virtual head of the Orthodox church. He founded a new capital, St. Petersburg, near the Baltic Sea and, at the end

of a successful war against Sweden, secured a sure outlet to that sea. He failed, however, in an attempt to gain access to the Black Sea.

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA

Early Growth. Brandenburg was originally established as an outpost against the Slavs. Prussia, originally consisting of a strip of land along the Baltic Sea, was conquered by the Teutonic Knights in the thirteenth century. The family of Hohenzollern secured Brandenburg from the Emperor Sigismund in the fifteenth century, and later it fell heir to Prussia.

Development of Prussia (1640-1740). The Great Elector, Frederick William, built up an army, gained territory, and consolidated the country. The Elector Frederick III (King Frederick I) gained the title of king. Frederick William I greatly increased the army and ruled both the country and his son with an iron hand.

Frederick the Great (1740-1786) and His Wars. In the first year of his reign, Frederick II seized Silesia from Austria, thus beginning the War of the Austrian Succession (1740-1748). Although a number of European powers became involved in the war against him, he succeeded in retaining that territory at the end of the conflict. Maria Theresa, Austrian ruler, was dissatisfied, however, and soon the two powers found themselves on opposite sides in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763). Notwithstanding the fact that Frederick was literally surrounded by enemies (Austria, France, Russia, Sweden, and Saxony), he managed to hold his own and, in the end, also held Silesia. In 1772 he joined with the Austrian and Russian monarchs in the first partition of Poland. Two other partitions, in 1793 and 1795, completed the dismemberment of that unfortunate nation.

Frederick's Constructive Work. Although Frederick had almost doubled the size of Prussia and made the Prussian army feared and respected in Europe, his achievements in developing his realm probably equal those in war. So wisely did he rule that he earned the title of enlightened despot. Among other things, he reclaimed waste lands, encouraged the colonization of desirable immigrants in Prussia, built canals, fostered woolen and textile

and other industries, abolished torture, reformed the civil court system of Prussia, encouraged literature, and instituted religious toleration.

BRITISH EXPANSION

Internal Progress of England. The accession of William and Mary to the English throne meant that England was to have limited religious toleration, that Parliament was supreme, and that the power of the king was definitely limited. Anne, the last Stuart ruler, used the veto for the last time. During her reign, also, England and Scotland were united under one Parliament (1707). It was chiefly during the reigns of George I and George II that the Cabinet form of Government developed, with Walpole as the first Prime Minister.

England and the Other Nations of Europe (1701-1748). England entered the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1713) to maintain the balance of power, to expand colonially, and to uphold Protestantism. She emerged from the struggle with considerable accessions of territory. Walpole afterward favored peace and devoted himself to the promotion of commerce; but he was compelled to lead England into the War of Jenkin's Ear (1739), a conflict caused by commercial rivalry with Spain. This was soon merged into the larger War of the Austrian Succession (1740-1748). There was much sympathy in England for the Austrian ruler, Maria Theresa. On the other hand, George II, as ruler of Hanover, was a rival of the Prussian king. Anglo-French colonial rivalry was another cause for England's entrance into the war. During the conflict the Stuart Pretender to the throne of England was defeated in the battle of Culloden Moor.

Colonial Powers and Progress. At the beginning of the modern age Portugal was the pioneer colonial power, her explorers and traders establishing themselves in Africa and India. Portugal failed largely because of an incompetent government and a short-sighted colonial policy. Spain was next: led by Columbus and others she discovered and colonized much of the New World. Although she held these colonies a long time, other nations soon overshadowed her commercially. The Dutch became interested in the East Indies and the New World. They were traders, rather

than colonizers, and the seventeenth century was their period of greatness. The French were colonizers and land traders, rather than seafarers, and established themselves in India and North America. Before 1700 the English discovered that of all the powers here mentioned the French were the most serious rivals, both in Asia and in the New World.

Anglo-French Rivalry in the Eighteenth Century. This rivalry took a serious turn in India. In that ancient empire of more than two hundred million people both the British and the French East India companies began operations about 1600. The divided political condition of India and the backwardness of the natives made possible this penetration. France and England also clashed in North America, where thirteen English colonies had been established (1607-1732) along the Atlantic coast, while French colonies had been established in Canada, along the Great Lakes, and at the mouth of the Mississippi River. In four inter-colonial wars the rivals struggled for control: in the War of the Palatinate (King William's War), the War of the Spanish Succession (Queen Anne's War), the War of the Austrian Succession (King George's War), and the Seven Years' War (French and Indian War), fighting occurred in North America as well as in Europe. In the last-named conflict the English were triumphant in both India and the New World, owing to the superiority of British leadership under Clive, Wolfe, Pitt, and others. In the Peace of Paris (1763) England gained Canada, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Florida, and Senegal, in Africa. The French were to have no troops or fortifications in Bengal, and they recognized English-supported native rulers in the Carnatic and the Deccan. The outcome of the long struggle was a signal victory for the English.

Loss of the American Colonies. The ink was hardly dry on the signatures to the Peace of Paris when England's colonies in North America began to rebel. The colonies had been growing away from the mother country for some time. The removal of all fear of the French and the decision of England to tax her colonies after 1763 more than she had done, were some of the causes of the struggle. French aid made sure the success of the rebellion.

QUESTIONS

1. Trace the struggle between Crown and Parliament through the reign of the Stuarts.
2. Give a brief account of the public career of Oliver Cromwell.
3. What were the chief items in the Grand Remonstrance, the Petition of Right, the Bill of Rights, and the Act of Settlement?
4. Give names, dates, peace treaties, causes, events, and results of the wars of Louis XIV.
5. What constructive work for France may be credited to Louis XIV?
6. Trace the rise of Russia to the time of Peter the Great.
7. What aims did Peter have for Russia, and how well did he fulfill them?
8. Trace the development of Prussia to 1740.
9. Was Frederick II greater as a warrior or as a ruler? Discuss.
10. Show how the English ousted the French from India and North America.
11. Identify: John Hampton, Naseby, Grotius, Strassburg, "Diplomatic Turnover," Potsdam Giants, Pultava, Azov, Amboina, Duplex.

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Significant Dates

East India Company Founded	1600
Long Parliament	1640-1660
First Navigation Act	1651
Absolute Monarchy in France	1661-1787
Bank of England	1694
Leadership of Walpole	1721-1742

CHAPTER XVI

A SURVEY OF EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION FROM 1500 TO 1750

Purpose: To Trace the Development of Civilization in Europe from the Opening of the Sixteenth Century Until the Second Half of the Eighteenth Century.

European society preceding the outbreak of the French Revolution is often referred to as the Old Régime. This term signifies that the French Revolution ushered in a new age, and that European society was greatly altered by this revolution. Not only did the last vestiges of serfdom and feudalism disappear in France and adjoining countries, but absolute monarchies received the death blow in the Western World as a result of this great upheaval. Moreover, great changes also occurred in the social structure in various important nations. The privileged classes lost many of their privileges, and the middle classes became more powerful than ever; but the masses of the people remained for another half

century or longer in a position of servitude. Consequently, we may say that the Old Régime was characterized by absolute monarchies, privileged classes, the rise of the middle class, the expansion of commerce and industry on an unprecedented scale, progress in education, advancement in science, but generally speaking, stagnation in painting, sculpture, and architecture. Music, on the other hand, flourished greatly in this period.

TYPES OF GOVERNMENT AND POLITICAL THEORIES

Limited Government in Great Britain. It was in this period that the parliamentary system of modern England developed. Partly as a result of the Puritan Revolution from 1462 to 1649, and of the "Glorious Revolution" of 1688, the king lost a great deal of his former power. Two important political parties originated called respectively the Whigs and the Tories. In 1707 the ruler of Great Britain made use for the last time of the veto power. Soon after that date the first prime minister began to function, namely, Robert Walpole (1721-1742). This able statesman found a small group of political leaders who collectively were styled the "Cabinet." It later became the custom to select the members of the cabinet from the members of the House of Lords or the House of Commons, and in a few cases some members were selected from other groups. Cabinet members retained their seats only as long as their supporters formed a majority in the House of Commons. When a majority of the members in the House of Commons showed disapproval of the measures adopted by a cabinet, then all its members had to resign, and the king had to appoint a Prime Minister from among the members of the other political party. This Prime Minister would select the members of a new cabinet, that is, the new ministry. The Prime Minister was the real head of the executive branch of the government, and he also introduced legislation in the House of Commons. During the period in question only persons with considerable incomes were permitted to vote in national elections for the members of a new cabinet, that is, the new ministry. The Members of the House of Lords sat there for the duration of their lives, and their titles were hereditary. From time to time the king could ap-

point new members, but these members were never elected by the people as a whole. In the House of Lords sat the bishops and the archbishops, who were called the "Lords Spiritual," while the other members belonged to the nobility and were called the "Lords Temporal." Before 1800 the House of Lords exercised considerable power, but in 1911 it lost the right to veto money bills passed by the House of Commons, and it could exercise only a suspensive veto of other measures.

Absolute Monarchy in France. Louis XIV, Louis XV, and Louis XVI all ruled as absolute monarchs, at least up to the year 1789. From 1614 to 1789 the national legislature, called the Estates-General, was never called together. The king and his leading ministers controlled both the executive and the legislative branches of the government. Furthermore, they could veto any decisions passed by the great law-courts of France, called *Parlements*. Naturally there were never any elections for the members of a national legislature, since such a body never functioned. The king was surrounded at his castle in Versailles by a host of nobles, who had been deprived at home of political power and were engaged in glorifying the monarch. The king was not the head of the Church in France, but the national church had acquired a considerable amount of independence of the Pope in Rome. The church did not pay regular taxes to the civil government, although the latter received from time to time a lump sum of money, which was charitably called the "Free Gift." The nobles also made some contribution to the support of the government, but upon the whole the share they paid was exceedingly small. The great burden fell upon the masses of the people who were least able to pay.

Other Countries Imitate France. Versailles was the model set for a great many other states and courts. This was especially true of the princes in the Holy Roman Empire. Even the monarchs in Scandinavia and Spain, as well as the ruler in the Dutch Republic, imitated the grand monarch of France. In these countries the rulers tried as far as possible to concentrate in their respective hands all political power possible. Privileged classes also existed in these states. Absolutism was in fact the rule in Spain, and it almost became the rule in Sweden. But in

the Dutch Republic certain democratically inclined elements were able to check the power of the *stadhouder* or president. In Russia the tsar was both the head of the Church, since Peter the Great had changed the relation between church and state about the year 1700, and absolute ruler in the realm of politics. The sultan of the Ottoman Empire also ruled as an autocrat. The same was true of the king of Naples and Sicily.

Decentralization and Democratic Tendencies in Other Countries. In the Holy Roman Empire the Emperor was gradually losing power, so that after 1648 the princes could declare war or peace at will, without the approval of the Emperor. In Poland the king was also shorn of his prerogatives, and the nobility took over the control of the national legislature, made up of two houses. About 350 members of the nobility had seats in these two houses, and any one of them could block legislation at any time he wished. When a new king was elected, he had to sign a charter limiting his powers as a monarch. This is the chief reason, as we saw, that Poland was dismembered at the end of the eighteenth century. Switzerland was a republic made up of a number of smaller republics called cantons. Venice and Genoa also were still republics, in which a number of nobles ruled, but never a monarch. These countries were ruled by oligarchic forms of government. This was also true of political conditions in the Dutch Republic. In the latter country a great many writers attacked absolutism and religious intolerance. The press and speech were free in this remarkable land. Here were gathered Jews from almost all nations and various exiles who had left their respective states for political, or religious, or social reasons. In the city of Amsterdam alone there were in the seventeenth century more than two hundred printing presses and 30,000 persons engaged in the publishing business. Here books were published in French, German, and English, attacking the governments of France, various states of Germany, and Great Britain.

The Beginning of Religious Toleration and Modern Democracy. One of the chief causes of modern democracy was the tendency in Calvinistic churches to limit the power of the ministers. The latter were assisted by elders and deacons, who were elected by the local congregations. The system of election,

however, was more or less indirect; and the people at large could only select from a number of candidates proposed by the ministers and their elders and deacons. The government of the Calvinistic churches may be styled aristocratic, because the leading ministers and elders would habitually assemble in provincial or national meetings called synods, where they determined the policy of the church as a whole. Nevertheless, ministers, as well as elders and deacons, had to be elected by the congregations. In the annual meetings of the congregation, the members of the congregation had a great deal to say. The use of the secret ballot in elections was also of great importance. Even more influential were the Baptists, as well as the Congregationalists, who permitted each local congregation to have independence. For that reason certain denominations in England were called Independents. The Baptists and the Congregationalists also made relatively little distinction between the ministers on the one hand and the elders or deacons on the other hand. Among the Baptists particularly it was the rule to minimize the importance of the ministers. Furthermore, many of the Baptists from the very beginning at the end of the sixteenth century insisted on complete religious toleration for all Christians, and even for Mohammedans and infidels. The influence of the Baptists and other denominations of a similar nature was tremendous.

Influence of the United States. Especially on American soil, the idea of religious toleration and political liberties grew apace. During the second half of the eighteenth century the United States became the greatest force in the establishment of democracies. Whereas the French Revolution, as we shall see, failed to introduce democracy, and whereas France had no democracy until 1848, the Americans had complete democracy as far as was practicable, before the year 1800. Universal manhood suffrage was introduced in this country before the end of the eighteenth century, when it was unknown in European countries. Besides, religious toleration was made possible in the United States during the first half of the nineteenth century, when in many European countries the state churches continued to function and to check religious liberty among the members of other churches. This was especially true in Great Britain, while even in France the state

church was not abolished until 1905. Great Britain has its state church today, and its bishops and archbishops still sit in Parliament as representatives of the Church of England.

THE EXPANSION OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

The Great Commercial Companies. During the seventeenth century a number of commercial companies were founded which operated as joint-stock companies or corporations and were in each case in possession of a charter received from their respective government. This charter gave them the power to use armed forces, engage in wars with foreign powers abroad, but not in Europe, conquer colonies, and fortify these colonies. As a rule, they also obtained a monopoly of trade in their colonies, where they tried to keep out merchants from other nations. The most important joint-stock company of the seventeenth century was the Dutch East India Company, but the greatest company of the eighteenth century was the English East India Company. The companies trading in America were respectively the Virginia Company, made up of a former London Company and a Plymouth Company; the Dutch West India Company founded in 1621; and the French Company of New France, or Canada, founded in 1628. Three successive East India companies fostered by the French government were failures, but the fourth company, dating from the second half of the seventeenth century, established important trading posts on the mainland of India and in what is now called Indo-China. France also secured the important island of Madagascar to the southeast of Africa.

The Founding of New National Banks. The two greatest banks founded in the seventeenth century were the Bank of Amsterdam, dating from 1608, and the Bank of England, founded in 1694. These two banks were models for banks of other countries that were established afterwards.

Stock Markets. The first great modern stock market was that founded in Amsterdam during the first half of the seventeenth century. It has remained until this day one of the leading financial centers of Europe. During the eighteenth century stock markets established in London and Paris respectively were destined

to overshadow the earlier stock market in Amsterdam. During the nineteenth century the stock market in New York, commonly referred to as Wall Street, became the greatest financial center in the world. Here shares are traded in all the important American companies that are known as corporations.

Mercantilism. What we call "free trade" was practically non-existent during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The governments of Spain and Portugal controlled trade with their respective colonies. They tried to keep all foreign merchants out of these. The same may be said of the great commercial companies just mentioned. In some of the important European countries attempts were also made by various governments to control the domestic industries. For example, Colbert, the great minister of finance in France under Louis XIV, instituted industries that were subsidized by the government. He was one of the leading mercantilists of his age, for he believed in a policy of securing for his country as much of the precious metals as was possible. He thought that gold and silver formed the true basis of wealth, so he promoted the free importation of raw materials, and he levied high import duties on manufactured goods of foreign countries. This policy of Colbert was practically the same as that which is fostered today by almost all governments, and which is now called a policy of a favorable balance of trade. It was only during the nineteenth century that the principle of "free trade" was encouraged by some of the important nations, especially by Great Britain. Today, however, Great Britain is no longer a free trade country. During the seventeenth century the English government on several occasions proclaimed the so-called "Navigation Acts," which were directed principally against the Dutch traders, who had control of nearly one-half of all the sea-board trade of Europe. But during the eighteenth century British commerce grew so powerful that it was no longer in need of such navigation acts.

Increase in British Trade. In 1696 the Board of Trade was founded. This body of highly trained financial and commercial experts did a great deal to enhance the British trade abroad. Whereas in 1700 the annual exports of England were about 320,000 tons, in 1800 the total was about 2,000,000 tons.

Increase in French Trade. French trade increased in value during 1716 and 1787 from the figure of \$42,000,000 to \$220,000,000 a year. At the same time, Dutch trade declined perceptibly. Germany had not yet recovered sufficiently from the ravages of the Thirty Years' War to become a serious competitor of Great Britain or France, and the Italian states were also still in the process of decline.

THE SOCIAL CLASSES

The Privileged Classes in France. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the nobles in France enjoyed a great many special privileges bequeathed by former generations of nobles. Many members of the clergy were of noble blood. The clergy and the nobility together owned about one-third of all the land in France. Both classes were nearly exempt from taxation. Moreover, they were treated with the utmost of respect by the masses of the people. In speech, in general manner, and in dress the nobles were set aside as a special class of people. It was assumed that God had placed them in their special status and that it was impossible to remove them from this privileged position. The nobles, upon the whole, spent all their time in hunting, feasting, and entertainment. Many of the members of the higher clergy in France were wealthy and did very little work. One French bishop had an income equivalent to almost \$1,000,000 a year. One archbishop had an income of about \$4,000,000 a year in our values of today. These men as a rule lived in beautiful homes, while the poor priests in their little parishes had to get along on an income of about \$250 a year. Many members of the higher clergy possessed what was called a *sinecure*, that is, a position for which one did not have to do any work at all. Many officials in the civil government were so well situated that they would receive sometimes a salary of \$5,000 a year for merely signing their names once or twice.

The English Nobility. Although in England the nobility had lost a great many of its former rights and powers, there were still a large number of dukes and earls in England during the eighteenth century. It was also still an honor to be a peer and to have a seat in the House of Lords. In England the insti-

tution of primogeniture still prevailed, so that it happened that a nobleman's title and his possessions went to his oldest son only. The nobility controlled practically all the seats in the House of Commons. Even the lesser nobility out in the country comprised an influential class, living in lovely homes and owning an immense amount of real estate. The nobles naturally held the choice positions in the government, and their political power was out of proportion to their real number.

The Privileged Classes in Other Countries. In most of the European countries the clergy and the nobles possessed almost one-half of all the land and about two-thirds of all the capital. As a rule, they exploited the poor peasants, many of whom were still serfs in such countries as Germany, Poland, and Russia. Even in France during the middle of the eighteenth century there were about one million peasants who had to render certain servile duties. Everywhere could be seen the castles in which the rich lived in ease and splendor. The nobles also could be seen at all the courts of the European capitals. They traveled in luxury and maintained expensive establishments at home. They usually controlled all the voting power in their respective states. They were indeed supported by the sweat of the masses. In the Holy Roman Empire the little princes ruling insignificant states were in a position to have armies of their own, to levy taxes, to make war or peace, to coin money, to dictate religion to their subjects, and to hold court and to administer justice like great potentates. In some of the German states the nobles lived in fortified castles and defied the emperor himself. Even in Scandinavia where serfs had never been numerous, the nobles enjoyed great privileges. Nowhere in Europe was a country ruled by a democratic form of government. A government was either an absolute monarchy or it was aristocratic in nature.

The Middle Class. As commerce and industry expanded, the merchants and the owners of industrial establishments began to rival the nobility and the clergy in the race for control of the government and for prestige in society. Especially in Great Britain and the Dutch Republic the merchants exercised a great deal of power in the policies of the government. They helped their respective governments to finance wars. They had seats in the stock

markets, and they controlled the great commercial companies. For their sake certain trade wars were fought, such as the two Anglo-Dutch wars of 1652-1654 and of 1665-1667. The only war ever declared by the Dutch Republic was that against Sweden in 1658, when Sweden tried to dominate the whole of the Baltic Sea and the adjoining coast lines. War was fought to protect the Dutch traders. Even the War of the Spanish Succession was, as far as the English and the Dutch were concerned, largely a trade war, namely to check the power of the Spaniards and of the French in the American colonies. Furthermore, many members of the middle class secured important positions in the professions, becoming lawyers, professors in the universities, judges, magistrates in the cities, authors of important books, physicians, philosophers, popular scientists, and artists. In many cases members of the nobility would marry members of the middle class, and so a new aristocracy was formed. In France it was customary for wealthy members of the middle class to buy titles from the king.

Growth of the Cities. It was in the city that the middle class developed its greatest power, and directed its influence throughout the country. Although in 1800 England and Wales had only fifteen cities with more than 20,000 inhabitants each, in the year 1900 there were more than 100 such towns. At the end of the Middle Ages Paris was the largest city in Europe with a population of 300,000, but by 1800 its population was about 750,000, while that of London was 700,000. In 1800 Berlin had perhaps 175,000 inhabitants and Vienna about 200,000. At the same time Amsterdam had about 200,000. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Italy had more towns of about 100,000 than any other country in Europe. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries Italy lagged far behind such nations as France, Great Britain, and Germany. Nevertheless, Venice, Florence, and Milan always were great cities throughout the whole of the modern period. Rome was not very important during the sixteenth century, having a population of only 50,000, but in the present century its rate of expansion has been such that the number has been increased from about half a million to more than 1,500,000 inhabitants.

Decline of the Guilds. With the rise of the great commercial companies it became very difficult for the merchant guilds and even for the craft guilds in the leading cities in Western Europe to compete with the great national companies. Gradually the national governments began to interfere with commerce and industry, and naturally the guilds began a long decline. Free competition undermined the privileged position of the members of the various guilds. Middlemen appeared in all trades and took away from the old-fashioned masters and journeymen much of their share in the total of commerce and industry.

The Peasants. At the beginning of modern times about nine-tenths of the population lived in the country. Most of these people were still serfs; that is, they were bound to the soil and had to work from two to four days a week for their respective lords. However, in England, Scandinavia, Italy, and the Netherlands most of the serfs were no longer in existence. The number also declined rapidly in France and Spain, although in Germany, Poland, and Russia the number increased once more. Agricultural labor remained about the same as that of the Middle Ages. In many fields the oxen still propelled the wooden plows. Seeds were sown and crops were gathered in the same old fashion. Cattle were still small, and crops harvested were meager. Good soil would grow only from eight to ten bushels of wheat an acre, while in the United States today a crop of from thirty to fifty bushels of wheat to an acre is not uncommon. In the middle of the eighteenth century a good cow weighed only about 350 pounds, whereas today no farmer would be satisfied with one of less than 500 pounds. Modes of transportation were still exceedingly slow and clumsy. On the rivers and canals the little boats were propelled by ropes pulled by men along the banks or by poles from the boats. On the roads wooden carts were propelled very slowly and painfully by horses or oxen. In England the so-called enclosure system was increased to a great degree, because the owners of land found it profitable to turn cultivated fields into pastures, thereby throwing out of work many agricultural laborers and multiplying the distress of the masses. Often the nobles hunted at will and destroyed crops everywhere. The poor peasants had to pay a heavy tax to the civil government and another tax, called

tithe, to the church. They were dressed in coarse clothes, lived in dirty little homes, worked during the summer from twelve to eighteen hours a day, knew practically nothing about what we would call entertainment, and were deprived of almost all the comforts that the farmers of our day feel absolutely necessary.

The Enlightened Despots. As a result of many complaints, writers began to point out to the general public the abuses prevailing in Church and State. Certain monarchs during the eighteenth century were thus induced to improve the conditions of the downtrodden peasants and laborers. Frederick the Great was one of these "enlightened despots." Monarchs did not believe in the ability of the people to rule themselves, and for that reason they did not establish limited monarchies. They remained "despots," but they were enlightened. Another such ruler was Catherine II of Russia. She favored religious toleration, hoped to set commerce free from too much government control, and patronized writers who clamored for reform. Joseph II of Austria (1780-1790) was another ruler of this type.

THE CHURCH AND RELIGION

The Leading Denominations. The largest denomination in Europe was the Roman Catholic Church, while that in the east was called the Greek, or Orthodox, Catholic Church, which also counted many millions of members. Among the Protestant denominations, the Lutherans still retained the largest membership, but the Church of England, the Presbyterian Church, the Congregational Church, the Dutch Reformed Church, the German Reformed Church, the Swiss Reformed Church, the Huguenots in France, the Baptists in England and in the Dutch Republic, and such bodies as the Quakers (who called themselves "Friends") were also very influential and numerous. The Roman Catholic Church was most powerful in Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, Ireland, the southern Netherlands, Poland, Austria, and western and southern Germany.

The Rise of the Methodist Church. About the middle of the eighteenth century a number of religious reformers, led by John Wesley and his brother Charles, became dissatisfied with what they called the formalism in the Church of England. They

were very much interested in the lot of the people, and they insisted upon the necessity of a personal form of religion. Because of their methodical way of living, they were first nicknamed Methodists; but they proudly accepted that name. From England the Methodists spread to America, where in the United States they constitute one of the largest congregations today.

The Unitarians. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries very few changes occurred in the forms of church government and in the creeds of the greatest denominations. Practically all the Christians, or so-called Christians, believed that the Bible was the Word of God from the very first page to the last page. Everybody believed that there were three Gods in One, that Jesus was born of the Virgin Mary, had been crucified under Pontius Pilate, and had risen from the dead. All the miracles related in the Bible actually had happened, so people believed. Skepticism and infidelity in religion were very rare. But during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries a number of people began to doubt the doctrine of the Trinity, and for that reason, since they believed in only one God, they were called the Unitarians. They said that Jesus Christ was merely a good man, but not at all the Son of God.

Deism. About the middle of the eighteenth century skepticism increased in almost all the European countries. A certain group of thinkers came to the conclusion that God had actually created the world, but since the time of creation, He had ceased to pay any attention to His creatures. The universe was supposed to run just like a clock, which after having been wound up, runs by its own force. These people were called deists. They said that there was no sense in praying to God, since He would not respond to anybody's prayer.

The Jesuits. The Jesuits, as in the sixteenth century, continued to support the power of the Pope, but they were unable to succeed in maintaining for him the power to which he had seemed entitled at the close of the Middle Ages. No longer could the Pope exercise an important voice in the great assemblies of European potentates when they sat down together at the council tables to formulate their treaties of peace. Now the Jesuits turned

to political affairs in various important nations, and as a result of this new activity they were greatly disliked by the officials in such governments. This was especially true in Spain and France, with the result that in 1773 the Pope was obliged to suppress the whole order. But during the first half of the nineteenth century the order was restored, and today is in a flourishing position.

Intolerance. The Spanish Inquisition and the Roman Inquisition still functioned during the first half of the eighteenth century. Hundreds of heretics were condemned to be burned at the stake. Even in countries where the Inquisition was not powerful, as in France and the Holy Roman Empire, religious intolerance continued unabated. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries thousands of "witches" were burned to death, although most of them were absolutely innocent. It was thought that such persons, most of whom were women, were controlled by evil spirits; and since certain texts in the Old Testament insisted that the people commonly called witches must be killed, the governments of various European states permitted the execution of these poor people. In 1685 King Louis XIV of France revoked the Edict of Nantes. Over 200,000 Huguenots had to leave France, and they sought refuge in England, the Dutch Republic, and Brandenburg. Many also went to the American colonies and to South Africa. For about a century France knew practically nothing about religious toleration. Only in the Dutch Republic were all denominations permitted to worship with very much toleration.

LEARNING AND ART

Scientific Progress. During the first half of the sixteenth century much progress was made in medicine, the natural sciences, chemistry, physics, and mathematics. Copernicus developed the heliocentric theory of the universe, according to which theory the earth moves around the sun. He was supported in Italy by a famous scholar called Galileo Galilei, who however was silenced by the Church and was forced to recant. Among the important authorities in the field of medicine may be mentioned Paracelsus, who wrote learned works; Vesalius, who made great contributions to the sciences of surgery and anatomy; and the English scholar William Harvey, who formulated the theory concerning the circu-

lation of the blood in the human body. Another great British scientist was Lord Francis Bacon, who served as Lord Chancellor under King James I. He was the author of the celebrated masterpiece entitled *Novum Organum*. He insisted that scientists must rely more and more upon experimentation. About a century after the time of Sir Francis Bacon, there lived the outstanding scientist of the eighteenth century, Sir Isaac Newton (1642-1727), who was a professor of mathematics in Cambridge University. He formulated the law of gravitation, and he perfected a telescope. The leading German scientist was Leibnitz, who shared with Newton the honor of having invented the calculus. The cause of science in Great Britain was greatly promoted by the establishment in 1662 of the Royal Society of England, while in 1674 the observatory at Greenwich was founded. In 1667 the French Academy of Sciences was established, while the Prussian Royal Academy of Sciences was founded at Berlin in 1699. Among the leading mathematicians was the French writer and thinker called Descartes, who was an expert in geometry and trigonometry. Very important also was the work of a Flemish scientist called Simon Stevin, who introduced the decimal point.

Progress in Philosophy. The two greatest philosophers of the seventeenth century were Descartes, the author of a famous book called *Meditations*, and Spinoza, the son of Portuguese Jews in the Dutch Republic. Descartes taught that matter and mind existed side by side and were of equal importance; hence his doctrine of *duality* of the universe. Spinoza, on the other hand, taught that God is the only true substance of the universe, so that both mind and matter are purely manifestations of God. His view is called *monism*.

Educational Reforms. Under the influence of humanistic education many enlightened principles were introduced. Even Luther, who had little respect for humanism, was influenced thereby. He was largely responsible for the institution of public elementary education in Germany. He also strongly supported secondary education. The greatest expert in the field of secondary education was the celebrated educator called John Sturm. In England labored Roger Ascham, the author of an enlightened work entitled *The Scholemaster*. He and his contemporaries

emphasized the need of a knowledge of both Latin and Greek. As a result, secondary education was dominated by the important place occupied by these two languages in the curricula. The study of science and the social sciences was neglected in both the elementary and secondary schools of Europe. Modern education owes a great deal to the Bohemian teacher and writer, Comenius, who published the first illustrated reading-book. He carefully divided the lives of young people into four periods, each of six years. He favored a kind and sympathetic treatment of pupils.

The Fine Arts. Renaissance and classical models prevailed until the end of the eighteenth century. A new style of architecture was born under the influence of these styles, called baroque. A notable example of this style is the castle of Heidelberg in Germany. Much good work was done in the field of music. Palestrina in Italy developed the mass for Catholic worship, the Flemings perfected the madrigal, and the Italians developed both the opera and the oratorio. But the greatest musicians of the eighteenth century were the Germans, notably Bach, Beethoven, Handel, Haydn, and Mozart.

Literature. England became the home of the greatest literature of modern times. The seventeenth century saw the development of the drama, such as Shakespeare's plays, religious poetry, such as Milton's *Paradise Lost*, religious prose, such as Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, and epic and lyrical poetry. Samuel Johnson was a great literary critic in the eighteenth century. In France three great dramatists flourished under Louis XIV's patronage—Racine, Molière, and Corneille. Germany produced Lessing, the writer of the masterpiece, *Nathan the Wise*, in which he praised tolerance; Goethe and Herder, the composers of sublime poetry. In Spain the superb novel entitled *Don Quixote* was written by Cervantes. As in art, classical models remained very popular.

Etiquette. The privileged classes, under the leadership of the court at Versailles, developed a code of elegant manners that set them very distinctly apart from the other classes. Until this day the French (now at Paris, since Versailles ceased to be the French capital in 1789) have directed what the styles in dress shall be for elegant ladies in all western countries.





QUESTIONS

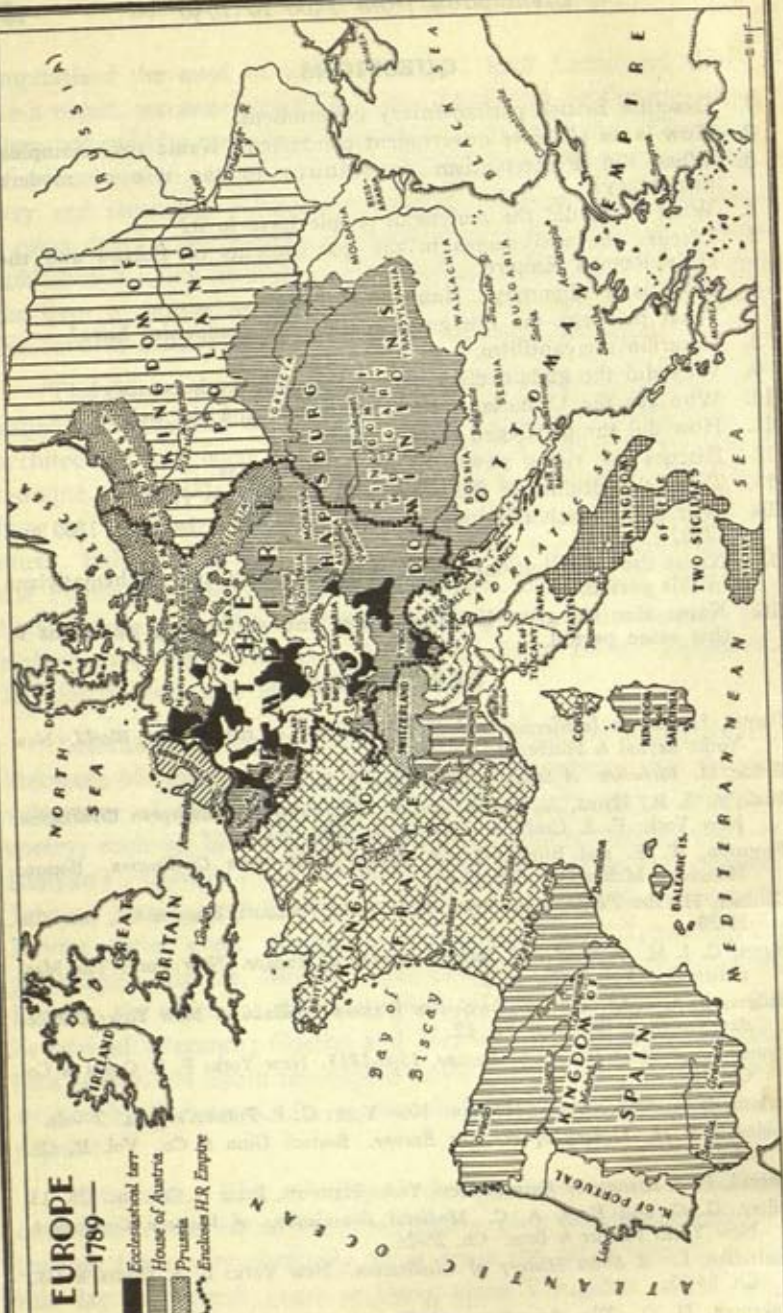
1. Describe British parliamentary government.
2. How is an absolute government conducted? Name two examples.
3. What did Protestantism contribute to the rise of modern democracy?
4. What share did the American people have in it?
5. Discuss the weaknesses in the governments of Poland and the Holy Roman Empire.
6. What is an oligarchy? Name an example.
7. What privilege did the great commercial companies have?
8. Describe mercantilism.
9. Why did the guilds decline during the eighteenth century?
10. Who are the Unitarians, the Methodists, and the deists?
11. How did the privileged classes live?
12. Discuss the rising power of the middle class.
13. Trace the decline of feudalism and serfdom to 1750.
14. Was there much religious toleration in Europe between 1500 and 1750?
15. Name the contributions of five great scientists and mathematicians in this period.
16. Name also six great literary figures and six leading musicians in this same period.

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EUROPE —1789—

-  Ecclesiastical terr.
-  House of Austria
-  Prussia
-  Enclaves H.R. Empire



Significant Dates

French Revolution	1789
End of Reign of Terror	1794
Napoleon, Emperor of France . . .	1804
Battle of Waterloo	1815

CHAPTER XVII

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON

*Purpose: To Trace the Course and Note the Work of the
French Revolution and Its Master,
Napoleon Bonaparte.*

The French Revolution overthrew absolutism in France, corrected feudal abuses, promoted nationalism and democracy, re-drew the map of Europe, and hastened later revolutions. It is, therefore, one of the major events of history.

BACKGROUND

The Central Government of France. The king was an absolute ruler, but he was not a despot. He was assisted by a Council composed of nobles, who advised him and assumed direct charge of certain executive duties. There was no Prime Minister. The king had too much power. There was no central administrative unity, and there was too much routine work. Representing the king in the thirty-two provinces of France were Intendants, who were absolute within their districts.

The Judicial Administration. There were thirteen Parlements, or chief courts, of which the one at Paris was most important, and there was a bewildering number of local, provincial, and other courts. Judges received fees, not salaries, the Crown could interfere at will, and no uniform system of law existed. French classes were not equal before the law, punishments were severe, the defendant was not allowed council, was tortured, and was compelled to prove himself innocent. Imprisonment by "lettres de cachet" without trial was possible.

The Financial Administration. France was burdened with a heavy debt, owing to past wars and extravagant governments. Many of the upper classes, the heaviest property owners and the ones most able to pay, were exempt from the payment of direct taxes. Many taxes such as the salt tax, tariffs, and the tax on wine, were collected by individuals on the "tax farming" principle. There were many forms of taxes, all of which the lower classes paid, one of the worst of these being the *corvée*, or road tax. The government had no adequate system of book-keeping, and few people knew the nature and extent of the country's debts.

The Privileged Classes. The First Estate, or clergy, consisted of the Regular clergy, who lived in the monasteries, and the Secular clergy, who looked after the welfare of the churches and their members. Of these, the bishops and archbishops, or higher clergy, held the land and the important offices and lived in luxury. The lower clergy, or parish priests, were often recruited from the Third Estate, were worked hard, and were poorly paid. The Second Estate, or nobles, consisted of the higher nobility, who held the choice offices in church and state and received pensions from the king; and the provincial nobles who eked out a precarious existence on their estates, their chief glory being in the feudal obligations that the peasants owed them.

The Unprivileged Classes, or Third Estate. The peasants were relatively better off than those in most nations of Europe, but they sometimes paid half of their income in taxes, were conscripted into the army, and paid grievous feudal dues. Many of

the Bourgeoisie, or town-dwellers, were wealthy and intelligent. They paid heavy taxes, and had few privileges socially. They were the group that really started the Revolution.

Forerunners of the Revolution. An intellectual revolt, led by some thinkers called Rationalists, preceded the Revolution. They opposed tradition, oppression, and the church, favored toleration, and wanted to keep only the useful customs and offices. Montesquieu, in *The Spirit of the Laws*, said that different groups should be ruled differently and advocated a separation of powers. Voltaire lived long and wrote much. He had a strong sense of justice and attacked the church bitterly. Rousseau was not a Rationalist, but he was influential. In *The Social Contract* he justified the overthrow of a bad government by force. Many other thinkers helped to pave the way for the Revolution.

The Approach of the Crisis. France had lost much territory in 1763 and was deeply in debt. Louis XV made the burden heavier, rather than lighter. Louis XVI was honest, but weak-willed, and listened to bad counselors. He dismissed Turgot, Necker, and Calonne, financial ministers who sought reforms or wished to tax the privileged classes.

THE FIRST FRENCH REPUBLIC

The Calling of the Estates-General. The Parlement of Paris refused to register two new tax decrees, and the King decided to call the Estates-General. Delegates were elected from old legislative provinces for the First, Second, and Third Estates. The Third Estate contained many Bourgeoisie lawyers, while many of the lower clergy sat with the First Estate, or clergy.

Transformation Into the National Assembly. The Third Estate favored voting by head; the others, by groups. The Third Estate declared itself the National Assembly, took an oath (Tennis Court Oath) not to dissolve, and defied the King. The latter yielded, June 23, 1789, and the National Assembly began to draft a constitution.

The July Riots. A rumor spread that the King was going to dismiss the Estates-General, remove Necker, the popular minister of finance, and summon Swiss and German troops to

Paris. This rumor caused a mob to storm the Bastille, an old prison in Paris (July 14, 1789). These riots caused the King to change his plans and recall Necker; they saved the Assembly, showed the mob its power, led to a beginning of the flight of the nobles, and caused the mob spirit to spread to the provinces of France.

Early Reforms of the Constituent Assembly. On the nights of the fourth and fifth of August (1789) the nobles and clergy gave up all the special privileges that they had enjoyed.

The October Riots. The report was spread that the King was calling out another army to suppress the Revolution. Food was scarce, and the populace was in an excitable condition. A mob of women marched out to Versailles and forced the King and his family to accompany them to Paris. The act virtually made the King a prisoner, intimidated the Assembly, and demonstrated once more the power of the mob.

Completion of the Assembly's Work. In spite of interruptions and delays, the National Constituent Assembly continued its work until it completed the Constitution of 1791. That instrument provided for a one-house legislature and a king with limited powers. The judges were elective and each of the provinces practically controlled its own affairs. Incorporated in the Constitution was *The Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen*, a statement of the theoretical basis for the Revolution. *The Civil Constitution of the Clergy* also became a part of the fundamental law. It reduced the number of bishoprics in France, made the bishop into a government official, provided that the priests should be selected locally, and specified that all clergy should take an oath of loyalty to state and king. The property of the church was confiscated also, by another act, and paper money called *Assignats* was issued in such quantities that it eventually became almost worthless.

Flight of the King. The monarchy was steadily losing power. The constant giving-in of the King to the mob, the emigration of his friends the nobles, and increased suspicions as to the loyalty of Queen Marie Antoinette, gradually convinced many that France would have to dethrone her ruler. Louis XVI, finding

his condition of virtual imprisonment growing intolerable, made an unsuccessful effort to flee from the country. He was brought back and was watched even more closely than had been the case previously.

The War with Austria. France had many enemies without and within. Especially active was the ruler of Austria, whose kinswoman, the French Queen, was being mistreated. In August, 1791, he and the Prussian King issued the Declaration of Pillnitz, in which the two monarchs offered to join other European rulers in a move to restore the French King to power. This led to an outburst of French revolutionary feeling and hastened the growth of radicalism and of revolutionary clubs. The government declared war on Austria and attempted to capture the Austrian Netherlands, but the attempt was a flat failure.

Overthrow of the King. The King vetoed two bills of the Assembly. These acts were so unpopular that a mob invaded the Tuileries, where he stayed, and treated him with disrespect. Meanwhile, France was faced with an Austro-Prussian declaration of war and a Prussian advance on Paris. The Prussian leader, the Duke of Brunswick, issued a manifesto in which he declared that if France did not restore her king, Paris would be destroyed. France was highly indignant; an attack was made on the Tuileries and, although the King and his family escaped, the Swiss Guards, who had protected him, were massacred. A revolutionary commune was set up to rule Paris, and the Assembly suspended the King and summoned a new National Convention to draft another constitution. The first act of this body was to declare France a republic, September 22, 1792.

The September Massacres. A mob broke into the Paris prisons and massacred three thousand prisoners, many of whom were non-juring priests.

Defeat of the Enemies. The Prussian invaders occupied Verdun, but were defeated at the battle of Valmy by the French army under Dumouriez. The victorious French then captured several German towns, defeated the Austrians at Jemappes, and issued an "Address to all Peoples," offering to help them depose their kings.

Execution of the King. Louis XVI was executed January 21, 1793, and the Queen soon met a similar fate.

First Coalition Against France. A coalition of powers was presently formed against France, consisting of England, Russia, Prussia, the Netherlands, Austria, and the States of the Church.

Origin, Machinery, and Operation of the Terror. France was in great peril. The French army had been defeated, its leader Dumouriez had deserted, and an allied army was slowly advancing toward Paris. Furthermore, there was widespread and sullen opposition within France to the acts of the new government, and rebellion was actually occurring in places. To meet this peril a policy of terror was instituted. The extreme Republicans gained control of the Convention and decreed death to their opponents. French troops crushed the revolt in the provinces. The Convention created the Committee of Public Safety, a committee that had control of executive, military, and diplomatic affairs. Two deputies with extensive spying privileges went to each province and army, while another body known as The Committee of General Security was given police power throughout France. Various courts were worked overtime passing sentences of death against the enemies of the Republic, the most famous of these courts being the Revolutionary Tribunal of Paris. The Reign of Terror ended in July 1794, with the overthrow of the last dictator, Robespierre. It had accomplished its purpose of saving France and was no longer wanted.

THE RISE OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

Early Career. Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821) was a native of the island of Corsica, a French dependency, but was educated for a military career in French schools. For several years he labored unsuccessfully to free his native island, but he finally gave up in disgust and turned his whole attention to the artillery service. He showed considerable skill in drawing up plans for the capture of Toulon, and later saved the lives of the Directory, the governing body of France, which was attacked by a Paris mob.

Opening Successes. Out of gratitude, the Directory appointed Napoleon commander of the Army of Italy, which was one of three forces designed to break up the coalition against France. He aroused the spirit of his troops, defeated the enemy in Italy, led them across the Alps Mountains into Austria, and dictated the Peace of Campo Formio, October 1797. In that treaty Austria ceded the Austrian Netherlands to France and recognized the Cisalpine Republic, a new state in Italy nominally independent, but under French protection. He next undertook an expedition to Egypt, largely to strike at England. His army made the trip by sea to Alexandria, but the English Admiral Nelson destroyed his fleet in the Battle of the Nile, thus cutting off his hope of return. Although he won some victories in Egypt, he finally slipped away and returned to France, leaving his army to its fate.

The Provisional Consulate. Shortly after returning to France he overthrew the Directory by force and set up a Provisional Consulate, with himself as First Consul and real ruler.




The Second Italian Campaign. During Napoleon's absence another coalition of powers had wiped out his earlier gains and was threatening France. Once more he led an army into Italy, repeated his previous triumphs, and in the Peace of Lunéville compelled Austria to restore the cessions of Campo Formio and to cede to France some territory on the left bank of the Rhine River. The Treaty of Amiens (1802) also removed England from the ranks of the enemies.

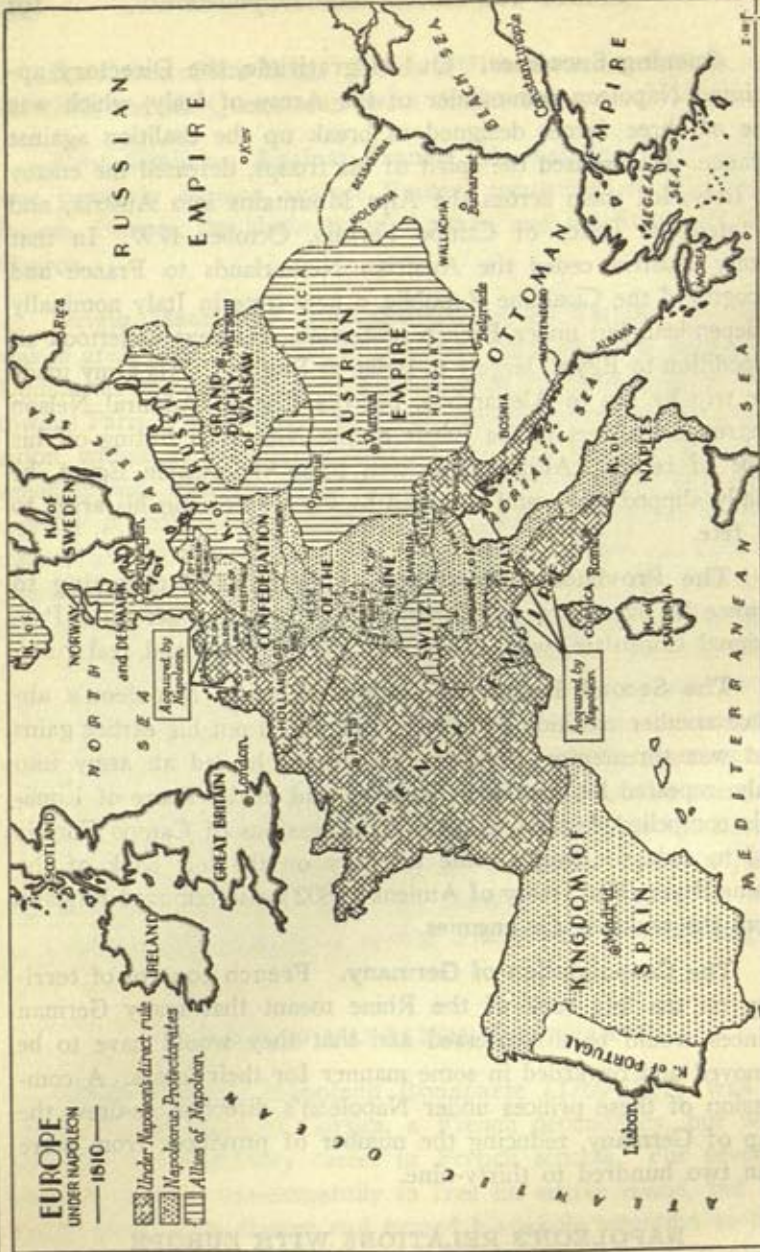
The Consolidation of Germany. French control of territory on the left bank of the Rhine meant that many German princes would be dispossessed and that they would have to be removed and rewarded in some manner for their losses. A commission of these princes under Napoleon's direction re-drew the map of Germany, reducing the number of provinces from more than two hundred to thirty-nine.

NAPOLEON'S RELATIONS WITH EUROPE

His Constructive Work for France. When Napoleon took charge in 1800, France was in a sad plight, on account of the excesses of the Revolution. His first work was to centralize

**EUROPE
UNDER NAPOLEON
—1810—**

-  Under Napoleon's direct rule
-  Napoleonic Protectorates
-  Allies of Napoleon



the administration and make himself supreme ruler. Next, he collected taxes carefully, practiced rigid economy in governmental affairs, and ended official corruption. To stabilize the financial situation he created the Bank of France. In the Concordat of 1801 the Pope sanctioned the confiscation of church property and the suppression of monasteries, both having been acts of the Revolution; the state was to pay the salaries of the clergy; Napoleon was to nominate the bishops, and the Pope was to invest them. The French ruler also turned his attention to a reform of French law, the Code Napoleon being the result of this effort. He also put into operation a complete system of schools, ranging from elementary schools to the University of Paris. Moreover, he established and improved highways, drained marshes, and beautified Paris. He was made Emperor in 1804.

The Third Coalition. Napoleon and English statesmen still feared and hated each other, and neither had evacuated all occupied territory as had been stipulated in the Treaty of Amiens. A powerful coalition was once more formed against France in 1803, with England as the moving spirit. Napoleon pretended to be planning an attack on England, but Nelson's destruction of the French fleet ended any plans that he may have had. Suddenly he overwhelmed the Austrians at Ulm and Austerlitz and forced upon them the Peace of Pressburg. In that treaty, Austria lost about three million subjects and much territory to France, to Bavaria, and to Württemberg. Soon afterward (1806) Napoleon formed the Confederation of the Rhine, and the Austrian ruler renounced the title of Holy Roman Emperor. Prussia, alarmed, offered battle, but Napoleon defeated her armies at Jena and Auerstadt. During the next winter (1806-1807) he defeated the Russians at Friedland and soon signed the Peace of Tilsit with the Tsar. By the terms of that treaty, Warsaw was to enter the Confederation of the Rhine; the Turks were to lose all European possessions except Rumelia and Constantinople, unless they accepted French mediation between Turkey and Russia; Prussia was to lose territory west of the Elbe River; and Russia was to exclude British commerce, and was to recognize French control in Italy.

Nature and Objects of the Continental System. In a series of decrees and Orders-in-Council, England and France each sought to destroy the other's commerce and to starve out the enemy.

Operation. Neutral commerce suffered, and most of Europe became involved. French armies occupied Portugal and Spain, and Napoleon's brother, Joseph, became king of Spain. This led to a Spanish uprising. Austria also rebelled, but Napoleon defeated her at Wagram. Napoleon divorced Josephine, married the Austrian Princess, Maria Louisa, and entered into an alliance with Austria.

The Russian Disaster. But the Tsar did not have a free hand in Turkey, as he had thought he would have, and he saw that the exclusion of English goods was hurting Russia; accordingly, he opened Russian ports to British commerce. In reply, Napoleon gathered a large army, penetrated deeply into Russia, defeated the enemy at Borodino, and occupied Moscow. But the city was burned, and remnants of the French army, after one of the most disastrous retreats in history, finally reached French soil.

The Final Overthrow of Napoleon. Another coalition was formed, and Napoleon was defeated at Leipzig (1813). He then abdicated the throne to become ruler of the Island of Elba. From there he soon escaped and again assumed leadership in France. The enemy next defeated him at Waterloo (1815) and banished him to the far-off island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the government of France on the eve of the Revolution.
2. Name the privileges and disabilities of the French social classes.
3. Trace the work of each legislative body of the Revolution.
4. Explain the origin, work, and overthrow of the Terror.
5. Trace the career of Napoleon Bonaparte to 1801.
6. Describe the constructive achievements of Napoleon for France.
7. Why did the Continental System fail? Trace the process of failure.
8. Identify: Rationalism, Physiocrats, Jacobins, Thermidorean Reaction, Berlin Decree, Amiens, Trafalgar, Talleyrand, Acre, Lodi, Napoleonic Legend, Cisalpine Republic, Lunéville, Tilsit, Elba.

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Significant Dates

Congress of Vienna	1815
Monroe Doctrine	1823
July Revolution	1830
February Revolution	1848
Germany Unified	1870-1871
Italy Unified	1870-1871

CHAPTER XVIII

THE RISING TIDE OF NATIONALISM

*Purpose: To Observe the Growth of National Feeling
from 1815 to 1870.*

After Napoleon's overthrow, it became necessary to re-draw the map of Europe. This was done at a grand gathering of diplomats at Vienna from November 1814, to June 1815.

REACTION AND REVOLUTION, 1815-1830

Personnel and Nations Represented at the Congress of Vienna. Each nation sent its ruler or its best diplomat. England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria dominated; but lesser states that had fought Napoleon also sent delegates. Contrary to the usual practice, France, the defeated nation, had a voice in affairs.

Principles Followed and Ignored. Legitimacy, or a restoration of the old order, was followed. Compensation, whereby a losing power received a corresponding gain elsewhere, was also observed. National boundaries and the principles of democracy and nationality were often ignored.

Transaction of Business. In secret conferences the work proceeded, not in formal meetings. Selfish interests often held sway and threatened to disrupt the diplomatic sessions. The re-appearance of Napoleon from Elba restored harmony, however, and caused the work of the Congress to be completed.

Territorial Settlements. England gained the Cape of Good Hope, the Guianas, Malta, Heligoland, Ceylon, Mauritius, Santa Lucia, Trinidad, and trading rights in Central America. Austria gained Lombardy and Venetia and acquired a controlling voice in Tuscany, Modena, Parma, and other Italian states; but she lost the Austrian Netherlands; Prussia gained Posen, the left bank of the Rhine, and half of Saxony. Russia gained Warsaw and Finland. Sweden gained Norway and lost Finland. Holland and Belgium were united. Saxony lost half her former territory, but regained her king. France regained her pre-war boundary, paid an indemnity of seven hundred million francs, and consented to allied occupation of French territory for a while. The Swiss Confederation was restored, and the German Confederation was sanctioned.

The Holy Alliance and the Quadruple Alliance. The Holy Alliance pledged the monarchs of Europe to treat each other as brothers and their subjects as children, and to rule in accordance with the principles of Christian brotherhood. The Quadruple Alliance was an agreement in which England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria pledged themselves to maintain the existing order in Europe (November 20, 1815), and arranged to coöperate through a series of conferences. The two alliances are often confused. Conferences of the Quadruple Alliance were held at Troppeau, Laibach, and Verona. The Alliance suppressed revolts in Naples and Spain. The Monroe Doctrine, plus British hostility, prevented intervention for a restoration of Spain's revolting South American colonies, however, and this same British opposition blocked a contemplated interference in Portugal. The organization split on the question of Greek independence and gradually ceased to be active in the affairs of Europe.

The Bourbon Restoration in France. When Louis XVIII ascended the throne he found France to be in much better condition than might have been anticipated. Thanks to the distribu-

tion of the church property, the nation contained many thrifty peasant land owners. Too, the state debt was small, and the country was in good condition, the war having been waged elsewhere. The Royalists, led by the returning nobles and including most of the clergy, were in control; but there were also many liberals among the business men, peasants, and former soldiers. The new King retained many of the Napoleonic reforms, and he issued a constitution which provided for a two-house parliament with limited powers. The new ruler made a promising start by allowing freedom of worship and of the press and by instituting trial by jury; but the Ultra-Royalist party, which shortly gained control, soon nullified some of these acts. The assassination of the King's nephew by a fanatic liberal confirmed him in his conservative ways, and when he died in 1824 the government was in the hands of the Ultra-Royalists.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1830

In France. The next King of France, Charles X, was strongly in sympathy with the Royalists. He restored many privileges to the clergy and gave the nobles one billion francs as compensation for their revolutionary losses. Moreover, he abolished freedom of the press, disfranchised most of the middle class voters, dissolved a newly elected legislative body that was hostile to him, and called for a new election. The press protested, Paris became aroused, the National Guard deserted the King, and he abdicated the throne in 1830.

In Belgium. Although the Austrian Netherlands had once been a part of the Netherlands proper, nevertheless the two groups could not live together in peace; in fact they differed so much in religion, race, language, and occupations that political union was impracticable. Encouraged by the revolution in France, Belgium rebelled, declared her independence of the Netherlands, and secured the sanction of the great powers to this action at the Conference of London in 1831. Later the principal European nations signed an agreement to respect the neutrality of Belgium.

In Italy. Austria through the Congress of Vienna had gained a strangle hold on Italy. But many Italian patriots dreamed of the old days when Rome ruled the world, and longed for

freedom. Among these was Mazzini, who organized a secret patriotic society called "Young Italy." A movement for independence occurred in Piedmont, Modena, and the Papal states; but Austrian troops at the behest of the Quadruple Alliance promptly suppressed it.

In Germany. Napoleon by his consolidation work had furthered the movement for unification in Germany. At the close of the Napoleonic wars Prussia was ready to dispute with Austria for leadership, and the whole German people felt the quickening of the spirit of nationalism. The weak German Confederation had hindered this, and Metternich had deliberately suppressed liberalism; for example, he prompted the Carlsbad Decrees in 1819, thus banishing liberal thought from the universities. But the French Revolution of 1830 caused some stir and resulted in the granting of constitutions to some of the smaller states.

In Poland. Poland had been blotted from the map, but the Tsar Alexander I later granted her a constitution. In 1830 the Poles attempted to gain their freedom, but a Russian army suppressed the revolt.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848

In France. Louis Philippe, the king of France from 1830 to 1848, was a Bourbon of the Orleans branch. He had been a member of the Jacobin club, had been at the storming of the Bastille, had served in the army of the Revolutionists, and had catered to the middle classes. As such, he soon made many enemies: patriots, who objected to his policy of peace at any price; Catholics, who had lost control of education; Republicans, who opposed the monarchy; and Socialists, whose strength was increased by unemployment. This opposition grew when the King became repressive and culminated in the February Revolution, as a result of which Louis Philippe abdicated the throne. From 1843 to 1852 France was a republic, with Louis Napoleon the central figure. The magic of the name so captured the imagination of the French people that they made him Emperor in 1852.

In Italy. Once more the flame of Italian patriotism flared, but Austrian troops crushed the revolts in Sardinia, Naples, Rome.

and elsewhere. The only net gain was a liberal constitution for Sardinia and an emphasis of Sardinian leadership for the future.

In Germany. Liberalists overthrew the Metternich government at Vienna and forced that prince to flee. Revolutionists gained control of Berlin and of affairs in Hungary. A representative body framed a constitution and offered the crown of a united Germany to the Prussian King; but that monarch rejected it, largely through fear of Austria, and the forces of reaction everywhere triumphed. The need of Prussian leadership for unification was made plain.

EMERGENCE OF THE ITALIAN NATION

Italy in 1848. Although Italy had once been the political center of the world, it was far from that in 1848. Most of the provinces of northern Italy were owned or controlled by Austria. The Pope had temporal control over the States of the Church in central Italy, while the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, in southern Italy, was ruled by a reactionary king of Spanish descent. Sardinia was independent; her old king, Charles Albert, had just granted his subjects a liberal constitution, but had resigned after having been defeated by Austrian forces, leaving his son, Victor Emmanuel I, to be the next ruler.

The Growing Spirit of Unity. But there were many who remembered the glories that were past and longed to see at least some of them revived. Moreover, the Italian peninsula was a natural political, as well as a geographical, unit, and the conglomeration of states and provinces there was utterly unnatural. Napoleon, through the creation of the Cisalpine Republic, had implanted the idea of unity firmly in the minds of Northern Italians, while Mazzini by means of secret societies had furthered the same idea elsewhere in the peninsula. It remained for Cavour (1810-1861) to complete the preparation and to begin the actual process of territorial unity. With the approval of his king, Victor Emmanuel, Cavour began to develop an army. Sardinia entered the Crimean War, thereby gaining military experience and also friends. The Italian statesman persuaded the French Emperor to come to Sardinia's aid if Austria should strike the first blow; France, in return, being promised the provinces of Nice and Savoy.



Mazzini



Cavour

Four Italian Leaders weld the Italian States

INTO THE

KINGDOM OF ITALY

Dates indicate year of annexation to the Kingdom of Sardinia (after 1861, the Kingdom of Italy.)



Garibaldi



Victor Emmanuel

The war, which occurred in 1859, was quickly ended and proved to be a triumph for the allies. Napoleon III made an early peace, much to the disgust of Cavour.

Territorial Unification. Sardinia annexed Lombardy in 1859, as a result of her war with Austria. In 1860 four more states, Romagna, Tuscany, Modena, and Parma, overthrew their princes and voluntarily joined Sardinia. Garibaldi and his Red Shirts expelled the King of the Two Sicilies from Naples and led Southern Italy into the growing union. Ancona and Umbria, eastern Papal states, were added in 1860. The Kingdom of Italy was created in 1861 with the first parliament at Turin, but with Florence as the later capital. Venetia was acquired in 1866, in return for Sardinian aid to Prussia in a war against Austria. When the Franco-Prussian War broke out in 1870, France withdrew her forces that had been stationed at Rome. The city then became the capital of the new Italian government, and the process of unification was complete.

EMERGENCE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

Early Steps Toward Unification. While Germany was supposedly united politically in the shadowy Holy Roman Empire, in reality it had no unity. Napoleon Bonaparte ended this empire, annexed much German territory, and reduced the number of German provinces from more than two hundred to thirty-nine. The Congress of Vienna provided for a loose federal union of German states called the German Confederation, each being practically independent. Many of the German states made a real advance toward union in 1834, when they formed a *Zollverein*, or customs union. The failure of the attempts at unification in 1830 and 1848 at least showed the German people the necessity of depending upon Prussia for leadership.

William I and Unification. This energetic king, who ascended the throne in 1861, resolved to expel Austria from the German Confederation and to unite the country under Prussian leadership. With the aid of an able minister, Bismarck, he forced through the Prussian Parliament a bill which increased greatly the size and efficiency of the army.

The First Two Conflicts. War, according to Bismarck, was necessary to German unity. He took the first opportunity, therefore, of precipitating a conflict with Denmark in 1864. The combined Prussian and Austrian armies quickly defeated the Danes, and the Danish provinces of Schleswig and Holstein fell into the victors' hands. Bismarck had little trouble starting another



war with Austria two years later over a division of the booty; a struggle in which the Prussians were easily victors. In the Peace of Prague, which closed this war, Prussia gained Schleswig, Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and Nassau. Sardinia gained Venetia, the German Confederation was dissolved, and a small indemnity was exacted of the German allies of Austria.

The Franco-Prussian War. After the Austro-Prussian War the North German Confederation was formed, with the Prussian King as President, twenty-two states as members, and a two-house legislative body. But some of the German states still held aloof, and Bismarck felt that another conflict would be

necessary to complete the process of unification. The enemy—France—was near, for Louis Napoleon had already suggested that France be given Belgium, Luxemburg, or the Rhenish Palatinate, in return for French neutrality during the Austro-Prussian War; and Bismarck at the proper moment made public this suggestion. The immediate cause of the war, though, was a quarrel over the Spanish Crown. The offering of this Crown to a relative of the Prussian King aroused the French and gave Bismarck a chance to maneuver them into war. In this conflict the southern German states coöperated with Prussia, and the allies defeated the French forces, captured Louis Napoleon, entered Paris, and dictated the Peace of Frankfort. In this treaty Prussia gained Alsace and eastern Lorraine, exacted of France an indemnity of five billion francs, and provided for the occupation of French territory by German troops for five years or less.

The Final Steps Toward Unity. The crisis of war and the victories of peace drew the remaining German states into the North German Confederation. The name was then changed to the German Empire, the King of Prussia was made Emperor, and Bismarck was selected as Chancellor. The German Empire was proclaimed from the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, January 18, 1871.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the territorial settlement of the Congress of Vienna.
2. What principles did this Congress follow and ignore? Illustrate.
3. Describe the origin, work, and decline of the Quadruple Alliance.
4. Trace the course of the Revolutions of 1830 and 1848.
5. Trace Italian unification from Napoleon's day to 1870.
6. Trace German unification from Napoleon's time to 1871.
7. Identify: Metternich, Holy Alliance, Talleyrand, *carbonari*, Plombieres, Ems, Benedetti, Sadowa, Legitimacy, Garibaldi, *Zollverein*.

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Significant Dates

Arkwright's Water Frame	1769
Whitney's Cotton Gin	1793
Fulton's Steam Boat	1807
Morse's Telegraph	1837
Bell's Telephone	1876
Marconi's Wireless	1896

CHAPTER XIX

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION*

Purpose: To Trace the Causes, Events, and Results of the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution, a movement the early phases of which took place in England between 1770 and 1825 and in continental Europe after 1815, changed fundamentally the industrial, commercial, political, and social life of the western world. It consisted mainly in the application of machinery to manufacturing, mining, transportation, communication, and agriculture, and in the changes in economic organization that attended these innovations of methods. The large scale and basic nature of the changes introduced in a period of about sixty years justifies the term "revolution," although the scientific and economic background extends for centuries into the past, and the movement is still going forward at a rate perhaps greater today than ever before.

BACKGROUND OF INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Agriculture. In the middle of the eighteenth century the customs of economic life were little different from those of the

* This chapter taken from Littlefield, H. W., *New Outline-History of Europe Since 1815*, published by Barnes & Noble, Inc., N. Y.

Middle Ages. In agriculture the inefficient "open-field" system prevailed. Each peasant cultivated a number of small separated strips of land, into which the large arable fields were divided, and grazed his live stock on the "common" or uncultivated pasture land that was free to all. Fertilization of soil, rotation of crops, and controlled breeding of live stock were nearly unknown. One third of the cultivated land usually lay fallow every year. Crop yields were poor. The communal organization made innovations of method difficult.

Manufacturing. Etymologically the word "manufacture" means "make by hand." Handicraft was the only method of production. Because it supplied a basic human need, the textile industry dwarfed all others in importance. The making of thread from raw wool and later from cotton (spinning) and the making of cloth from thread (weaving) were the two chief processes of textile manufacture. In the eighteenth century the industry was carried on chiefly in the home with simple hand tools (spinning wheel, hand-loom) requiring little outlay of money. Under this "domestic" system each family was supplied with raw material by a middleman known as a "factor," who also purchased the finished product. Most families carried on a variety of industries — farming in the spring and summer, clothmaking in the winter. Production of goods was essentially production for use, not production for profit in a free market, since the market was small and local, and the amount of goods it would absorb was definitely known in advance.

General Economic and Social Conditions. Travel and transportation were difficult and slow. Stagecoaches, sailing vessels, and river barges were the chief means. Little money was in circulation. The rigid class stratification of society and the illiteracy of the mass of the population prevented most men from improving their condition by thrift and enterprise. Government was monarchical (much of continental Europe) or oligarchic (Great Britain).

CAUSES OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Commercial Expansion. The explorations and colonial establishments of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries led to a great expansion of commerce, to the increased use of a money

exchange system, and to the growth of a strong class of business men and capitalists. While the effect of this commercial revolution on technology was not immediate, the enlargement of the economic horizon showed shrewd men unlimited opportunities for money-making if production could be increased. The commercial expansion opened up a world market ripe for exploitation, made available an abundant supply of raw materials, and implanted a new psychology of enterprise.

Scientific Progress. For two centuries there had been a steady accumulation of scientific knowledge, although little practical use had been made of it. But the researches in pure science of such men as Galileo and Newton laid the foundations on which later practical experimenters were able to build.

Favorable Political Organization. A necessary condition for the coming of the Industrial Revolution was the establishment of a considerable degree of political freedom and the break-up of the medieval gild system in industry and of the feudal system of land tenure. This was accomplished in England by the revolutions of the seventeenth century, and in continental Europe by the French Revolution and the changes spread abroad by the Napoleonic conquests.

Readiness of England to Take Lead. Conditions in England were particularly favorable for the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. England had achieved a higher degree of national unity and political stability than other European countries. Though much less populous than France, England had become, through her successful wars in the eighteenth century, the leading maritime and colonial power of the world. She had also advanced further than other nations in the organization of capitalism; she had a strong banking system and an abundance of capital seeking profitable investment. England's natural resources, notably an abundance of coal and iron ore, enabled her to outdistance her rivals, particularly after the introduction of iron smelting by coal instead of charcoal (*ca.* 1750), and the widespread use of steam power (after 1785). The humid climate of England was ideal for cotton spinning. Finally, the disorder on the continent attending the

French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars delayed the acceptance of the Industrial Revolution in France, Germany, and the Low Countries.

The Agrarian Revolution. The old wasteful open-field system of cultivation gave way to enclosures, and sheep growing was emphasized. Improved methods of land cultivation, new crops, increased knowledge of fertilizing, crop rotation, diversification, new and improved types and breeds of animals, and numerous other improvements in agriculture, were also introduced.

Economic Theory. The industrial and agrarian phases were preceded and followed by changed ideas of economic theory. Previously, Mercantilism had held sway. It emphasized the importance of a large supply of gold, approved of a favorable balance of trade to achieve this, favored the acquisition of colonies to furnish raw materials and absorb the finished products, and often insisted on a strong navy to maintain the connection between the mother country and her colonies. Government regulation of commerce and industry was taken for granted.

Laissez Faire. Adam Smith and others denounced Mercantilism and approved of a policy that would allow to each business undertaker the largest amount of freedom from government control that was possible. This theory fitted in nicely with the wishes of the growing capitalist class and quite generally superseded Mercantilism.

INVENTIONS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Textile Industry. A small improvement introduced by John Kay (1733) led to a series of inventions. Kay's "flying shuttle" speeded up the process of weaving and thus increased the demand for thread. James Hargreaves' "spinning jenny" (1767), followed by Richard Arkwright's "water frame," a water-power operated spinning machine, (1769), and Samuel Crompton's "spinning mule" (1779) supplied the demand for thread and created a surplus. Edmund Cartwright's "power loom" (1785) improved weaving methods and thus restored the balance between spinning and weaving. Eli Whitney's "cotton gin" (United States, 1793) made available a large cheap supply of raw cotton for

spinning. The net effect of these inventions was to multiply many times the amount of cloth that could be made by a given group of workers.

Steam Power. Fundamental in the new industrial order was the development of a cheap, portable source of power. James Watts' invention of the condenser (1769) and of a practical method of converting the reciprocating motion of the piston into rotary motion (1781) made the steam engine (crude forms of which had been invented earlier by Papin and Newcomen) a practical prime mover for all kinds of machinery. The steam engine soon largely displaced water wheels and windmills. It facilitated and made necessary the production of great quantities of coal and iron. Applications of the steam engine were rapidly discovered. On water Robert Fulton's steam-boat, the *Clermont* (1807), and on land George Stephenson's rail locomotive (1825) were the forerunners of modern transportation. The steam printing press (1814) decreased the cost of printed matter and facilitated the spread of universal education.

Coal, Iron, and Steel. Early in the eighteenth century Abraham Darby and his son made experiments in the substitution of coke (made from coal) for charcoal (from wood) for the reduction of iron ore. In 1760 John Smeaton improved the Darby process by the addition of a water-power driven air blast that improved the quality and yield of coke. About 1784 Henry Cort introduced the "puddling" process for the purification of pig iron made with coke. From this time forward coal and iron went hand in hand with steam as the foundation of industrialization. Later developments of prime importance were the invention (1859) of the "Bessemer process" and of the "open-hearth process" for the large scale manufacture of steel.

Communications. With the development of railways and steam navigation, travel and communication became much more rapid. A penny postal system was introduced in Great Britain in 1840. But the greatest improvement was the practically instantaneous communication by electricity introduced with Morse's telegraph (1837). The development of electrical science late in the nineteenth century led to the invention of Bell's telephone (1876) and Marconi's wireless (1896).

Farming Machinery. The application of machines to farming revolutionized agriculture. A thrashing machine driven by steam was used in England as early as 1803. Later came McCormick's reaper (1834) and steam-driven plows and cultivators (c. 1850).

Machine Manufacture of Machinery. The early textile machines were made of wood and hand-worked iron. One of the important results of the introduction of steam power and large scale iron-making was the application of machinery to the manufacture of machinery. The lathe, the grinder, and the milling cutter for working metals made machines the breeders of more machines and help to explain how the Industrial Revolution expanded with great rapidity after a start had been made. Standardization of parts, which is fundamental in all mass production, was made both necessary and easy by the use of machinery.

Invention After 1830. The early advance of the Industrial Revolution, while rapid compared with previous technological progress, was utterly dwarfed by the flood of inventions that came in an ever-increasing tide after 1830. So great was the acceleration of invention in the nineteenth century that some historians speak of a "Second Industrial Revolution," beginning with 1870 and including the enormous development of electrical technology and of industries dependent on internal combustion engines that occurred during the following forty years.

ECONOMIC RESULTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Factory System. The old method of small production in the home with one's own tools could not meet the competition of machine production, and the cost of machinery was prohibitive to the individual workers. Hence arose the factory system, that is, large scale production in factories using machines owned by the employer. The factory system stimulated the growth of *division of labor* and of *mass production* through standardization of processes and parts.

Expansion of Industry and Increase of Wealth. Old industries began to produce on a much larger scale than previously. New industries sprang up offering new goods to satisfy man's

desires. Particularly significant was the rise of the *producers' goods* industry as distinguished from the *consumers' goods* industry. The increasing productiveness of the machines led to an enormous total increase in wealth, but the surplus was at first concentrated in the hands of a comparatively few rich men. In the long run the total increase in wealth led to a general rise in standards of living.

Rise of Industrial Capitalism. The controllers of the newly created surplus wealth were the industrial capitalists who owned the factories. As the Industrial Revolution proceeded, the power and influence of the industrial capitalists grew even greater, and it was they who shaped the course of further industrialization by reinvesting their gains in new enterprises rather than distributing the increase to the general population. So great was the productiveness of the machines that in spite of lavish personal expenditures on non-productive display, only a relatively small fraction of the total increase in wealth was immediately consumed. The rapid development (after 1830) of the limited-liability joint-stock corporation greatly facilitated the investment of surplus capital and led to rapid promotion of new industry.

Economic Imperialism. The great problem of the capitalists was the profitable investment of their wealth. The development of multiplied productivity required an ever larger market for the disposal of the product. Hence arose, especially in the later nineteenth century when domestic markets had begun to reach a saturation point, the pressure for imperialistic expansion and "spheres of influence" in the undeveloped parts of the world.

Booms and Depressions. As production for profit in a free market replaced production for use, and as innovations of method upset the balance in established industries, the phenomena of large scale "booms" and "depressions" introduced a new element into economic life.

International Economic Dependence. The Industrial Revolution enormously accelerated the movement toward international economic dependence that had begun with the Commercial Revolution of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The cotton spindles of England, to take a single instance, depended upon a

steady supply of raw cotton from the slave-worked plantations of the United States. As the population of Europe, especially of England, became more and more engaged in urban industry, they raised less food on their farms and became heavy importers of wheat, meat, and tropical food products. In exchange for food, Europe exported manufactured goods. The entire world became a market place. Dislocation of industry in any part of the world often has important repercussions in countries thousands of miles away.

SOCIAL RESULTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Dependent Proletariat Concentrated in Cities. With the rise of the factory system came a shifting of population from small agricultural villages to the cities. A vast urban proletariat grew up, propertyless, largely illiterate, and entirely dependent upon wage earning for a living.

Bad Labor and Living Conditions. The rapid growth of the industrial cities that paid no attention to sanitation or comfort produced foul slums where the masses lived in horrible squalor. With no concern for the welfare of the wage earner the capitalist and his agents offered small wages in return for long hours in unhealthful factories.

Large Scale Child Labor. Because little strength or training was required to tend the machines, women and particularly children ranging in ages from six years up were employed in large numbers and mercilessly exploited. Children of pauper parents were farmed out to factory owners on terms that amounted to slavery, unprotected even by the "property interest" that mitigated the rigors of true slavery, and were literally worked to death. These hideous conditions lasted for more than half a century in England but were gradually bettered through the agitation of reformers and the quickening of public conscience.

Insecurity and Mass Unemployment. Because the supply of labor, considered as a commodity, was usually in excess of the demand, and because the workers were without any independent means of subsistence, the fear of loss of the job became a constant

specter in the worker's mind. Besides the possibility of discharge for some delinquency there was the danger of large scale shut-downs as a consequence of business depressions. Mass unemployment, new in modern history, became one of the gravest social problems arising from the Industrial Revolution.

Mechanization of Warfare. A far-reaching consequence of the Industrial Revolution was the development of highly efficient mechanized weapons that rendered war immensely more destructive and dangerous to civilized progress.

POLITICAL RESULTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Strengthening of the Bourgeoisie (Middle Class). In England the bourgeoisie attained a large measure of political power through the Reform Bill of 1832, which redistributed seats in Parliament to grant representation to the new industrial centers and to diminish the representation of the so-called "rotten boroughs"; and which gave the right to vote to a large new group of the moderately well-to-do (*ten pound tenants*). It was bourgeoisie sentiment that brought about the repeal (1846, following a terrible famine in Ireland) of the Corn Laws, which had long subsidized the land-owning aristocracy at the expense of the rest of the people. The bourgeoisie were also successful in putting down the agitation of the Chartists, which was essentially an effort to secure for the lower classes the same political powers as had been obtained by the bourgeoisie through the Reform Bill.

In France the position of the bourgeoisie was strengthened by the Revolution of 1830, which put Louis Philippe on the throne as a constitutional king and provided for effective control of the government by the middle class as in England.

The formation of the *Zollverein*, or Customs Union, in Germany (1834) established a protective tariff, which benefited the bourgeoisie. This offered an example of unification for commercial purposes that was later to foster the political consolidation of Germany.

Rise of Labor as a Political Force. The new proletariat created by the Industrial Revolution, though hampered by poverty,

ignorance, and lack of leadership, gradually developed a feeling of common consciousness and sought means to improve their condition by political agitation, combination in Trade Unions, and various types of coöperative action. With the advance of democracy, which was partly favored by the bourgeoisie, the laboring classes grew stronger politically and were finally able to make their influence felt directly in elections and plebiscites. Nevertheless, the slowness of the improvement in the economic condition of the working class and the bitter opposition toward the rise of labor on the part of conservatives in the upper and middle classes gave rise to radical movements among the workers, based on a belief that no reform short of overthrow of the existing capitalistic system could be of much benefit in the long run.

Dependence of Military Superiority on Industrialization. The Industrial Revolution led to a new balance of world powers as it became ever more clear that military strength depended on industrialization. The thoroughness of the Industrial Revolution in England, France, and Germany, and its relative weakness in Russia and Eastern Europe, generally was the most powerful factor contributing to the European dominance by the first three states at the beginning of the twentieth century. The Europeanizing of the world in the nineteenth century carried the Industrial Revolution with it; so Japan, by its sudden acceptance of the Industrial Revolution in the later nineteenth century, became the dominant power of the Orient; so the industrialized Northern United States were able to defeat the South in the American Civil War.

INTELLECTUAL AND CULTURAL RESULTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Socialists. Against the terrible, if cheerful, pessimism of the individualist economists arose the socialists, who refused to accept as irremediable the bad conditions brought by the Industrial Revolution. Robert Owen's experiment at New Lanark, Scotland, was a coöperative community scheme for improving the condition of the worker. The success of the New Lanark experiment raised hopes for a rapid amelioration of social conditions, but later experiments of the same sort by Owen and others were disappointing. In France, Louis Blanc and others

tried to improve conditions, but their idealistic schemes were not practical. However, they created a public opinion against the system of *laissez faire*, which demanded and obtained better working conditions, a higher standard of living, an increased leisure, and a greater freedom for women and children.

Government Regulation. The inability of the wage worker to hold his own with the capitalist in the bargaining process, together with the many and flagrant abuses incident to factory life, caused the general adoption of a policy of government regulation through legislation to remedy the abuses that were apparent. That system is quite generally used today.

Radicalism. The persistence of evils that were apparently inherent in the system of capitalism, and the inability of governments to correct these evils, has led many to advocate theories ranging from mild Socialism to extreme anarchy. Most such theorists favor government control of the tools of production and the abolition of private capital. Karl Marx (1818-1883) is considered the father of radical Socialism. Almost every modern nation has a strong party that adheres to his doctrines, and in Russia, Germany, New Zealand, and elsewhere, many Socialistic theories have been enacted into law.

Rise of Engineering and Research. The Industrial Revolution immensely stimulated scientific investigation. As manufacturing techniques became more complex, experts were required to manage and improve them. The profession of engineering became indispensable to the industrial civilization. Science began to be more and more pursued for its services to technology. In time, large scale industrial endowment of laboratory research became the accepted way of forwarding invention. The achievements of the new applied science appealed powerfully to the imagination of the common man.

Secularization of Interests. The progress of the Industrial Revolution eventually placed an undreamed-of variety of material goods in the hands of a large part of the population. The mass-circulation newspaper, the automobile, the motion picture, and the radio — all products of the Industrial Revolution — have supplied man with a whole new set of interests, and far more

than the arguments of philosophical agnosticism have brought about the secularization point of view and widespread religious indifference that is characteristic of contemporary life.

QUESTIONS

1. Compare the importance of the Industrial Revolution with that of the Reformation and that of the French Revolution.
2. What were the most important causes of the Industrial Revolution?
3. Why did it begin in England?
4. Name some of the improvements in the textile and metal industries.
5. Name inventions in transportation, lighting, and heating.
6. Name others in agriculture, chemistry, physics, engineering, and sound transmission.
7. Classify and analyze the results of the Industrial Revolution.

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Significant Dates

Sino-Japanese War	1894-1895
Spanish-American War	1898
Chinese Republic	1912
Irish Free State	1920

CHAPTER XX

IMPERIALISM AND NATIONALISM

*Purpose: To Trace the Growth of Nineteenth Century
Imperialism.*

The nineteenth century, particularly the later half, is sometimes referred to as the age of Imperialism, because of the intense struggle for colonies which occurred during that period.

GREAT BRITAIN AND HER EMPIRE

Great Britain After the Napoleonic Wars. Much distress existed. This was due in part to the Industrial Revolution, which had affected the occupations and living conditions of many people. Trouble was also caused by the inability of the former soldiers to return to peace time labor, and by the heavy debt and high taxes incident to war. Discontent was manifested in the form of public meetings and even of riots — which led to government use of force and repression.

Reforming the British Government. The Cabinet system of government was in operation, with the Conservative and Liberal parties alternately in power. Legislative districts were very un-

equal, there was no uniformity in qualifications for suffrage, elections were held openly, and fraud was common. The Reform Bill of 1832 equalized voting districts, provided uniform qualifications for suffrage, and admitted many middle class capitalists to the ballot. Another reform bill in 1867 added many city workers to the enfranchised. The Reform Bill of 1884 and related bills provided for almost universal manhood suffrage and ended other outstanding evils. Woman suffrage came only after a bitter fight, and after the outbreak of the World War.

Grievances of the Irish. The Irish were a conquered people, conquests of Ireland having been made by English monarchs as early as the days of the Tudors. English monarchs followed the practice of dispossessing Irish rebels of land, which would then be settled by non-Irish people. In this way the province of Ulster grew up. After England turned Protestant, the Irish remained Catholics, for which they suffered persecution. They were restricted in their own freedom of worship and were required to support an alien church. Often they were victims of restrictive trade laws. They were forced to merge their legislature with the English Parliament in London.

Removal of Some Grievances. Gradually the Englishman perceived the error of his ways. Through the efforts of O'Connell and others, Catholics secured admission to Parliament and also achieved religious toleration. The Irish (Anglican) Church was disestablished also. A series of Parliamentary acts made it easy for an Irish tenant to buy land on long terms and at low rates of interest, with money loaned by the government.

The Home Rule Question. The English statesman, Gladstone, championed home rule for the Irish. A bill providing for this reform passed in Parliament but did not go into effect because of the outbreak of war in 1914. The agitation continued, and in 1920 the Irish Free State bill became a law. It divided Ireland into two separate states, each with the power of forming a separate union or of continuing its connection with the English Parliament. The Irish secured complete control of their domestic affairs, but they continued their connection with England in foreign matters and had to take an oath of loyalty to the British King. In the

Irish Free State radical elements gained control, elected de Valera as President, abolished the oath of loyalty, and decreed the death of the Senate. The province of Ulster has continued its connection with England.

Extent of the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth is of a world-wide nature, both as to location and as to nationalities. About eighty-five per cent of the people are non-European, leaving only a small proportion of British stock. The non-contiguous nature of the empire has made necessary a large fleet, many coaling stations, and a wide variety of governments.

Government of the Commonwealth. Members of the Commonwealth enjoy varying degrees of self-government. *Dominions* are autonomous, "equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or foreign affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations." A governor-general, or similar official, represents England in each dominion, but the dominion is free to act for itself in any sphere of activity it chooses. There are seven dominions in the Commonwealth: Australia, Canada, Union of South Africa, New Zealand, Ceylon, India, and Pakistan, the last two having acquired dominion status in 1947 after a long struggle for independence. Ceylon was also granted dominion status in 1947, but that status did not become effective until February of the following year. *Colonies* are so called if they do not have "responsible Government," but the extent of self-government among the colonies varies widely. Most have a governor, who is aided by a legislative council in determining local policy and by an executive council in administering laws. In addition some colonies have partly elected legislatures. Among the colonies are Singapore, Sarawak, Hong Kong, Fiji Islands, Barbados, British Honduras, and British Guiana. *Protectorates* (such as the Federation of Malay, Somaliland, Nyasaland, and the British Solomon Islands) are governed indirectly through native administration. Some dependencies are both colonies and protectorates, e.g., Nigeria, Kenya, and Gambia. *Trusteeships*, originally acquired under mandate from the League of Nations, have very little autonomy. Tanganyika, British Togoland, Nauru, and Tonga Island are trusteeships. *Condominiums* (the New Hebrides Islands) are jointly ruled with some other power.

The World War and the British Colonies. All the self-governing colonies declared war on Germany and sent troops to the war zone in Europe. There was some resistance to conscription, especially in Ireland, but elsewhere little disloyalty appeared. In India, Mahatma Gandhi took the lead in supporting the British cause; but when the expected independence for India failed to be achieved as a reward, he became disloyal. He was imprisoned a number of times but continued for several years, nevertheless, to lead the movement for Indian independence. In 1942 serious rioting again broke out in India, because Gandhi was once more imprisoned for demanding immediate independence.

RECENT COLONIAL AND TRADE RIVALRIES

Results of the Industrial Revolution. This movement, by increasing greatly the supply of manufactured articles, made necessary a more intense search for new markets and for colonies or other places that would absorb the finished products and furnish raw materials.

Increased Efficiency in Distribution. Methods of communication have been revolutionized. The steam ship has conquered the ocean, canals and railways have linked together the land, and the development of rapid postal, telegraph, telephone, and wireless systems have aided both on land and sea. The truck and bus have become important factors also, and commercial transportation by air is being developed. This efficiency of distribution has increased the wants of the world and has caused certain nations to seek to control more widely than ever before the markets for their particular commodities.

Increased Wealth. This increase has been followed by greater activity in foreign investments of wealth and by demands that such investments be protected. Failure of weak governments to pay bonds held by citizens of a foreign country, for example, has been a fruitful cause of Imperialism.

Missionaries. These people spread western culture, explored new regions, created new wants, advertised hitherto unknown territories, and paved the way for the foreign trader, capitalist, and soldier.

Expansion Into China. The Great Wall, built in ancient days, turned many an Asiatic horde west and emphasized the Chinese policy of exclusiveness. Modern English, Portuguese, and Dutch traders finally secured permission, however, to engage in trade at one port, Canton. The Opium War (1839-1842) increased the number of ports and opened up trade to still other nations. The Boxer Rebellion (1900), by imperiling the safety of foreign diplomats, brought foreign intervention and further penetration of China by Europeans and Americans.

Development of Rivalries Regarding China. Japan claimed Korea and defeated China in a war (1894-1895), thus gaining control of the Korean peninsula. Germany secured a foothold on the Shantung peninsula. England entered into an offensive-defensive alliance with Japan (1902). Russia expanded the Trans-Siberian railway toward the Pacific and, in her search for a warm water port, gained control of Port Arthur. This caused the Russo-Japanese war (1904-1905), in which Russia suffered defeat and had to retreat from most of the Chinese territory she had occupied. The United States, alarmed by European encroachments which threatened her growing trade with China, published through Secretary Hay the declaration that all nations should enjoy equality of trade conditions in China. Although that doctrine has not been recognized universally, it has doubtless operated to check foreign exploitation of the Chinese realm. It is called the "Open Door Policy."

The Chinese Republic. The Manchu dynasty fell from power, and a republic took its place in 1912. Disputes between liberals and conservatives soon caused a division into the rival states of northern and southern China, and thereby led to conditions of disorder and anarchy.

The Westernizing of Japan. The Japanese, like the Chinese, long followed a policy of exclusiveness. Although some English and Dutch traders and Catholic missionaries gained access to the islands, they, with the exception of the Dutch, were later driven out and Japan continued to remain largely shut off from the Western World. Commodore Perry in 1853 visited the region and secured trading privileges for the United States, after which

been discovered in the region. From the Boer War which followed (1899-1902) the British emerged victorious. In 1909 the Union of South Africa became a dominion of the British Empire.

The Partition of Central and Northern Africa. The missionary, Livingstone, and the explorer, Stanley, did much to advertise this region. King Leopold of Belgium established personal control of the Congo territory and exploited native labor. World sentiment, however, compelled him to relinquish his claims in favor of the Belgian government. Germany started late, on account of Bismarck's pre-occupation with home affairs, but commercial interests finally led to German acquisition of several provinces in Central Africa. Italy and Portugal also gained control over some territories there. The French acquired Algeria (1857), Tunis (1881), and Morocco (1905-1911). Italy took over Tripoli (1911) by conquest, and England gradually extended her control over Egypt. In 1914 only a few scattered bits of territory in Africa could be considered independent.

THE UNITED STATES SINCE 1783

Adoption of the Constitution. During the later stages of their rebellion against England the Colonies worked out a loosely organized government under the Articles of Confederation. These proving inadequate, they adopted a constitution (1788) which provided for a republican form of government, with a President who served for four years, a Congress of two houses, and a Supreme Court to make final decisions on the constitutionality of laws.

Early Years of the New Government. The first President, George Washington, gave the young government a good start by ruling well and selecting capable advisers. He adopted a policy of steering clear of European affairs, and he also declined to serve a third term. The nation expanded rapidly. Already blessed with an abundance of natural resources and unsettled land, it soon purchased from France (1803) a vast expanse of territory known as Louisiana, and later by treaty secured the Floridas from Spain (1819). These acquisitions marked the beginning of an expansion that finally led to the Pacific Ocean. A second war with

England, 1812-1814, resulted from British efforts to stop the growing trade between the United States and England's European enemies and from the American desire to annex Canada. The results were indecisive. A few years later some of these same nations were threatening to interfere in the affairs of South America, and Russia was pushing southward from Alaska, which she already held. This led President Monroe to issue the Monroe Doctrine (1823), in which he declared that the United States would regard any such attempts as unfriendly acts. English statesmen supported this declaration, and other states heeded it. The annexation of Texas a few years later resulted in a war with Mexico, at the conclusion of which the United States not only gained undisputed control of that state, but also of an immense territory extending to the Pacific Ocean.

Slavery and the Civil War. From the beginning, slavery proved to be a profitable institution in the southern portion of the United States, and the invention of the cotton gin greatly increased the demand for slaves. But in other portions of the nation, where slavery proved unprofitable, people saw the evils of the system and began to demand its extinction. Tension between the sections increased so much as to bring about the Civil War (1861-1865), a bloody conflict in which the anti-slave forces, who stood for the preservation of the Union as against secession, finally triumphed. Three amendments to the constitution formally ended the slavery controversy.

Later Progress. The population of the United States increased by leaps and bounds, largely through emigrants from Europe, who were attracted to the new country because of its cheap and fertile lands, its abundant natural resources, and its liberal government. As this tide of immigration swelled and the population reached, then passed the hundred million mark, it even became necessary to restrict immigration. The Industrial Revolution with its machinery wrought miracles in the New World, so that the standard of living was higher than in any other place on the globe. Giant aggregations of capital, called trusts, were formed and often sought to acquire a monopoly of trade in their particular products. A war with Spain (1898) over the question of Cuban independence demonstrated the military prowess of the United

States and added to her possessions the Philippine Islands and other smaller territories. She entered the World War in 1917, and her troops played an important part in the final victories of the Allies. In common with the rest of the world, she suffered severely from the effects of the great depression which began in 1929. Many reforms were instituted under the leadership of her "New Deal" President, Franklin D. Roosevelt, who also led his nation into World War II, after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

HISPANIC AMERICA

Mexico. When Spain became involved in the Napoleonic wars she was unable to retain control of her colonies in the Americas. Therefore they established their own governments and, in a short time, became independent. In this group was Mexico. The rebellion there, begun by Hidalgo and Morelos and continued by Mina, was completed under the leadership of Agustin de Iturbide, who was subsequently declared emperor (1822). In 1823 an uprising led by Santa Anna forced Iturbide to abdicate, and shortly thereafter a republic was established which withstood many changes of government until 1862, when French troops captured the capital. From 1864 to 1867 Mexico was ruled by Emperor Maximilian, a puppet of Napoleon III. In the latter year Juarez defeated Maximilian and reestablished himself president of the republic. Five years after Juarez' death in 1872 Porfirio Diaz assumed the presidency and remained in power until 1911. During Diaz' tenure much capital was invested in Mexico, but the living standard of the masses remained quite low. After 1917, when a new and very liberal constitution was adopted, a policy of land distribution was followed, with the government seizing large estates and giving portions of them to landless peasants. Labor laws relating to employer-union relations were passed and a social security system was inaugurated. During Cardenas' tenure (1934-1940) relations between the United States and Mexico were strained because of Cardenas' expropriation of American-owned oil property. However, settlements were finally made.

Central and South America. All of the states of Central and South America, except Brazil, which was a Portuguese possession, were formerly under Spanish control, but most of them

gained their independence by 1825. For a while during the Napoleonic wars Brazil was the seat of government of the Portuguese monarchy, the royal family having fled to that place. After the return of peace, however, and the consequent removal of this family back to Lisbon, the Brazilians severed all political connection with Portugal. In the move for South American independence several names loom large, but those of San Martin and Bolivar are perhaps most prominent. Bolivar sought to unite all the countries into a United States of South America, but he failed to achieve his purpose. England, France, and the Netherlands continued to hold the Guianas. In 1895 President Cleveland intervened to secure the settlement of a dispute over the boundary between Venezuela and British Guiana. In 1907 President Roosevelt also intervened in a rebellion in Panama against Colombia and, by a hurried recognition of the independence of Panama, gained the right to construct a canal through her territory. Colombia resented the act and has demanded and received remuneration for it. Since building the Panama Canal the United States has shown an increased interest in the affairs of Central America, and several times has taken steps to discourage revolutions, maintain order, and otherwise protect her interests. Latin American nations, in general, fear the United States and wish to see the Monroe Doctrine abrogated and a Pan-American Union replace it. Such an organization, indeed, has been functioning for some time, and has done much toward promoting unity and good will. In matters of common interest the so-called A, B, C powers (Argentina, Brazil, and Chile) have shown a tendency to act in harmony. This is an exception to the general rule, however, for most of the Latin American states have been torn by internal revolutions and wars between each other chiefly over boundary questions. Most of the Latin American peoples speak the Spanish language, trade with the United States and England, and look to France for cultural leadership.

Relations of the United States and Latin America. The United States was one of the first nations to recognize the independence of the Latin American states from Spain. In 1823 President Monroe warned other powers against further expansion in the Western Hemisphere. United States diplomats protested

against the Maximilian regime in Mexico, against German occupation of Venezuelan harbors, and against supposed British encroachments on Venezuelan territory. The United States recognized the independence of Panama from Colombia and built the Panama Canal. In recent gatherings at Buenos Aires (1936) and Lima (1938) the nations of the Western World apparently succeeded in uniting in defense against a possible aggressor. In general, Latin-American nations fear their northern neighbor, but United States diplomats are seeking to dispel these fears. In the Panama Conference (1939), the twenty-one nations of the Western World drew a neutral zone around North and South America, and took other measures in a vain effort to keep World War II from reaching American shores.

RUSSIA, TURKEY, AND THE NEAR EAST

Factors in the Near Eastern Problem. One of these factors was Russia. Her statesmen were dominated by the idea that Russia's "historic mission" was to gain economic, political, and religious control of Constantinople and the straits of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. Another factor was Turkey. Her Mongolian people were Mohammedan in religion, with wretched armies, little political ability, weak Sultans, and corrupt governments. A third factor was Turkey's Christian subject states: Serbia, Rumania, Greece, Bulgaria, and Montenegro; all of whom had fought for and gained their independence by 1908. A final factor was the interest of other European nations. Austria wanted to expand, England was opposed to Russia, France was interested in the Holy Places, Italy in the Adriatic Sea and Turkish Africa, and Germany in gaining economic control of Turkey.

Greek Independence (1821-1827). Stirred by memories of a glorious past, the Greek subjects of the Sultan united in a movement known as Pan-Hellenism and revolted in 1821. They found sympathizers in both England and Russia; in fact, it was largely through the aid of these two nations that independence was finally achieved in 1827.

The Crimean War (1853-1856). The Tsar's demand for control of Russian subjects in Turkey started the conflict. Other nations also entered the war: France, to secure Catholic control

of the Holy Places, Sardinia to gain friends, and England to oppose Russia. The Russians suffered defeat and in the Peace of Paris (1856) saw their protectorate over Moldavia and Wallachia abolished, the Danube River internationalized, the Black Sea neutralized, and Bessarabia given to Moldavia. At the same time the Declaration of Paris abolished privateering; outlawed paper blockades; decreed that a neutral flag covered enemy goods, except contraband of war; and specified that such goods, except contraband, were not liable to capture. This declaration is an important addition to International Law.

The Russo-Turkish War and the Congress of Berlin (1877-1878). The Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, tired of Turkish misrule, rebelled, and in this effort they found allies in Serbia and Montenegro. Russia led a movement of European powers to bring the Porte to terms, but failed, and finally joined in the war against Turkey. Turkey suffered defeat and in the Treaty of San Stefano lost territory to almost all of her enemies. European opposition to this treaty led to its revision in the Congress of Berlin. In the resulting treaty Russia lost most of her recent gains, Austria gained control of the affairs of Bosnia and Herzegovina, England gained Cyprus and pledged herself to prevent Russian spread into Asia Minor, and Bulgaria lost her previous gains.

The Independence of Bulgaria. Taking advantage of the Young Turk movement and of Austrian friendliness, Bulgaria declared its independence in 1908, and Turkey accepted the *fait accompli*.

The Turco-Italian War (1911-1912). After conducting an elaborate diplomatic campaign and gaining the consent of the Great European Powers, Italy, on slight pretext, proceeded to annex Tripoli, defeating the weak Turkish attempts to prevent her from doing this deed.

The Balkan Wars (1912-1913). Taking advantage of Turkey's war with Italy, a league of Balkan states attacked and defeated Turkey (1912). The victors then quarreled over the spoils and fought a second war which blasted Bulgarian hopes of territorial increases. The European Powers became seriously involved and on several occasions barely avoided a general war.

LATIN EUROPE

France Under Napoleon III. Louis Napoleon, a nephew of the old Napoleon, made two or three fruitless efforts before he finally succeeded in establishing himself as ruler of France. He became President of the Republic in 1848 and was crowned Emperor in 1852. He led France into the Crimean War and helped frame the Treaty of Paris (1856). He aided Sardinia in a war against Austria, for which France received Nice and Savoy (1859). It was largely through his efforts that Rumania was started on the road to independence. He encouraged Maximilian to become ruler of Mexico but abandoned him when the United States protested vigorously. He allowed Bismarck to outwit him and the Prussian army to capture him in the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871). The Empire fell with his defeat and capture at Sedan.

The Third French Republic. Established in 1871, it lasted until 1940 when France was conquered by Nazi Germany. Some of its achievements were: separation of church and state (1905), reform of education, the gaining of colonies, increases in the army, industrial progress, and social reforms.

Italy, 1871-1914. During this period Italy faced some very serious domestic problems. There was a lack of racial unity, taxation was burdensome, emigration was heavy, illiteracy was prevalent, the country lacked natural resources, and the Pope was bitter over the treatment that had been accorded him. The task of meeting these problems taxed the ingenuity of Italian statesmen.

Spain, 1815-1914. During this period there was a tendency toward a more liberal government in Spain. Ferdinand VII (1784-1833) granted a liberal constitution in 1820 but soon revoked it. Then followed a struggle which bordered on anarchy at times, and which resulted in the establishment of a republic, then of another kingdom in 1875, with Alfonso XII as king. He was succeeded by Alfonso XIII, who was dethroned in 1931. Spain made little economic progress at this time because of her limited natural resources. Moreover, the church dominated education, which was so inadequate that the illiteracy of the country was over fifty per cent.

The Loss of Spain's Colonies. The South American colonies became independent shortly after the Napoleonic wars. A series of rebellions against Spanish rule in Cuba ended in a war with the United States and the loss of several colonies in 1898. The defeated nation also parted with the Philippine Islands at a forced sale. Only a small portion of Morocco and other scattered bits of territory remain of Spain's once great colonial empire.

Portugal. The royal family of Portugal fled to Brazil during the days of Napoleon but returned later and occupied the throne. This brought about the loss of Brazil. There ensued a long struggle between liberals and conservatives that ended with the establishment of a republic in 1910. Portugal still retains considerable colonial possessions in Africa and elsewhere, but the country has little wealth and much illiteracy and offers little proof that it will become a very powerful nation in the future.

THE GERMAN EMPIRE

The Imperial Government. The government of the German Empire after unification was liberal in form but autocratic in fact. Prussia, the largest state, was dominant, and her representatives could veto any amendment to the constitution. The Emperor, who was also King of Prussia, controlled the army and had charge of foreign policies. Furthermore, the Chancellor was responsible to the Emperor, not to the legislature. The national (federal) legislature consisted of two houses or chambers: the *Reichstag*, or lower house, whose members were elected by universal manhood suffrage; and the *Bundesrat* (Federal Council), made up of delegates representing the various states. The total membership in the *Bundesrat* originally was 58, but when Alsace-Lorraine was finally admitted in 1911 as a full-fledged state, it was represented by 3 members, raising the total to 61. Prussia controlled 17 of these, and, since only 14 were required for a veto power, Prussia always had it. However, this was only natural, since Prussia possessed two-thirds of the land in the Empire, and also two-thirds of the population. Since the *Bundesrat* had greater powers than the *Reichstag*, and since its members were not responsible to the people as a whole but to the princes or

municipal councils in the respective states, the elements of democracy in the German Empire were not numerous. Moreover, in the kingdom of Prussia there was an extremely reactionary form of government, with financial wealth determining the number of votes each person should have. On the other hand, civil service in Prussia had long been excellent, and led the way to similar practices in other German states and in Great Britain, where it became customary to examine candidates for offices in the government, rather than depend on political patronage (spoils system), as has often happened recently in a number of our own states.

Progress Under Bismarck's Leadership. Bismarck sought to isolate France, wanted no colonies, cared nothing for a navy, and sought to develop Germany internally. He waged a bitter and, on the whole, an unsuccessful fight against Catholic political and educational influence. To check the growth of Socialism, he sponsored many social reforms, including government insurance for illness, accidents, and unemployment. He started a movement to assimilate the Poles, the inhabitants of Alsace and Lorraine, and those of Schleswig and Holstein—an effort that met with little success, either before or after his retirement.

William II in Control. The new Kaiser dismissed Bismarck soon after coming to the throne and soon changed many of the Chancellor's policies. He wanted Germany to have a large army and navy, he desired to play a leading rôle in world affairs, and he wished to gain more colonies. Especially did he bend every effort toward securing Turkey's friendship and trade, in connection with which he sought to have a railway built from Berlin to Bagdad. These policies antagonized England, France, and Russia—three nations with which Germany later went to war.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Government; the Ausgleich of 1867. Both nations had separate parliaments and controlled their own internal affairs, all the territory of the empire being divided between the two. They had a common ruler (who was emperor of Austria and king of Hungary), a legislative body, and ministers of war, who controlled foreign affairs and finances.

Racial Problems. The Dual Monarchy consisted of the most diverse nationalities, who seemed to have few interests in common. Racial conflicts, therefore, often occurred, in spite of the friendliness between the ruling Germans and Magyars. The nationalist demands of her Serbs, Poles, and Italians later proved Austria's undoing; while Hungary had to face many racial problems scarcely less serious.

Bonds of Unity. The nation was held together by the common love of the aged Emperor, the union of the two most powerful racial groups, economic inter-dependence, the absence of economic barriers, the inability of the subject races to unite, and, to a limited extent, a common religion.

THE LESSER TEUTONIC STATES

Scandinavia. Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, are inhabited by peoples closely related in race. All are relatively small in population, are located near more powerful states, and have suffered losses from emigration. Denmark lost Norway to Sweden in 1814, and it lost Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia and Austria in 1864. The country excels in coöperative farming enterprises. Norway became independent of Sweden, by peaceful means, in 1905. All three of the nations have liberal monarchies and boast a highly enlightened citizenship.

Switzerland. Switzerland is a country inhabited chiefly by Germans, French, and Italians. It is a loose federal union of provinces and has perhaps the most democratic government in the world. Its tourist trade, dairy products, and manufacturing support its population.

Belgium. Belgium, once called the Spanish Netherlands, later the Austrian Netherlands, was added to Holland in 1815. It rebelled in 1830, gained its freedom, and adopted a liberal monarchy government. It has abundant natural resources and supports a dense population.

The Netherlands. Holland has a limited monarchy for its government. Its inhabitants are chiefly Germanic in descent. It is densely populated, emphasizes commerce and agriculture, and owns many colonies.

QUESTIONS

1. How are the territories of the British Empire governed? Illustrate.
2. Trace the extension of suffrage in England, 1832-1917.
3. Trace the Irish Question to 1921.
4. Explain the chief factors in the recent development of Imperialism.
5. Show how Africa was partitioned during the nineteenth century.
6. Give an account of Western encroachments in China.
7. What factors have influenced Balkan history? Explain.
8. Summarize the struggles that occurred in the Balkans, 1821-1913.
9. In what foreign problems did Napoleon III concern himself? Discuss.
10. Contrast the foreign policies of Bismarck and William II.
11. What can be said of the future of the British Empire?
12. What progress has Japan made since 1853?
13. Tell of the adoption of the Constitution of the United States, and describe the government which it provides.
14. Trace the territorial expansion of the United States before the Civil War.
15. Describe the rise and settlement of the slavery controversy in the United States.
16. Explain the following items of recent United States history: *a.* Growth of population; *b.* The Industrial Revolution and its effects; *c.* The Spanish-American War; *d.* The World War; *e.* The Depression and the New Deal.
17. Trace the history of Mexico since 1810.
18. Trace the relations between the United States and the Latin-American countries since 1820.
19. Name the high points in Spanish and Portuguese history since 1851.
20. Describe the government *Ausgleich* of Austria-Hungary. What bonds united it?
21. Give salient facts in the recent history of six of the smaller nations in Europe.

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Significant Dates

First World War	1914-1918
Russian Revolution	1917
Beginnings of Depression	1929
Italo-Ethiopian War	1935-1936
Spanish Civil War	1936-1939
Japanese Invasion of China	1937
Conference at Munich	1938

CHAPTER XXI

THE FIRST WORLD WAR AND AFTER

Purpose: To Observe the Causes, Events, and Results of the First World War.

We are living so close to the First World War that it is difficult to form correct historical judgments. People are prone to follow preconceived notions and to allow their prejudices to influence their findings. On the other hand, an unprecedented amount of diplomatic correspondence, foreign office dispatches, memoirs, and similar publications have been given to the public to aid in solving the war guilt problem.

CAUSES OF THE WAR

Imperialism. The desire to gain colonies, or to establish some form of control over foreign lands or peoples, was undoubtedly a fundamental cause of the war. The mad scramble for possession of Africa and parts of Asia, the world-wide competition for markets, Germany's desire to gain economic control of Turkey, and Russia's aim to secure a foothold at Constantinople and in the Straits — all these efforts led to friction, to fear, and to war.

Militarism. Before the outbreak of the war, Europe was an armed camp. Universally military conscription laws were the rule, rather than the exception, and warships were being built feverishly. England and Germany were engaged in a naval race; France, Russia, and Germany were each striving to maintain the mightiest army in Europe. In 1913 especially, there were great increases in armies and military equipment. And as armaments increased, fear and distrust also increased; diplomats became belligerent, rather than conciliatory, and the "inevitable conflict" was brought nearer.

Nationalism. Previous agreements had sometimes ignored the all-potent factor of Nationalism. Three examples will show the importance of this motive for war — the French desire to regain Alsace-Lorraine, the Italian wish to secure *Italia Irredenta* and the Serbian hope to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina.

European Alliances. The Triple Alliance was begun by the Austro-German Alliance of 1879 and was completed by the addition of Italy in 1882. Italy quit the union when the real crisis came, but the other two powers held firm. The Triple Entente was begun by the Franco-Russian Alliance of 1894, was furthered by the Anglo-Russian *Entente Cordiale* of 1904, and was completed by the Anglo-Russian Entente of 1907. Much less binding in form than its rival, the Entente grew in strength as time passed. The rival groups of powers often took opposite sides in controversies that arose and grew more and more suspicious of each other. Their existence made it certain that any war which occurred would be a general conflict and would not be confined to two powers alone.

Fear Engendered by Recurring Crises. In the First Moroccan Crisis of 1905, Germany challenged the newly formed *Entente Cordiale* over the question of French domination in Morocco and met a diplomatic defeat. Austria completed the annexation of the Serb-inhabited provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908. This act aroused bitter resentment in Russia and intense hatred in Serbia. But Germany supported Austria, Russia had not recovered from her defeat by Japan, and Serbia alone

was too weak to fight. Consequently, no war occurred, but the bitterness increased. It was no accident that a murder in Bosnia later precipitated the conflict. Other crises have been mentioned.

The Newspaper Press. Some historians, especially Fay,¹ list this as a cause. They say that newspapers inflamed nationalistic feelings, misrepresented the situation in other countries, and suppressed factors in favor of peace. This view is doubtless correct; certain it is that pre-war newspapers and magazines were filled with articles on the "inevitable conflict."

THE CONFLICT

Outbreak. On June 28, 1914, the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian Crown, was murdered by a pro-Serb sympathizer in Bosnia. On July 23, the Austrian government sent a harsh ultimatum in which it exacted humiliating reparations for the wrong done. The Serbian reply not being fully satisfactory, Austria declared war, July 28. Russian mobilization caused Germany to declare war on Russia, August 1, and this was followed by a similar declaration on France, August 3. In order to attack France, German troops entered Belgium, an act which brought England into the war. Other powers joined each side till the conflict really became a "World War."

Early Military Phases of the Struggle. One German army beat back the Belgians, invaded France, and attempted to reach Paris. The French defeated them at the First Battle of the Marne and saved their capital, but this did not prevent the Germans from overrunning Belgium and Luxemburg. A Russian army invaded East Prussia but soon suffered defeat. Russia likewise failed in two attacks on Austria and thereby lost much territory. An Anglo-French attempt to take Constantinople in 1915 proved to be a costly failure. Italy fought Austria on the southern front.

The War on the Seas. The English fleet soon drove Germany's commerce from the seas and blockaded her ports. England, in order to starve out the Germans, illegally extended the list of contraband of war to include foodstuffs to neutrals.

¹ Fay, Sidney Bradshaw, *The Origins of the World War*, I, 47-49.

Germany retaliated with a submarine blockade of the British Isles, which later led to her downfall. The enemy navies met only once — in the indecisive battle of Jutland.

New Methods of Warfare. The airplane served chiefly for observation and bombing; the trench and barbed wire entanglements found new uses; hand grenades, poison gas, gas masks, machine guns, and long range cannon became common, while the tank, and countless other new inventions, made their first appearance. The truck and railway made possible the most rapid movements of troops ever recorded in the annals of war.

The Last Two Years of the Conflict. Russia, suffering from misgovernment and war losses, collapsed in 1917 and withdrew from the war. A frightful German submarine campaign in 1917 brought the United States and other powers into the struggle against the Central Powers. A series of gigantic German thrusts early in 1918 almost broke the Allied lines, but by midsummer the superiority in man-power had passed over to the Allies, and their leader, General Foch, began a continuous counter-offensive which caused a collapse of the Central powers. The Armistice of November 11, 1918, disarmed Germany and really ended the war.

RESULTS AS EXPRESSED IN THE PEACE TREATIES

Treaty of Versailles, June 28, 1919. Delegates from thirty-two nations that had fought on the side of the Allies assembled at Paris and Versailles to dictate the terms of peace to Germany. Of these, Clemenceau of France, Lloyd George of England, President Wilson of the United States, and perhaps Orlando of Italy, were outstanding. President Wilson was an idealist, with little practical diplomatic experience, whose main aim was to secure acceptance of his idea of a League of Nations. Lloyd George was determined to make Germany pay for the war, as was Clemenceau. Many of the Allied diplomats were loyal to certain secret treaties which had already divided among them much of the prospective spoils of war. The existence of these selfish agreements did much to counteract the influence of less selfish statesmen and made harsher the terms of the final treaty. Germany lost Alsace-Lorraine, Posen, Danzig, and all of her colonies, was

almost entirely disarmed, on land and sea, and an Allied army was temporarily stationed on the west bank of the Rhine. She was forced to accept the responsibility for the war and agreed to pay the cost, to the limit of her ability.

Treaty of St. Germain, September 10, 1919. Austria lost 84,000 square miles of territory, and about 19,000,000 inhabitants, was deprived of her sea coast, and was forbidden to become a part of Germany.

Treaty of Trianon, June 4, 1920. Hungary lost approximately 90,000 square miles of territory and 13,000,000 inhabitants, leaving it a country one-third its former size, and with less than half its former population. The army was limited to 35,000.

Treaty of Neuilly, November 27, 1919. Bulgaria lost Thrace to Greece and most of her western territory to Serbia. Her army was limited to 20,000 men, and she was assessed an indemnity of 2,000,000,000 gold francs.

Treaties of Sèvres and Lausanne. In the Treaty of Sèvres, Turkey suffered the fate of her allies, but a rebellion against the terms of the agreement, led by Mustapha Kemal, caused a new agreement to be made at Lausanne in 1923. In this treaty, Turkey lost Arabia, Palestine, Mesopotamia, and Syria, but held Constantinople and Eastern Thrace. The Straits were internationalized. Turkey is now nominally a republic and is rapidly adopting Western ways. Angora is the new capital. The Straits are once more under Turkish control.

The League of Nations. The Covenant of the League of Nations was made a part of the Peace of Versailles. It provided for an Assembly, in which each member state should have one vote; a Council, composed of representatives of Britain, Italy, the United States, France, Japan, and four others to be selected by the Assembly; and a Permanent Secretariat at Geneva. Elaborate provisions were made for the prevention of war and the arbitration of disputes, in connection with which a World Court was established. The League also assumed a guardianship over much of the territory taken from the Central Powers, to which the term *mandates* was applied. An International Labor Organization was

created to foster world cooperation in all matters pertaining to labor. The League of Nations was rejected by the United States Senate, but continued to operate, settling several disputes that might have led to war and gaining to its credit several important humanitarian achievements, such as the regulation of the white slave trade and the opium traffic. On the other hand, its efficiency crippled by the refusal of the United States to join, the League failed in various instances, especially in its efforts to prevent the Sino-Japanese fighting in 1931 and 1932. Japan withdrew from the League because the Lytton Report took issue with her Manchurian policy; Germany withdrew because of her desire to rearm; and Italy, while still a member, defied the League and conquered Ethiopia, another League member. These and other blows so weakened the organization that it lost its prestige in political affairs.

THE NEW STATES OF EUROPE

Poland. Poland was re-created, out of territory taken from Germany, Austria, and Russia, largely along its old boundary lines. The so-called Polish Corridor gave Poland access to the free port of Danzig, thereby cutting Prussia in two. Germany protested against this arrangement, and it is one of the causes of the Second World War.

Czechoslovakia. The provinces of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Slovakia were made into a new state. It was pre-vaillingly Slav in population, but also contained large minorities of Germans and Hungarians. The loss of valuable territory to Germany, Hungary, and Poland as a result of the Pact of Munich (1938) virtually reduced the country to a state of vassalage to Germany, and German troops later occupied it.

Yugoslavia. The provinces of Bosnia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Herzegovina, Montenegro, and Serbia were incorporated into this new state. The people were largely Slavic, but differed so widely in religious, social, and political ideas as to make their union a precarious one. They had considerable trouble with Italy, which took Fiume and kept it. In 1941 German armies overran it.

New States Carved Out of Russia. Finland, the home of a highly civilized people, gained its independence after the over-

throw of the last Romanov Tsar. Esthonia, Latvia, and Lithuania also emerged as independent republics.

GENERAL RESULTS OF THE WAR

Losses in Men and Property. Of approximately sixty million men who fought, it has been estimated that eight million died and six million became disabled for life. The increase in public indebtedness alone amounted to about \$130,000,000,000, not counting the losses in property destroyed. Cold figures cannot convey any adequate idea of the losses.

Triumph of Nationalism. Austria-Hungary and Russia, the two most important non-nationalist empires, fell to pieces, and several new states appeared instead. Furthermore, in both new and old states, the added protection given to national or racial minorities constituted of itself a distinct triumph for nationalism.

Temporary Triumph of Democracy. Republics appeared in Germany, Austria, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Turkey, Rumania, and elsewhere; and the movement still affects the world. On the other hand, four great royal houses of Europe have been overthrown — the Hohenzollerns, the Romanovs, the Hapsburgs, and the Osmanli. Woman suffrage came to several nations during and after the war.

Development of Internationalism. The League of Nations was established in an effort to end war, and numerous other attempts have been made toward unity and disarmament.

Emergence of the Lower Social Classes. The laborer has become increasingly important. Social insurance laws have multiplied, the working day has been shortened, and labor unions have been legalized and given privileges. The movement for breaking up great estates and putting the land into the hands of the peasants has gone on apace in Russia, Poland, Rumania, and former Czechoslovakia, and to a lesser extent in France, Germany, and England.

Economic Supremacy of the United States. During the early years of the war, the United States gained economic leadership. Attributable in part to her boundless natural resources, but also to the fact that she suffered less in the war than other nations,

she has since maintained that position. New York is now the financial leader of the world, and the American dollar is the standard in monetary values.

Radical Experiments in Government. Bolshevism and Fascism might have come eventually had there been no war, but this conflict produced the crises that hastened their coming. This also holds true of the Nazi régime in Germany.

Temporary Financial Chaos. The mark, the franc, the pound, the kronin, and the ruble suffered notable declines and in some instances were replaced by new monetary systems. Various schemes for stabilization, notably the Dawes plan for Germany, were tried. The world-wide depression, in the opinion of many financial experts, is traceable to the World War.

Discontent with the Peace Treaties. The placing of the sole responsibility for the war on Germany and her allies has aroused many bitter controversies, as has the Polish Corridor question. Many felt that the weakened position of Austria and Hungary was unjust. Germany was resentful at being disarmed, Italy was dissatisfied with the relatively small gains that she made in territory, and France was restless because of her exposed position.

Changes in the Relative Importance of States. From 1919 to 1939 there were more small independent states than there had been before the war, and there were fewer large ones. One shadowy superstate, the League of Nations, was created.

Gains for Imperialism. Britain, by annexing much of the German colonial empire, made huge territorial gains. France was supreme on the continent of Europe in military affairs, Italy was strong in the Mediterranean, and Japan had asserted a Monroe Doctrine for the Far East.

THE "INTER-WAR PERIOD"

The Washington Conference (1921-1922). Representatives from England, France, Italy, Japan, and the United States agreed to maintain the naval ratios of 5:1 $\frac{3}{4}$:1 $\frac{3}{4}$:3:5 respectively.

EUROPE
1914



EUROPE
1938



A new four-power treaty among the United States, Japan, France, and Great Britain took the place of the old Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

The Locarno Pacts (1925). Spokesmen for Germany, France, Italy, Belgium, Great Britain, Poland, and Czechoslovakia signed a number of agreements pledging each power to arbitration, defense of existing boundaries, and demilitarization of the Rhine region.

The Paris Peace Pacts (1928). At the insistence of the French foreign minister, Briand, and the United States Secretary of State, Kellogg, the leading nations of the world agreed to renounce war "as an instrument of national policy" and to settle all disputes by pacific means. About the only means of enforcing these treaties was public opinion.

The London and Geneva Conferences. The United States, Japan, and Great Britain reached agreements for naval decreases at London in 1930, but France and Italy held aloof. At the Geneva conference of 1932 a resolution was adopted declaring "in principle" for reduction in naval and military establishments and condemning the use of poison gas and the bombing of civilians. Another meeting was called for January 1933, but was postponed on account of the Sino-Japanese crisis. When it did meet in October, it was thrown into confusion by the German demand for immediate arms equality and adjourned with little having been accomplished. Germany was not represented at the Disarmament Conference in May 1934, which adjourned without having drafted a treaty limiting military armaments. Another conference at London accomplished little toward disarmament because the Japanese delegation left after failing to secure its demand for naval equality.

The New Spanish Republic. Difficulties in Morocco, plus internal dissensions, caused the king to place Spain under the dictatorship of Rivera in 1923. Advocates of a republic, by winning an election in 1931, forced Alfonso XIII to abdicate the throne and leave the country. Zamora then became president, and a cabinet system of government, similar to that of England, was adopted. Church and state were separated, and Jesuit property was confiscated.

Franco and the Insurgents. Gradually the Leftists gained in power until in April 1936, they forced Zamora out of office and elected an extremist, Azaña, to the presidency. This produced increasing Fascist unrest, which culminated in a rebellion against the government, July 1936. An insurgent government was established at Burgos headed by Generalissimo Francisco Franco. Aided generously by Moorish soldiers and by both men and munitions from Italy and Germany, Franco gradually gained control of most of Spain. In December 1936, the seat of government was moved from Madrid to Valencia; then in October 1937, it was moved to Barcelona. With the fall of Barcelona, victory for the insurgents was inevitable. With Franco's government already recognized by England and France, the Loyalists in the spring of 1939 surrendered Madrid, their last stronghold.

The New Russia. A Bolshevist uprising in 1917 drove the last Romanov from the throne and set up a socialistic state, with Lenin and Trotsky as the leaders. Both have since died, Trotsky in exile; and Stalin became the leader. World opinion did not agree as to the success of the Russian experiment, but all watched with interest the Five Year Plan, a gigantic state-controlled scheme for the economic development of the country. Russian officials claimed success for the scheme and at once began a second Five Year Plan in 1933. The Communist party, which controls Russia, is hostile to religion. All the leading nations resumed diplomatic relations with Russia, the United States being the last power to do this (1933). Relations between Russia and Japan in the Far East became so strained, however, as to amount to actual hostilities at times, while Hitler for several years made no secret of his enmity for Russia and his designs on the Ukraine. The German-Italian-Japanese anti-Comintern pact also constituted a threat against Russia until the signing of the Soviet-German Non-Aggression Pact (1939). Soviet leaders, on the whole, abandoned earlier efforts to bring about a world revolution and cultivated friendlier relations with other nations.

The Reparations and War Debts Problems. If Germany was responsible for the war, then it followed that she should pay the bills. But Allied spokesmen at Versailles could not agree as to the amount Germany could or should pay. They appointed

a commission, therefore, to study the problem and report. After the United States entered the war she lent huge sums to her allies; money that was raised by the popular sale of bonds.

Progress Made by Conferences. The Dawes Plan, and later the Young Plan, provided ways and means for collecting reparations payments from Germany, but the Germans evaded payments with considerable success. Many finally became convinced that the terms were too harsh and should be made easier. In July 1932, at a conference in Lausanne, the total German indemnity still due was fixed at about \$750,000,000, to be paid in bonds. This was about one per cent of the amount originally demanded of Germany. European nations generally felt that the debts they owed to the United States should be cancelled, because that nation profited more and suffered less than her allies in the war, but the people of the United States were strongly opposed to cancellation. Debt agreements were reached between debtor and creditors whereby the sums were scaled down considerably and payments were arranged over a period of sixty-odd years. Most European nations, with the notable exception of Finland, defaulted their war debt payments after 1932, and it seemed unlikely that these obligations would ever be met in full. In reply Congress passed the Johnson Act (1934), which forbade defaulting nations to sell other securities in the United States.

The Sino-Japanese Trouble (1931-1939). In September 1931, on the plea that there was hostile agitation in many parts of China, and that Chinese bandits were especially active in Manchuria, the Japanese government sent troops into that region, captured it, and was shortly in full control. As Japan was a member of the League of Nations and a signatory power of the Paris Peace Pact (1928), she received protests from several member-states in both groups. She gave these protests scant attention beyond the usual diplomatic courtesy, and indicated that the occupied territory would be held. When China refused to consider peace (although war had not been declared) until Manchuria was evacuated, Japan sought to force the issue by invading Shanghai. This Chinese port of about one million inhabitants contained many foreigners and much foreign property; international complications, therefore, appeared imminent. But Japan had chosen

her moment well; the world was war weary, hence it resorted to nothing but diplomatic protests. Shanghai was captured after a costly siege. Manchuria was placed under the nominal sovereignty of the last member of the Manchu dynasty, whom the Japanese dominated; the region is therefore really under the control of Japan. Japanese armies overran large portions of North China, South China, and the sea coast areas and captured more than half of the Chinese Empire in population, if not in territory. To consolidate their gains they established a puppet government headed by Chinese officials in the conquered areas. The Chinese, aided by such munitions, money, and other help as they could secure from abroad, continued their resistance, under the leadership of General Chiang-kai-Shek. Upon the outbreak of World War II, American and British forces came to the aid of the Chinese, and China became a battle ground of that conflict.

The World-Wide Depression. For several years the world was in the grip of the severest economic disaster of modern times. It began in 1929 with the usual period of over-speculation; but a wave of fear, reaction, and falling prices soon followed. Consumption decreased and failed to keep pace with production, unemployment became general, factories decreased their output or closed, banks failed, credit contracted, and hoarding became general. A World Economic Conference met at London in 1933, but it accomplished little. President Roosevelt of the United States objected to any discussion of war debt cancellation and also refused to promise that the United States would soon return to the gold standard, which it had recently abandoned. This latter refusal virtually disrupted the work of the Conference. Many nations, especially the United States, have engaged in elaborate programs involving public works, unemployment relief, and other government aid projects, to combat the depression.

The New Germany. After more than a decade of unsuccessful effort, the National Socialist Party, led by Hitler, assumed power in Germany, with its fiery leader occupying the position of Chancellor and *Fuehrer* (or leader). This party was violently opposed to Communism, the Jews, and the Treaty of Versailles, and demanded that Germany be allowed immediate arms equality with other European nations. The new régime disbanded all other par-

ties, engaged in a bitter persecution of the Jews of Germany, and quit the League of Nations. Under Hitler's leadership, nationalism ran riot in Germany, Herr Hitler endeavoring to establish a national German church, which would include all denominations, but would exclude non-Aryans. Following a victory in the Saar plebiscite in January 1935, Germany — by instituting conscription — violated that clause of the Treaty of Versailles which limited her army to 100,000 men. Shortly after, Hitler and English statesmen reached an agreement providing that the German navy could have 35 per cent of the strength of the English navy, but with submarines not so limited. Still later, Germany, Italy, and Japan signed the anti-Comintern pact, but Japan refused to convert it into a military alliance.

Hitler and Mussolini. In an exchange of visits to Rome and Berlin, Hitler and Mussolini further developed their friendliness into the so-called Rome-Berlin Axis. This agreement, with Japan added, formed the basis for the Axis alliance of World War II.

INTERNATIONAL CRISES

Austria (1934-1939). German Nazi activities in Austria culminated in the brutal assassination of Dictator and Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss (1934). The stationing of troops at the frontier of Austria by Mussolini, combined with prompt measures of suppression by the new leader, Dr. Kurt Schuschnigg, prevented a Nazi coup at that time. Presently, however, Hitler reached an understanding with Mussolini whereby the Italian dictator agreed not to interfere; then he bided his time. His opportunity came when, in 1938, Schuschnigg attempted to hold a plebiscite or national election which would be so controlled as to mean a repudiation of Nazi activities in Austria. Hitler marched troops into the country, imprisoned Schuschnigg, and annexed the region to Germany.

Japan and the Far East. Upon publication of the Lytton Report which condemned her activities in Manchuria, Japan gave the customary two-year notice of withdrawal from the League of Nations. She demanded that the 5-5-3 naval ratio clause of the Washington Treaty (1921-1922) be changed to one

of equality, but the United States and England opposed this demand. Thereupon the Japanese delegates walked out of the Arms Reduction Conference at London (1936). They had already abrogated the naval ratio treaty.

The War in Ethiopia. Late in 1935 the Italian dictator, Mussolini, sent his troops into the African kingdom of Ethiopia, for the avowed purpose of conquering and annexing the territory. England regarded this action as a threat to her African interests, and the League of Nations looked upon it as an act of aggression. After vainly trying to settle the conflict and restore peace, the League voted to apply economic sanctions in accordance with Article XVI of the League Covenant. These sanctions did not extend to oil products and a few other vital articles, and largely for that reason they failed to stop the conflict. Italian armies soon conquered Ethiopia, and Mussolini added it to his empire.

The Czech Crisis and the Munich Accord. Czechoslovakia was made independent after the First World War. Included in her borders were the Sudeten Mountains. Hitler determined to acquire this region because three or four million Germans lived there, because he needed their valuable mineral resources, and because they constituted a barrier to German expansion eastward. Very skillfully the German press and propaganda machine, supported by the Sudeten Party in Czechoslovakia, conducted a vigorous campaign, first for Sudeten autonomy, then for annexation to Germany. The climax came with the annual German army maneuvers in August 1938, which Hitler used as a threat to invade the disputed areas.

Germany Annexes the Sudetenland. As Czechoslovakia had defensive alliances with France and Russia, with England as a possible supporter, and as Mussolini actively supported Hitler, another world war was in prospect. Prime Minister Chamberlain of England sought a conference to prevent this; and in October Hitler, Mussolini, Chamberlain, and Premier Daladier of France met at Munich and reached an agreement. As a result, Germany gained the Sudeten area, and Hungary and Poland also gained large slices of Czech territory. England and France signed peace

agreements with Germany and Italy, which apparently meant little, however, for the Rome-Berlin Axis continued to function, and Mussolini afterward demanded French territory.

Germany Establishes a Protectorate Over Bohemia and Moravia. Bohemia was the remnant of the state created in 1918 and called Czechoslovakia. Hitler surprised friends and foes when in March 1939, he suddenly invaded Bohemia with a German army and destroyed the new republic. At first, this region was not really annexed by Germany, but the Germans seized the famous Skoda munition factories and a large supply of gold owned by the government of Czechoslovakia. Later the Reich assumed a full protectorate over the country.

Germany Annexes Memel. Simultaneously with the final dismemberment of Czechoslovakia occurred the annexation by Germany of the city of Memel and vicinity. The population in this region was overwhelmingly German, as was the case of Danzig, which also used to belong to Germany.

QUESTIONS

1. Summarize the principal causes of the First World War.
2. Give substance of peace treaties that ended the First World War.
3. Name and discuss important general results of the First World War.
4. Discuss results of the: Washington Conference, Paris Peace Pacts, Locarno Pacts, London Conference, Geneva Conference.
5. Explain Reparations and War Debts problem; how related?
6. Describe the trouble between Japan and China (1931-1939).
7. Explain Russia's Five Year Plan.
8. Compare Bolshevism and Fascism in origin, principles, and achievements.
9. Identify: Mukden, Foch, Verdun, Brest-Litovsk, Prinkipo, Venizelos, Fiume, New Economic Policy, Mussolini, Stalin, Hitler, soviet, Gallipoli.

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Significant Dates

<i>Communist Manifesto</i>	1848
<i>Origin of Species</i>	1859
Abolition of Slavery in U. S.	1865
Special Theory of Relativity	1905

CHAPTER XXII

WESTERN CIVILIZATION SINCE THE NAPOLEONIC ERA

*Purpose: To Study the Development of Western
Civilization from 1815 to the Present.*

Since the outbreak of the French Revolution the forces of liberalism and reaction have carried on a terrific struggle for the control of various European and American states. At first it seemed as if democracy would achieve a victory in all the countries of western Europe. But before long, revolution was followed by a period of reaction, as we have seen. Then, after 1848, liberalism and democracy triumphed again and continued on their course toward ultimate victory until the outbreak of the First World War. But after this war such countries as Russia, Germany, and Italy witnessed in part a return to a former age, in which peoples had to be satisfied with a very small amount of civic and religious liberties. In the field of culture notable changes occurred, especially in science and in economic organization. Scientific discoveries and inventions, and the growth of mechanization of industry and society, challenged many hitherto dominant world-views and religious concepts.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS

Liberalism. During the nineteenth century in a number of important countries, such as Great Britain and Italy, as well as in Germany, there was a party called the Liberal Party. Until the end of the nineteenth century this party was everywhere very successful. It was supported by the members of the middle class, and it favored the end of advantages enjoyed by the privileged class, that is, the higher clergy and the nobility. It was this middle class that had organized and carried through a number of reforms that resulted from the French Revolution. Napoleon had maintained some of these reforms, although he had turned in the direction of conservatism. He had restored the titles of the nobility, he had made a reconciliation with the Pope, and he had also accepted for himself imperial powers and titles. From 1815 to 1848 the conservatives upon the whole were stronger than the liberals, but the revolution of 1848 was distinctly a triumph for the Liberal Party. The liberals advocated the freedom of religion, the freedom of speech, the freedom of the press, the franchise for the middle class, a more extensive system of public education, freedom of action for business, a reform in the criminal code, and the transfer of power and functions from clerical to secular bodies. The Liberal Party also exercised power in the realm of economics, where it insisted upon less interference by the government. The Liberals wanted a better distribution of wealth, but not so much for the benefit of the masses of the people. The same was true of the extension of the franchise. Strictly speaking, the Liberal Party was not in favor of real democracy. It also did not favor labor unions and political power exercised by labor leaders. Among the great leaders in economics were John Stuart Mill and Thomas Malthus.

The Victory of Democracy. The triumph of liberalism in 1848 was accompanied by a demand for universal suffrage, redistribution of seats for parliamentary members in Great Britain, the use of the secret ballot, and the abolition of property qualification for voters. These demands were expressed in Great Britain in the famous document called the Charter of 1848, thereby bestowing upon persons who supported this movement the name Chartists. At about the same time slavery was abolished in the

West Indies, Canada and other British dominions received home rule, the duty on imported grain in Great Britain was removed, France at last received a democratic government, the remnants of serfdom were removed in Austria and Hungary, the governments of Switzerland and Holland were reformed, and the kingdom of Prussia and the kingdom of Sardinia received constitutions. Slavery was abolished in the United States in 1865. The Third Reform Bill in 1884 so drastically changed the government of Great Britain that we may say that in this year it also became democratic. In 1918 women received the suffrage in Great Britain. About the same time similar privileges were accorded to women in other important countries. When in 1871 the German Empire was set up, the lower house in the new empire was so constituted that its members were to be elected by universal manhood suffrage. From 1848 to 1914 the forces of democracy were successful in a great many nations. Even autocratic Russia was feeling the rising tide of democracy in the West. We may safely conclude that, if the World War had not broken out in 1914, such countries as Germany and Russia would today enjoy a large measure of democracy.

Continued Growth of Nationalism. In the Balkan peninsula, Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria, Rumania, Montenegro, and Albania became independent states (1827-1914). In 1830 Belgium started a revolution which gave her an independent government nine years later. In 1905 Norway also became an independent nation. After a long struggle for what was called Home Rule in Ireland, a bill was enacted in 1910 which was intended to introduce such rule. Before it was put into actual operation the First World War broke out, and after that war Ireland, with the exception of the northeastern corner called Ulster, became a commonwealth in the British Empire, but not yet an entirely independent state. Nationalism was also very strong among the Slavic peoples, and achieved its day of victory at the close of World War I, when Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia were made independent states. At the same time Rumania and Greece were enlarged. Furthermore, on the eastern shore of the Baltic Sea a number of new states were carved out of the western portion of Russia. In such countries as Finland and Lithuania, nationalism also achieved a signal victory. Another symptom of the nationalist trend was the

interest in national languages. The name of Norway's capital was changed from Christiania to Oslo, and Constantinople was renamed Istanbul. The Flemings in northern Belgium became very active in seeking equality with the French-speaking Walloons to the south. The Irish have shown their independence by cultivating their literary language. Even in the tiny kingdom of the Netherlands one of the eleven provinces returned to its ancient language, that is, the Frisian language of old. In Canada the inhabitants of French descent have stubbornly clung to the customs and language of their ancestors in France.

The rising tide of nationalism was also to be seen in Africa and Asia. In South Africa the natives of Dutch descent became strongly attached to their literary language, Afrikaans. In India many leaders sought to obtain complete independence from Great Britain. A movement grew up to unify China as a nation. The nineteenth century, as we saw, brought independence to all the important states of South and Central America.

SOCIAL MOVEMENTS

The Beginnings of Socialism. Socialism was a movement intended to improve the conditions of the laboring classes in the cities. It resulted from the dreadful conditions that prevailed during the first half century of the Industrial Revolution. Many owners of factories continued to exploit the workmen who had flocked in from the country to find better economic conditions for their respective families. Not only were living conditions far from healthful in those early times, but women used to work in the mines, and boys and girls in the factories. For that reason the British government was induced in 1833 to pass the celebrated Factory Act. This act prohibited the working of children in the factories. Furthermore, the Mining Act, passed in 1842, prohibited the working of women and children in the mines. But not in all cases did governments show such enlightened policies, and not in all cases would employers become charitable and kind to the workers. For that reason certain leaders originated from the masses. One of these was the French socialist Louis Blanc, who tried to establish state socialism. For a short while the French government instituted the so-called "national workshops."

Marxism. *The Communist Manifesto.* This treatise was published in 1848 by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, advocating a radical form of socialism. They suggested that all means of production, that is, all mines, all utilities, all modes of transportation, all farms, all stores, all factories, and all offices were to be owned collectively by the public at large. Marx's most important work, *Capital*, gives an economic interpretation of history in terms of the economic factor as determinative of all political and social change. It sees the history of society as a "class struggle" between capitalists and workers, and favors the development of a socialist society, the "dictatorship of the proletariat." This book forms the theoretical basis of Russian Communism.

The Founding of the Socialist Democratic Party. In 1875 a German Jew called Ferdinand Lassalle founded a new socialistic party, which was united with the Marxian Socialists to form the very powerful party called the Socialist Democratic Party. It was this party in Germany which compelled Bismarck to institute a number of important social reforms. In the Scandinavian countries this party was also in operation, while the same was true of France, Great Britain, Belgium, and the Netherlands. But in Great Britain the party operated under another name, that is, the Labor Party.

Experimental Socialism. There were many varieties of socialism in the nineteenth century, and some thinkers attempted to put their ideas into practice by establishing small idealistic communities, particularly in America, such as the famous Brook Farm in Massachusetts.

Syndicalism. Radical socialists recommended that the labor unions should take over the factories from the owners and run them for themselves. These groups of laborers would be called syndicates, and from among their own ranks would appoint superintendents. This idea was put into active operation in Italy during the year 1919, when the radical socialists, led by such men as Mussolini, first sat down at work in the factories of northern Italy, to the number of half a million men, and then seized the management of these factories. But the movement was

put down in 1921, and its failure enabled Mussolini to lead the country into Fascism.

Anarchism. The word "anarchism" infers that a person does not believe in any government at all. Anarchists want to overthrow all governments in existence at the time, and they say with the radical socialists that private property is no more than a form of theft. One of their leaders was the famous Russian writer Tolstoy.

The Coöperative Movement. In many countries of the western world it was deemed desirable by various classes of thinkers to do away with the ownership of factories and stores and farms. These thinkers thought that it would be more economical to have such means of production controlled entirely by the men who worked in them or by the consumers of the products. In the Scandinavian countries the coöperative movement achieved a considerable success, but in others it dwindled from time to time. In some of the American states it also has become a failure. One disadvantage of the coöperative movement is the difficulty of securing honest and efficient management; another is the difficulty of dealing with the complexity of mass production and distribution in modern society.

State Socialism. In some European countries the government took over the management of the utilities, and also began to control the railroads and the mines. In other countries government and private capital coöperated, so that the government would own some of the railroads and mines, and private capital would own the rest. In this manner effective competition often resulted. This is particularly the case in the kingdom of the Netherlands, where one-half of the railroads and mines were owned by the government, and the other half by private capital. As a rule European governments own the telegraph and telephone systems. In many cases also the governments have instituted the dole system, and they have found work for men who need employment. Government-operated insurance for old age, sickness, unemployment, and accidents is also very common in various European and American countries.

Labor Unions and Collective Bargaining. At the close of the nineteenth century the countries of western Europe witnessed the formation of huge labor unions, which were able to carry on collective bargaining with the employers of the respective workmen. Upon the whole these labor unions flourished, and the general public assumed that the labor movement was inevitable and upon the whole desirable. In the United States, on the other hand, business men did not generally see why socialism was a necessity in America. They reasoned that without labor unions and without state socialism the United States had become the most prosperous state in the world. On the other hand, in recent years the demand for social justice and collective bargaining has been so strong that the government has taken various measures to satisfy this demand. The Wagner Labor Act and the New Deal reforms exemplify this trend.

COMMUNISM AND FASCISM

The Establishment of Bolshevism in Russia. When in the course of 1917 the Russian government was overthrown, owing in part to the defeat administered to the Russian armies by the Germans, a number of political parties strove for the control of the national government. For a time it appeared as if the Liberals would be able to assume control of the national government, but presently the radical socialists established the dictatorship of their own party. Their desire was, as expressed in the *Communist Manifesto*, to "bring about the dictatorship of the proletariat." They were led by Lenin, a Marxian Socialist. Another important official among the Bolsheviks was Leon Trotsky, the Commissar for Foreign Affairs. (The name "Bolsheviki" means the majority party.) Before long they made it impossible for any other political party to function in Russia.

The Dictatorship of the Proletariat in Operation. Under the new government the members of the clergy, the former nobility, the middle class, and all others who did not favor Communism were deprived of the franchise. Moreover, it was decreed that laborers in the city had more political power than the peasants out in the country. The real government of Soviet Russia was a small council of officials called the Council of People's Com-

missars. They in turn were led by a dictator, the first of whom was Lenin; when he died in 1924 he was succeeded by Stalin, whose name means *man of steel*. He removed from his path all rivals of whom he was afraid. Among these was Trotsky himself, who was banished from Russia. All the privately owned means of production were confiscated by the Communists. They cancelled the public debt, and they inflated the currency until it became absolutely worthless. Under the so-called Five Year Plan (1928-1933) a great deal was accomplished in the economic field. Russia had been very slow to follow the lead of the western countries in the field of the Industrial Revolution. But now, imbued with a desire to overcome the initial handicap, the Communists set about very seriously to have large numbers of factories built and railroads constructed. Peasants were forced to work on coöperative farms, or rather collective farms. They had to coöperate with each other and harvest the crops together. The Communists were very successful in extending the elementary public school system. On the other hand, in order to achieve their economic, political, and social goals, they thought it necessary to abolish freedom of speech, of the press, and of religion. The Russian Orthodox Church was at first suppressed. Later it was again recognized, but deprived of its educational and charitable functions. The family as a social unit was considered as subordinate to the state.

The Rise of Fascism in Italy. The Fascists originated in 1921 when the great sit-down strike of 1920 was put down by conservative elements. The moderate Socialists rallied under Mussolini, and began to coöperate with the business leaders. Many of the original leaders were war veterans, having organized into groups called *fasci*, wearing black shirts. Their bitter opponents in the civil war of 1921 were the Communists, who had been back of the sit-down movement. Rome was seized by the Fascists in the year 1922, but King Victor Emmanuel III retained his royal title. Mussolini was now called the "Leader," or in Italian *Il Duce*. He did away with local government, placing in each city a governor in charge of municipal affairs. Like the Communists in Russia, the Fascists tried with all their means to improve economic conditions, in which they succeeded. They built magnificent roads,

greatly reduced the number of beggars, improved public hygiene, increased the productivity of the soil, and enlarged the great cities of Italy.

The Fascist Regime. Mussolini soon became absolute dictator. No political party was permitted to function except that of the Fascists, and in 1936 Mussolini did away with the Chamber of Deputies, the national legislature representing the Italian people. Opponents of the state were ruthlessly suppressed by violent methods. Mussolini abrogated the rights of freedom of speech and of the press but not that of religion. Unlike Communism and Nazism, Fascism did not oppose the Christian church; instruction in the Christian religion was made compulsory in the public schools, and in 1929 the Pope was recognized as sovereign of Vatican City. The economic organization was put under strict government control. All workmen were organized into official unions, with radical elements outlawed and strikes practically prohibited. Business men were also organized into unions and subjected to state regulation. Both employers and employees became vassals of the state.

Nazism in Germany. Shortly after the close of the First World War, Germany became a republic, and it seemed as if the American people had succeeded in their crusade to "make the world safe for democracy." Emperors and kings had been removed from their thrones, new constitutions had been formed in several new states, the franchise was extended, and many new civil rights were accorded to the subjects of Germany. But when the great economic depression of 1929 arrived in Germany, economic conditions became so bad that it seemed impossible to carry on under a democratic form of government, which appeared to the Germans too clumsy and inefficient. Besides, the Treaty of Versailles was held to be grossly unfair to the Germans, who had been deprived of their merchant marine, their army, their navy, and their air force. They had also lost their colonies abroad and many valuable European territories. So in their hour of distress they rallied behind a political leader called Adolf Hitler. In 1933 he became Chancellor, while soon thereafter he abolished the republican form of government and assumed dictatorial powers for himself. He also removed all political parties from Germany except his own, that is, the Nazis. (The word "Nazi" is an abbreviation for the

National Socialistic Party in Germany.) Local self-government was abolished in Germany, as it had been in Italy under Mussolini's leadership. The state took over absolute control of all political, economic, social, and religious matters, using terrorism to promote its aims. The educational system stressed loyalty to the state, militarism, and belief in the superiority of the German or Aryan "race." Jews, Communists, and all political opponents of Nazism were brutally persecuted. A national church was established, and regarded as a branch of the government; its doctrine claimed to be Christian but stressed nationalism and repudiated all Jewish elements in Christianity.

Comparison of Nazism and Communism. Although the Nazis claimed that only their philosophy could defeat Communism, there were certain superficial similarities between the two systems of government. Both accepted the doctrine of state absolutism, and both condemned the traditional forms of political and economic organization in western countries. Both imposed certain restrictions upon civil liberties and upon property rights as formerly protected by most civilized nations. But apart from the partial similarity in governmental form, the ideologies of the two differed widely, and the dissimilarity in the historical background of Germany and Russia makes a valid comparison impossible.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN THE FIELDS OF SCIENCE AND RELIGION

Physics. Physics is a relatively new science, but during the past hundred years it has made tremendous strides forward. Especially notable has been the development of the new theory of matter. As early as the eighteenth century it had been shown by a great French scientist called Lavoisier that matter is indestructible. In the middle of the nineteenth century physicists proved that energy remains constant and that it is always perfectly conserved. Very remarkable have been the discoveries in the study of the atom and its structure, culminating in the use of atomic fission in the atom bomb. Einstein's revolutionary *Special Theory of Relativity* was published in 1905. The great progress in electrical research is evidenced by the work of such scientists as Marconi and Edison.

Chemistry. Chemistry has become one of the most profitable fields of research, because it has aided both agriculture and industry. New fertilizers have been perfected for the farmers, new artificial dyes have been produced, and many new chemical elements have been developed. For example, it has become possible to produce more than 300,000 compounds of carbon with other elements. Extraordinary progress has also been made in the textile industries, owing to the research done by scientists. This is especially true of the work done in the rubber industry and in the manufacture of rayon.

The Natural Sciences. As a result in part of the new interest shown in science during the second half of the eighteenth century, zoologists and botanists increased in number by leaps and bounds. Much interesting work was done in the perfection of new plants and in the breeding of animals. Darwin's *Origin of Species*, in which he presented his epoch-making theory of evolution, was published in 1859.

Applied Science. The number and variety of scientific inventions produced during this period revolutionized the world we live in. Transportation and communications have seen the introduction of automobile, airplane, steamship, railroad, telephone, telegraph, radio — producing an enormous “shrinking” of our world. Electric lighting, heating, and refrigeration have transformed the home. Movies and television have added new dimensions to our entertainment. The list of mechanical inventions and uses of applied chemistry seems inexhaustible. New weapons and military devices have changed the fundamental nature of modern warfare.

Psychology and Medicine. Both psychology and psychiatry have made great strides in the past fifty years. Hand in hand with the medical expert, who has extended the average life of human beings, has alleviated the pains in childbirth, has made use of anaesthetics, and has made a very careful study of the nature of various germs that have caused many diseases in the past, the psychologists and the philosophers have seen a close relation between functions of a normal body and a normal mind, and, conversely, of an abnormal body and an abnormal mind.

The Social Sciences. In history, economics, sociology, political science, geography, and anthropology much progress has also been made. This has been especially true in the field of archeology, so that now we know much more about ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia than scholars did during the nineteenth century.

Religion. On the one hand, a great many denominations of Christianity have seen the attendance at churches dwindle away. Many ministers have sought to modernize the church by discussing social and economic problems. On the other hand, certain religious denominations have turned to the religious standards of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries for a revival of orthodox Christianity. Among the ranks of the Roman Catholics there have been repeated revivals and returns to the standards of the Middle Ages. Considerable advance was made during this period in the field of Biblical criticism or interpretation, inspired in part by the controversy over the significance of the evolution theory. Scientific explanations were sought also for the miracles of the Bible, and for modern seemingly miraculous cures and other spiritual phenomena.

Church and State. In 1864 Pope Pius IX issued the encyclical *Syllabus of Errors*, in which he condemned liberal religious and social views, and denied the supremacy of the state over the Church. In 1870 the Vatican Council decreed the doctrine of the infallibility of the Pope. This provoked Bismarck to enact a number of anti-Catholic measures, constituting the so-called *Kulturkampf* ("struggle for civilization"). But under the conciliatory Pope Leo XIII tension relaxed and Bismarck withdrew some of his decrees.

LITERATURE AND ART

Romanticism. The first half of the nineteenth century is the period of the "Romantic movement" in literature. Generally speaking, the Romantic writers were individualists who ignored the established artistic rules and forms of the "Classical" eighteenth century and who placed greater faith in the imagination. Their writings are characterized by an intense interest in the society of the past — particularly of the Middle Ages, which they depict as

adventurous, glamorous, and mysterious. Among the Continental Romanticists are Goethe (author of *Faust*), Schiller, and Heine. Among the English ones are Wordsworth and Coleridge (whose *Lyrical Ballads*, 1798, is said to have established the movement), Byron, Shelley, Keats, and Scott.

Realism. The second half of the century shows a trend toward realism. Authors emphasize less the adventurous and the imaginative; they turn from the glamorous past toward the facts of contemporary life. *Les Miserables* by Victor Hugo and some of the novels of Dickens and Thackeray reflect the change. There is a growing attempt among writers to record all aspects of society with scientific accuracy. Among the most realistic authors may be mentioned the French "naturalists" Flaubert and Zola, the Norwegian dramatist Ibsen, and the English novelist Thomas Hardy. The realistic tendency has continued into our own day, and literature has become to some extent an instrument for social criticism.

Music. Music, too, expresses the spirit of the Romantic period. Individualism is apparent in the great diversity of styles and the emotional expression of personal feeling among the various composers. The love of the past — of medieval subjects — is evident in the operas and songs of the nineteenth century. The beginning of the period is represented by Beethoven; and most of the great composers are German, French, Italian, or Russian — not English or American. Among leading composers of opera are Wagner, Gounod, Donizetti, Verdi, and Moussorgsky. In piano music Liszt and Chopin are well known. Among the composers of Romantic symphonies are Schubert, Schumann, Brahms, and Tschaikovsky. Toward the end of the century and in our own period new trends are seen in the works of Stravinsky, Schönberg, and other pioneers. Even American jazz and Latin American rhythms begin to make an impression upon serious compositions.

The Fine Arts. The nineteenth and twentieth centuries have seen the development of several schools of painting, including the Romantic (Millet, Corot); the Impressionistic, which stressed color effects particularly (Manet, Degas, Monet, Renoir); the Post-Impressionistic or Expressionistic, which trended away from

realistic or imitative treatment (Cézanne, Picasso, Van Gogh, Matisse); and the more radical Abstractionist, Cubist, and Surrealist styles. Similar stylistic trends were reflected in the sculpture of the period. The outstanding developments in architecture were the evolution of the skyscraper and the increasing stress on functionalism.

QUESTIONS

1. Define Liberalism and describe the aims of the Liberal Party.
2. Name three great Liberal statesmen of the nineteenth century.
3. Trace the progress of democracy in Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy.
4. Distinguish between moderate and radical Socialism.
5. What did the British government do for the protection of the workers in the factories and the mines?
6. Describe Marxian Socialism and the principles enunciated in the *Communist Manifesto*.
7. Compare syndicalism with anarchism.
8. Mention the good and bad points in Fascism and Communism.
9. Distinguish between the Nazis and the Fascists.
10. Who are the Modernists and the Fundamentalists?
11. Describe the Darwinian theory of evolution.
12. Are religion and science naturally opposed to each other?
13. Describe the *Kulturkampf*.
14. Discuss recent progress made in physics, chemistry, medicine, the natural and the social sciences.
15. What are Romanticism and Realism in literature?
16. Name six great musicians in the period since 1815.

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Significant Dates

Start of Second World War	1939
Fall of France	1940
German Invasion of Russia	1941
Pearl Harbor: U. S. in War	1941
Battle for North Africa	1942-1943
Surrender of Italy	1943
Surrender of Germany and Japan	1945

CHAPTER XXIII

THE SECOND WORLD WAR AND AFTER

Purpose: To Trace the Events of the Second World War and the Post-War Problems

BEGINNINGS

The Rise of Hitler. The injustices of the Treaty of Versailles, plus the inability of the Weimar government in Germany to function properly during the depression of 1929-1933, made possible the coming to power of a new world figure, Adolf Hitler. Beginning as the leader of a minor party shortly after the close of the World War, he gradually gained so many followers that he became Chancellor of Germany in 1933. Upon the death of the aged President, Hindenburg, Hitler also became President. Afterward in rapid succession he secured the return of the Saar valley to Germany, refortified and occupied the Rhine territory which by the Treaty of Versailles had been demilitarized, and caused the Reich to withdraw from the League of Nations.

Diplomatic Preliminaries. The German annexation of Austria and the diplomatic triumph of Hitler at Munich were

soon followed by the absorption of Czechoslovakia. Great Britain and France now determined to stop the rapid German expansion in Europe. They entered into agreements to defend by force of arms the independence and existing territorial integrity of Poland, Rumania, and other small nations. Choosing Poland as the next victim, the German political leaders now launched a propaganda campaign against that nation. At first they demanded the return to Germany of Danzig and the Polish Corridor, but later they also demanded the return of all Polish territory that had been in Germany before 1919. English diplomats sought to secure Russian adherence to a three power military alliance designed to stop Germany, but the Germans beat the English to an alliance by signing with the Russians a non-aggression pact that evidently contained secret articles providing for a partition of Poland and a renunciation of German designs on Russian territory. The Japanese took offense at this blow against the anti-Comintern Pact, but they finally agreed to a truce in the border warfare along the Siberian-Manchukuo line. Thus relieved of the fear of Russian interference, the Japanese redoubled their efforts to end the "Chinese incident."

The Declaration of War. The Poles, encouraged by Anglo-French support, rejected German demands for territory, whereupon German troops occupied Danzig and invaded Poland. After the Germans had ignored a British ultimatum to evacuate Poland, both England and France declared war; and most of the British Dominions and important colonies indicated support of the mother country.

THE BLITZKRIEG TRIUMPHANT

By skillfully coördinating air power, mechanized units, artillery, and rapid troop movements, the Germans almost won the war in the first two years of fighting, and seemed to have the continent of Europe at their mercy. It was not until their foes gathered strength and experience that they were finally stopped in the vastnesses of Russia.

The Conquest of Poland. German forces swept into Poland and in three weeks of September 1939, conquered about one-third of the country. The capital, Warsaw, held out longer, but in

the end it too fell. Russian armies also entered Poland from the east, while England and France looked on helplessly, unable to send aid. In the treaty of September 28, 1939, Russia took all Polish land east of the Bug river, and Germany took the rest. Some government officials and a few military and naval units escaped to set up a government in exile in London, or to continue fighting. Hitler then offered peace to the Allies on the basis of the status quo in Poland, but they rejected his offer.

Conquests in Western Europe. Meanwhile rival Anglo-French and German armies had begun operations along the French Maginot Line and the German Siegfried Line. On April 9, 1940, the Nazis marched into Denmark and established without bloodshed a protective custody over that country. Then, aided by Norwegian pro-Nazis, German troops conquered Norway and much of France, but most of the English army was evacuated from Dunkirk and reached England in safety. Next the victorious Germans rapidly overran the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxemburg, and France. The French signed an armistice on June 21, which left Paris and northern France in German hands, but provided for a French Fascist government at Vichy under Laval and Pétain. General Charles de Gaulle formed the so-called Free French government at London. Neither the Germans nor the Vichy government had control of French Africa. The British destroyed part of the French fleet at Oran, a few vessels joined the Allied forces, and later the rest were scuttled to keep the Germans from capturing them.

The Battle for Britain. Triumphant over France, the German *Luftwaffe* now sought to bomb England into submission, preparatory to a full-scale invasion of the British Isles. But the Royal Air Force repelled the invaders. London and other English towns were badly damaged, but England was saved. On the seas the British navy fought the German submarines, which were intent on destroying English merchant ships, neutral shipping, and naval units. The British suffered tremendous losses from German and Italian attacks, for Italy had entered the war in June 1940, as an ally of Germany. But the United States furnished ships and supplies to England and finally entered the war with her. By 1944, the submarine menace over, the Allies controlled European waters.

The Russo-Finnish War. After the fall of Poland the Finns rejected Russian demands for territory in southern Finland, whereupon Russian forces invaded that country. For 105 days the Finns made a heroic stand against mighty Russia, with the support of public opinion in Allied countries. Finally, in March 1940, the Finns were compelled to submit to a humiliating peace treaty. After Germany made war on Russia, Finland became a German ally. Later, however, the pro-German government was replaced by a pro-Russian one, and with the aid of the Russians the German troops were driven out in 1944.

The Fall of Greece. Anxious to emulate Hitler's conquests, Mussolini called upon the Greeks to grant privileges which virtually meant their loss of independence. When the Greeks rejected the demands, Italian troops began the war. For six months the surprising Greeks held the Italians at bay in Albania. The British sent aid to the Greeks, and Hitler likewise aided the Italians. He had already made a pact with Bulgaria and had conquered much of Yugoslavia, when it had refused likewise to submit. With the road to Greece thus cleared, German forces defeated British and Greek armies and soon became masters of Greece and nearby Crete.

THE BLITZKRIEG IN TROUBLE

The Russo-German Pact. The Allies had ignored Stalin in making the Pact of Munich and had condemned him for invading Finland. They now tried to form an alliance with him, but Hitler prevented this from occurring. In August 1939, the two dictators signed a non-aggression pact. As a result, Russia gained large military, naval, and political concessions in Lithuania, Estonia, Latvia, Poland, and the Balkans; and Hitler was made temporarily secure against a two-front war.

The War in Russia. However, Communism and Nazism were still potential foes, and Russia blocked German expansion to the East. Moreover, Russia was gaining without bloodshed as much as was Germany through war. War seemed inevitable, and on June 22, 1941, Hitler's forces invaded Russia on the claim that Russia had violated her pact with Germany. German armies advanced over a wide front, ranging from Leningrad to Kiev. The Russians lost valuable territory, and both sides suffered huge

casualties. A Russian winter counter-offensive regained some lost ground, but in the spring and summer of 1942 the Germans again surged forward. They captured other territory including Sevastopol and Rostov, but they failed to take Stalingrad or Leningrad. A second Russian winter offensive, 1942-43, put the Germans definitely on the defensive. The drive of 1944-45 swept across Poland and took the Silesian industrial region and Memel. By February 1945, Russia had invaded Germany and was threatening Berlin.

The War in Africa. In the fall of 1940 the Italians started a campaign in Africa, but British forces defeated them in Eastern Libya. The Nazis came to their aid, and the British were forced out of Libya. However, the Italians lost Ethiopia late in May 1941, and Haile Selassie was restored to his throne. In the fall of 1941 the British were again victorious in Libya, but the German general Rommel struck back and was not stopped until he had reached El Alamein, seventy miles from Alexandria. In November 1942, the British general Montgomery, aided by American forces, resumed the offensive and did not stop until the enemy had been cleared from African soil.

The War in Italy. Combined English, American, and French African forces now invaded and captured Sicily and continued up the Italian peninsula. By the beginning of 1945 they had reached northern Italy and had established an anti-Fascist government in the liberated regions. Benito Mussolini, shorn of his power, had managed to escape to the shelter of the German army, but he was later caught and executed.

The Liberation of France. After long preparation, American and British forces, on June 6, 1944, landed in Normandy, and later in southern France from the Mediterranean. After stubborn fighting they broke the German defenses and by the fall had recovered virtually all of France and Belgium, much of the Netherlands, and portions of western Germany. However, the Germans managed to stabilize their lines behind the Siegfried Line, and before the end of the year to start a counter-offensive in Belgium.

The War in the Balkans. With the Balkan states conquered or unwilling allies, Germany seemed to be triumphant in

that area. However, General Tito kept up guerrilla opposition in Yugoslavia, and with the fall of Italy and the advance of Russia, the German position there grew desperate. The Germans withdrew from Greece, and British occupation troops tried to restore order and end disputes between rival political factions. In December 1944, the king of Greece agreed to the formation of a regency.

Help from the United States. From the first, American sympathy was with the Allied powers, and the "cash and carry" policy furnished the British many supplies. Later America traded fifty old destroyers to England for leases on naval and air bases in western waters. American troops also occupied Iceland and Greenland, thus releasing British units for action elsewhere. In August 1941, Roosevelt and Churchill drew up the so-called Atlantic Charter, an eight-point statement of peace aims. President Roosevelt later stated that the post-war world must have freedom of speech and expression, freedom of religion, freedom from want, and freedom from fear. In December 1941, Churchill visited the United States, which had then entered the war. President Roosevelt recognized the exiled governments of conquered nations. Meanwhile, under lend-lease, huge quantities of war materials and food were reaching allied nations from American sources.

THE WAR IN THE FAR EAST

Strained United States-Japanese Relations. In 1931 Japanese forces entered Manchuria and in 1937 began an undeclared war on China proper. The League of Nations condemned the Manchuria action, whereupon Japan quit that organization. Seeking friends elsewhere, Japan entered the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis, in which the three powers recognized Japan's interests in China, Italy's in Ethiopia, and Germany's in Czechoslovakia and Austria. Later they pledged mutual aid if the United States should enter the Second World War. Thereupon England pledged aid to the United States if Japan attacked her. Gradually the United States stopped selling munitions to Japan but attempted to appease her. Japan established a protectorate over French Indo-China (1940), and over Thailand (1941), thus threatening the East Indies and nearby regions. The new Premier, Tojo, was warlike in his utterances, but a Japanese envoy, Saburo Kuruusu, was sent to Washington for a peaceful settlement.

Pearl Harbor. Even as he talked, Japanese carrier-based planes attacked Pearl Harbor, December 7, 1941, and other Japanese forces likewise attacked the Philippines, other American islands, Malaya, and Hong Kong. These surprise attacks were uniformly successful.

Declarations of War. The day after the Pearl Harbor attack Congress declared war on Japan, and England followed the American example. Italy and Germany soon declared themselves into the struggle. On all sides war preparations were speeded, and on January 2, 1942, twenty-six nations pledged to fight against the Axis until victory. But the initial Japanese successes continued for a while. They took Manila, Singapore, the Sumatra oil fields, Java, Burma, New Guinea, the Andaman islands, and the Solomons; and after four months of fighting they captured the fortress of Corregidor and captured or dispersed General MacArthur's men on Bataan Peninsula. Colonel Doolittle's air raid over Tokyo was the only blot on the Japanese record of land successes.

American Naval Victories. It did not take the American navy long, however, to begin giving a good account of itself. In the battles of the Coral Sea and Midway, severe losses were inflicted on the enemy. The Japanese fleet landed troops on the islands of Kiska, Attu, and Agattu, in the Aleutians, but American forces later regained these areas. Further American victories were gained off the island of Saipan (1944), and Americans inflicted heavy damage on the enemy in the landings of MacArthur's army on the islands of Leyte and Mindoro, in the Philippines. The American fleet also aided the army in making landings on New Guinea, the Solomon islands, New Georgia, the Gilbert and Marshall islands, and elsewhere. American submarines were taking a huge toll of Japanese merchant ships, and carrier-based planes bombarded Truk, Formosa, Manchuria, Malaya, and Japan itself. By the end of 1944 an independent British fleet was also operating in Pacific Far Eastern waters.

The Road Back to Tokyo. After much see-saw fighting in Burma, British and American forces recovered portions of Burma and opened the Ledo Road to China. The Japanese, on the other hand, struck from bases in Southern Asia northward and threatened to sever connections between Eastern China and Chungking,

and even to threaten capture of that capital city. Huge American bombers, the B-29's, struck Japanese war industries with increasing effectiveness in the latter months of 1944. That same period also witnessed the return of American armies to Leyte and Mindoro, central islands in the Philippines group. All Japanese efforts to reënforce the besieged islands proved ineffective, and in making them the enemy suffered heavy losses. American bombings of the Manila area indicated an early attack on the Philippine capital; and in February 1945, Americans took the city. Meanwhile New Guinea was already in Allied hands, and large Allied forces were collected in India for a drive on Burma and China.

OTHER PHASES OF THE STRUGGLE

The Supply Problem. To transport men and supplies for fighting a war in the far-off Pacific was a huge task, and to furnish food, clothing, and war munitions to English and Russian allies was a solemn duty, so far as the United States was concerned. To build the largest navy and merchant fleet in the history of the world, and to recruit, arm, and train the second largest army was another task which America met. She did a record task in producing munitions of war: aircraft, oil, merchant ships, guns — in fact all kinds of war materials. Much of this went to Russia, England, and other Allies in the form of lend-lease supplies.

Conferences of Allied Powers. To make general plans for both war and peace, Allied leaders held a number of conferences. As previously mentioned, Roosevelt and Churchill held one in the north Atlantic and drafted the so-called Atlantic Charter, even before Pearl Harbor. In 1942, Churchill visited Canada and the United States, where the North African campaign was planned. At Casablanca (January 1943) plans were made to settle the De Gaulle-Giraud trouble and to invade Sicily and Italy. At Quebec (August 1943), Roosevelt and Churchill planned closer collaboration with Russia. This bore fruit in the Moscow Pact (November 1943), in which the three powers agreed to joint action in making war and peace and in forming an international organization to preserve peace. In December 1943, Roosevelt, Churchill, and Chiang Kai-shek met at Cairo and planned to take care of Japan during and after the war. In that same month Stalin met with Roosevelt and Churchill at Teheran and made further plans for military operations.

A second Churchill-Roosevelt meeting was held at Quebec, and at Dumbarton Oaks (near Washington) delegates of the principal Allied powers drew plans for an international organization to function after the war. At Yalta (1945) Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin made final plans for victory and peace.

The Home Fronts. In all the warring countries, universal military conscription was practiced, and voluntary units of women in uniform were organized. Civilians were encouraged or compelled to take jobs essential to the prosecution of the war. Priorities were established on needed war materials, and many ordinary peacetime items were no longer available to civilians. A bewildering number of regulations appeared governing defense activities, with government boards to operate them. Hitherto unheard-of sums were voted to prosecute the war, and taxes were raised again and again to furnish part of the money.

Inter-American Unity. President Roosevelt extended the Good Neighbor Policy to include economic, political, and military collaboration with Latin America. A number of conferences were held in Buenos Aires (1936), Lima (1938), Panama (1939), Havana (1940), and Rio de Janeiro (1942). In these conferences the United States tried to convince the Latin American republics that she cherished no aggressive designs, and they in turn concluded a number of agreements looking to closer cooperation. When the United States acquired naval bases in the western world she made them available to the naval forces of Latin American states. All of the Latin American countries participated in the Second World War as belligerents against one or more of the Axis powers and contributed much to victory, including military bases, economic cooperation, and armed forces.

THE END OF THE WAR

In Europe. American and British forces soon stopped the German counter-offensive in Belgium and pushed on into Germany. In the east, Russian forces swept on relentlessly, finally capturing Vienna, Warsaw, Budapest, and Berlin. The German hold on Scandinavia crumbled; and under the Allied formula of "unconditional surrender," German forces disintegrated and both they and their homeland were captured. Hitler was reported to have committed suicide. V-E Day came on May 8, 1945,

In the Far East. Following the refusal of the Japanese to surrender "or be utterly destroyed," American planes dropped two new and powerful atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Shortly after this, the Soviet Union declared war on Japan, and Red armies rapidly began to overrun Japanese-occupied areas bordering Siberia. The Japanese Emperor thereupon surrendered all his armed forces to General MacArthur on V-J Day, September 2, 1945. In both Europe and the Far East it took some time to round up the scattered remnants of the enemy's forces, but the process went on rapidly. Thus did the greatest war in history come to a close.

POST-WAR PROBLEMS

Former Enemy Countries. Germany and Austria were divided into zones, occupied by the Soviet Union, the United States, Britain, and France. West Germany and Austria regained sovereignty as republics in 1955, but East Germany remained under Soviet control. Japan, having reformed its government under the supervision of the United States, regained sovereignty in 1952. The Emperor kept his throne, but his powers were limited.

International Problems. There was a reshifting of the balance of power among the Big Five (the United States, the Soviet Union, Britain, France, and China). Due to the devastation of war, Britain and France were unable to meet their former commitments; China was torn by civil strife; thus the United States and the Soviet Union emerged as the dominant nations. Basic disagreements between the two powers repeatedly came to light in the United Nations and the meetings of foreign ministers. In 1947 the "Truman Doctrine" made clear the intention of the United States to protect independent nations against Communist aggression. This policy was implemented by the Marshall Plan to provide financial aid to European nations that cooperated in a reconstruction program. (Such aid was continued in other forms after the expiration of the Marshall Plan in 1951.) In 1949 the North Atlantic Treaty Organization was established to provide for collective defense among West European and North American nations. The Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (created in 1954) had the same aim for the Pacific region. Meanwhile the Soviet Union had secured domination of Eastern and Central

Europe by setting up Communist satellite governments there. After the death of Stalin in 1953, Soviet leaders Bulganin and Khrushchev continued a general policy of hostility towards the West. The tension was somewhat abated by the Summit Conference at Geneva (July, 1955), in which the leaders of the United States, England, France, and the Soviet Union participated. But there was no agreement on concrete measures to end the cold war.

Domestic Problems. In the United States Harry S. Truman succeeded to the presidency upon the death of Roosevelt in 1945 and was elected in his own right three years later. Much of his Fair Deal reform program, however, was blocked by Congress. In 1952 and again in 1956, Republican Dwight D. Eisenhower was elected as a "moderate conservative." In England a Labour government, headed by Clement Attlee, displaced the Churchill-led Conservative regime and pushed its nationalizing program. This trend was reversed in 1951 when the Conservatives returned to power, under the successive leadership of Churchill, Anthony Eden, and Harold Macmillan. In France a new constitution established the Fourth Republic but failed to solve the old problem of continual upheaval among various political blocs. Italy abolished its monarchy and created a republic, which with American aid was able to defend itself against the constant menace of Communism. In Spain the Fascist dictator Franco continued in power, and a milder dictatorship prevailed in Portugal. Pro-Russian governments took over Poland, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, Hungary, Bulgaria, Albania, and Yugoslavia. In Yugoslavia, however, dictator Tito broke away from Moscow to pursue an independent national policy. Resistance also developed in Poland and in Hungary, where in 1956 an attempted revolution was crushed by Russia. Mao Tze-tung's Communist forces continued their fight against the Chinese Nationalists and by 1950 had driven Chiang from the mainland to Formosa and proclaimed the People's Republic of China, which was recognized by some nations, including Great Britain, but not by the United States.

Former Colonial Territories. The rising tide of nationalism in underdeveloped regions, where native peoples had been held in check by hunger, disease, ignorance, and exploitation, was greatly accelerated by World War II. Following the war, a number

of new nations came into being, some by peaceful evolution, others by the violent ousting of former rulers. The division of India into the Dominions of Pakistan and India took place in 1947 despite widespread religious rioting between Moslems and Hindus; later both states became republics, loosely connected with the British Commonwealth. France was forced to withdraw from Indo-China, granting independence to Cambodia, Laos, and South Vietnam and leaving North Vietnam under Communist domination. The Netherlands lost territory in the East Indies to native insurgents who established the Republic of Indonesia. The independence of the Philippines, a result of careful planning over a long period, was effected in 1946. Other states that became free after the war included Burma, Ceylon, Jordan, the Sudan, Lebanon, Syria, Morocco, and Tunisia. Nationalist guerilla warfare went on against the French in Algeria and against the British in Cyprus. Palestine (a British mandate prior to World War II) had long been a scene of conflict between the native Arabs and the Jews who claimed it as a national homeland, particularly for refugees from Nazism. In 1948, when attempts to reach a compromise had failed, the Republic of Israel was forcibly established. But there was no final territorial settlement, and sporadic fighting between Israelis and Arabs continued after the 1949 armistice. In South Africa (which had become an independent member of the British Commonwealth) an unusual situation existed. The nationalist leaders, Boers of Dutch descent, espoused a harsh policy of apartheid (segregation of natives). The world-wide trend, however, was towards native self-government and freedom.

The United Nations. Long before the end of the war, discerning statesmen were laying plans to create a world order to function in place of the old League of Nations, which had failed to preserve the peace. These plans resulted in the formation of the United Nations organization at San Francisco in 1945. The two chief bodies of the United Nations are the General Assembly and the Security Council. The General Assembly is composed of all member nations. (There were 80 members by the end of 1956, including a number of the new nations discussed above.) It has general powers of debate and recommendation, with each member having one vote. The Security Council is empowered to take action for the maintenance of international peace and security. It consists of eleven member states, each

having one vote. Six of these are non-permanent members, elected for two-year terms by the General Assembly. The remaining five (China, France, the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States) have permanent seats and the right to "veto" substantive decisions. There are a number of other United Nations bodies that have authority in various fields. The International Court of Justice has charge of the judicial settlement of disputes that are brought before it. The Secretariat performs administrative functions. The Trusteeship Council supervises the governing of territories not yet considered ready for independence. The Economic and Social Council is responsible for improving economic, social, cultural, educational, and health conditions throughout the world. Allied with it are a number of specialized agencies, including the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); the Food and Agriculture Organization; the International Labor Organization; the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development; and the World Health Organization (WHO). In 1946 the Atomic Energy Commission was created to make proposals for the international exchange of scientific information and control of atomic weapons. However, the unwillingness of the Soviet Union to submit to international inspection caused an impasse in this program, and the stock-piling of atomic, and later of hydrogen, weapons continued.

Matters of international concern taken up by the United Nations include the withdrawal of Russian troops from Iran, border violations along the Greek frontier, international trusteeships in Africa and in the Far East, the Palestine problem, and the invasion in 1950 of South Korea by North Korean troops. The Security Council (with the Russian delegate absent) branded the North Koreans aggressors and approved the use of arms against them. A United Nations army, headed by General Douglas MacArthur, was sent to Korea. By the end of 1950, the North Koreans had been driven past the 38th parallel, which was the demarcation between American and Soviet occupation zones (Korea had been a Japanese territory before the war). Chinese Communist troops then intervened to attempt to drive out the UN army. After protracted fighting in which neither side could claim victory, an armistice was signed in July 1953, by United Nations and Communist delegates at Panmunjom. Korea re-

mained divided between the Northern Communist state and the Southern republic.

In 1952 the African-Asian bloc of the United Nations insisted that the topic of home rule for Tunisia and Morocco be debated. (Both territories were later granted independence.) In 1954 the dispute between Britain and Greece over Cyprus, and the claim of Indonesia to the western part of New Guinea occupied the General Assembly. In September 1955, France temporarily withdrew from the Assembly in protest over its decision to investigate French rule in Algeria. South Africa followed suit in November, after an Assembly committee had voted to continue an inquiry into its race segregation policy.

In 1956 a crisis arose involving the Suez Canal Zone, which because of its strategic importance had been internationally regulated since 1888. Egypt had become a strongly nationalist republic, under the presidency of Colonel Nasser, and was a focal point of conflict between East and West. In the summer of 1956, after the United States and Britain had turned down his request for a large loan to start the Aswan Dam project, Nasser seized and nationalized the Canal. (British troops had previously been withdrawn from the area in accordance with an Anglo-Egyptian agreement.) In an attempt to regain use of the Canal, Israeli, British, and French forces invaded Egypt. Immediately the United Nations General Assembly (with both American and Soviet backing) called for a cessation of hostilities and withdrawal of the invading armies. This demand was complied with, and the first United Nations Emergency Force took over supervision of the Canal Zone.

Another hopeful sign for world peace came in October 1956, with the establishment (by the United Nations) of the International Atomic Energy Agency. This body, an outgrowth of President Eisenhower's "atoms for peace" proposal, was organized to provide atomic materials and technical information to nations that intended to use them for peaceful purposes.

QUESTIONS

1. Give pertinent facts of the German conquests in Poland; in Western Europe.
2. Describe the German effort to conquer England. Why did it fail? Of what significance was the failure?
3. How and why did Russia and Finland go to war? What was the outcome?

4. Trace the Greek part in the war.
5. What was the Hitler-Stalin peace agreement? How and why was it broken?
6. Tell about the war in Africa; in Italy.
7. Give details of the liberation of France.
8. What was the role of the United States in the war before she entered it?
9. Trace the main events of the war between the United States and Japan.
10. Why was the problem of supply such a vexing one to the Allies? How was it met?
11. What steps have been taken to achieve unity through conferences of Allied leaders?
12. What steps have been taken to achieve greater unity in the Inter-American world?
13. How were the defeated countries handled?
14. What are the current political and social problems?
15. Trace conditions in Palestine since the First World War.
16. Trace events in India that culminated in freedom.
17. Summarize leading events in Germany since World War II.
18. Give the background and general contents of the Atlantic Pact.
19. Describe the organization of the United Nations.
20. What are some occasions on which the United Nations has acted to maintain or restore peace?

QUESTIONS

CHRONOLOGY OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

- B.C.
- 4241—Egyptian calendar
 3000—Founding of Assyria
 2980-2475—Pyramid Age of Egypt
 2475-1600—Feudal Age of Egypt
 2100—Founding of Babylonia
 2000—Achaean invasion of Greece
 Conquest of Egypt by the
 Hyksos
 1600-1500—Grand Age of Crete
 1600-1200—Period of the Egyptian
 Empire
 1500-1200—Mycenaean Age
 1500—Dorian invasion of Greece
 1320—Libyan invasion of Egypt
 1300—Beginning of Assyrian greatness
 920—Division of the Hebrew Kingdom
 800-600—Age of the Nobles in Greece
 730—Ethiopian invasion of Egypt
 672—Assyrian conquest of Egypt
 650-500—Age of the Tyrants in
 Greece
 621—Draco's Code
 594—Reforms of Solon
 510—Founding of the Roman
 Republic
 497—Persian invasion of Macedonia
 492-479—Greco-Persian Wars
 461-404—Athenian supremacy
 404-371—Spartan supremacy
 386—The King's Peace between
 Persia and Greece
 371-362—Theban supremacy
 338-275—Macedonian supremacy
 334—Battle of Granicus
 264-201—Punic wars
 214-168—Roman conquest of the
 Hellenistic East
 58-51—Caesar's conquest of Gaul
 44—Assassination of Julius Caesar
 30 B.C.-14 A.D.—Founding of the
 Roman Empire by Au-
 gustus
- A.D.
- 14-37—Tiberius, emperor
 37-41—Caligula, emperor
 41-54—Claudius, emperor
 54-68—Nero, emperor
 70-79—Vespasian, emperor
 79-81—Titus, emperor
 81-96—Domitian, emperor
 96-98—Nerva, emperor
 98-117—Trajan, emperor
 105-107—Conquest of Dacia
 117-138—Hadrian, emperor. Wall be-
 tween Britain and Scotland.
 138-161—Antoninus Pius, emperor
 161-180—Marcus Aurelius, emperor
 162-165—War with the Parthians
 284-305—Diocletian, emperor. Reor-
 ganization of the empire.
 Last persecution of the
 Christians.
 311—Recognition of Christianity by
 Galerius
 313—Edict of Milan granting tolera-
 tion of Christians
 323-337—Constantine, emperor
 325—Nicene creed
 330—Capital of the empire removed
 to Constantinople
 378—Battle of Adrianople
 410—Sack of Rome by the Goths
 429-439—Vandal conquest of northern
 Africa
 451—Battle of Chalons
 455—Sack of Rome by the Vandals
 476—End of Roman Empire of the
 West
 511—Division of the kingdom of
 Clovis
 571(?)—Birth of Mohammed
 590-604—Gregory the Great, Pope
 596—St. Augustine's mission to Eng-
 land
 622—Hegira of Mohammed
 638-640—Mohammedan conquest of
 Egypt
 664—Council of Whitby
 711—Mohammedan conquest of Spain
 718—St. Boniface's mission to
 Germany

- 732—Battle of Tours
 771—Charlemagne, sole king of the Franks
 786-809—Haroun-al-Raschid, ruler at Bagdad
 800—Charlemagne crowned Holy Roman Emperor
 814—Death of Charlemagne
 843—Division of Charlemagne's kingdom at Verdun
 855—Death of Lothaire and division of his kingdom
 865—First Russian expeditions against Constantinople
 871-901—Alfred the Great, ruler of England
 907—Second Russian expedition against Constantinople
 929—Founding of the Mark of Brandenburg
 936-973—Reign of Otto the Great of Germany
 982—End of the Carolingian kings. Accession of Hugh Capet.
 1001-1026—Mohammedan invasions of India
 1038—Conquest of Persia by the Seljuk Turks
 1046—Council of Sutri
 1066—Battle of Hastings
 1075—Breach between Gregory and Henry IV
 1095—Preaching of the First Crusade
 1099—Capture of Jerusalem by the Crusaders
 1122—Concordat of Worms
 1144—Turkish capture of Edessa
 1152-1190—Frederick Barbarossa, emperor
 1155—Diet of Roncaglia
 1167—Formation of the Lombard League
 1176—Frederick's defeat at Legnano
 1180-1223—Philip Augustus, king of France
 1183—Truce of Venice
 1187—Saladin's capture of Jerusalem
 1190—Founding of the Teutonic Knights
 1190-1216—Innocent III, Pope
 1210—Founding of the Order of Franciscans
 1215—The Lateran Council
 Granting of the Magna Carta
 1216—Founding of the Dominicans
 1229—Establishment of the Inquisition
 1244—Turkish recapture of Jerusalem
 1265—De Montfort's Parliament
 1295—The Model Parliament
 Return of Marco Polo from the Far East
 1309-1377—The "Babylonian Captivity"
 1328—English recognition of Scotch independence
 1330-1384—Life of Wycliffe
 1337—Beginning of the Hundred Years' War
 1356—Battle of Poitiers
 Golden Bull of the Emperor Charles IV
 1360—Peace of Bretigny
 1395—Tamerlane's invasion of Russia
 1415—Battle of Agincourt
 Death of Huss
 1453—Fall of Constantinople to the Turks
 1467—Birth of Erasmus
 1485—Battle of Bosworth; beginning of the Tudors
 1486—Voyage of Diaz around Africa
 1492—Discovery of America by Columbus
 1498—Voyage of Da Gama to India
 1509—Birth of Calvin
 1522—Excommunication of Luther
 1526, 1529—Diets of Speyer
 1545-1563—Council of Trent
 1555—Peace of Augsburg
 1562-1598—Religious conflicts in France
 1588—Defeat of the Spanish Armada
 1598—Edict of Nantes
 1618-1648—Thirty Years' War
 1648—Peace of Westphalia
 1651—Cromwell's Navigation Act
 1667-1668—War of the Spanish Netherlands
 1672-1678—War between Spain and the Dutch
 1688—The "Glorious Revolution"
 1688-1697—War of the Palatinate
 1701-1713—War of the Spanish Succession
 1707—Union of England and Scotland
 1713—Peace of Utrecht
 1739—War of Jenkin's Ear
 1740—Accession of Frederick the Great
 1740-1748—War of the Austrian Succession
 1756-1763—Seven Years' War
 1768—Birth of Napoleon Bonaparte
 1772, 1793, 1795—Partitions of Poland

- 1776—Declaration of Independence of the American colonies
- 1789—Outbreak of the French Revolution
July 14, Storming of the Bastille
- 1791—Completion of the French Revolutionary Constitution
Declaration of Pillnitz
- 1792 (September 16)—France a republic
- 1793 (January 21)—Execution of Louis XVI
- 1797—Peace of Campo Formio
- 1802—Treaty of Amiens
- 1804—Napoleon, emperor of France
- 1806—Confederation of the Rhine
- 1814-1815—Congress of Vienna
- 1815—Battle of Waterloo
- 1819—Carlsbad decrees
- 1821—Death of Napoleon Bonaparte
- 1823—The Monroe Doctrine
- 1827—The independence of Greece
- 1830, 1848—Liberal revolutions in Europe
- 1852—Napoleon III emperor of France
- 1853-1856—The Crimean War
- 1856—Peace of Paris; Declaration of Paris
- 1832, 1867-1884—Suffrage reform in England
- 1859—Austro-Sardinian War
- 1859-1870—Territorial unification of Italy
- 1864—War, Denmark vs. Prussia and Austria
- 1866—Austro-Prussian War
- 1867—Formation of the Dual Monarchy
- 1870-1871—Franco-Prussian War
- 1871—Creation of the German Empire
Birth of the Third French Republic
- 1877-1878—Russo-Turkish War
- 1878—Congress of Berlin
- 1879, 1882—Formation of the Triple Alliance
- 1894-1895—Sino-Japanese War
- 1894, 1904, 1907—Formation of the Triple Entente
- 1898—Spanish-American War
- 1900—Boxer Rebellion
- 1902—Anglo-Japanese Alliance
- 1904-1905—Russo-Japanese War
- 1905—Independence of Norway
- 1905, 1911—Crises in Morocco
- 1908—The Bosnian Crisis
- 1910—Founding of the Portuguese Republic
- 1911—Italian annexation of Tripoli
- 1912-1913—The Balkan Wars
- 1914-1918—The World War
- 1917—Triumph of Bolshevism in Russia
- 1918 (November 11)—Armistice closing the World War
- 1919—Peace of Versailles
- 1920—Birth of the Irish Free State
- 1921-1922—Washington Arms Conference
- 1925—Locarno Pacts
- 1928—Paris Peace Pacts
- 1929—Beginning of the World Depression
- 1931—Formation of the Spanish Republic
- 1931-1932—Sino-Japanese trouble regarding Manchuria
- 1933—Beginning of the Hitler Dictatorship in Germany
- 1935-1936—Italo-Ethiopian War
- 1935—Saar returned to Germany
- 1936—Beginning of Spanish Civil War
- 1938—Germany annexes Austria
- 1938—Conference of Munich
- 1939—Beginning of World War II
Fourth Partition of Poland
- 1941—German invasion of Russia
Atlantic Charter
Japanese Attack on Pearl Harbor and entrance of the United States into Second World War
- 1942—Victories of Coral Sea and Midway
- 1942-1943—Battle for North Africa
- 1943—Stalingrad
Surrender of Italy
- 1944—Liberation of Paris
Invasion of Germany
- 1945—Surrender of Germany and Japan
- 1945—United Nations Conference
- 1947—Establishment of India and Pakistan
- 1948—Establishment of Israel
- 1949—Atlantic Pact
- 1950—Invasion of South Korea
- 1953—Death of Stalin
- 1954—Paris Agreements
- 1955—Geneva Conference
- 1956—Suez Crisis

CHIEF RULERS

Albania

1478-1913, Part of Turkey
 1913-1914, William of Wied, prince
 1918-1927, Republic
 1928-1939, Zog I
 1939-1943, Part of Italy
 1943-1945, Provisional Government
 1945- , Republic

Premier:

1945-1954, Enver Hoxha
 1954- , Mehmet Shehu

Austria

1493-1519, Maximilian I
 1519-1520, Charles I (V as Holy Roman Emperor)
 1520-1564, Ferdinand I
 1564-1576, Maximilian II
 1576-1612, Rudolph V (II as Holy Roman Emperor)

1612-1619, Matthias
 1619-1637, Ferdinand II
 1637-1657, Ferdinand III
 1657-1705, Leopold I
 1705-1711, Joseph I
 1711-1740, Charles II (VI as Holy Roman Emperor, III of Hungary)

1740-1780, Maria Theresa
 1780-1790, Joseph II
 1790-1792, Leopold II
 1792-1835, Francis I (II as Holy Roman Emperor)
 1835-1848, Ferdinand I (IV of Hungary)

1848-1916, Francis Joseph
 1916-1918, Charles I (IV of Hungary)
 1918-1938, Republic
 1938-1945, Annexed to Germany
 1945- , Republic

President:

1945-1950, Karl Renner
 1951- , Theodore Koernor

Belgium

1516-1713, Part of Spanish Monarchy
 1713-1797, Part of Austrian Monarchy
 1797-1815, Part of France
 1815-1830, Part of Netherlands
 1831-1865, Leopold I

1865-1909, Leopold II
 1909-1934, Albert
 1934-1944, Leopold III
 1944-1950, Prince Charles, regent
 1950- , Baudouin I

Bohemia

See Czechoslovakia

Bulgaria

1393-1878, Part of Turkey
 1879-1886, Alexander, prince
 1887-1908, Ferdinand I, prince
 1909-1918, Ferdinand I, king
 1918-1943, Boris III
 1943-1946, Regency
 1946- , Republic

Byzantine Emperors

395- 408, Arcadius
 408- 450, Theodosius II
 450- 457, Marcianus
 457- 474, Leo I
 474 , Leo II
 474- 491, Zeno
 491- 518, Anastasius I
 518- 527, Justinus I
 527- 565, Justinian
 565- 578, Justinus II
 578- 582, Tiberius II
 582- 602, Mauritius
 602- 610, Phokas
 610- 641, Heraclius
 641 , Constantine III
 641 , Heracleonas
 641- 668, Constance II
 668- 685, Constantine IV
 685- 695, Justinian II
 695- 698, Leontius
 698- 705, Tiberius III
 705- 711, Justinian II
 711- 713, Philippicus Bardanes
 713- 716, Anastasius II
 716- 717, Theodosius III
 717- 741, Leo III de Isauriër
 741- 775, Constantine V Copronymus
 775- 780, Leo IV
 780- 797, Constantine VI
 797- 802, Irene
 802- 811, Nicephorus I
 811 , Stauracius
 811- 813, Michael I

- 813-820, Leo V
 820-829, Michael II
 828-842, Theophilus
 842-856, Theodora
 856-867, Michael III
 867-886, Basilus I
 886-912, Leo VI
 912-959, Constantine VII
 920-944, Romanus I (second emperor)
 959-963, Romanus II
 963-969, Nicephorus II Phokas
 969-976, John I
 976-1025, Basilus II
 1025-1028, Constantine VIII
 1028-1034, Romanus III
 1034-1041, Michael IV
 1041-1042, Michael V
 1042-1054, Constantine IX
 1054-1056, Theodora
 1056-1057, Michael VI
 1057-1059, Isaak I Comnenus
 1059-1067, Constantine X
 1067-1071, Romanus IV
 1071-1078, Michael VII
 1078-1081, Nicephorus III
 1081-1118, Alexius I Comnenus
 1118-1143, John II Comnenus
 1143-1180, Manuel I Comnenus
 1180-1183, Alexius II Comnenus
 1183-1185, Adronicus I Comnenus
 1185-1195, Isaak Angelus
 1195-1203, Alexius III
 1203-1204, Alexius IV
 1204-1259, Latin Empire of the East
 1259-1382, Michael VIII Paleologus
 1282-1328, Andronicus II
 1328-1341, Andronicus III
 1341-1391, John V
 (1347-1355, John VI)
 1391-1423, Emmanuel III
 (1399-1402, John VII)
 1423-1448, John VIII
 1448-1453, Constantine XII
- The Carolingians**
 687-714, Pippin
 714-741, Charles Martel
 751-768, Pippin I
 786-771, Charlemagne and Carloman
 771-814, Charlemagne
 814-840, Louis the Pious
- Courland**
 See Latvia
- Croatia**
 1102-1918, Part of Hungary
 1918- , Part of Yugoslavia
- Czechoslovakia**
 1471-1516, Ladislaus II
 1516-1526, Louis
 1527-1918, Part of Austria-Hungary
 1918-1939, Republic
 1939-1945, Annexed to Germany
 1945- , Republic
Presidents:
 1920-1936, Thomas Masaryk
 1936-1948, Eduard Benes
 1948-1953, Clement Gottwald
 1953- , Antonin Zapotocky
- Denmark**
 1481-1513, John
 1513-1523, Christian II
 1523-1533, Frederick I
 1533-1559, Christian III
 1558-1588, Frederick II
 1588-1648, Christian IV
 1648-1670, Frederick III
 1670-1699, Christian V
 1699-1730, Frederick IV
 1730-1746, Christian VI
 1746-1766, Frederick V
 1766-1808, Christian VII
 1808-1839, Frederick VI
 1839-1848, Christian VIII
 1848-1863, Frederick VII
 1863-1906, Christian IX
 1906-1912, Frederick VIII
 1912-1947, Christian X
 1947- , Frederick IX
- Dutch Republic**
 See Netherlands
- East Frankland (Germany)**
 840-876, Louis the German
 876-880, Carloman
 876-882, Louis
 876-887, Charles the Fat
 887-899, Arnulf
 889-911, Louis the Child
 911-918, Conrad
 919-936, Henry I
 936-962, Otto I
- England**
 See Great Britain
- Estonia**
 1346-1561, Part of Estates of Teutonic Knights
 1561-1721, Part of Sweden
 1721-1917, Part of Russian Empire

- 1918-1940, Republic
1940- , Constituent Republic of U.S.S.R.
- Finland**
1290-1809, Part of Swedish Monarchy
1809-1917, Part of Russian Empire
1919- Republic
- France**
987- 996, Hugh Capet
996-1031, Robert the Pious
1031-1060, Henry I
1060-1108, Philip I
1108-1137, Louis VI
1137-1180, Louis VII
1180-1223, Philip II (Augustus)
1223-1226, Louis VIII
1226-1270, Louis IX
1270-1285, Philip III
1285-1314, Philip IV
1314-1316, Louis X
1316-1322, Philip V
1322-1328, Charles IV
1328-1350, Philip VI
1350-1364, John
1364-1380, Charles V
1380-1422, Charles VI
1422-1461, Charles VII
1461-1483, Louis XI
1483-1498, Charles VIII
1498-1515, Louis XII
1515-1547, Francis I
1547-1559, Henry II
1559-1560, Francis II
1560-1574, Charles IX
1574-1589, Henry III
1589-1610, Henry IV
1610-1643, Louis XIII
1643-1715, Louis XIV
1715-1774, Louis XV
1774-1792, Louis XVI
1792-1804, First Republic
1804-1814, Napoleon I, emperor
1814-1824, Louis XVIII
1824-1830, Charles X
1830-1848, Louis Philippe
1848-1852, Second Republic
1852-1870, Napoleon III, emperor
1870-1940, Third Republic
1940-1945, Vichy Government
1945- , Fourth Republic
- Presidents and Dictators:**
1871-1873, Adolph Thiers
1873-1879, Marshall MacMahon
1879-1887, Jules Grévy
1887-1894, F. Sadi Carnot
1894-1895, Casimir-Périer
1895-1899, Félix Faure
1899-1906, Emile Loubet
- 1906-1913, Armand Fallières
1913-1920, Raymond Poincaré
1920-1921, Paul Deschanel
1921-1924, Alexandre Millerand
1924-1931, Gaston Doumergue
1931-1932, Paul Doumer
1932-1940, Albert Lebrun
1940-1942, Marshal Pétin, Vichy chief of state
1942-1945, Pierre Laval, Vichy dictator
1945 , Charles de Gaulle
1946 , Felix Gouin
1946-1947, George Bidault
1947-1954, Vincent Auriol
1954- , Rene Coty
- Germany**
Up to 1806, Part of Holy Roman Empire.
1815-1866, Part of Germanic Confederation
1871-1888, William I (King of Prussia, 1861-1888)
1888 , Frederick III
1888-1918, William II
Presidents and Dictator:
1919-1925, Friedrich Ebert
1925-1934, Paul von Hindenburg
1934-1945, Adolf Hitler, fuehrer
1945-1955, Allied occupation
- Federal Republic of Germany**
President:
1949- , Theodore Heuss
Chancellor:
-1949- , Konrad Adenauer
- Great Britain**
802- 839, Egbert
839- 858, Ethelwulf
858- 860, Ethelbald
860- 866, Ethelbert
866- 871, Ethelred
871- 901, Alfred the Great
901- 925, Edward the Elder
925- 940, Athelstan
940- 946, Edmund I
946- 955, Edred
955- 959, Edwy
959- 975, Edgar
975- 979, Edward the Martyr
979-1016, Ethelred the Unready
1016-1035, Canute
1035-1040, Harold I
1040-1042, Hardicanute
1042-1066, Edward the Confessor
1066 , Harold II
1066-1087, William I

- 1087-1100, William II
 1100-1135, Henry I
 1135-1154, Stephen
 1154-1189, Henry II
 1189-1199, Richard I
 1199-1216, John
 1216-1272, Henry III
 1272-1307, Edward I
 1307-1327, Edward II
 1327-1377, Edward III
 1377-1399, Richard II
 1399-1413, Henry IV
 1413-1422, Henry V
 1422-1461, Henry VI
 1461-1483, Edward IV
 1483, Edward V
 1483-1485, Richard III
 1485-1409, Henry VII
 1509-1547, Henry VIII
 1547-1553, Edward VI
 1553-1558, Mary I
 1558-1603, Elizabeth I
 1603-1625, James I (VI of Scotland)
 1625-1649, Charles I
 1649-1660, Republic (Oliver and Richard Cromwell)
 1660-1685, Charles II
 1685-1688, James II (VII of Scotland)
 1689-1694, William III and Mary II
 1694-1702, William III
 1702-1714, Anne (Queen of Great Britain after 1707)
 1714-1727, George I
 1727-1760, George II
 1760-1820, George III (King of Great Britain and Ireland after 1800)
- Sovereigns of Scotland, 1488-1707:**
 1488-1513, James IV
 1513-1542, James V
 1542-1567, Mary
 1567-1625, James VI (I of England, 1603-1625)
 1603-1707, Successions as in England
- Sovereigns of the United Kingdom:**
 1801-1820, George III
 1820-1830, George IV
 1830-1837, William IV
 1837-1901, Victoria
 1901-1910, Edward VII
 1910-1936, George V
 1936-, Edward VIII (abdicated)
 1936-1952, George VI
- 1952-, Elizabeth II
- Prime Ministers of Great Britain**
 1868-1874, William E. Gladstone
 1874-1880, Benjamin Disraeli
 1880-1885, William E. Gladstone
 1885-1886, Marquess of Salisbury
 1886, William E. Gladstone
 1886-1892, Marquess of Salisbury
 1892-1894, William E. Gladstone
 1894-1895, Earl of Roseberry
 1895-1902, Marquess of Salisbury
 1902-1905, Arthur J. Balfour
 1906-1908, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman
 1908-1916, Herbert H. Asquith
 1916-1922, David Lloyd George
 1922-1923, Andrew Bonar Law
 1923, Stanley Baldwin
 1924, J. Ramsey MacDonald
 1924-1929, Stanley Baldwin
 1929-1935, J. Ramsey MacDonald
 1935-1937, Stanley Baldwin
 1937-1940, Neville Chamberlain
 1940-1945, Winston Churchill
 1945-1950, Clement R. Attlee
 1950-1955, Winston Churchill
 1955-1957, Anthony Eden
 1957-, Harold Macmillan
- Greece**
 1453-1829, Part of Turkey
 1829-1832, Republic
 1832-1862, Otto I
 1863-1913, George I
 1913-1917, Constantine I
 1917-1920, Alexander I
 1920-1922, Constantine I (restored)
 1922-1924, George II
 1924-1935, Republic
 1935-1941, George II (restored)
 1941-1944, German Occupation
 1944-1946, Archbishop Samaskino, regent
 1946-1947, George II (restored)
 1947-, Paul I
- Holy Roman Empire**
 962-973, Otto I
 973-983, Otto II
 983-1002, Otto III
 1002-1024, Henry II
 1024-1039, Conrad II
 1039-1056, Henry III
 1056-1106, Henry IV
 1106-1125, Henry V
 1125-1137, Lothair III
 1137-1152, Conrad III
 1152-1190, Frederick I
 1190-1197, Henry VI
 1197-1208, Otto and Philip, rival claimants

- 1208-1211, Philip
 1211-1250, Frederick II
 1250-1254, Conrad IV
 1273-1291, Rudolph I
 1292-1298, Adolf
 1298-1308, Albert I
 1308-1313, Henry VII
 1314-1347, Louis IV
 1347-1378, Charles IV
 1378-1400, Wenceslas
 1400-1410, Rupert
 1410-1437, Sigismund
 1438-1439, Albert II
 1440-1493, Frederick III
 1493-1519, Maximilian I
 1519-1558, Charles V
 1558-1564, Ferdinand I
 1564-1576, Maximilian II
 1576-1612, Rudolph II
 1612-1619, Matthias
 1619-1637, Ferdinand II
 1637-1657, Ferdinand III
 1658-1705, Leopold I
 1705-1711, Joseph I
 1711-1740, Charles VI
 1742-1745, Charles VII
 1745-1765, Francis I
 1765-1790, Joseph II
 1790-1792, Leopold II
 1792-1806, Francis II (after 1804
 Francis I, Emperor of
 Austria)
- Hungary**
 1490-1516, Ladislaus II
 1516-1526, Louis II
 1526-1918, Part of Austrian Mon-
 archy
 1918-1920, Republic
 1920-1946, Kingdom
 1946- , Republic
- Presidents and Regent:**
 1918-1919, Michael Károlyi
 1919-1920, Béla Kun
 1920-1944, Nicholas Horthy, regent
 1944-1945, Nazi Control
 1946-1948, Zoldan Tildy
 1948-1950, Arpad Szakasits
 1950-1952, Sandor Ronai
 1952- , Istvan Dobi
- Irish Free State (Eire since 1937)**
 1922-1937, Self-governing Domin-
 ion of British Empire
 1937- , Republic
- Presidents:**
 1938-1945, Douglas Hyde
 1945- , Sean T. O'Kelly
- Italy**
Kings of Sardinia:
 1720-1730, Victor Amadeus II
 1730-1733, Charles Emmanuel III
 1733-1796, Victor Amadeus III
 1796-1802, Charles Emmanuel IV
 1802-1821, Victor Emmanuel I
 1821-1831, Charles Felix
 1831-1849, Charles Albert
 1849-1878, Victor Emmanuel II
 1861- , As King of Italy
- Kings of Italy:**
 1861-1878, Victor Emmanuel II
 1878-1900, Humbert
 1900-1946, Victor Emmanuel III
 (abdicated)
 1946- , Republic
- Dictator:**
 1922-1943, Benito Mussolini
- President:**
 1946-1948, Enrico de Nicola
 1948-1955, Luigi Einaudi
 1955- , Giovanni Gronchi
- Latvia**
 1237-1549, Part of Estates of Teu-
 tonic Knights
 1549-1629, Part of Polish Mon-
 archy
 1629-1721, Part of Swedish Mon-
 archy
 1721-1917, Part of Russian Empire
 1918-1940, Republic
 1940- , Constituent Republic of
 U.S.S.R.
- Lettland; Lettonia**
 See Latvia
- Lithuania**
 1501-1793, Independent Part of
 Polish Monarchy
 1793-1917, Part of Russian Empire
 1918- , Republic
- Livonia: See Latvia**
- Middle Frankland**
 840- 855, Lothair
 855- 875, Louis
 855- 863, Charles
 855- 869, Lothair
- Montenegro**
 1696-1735, Danilo, prince-bishop
 1735-1782, Sava and Vasilije
 1782-1830, Peter I
 1830-1851, Peter II
 1851-1860, Danilo I, prince
 1860-1910, Nicholas I, prince

1910-1918,	Nicholas I, king	1939-1945,	Partitioned between
1918-	Part of Yugoslavia		Germany and Russia
Netherlands		1945-1947,	Provisional Government
1516-1581,	Part of Spanish Mon-	1947-	Republic
	archy		
1581-1584,	William the Silent,	Popes, The	
	stadholder	41- 67,	Peter
1584-1625,	Maurice	67- 76,	Linus
1625-1647,	Frederick Henry	76- 91,	Anacletus
1647-1650,	William II	91- 100,	Clement
1650-1672,	John De Witt, grand	100- 105,	Evaristus
	pensionary	105- 115,	Alexander I
1672-1702,	William III, stadholder	115- 125,	Sixtus I
	(King of England and	125- 136,	Telesphorus
	Scotland 1689-1702)	136- 140,	Hyginus
1711-1747,	William IV, nominal	140- 155,	Pius I
	stadholder	155- 166,	Anicetus
1747-1751,	William IV, hereditary	166- 175,	Soter
	stadholder	175- 189,	Eleutherius
1751-1795,	William V	189- 199,	Victor I
1795-1806,	Republic	199- 217,	Zephyrinus
1806-1810,	Louis Bonaparte, king	217- 222,	Calixtus I
1810-1813,	Part of France	222- 230,	Urban I
1813-1840,	William I, king	230- 235,	Pontianus
1840-1849,	William II	235- 236,	Anterus
1849-1890,	William III	236- 250,	Fabianus
1890-1948,	Wilhelmina	251- 253,	Cornelius
1948-	Juliana	253- 254,	Lucius I
		254- 257,	Stephen I
Norway		257- 258,	Sixtus II
1397-1814,	Part of Danish Mon-	259- 268,	Dionysius
	archy	269- 274,	Felix I
1814-1905,	Part of Swedish Mon-	275- 283,	Eutychianus
	archy	283- 296,	Cajus
1905-	Haakon VII	296- 304,	Marcellinus
Poland		308- 309,	Marcellus I
1492-1501,	John I Albert	309- 310,	Eusebius
1501-1506,	Alexander I	311- 314,	Melchiodes
1506-1548,	Sigismund I	314- 335,	Silvester I
1548-1572,	Sigismund II	336	Marcus
1573-1574,	Henry of Valois (Henry,	337- 352,	Julius I
	III of France)	352- 366,	Liberius
1575-1586,	Stephen Bathory	366- 384,	Damasus I
1587-1632,	Sigismund III Vasa	384- 399,	Siricius
1632-1648,	Ladislaus IV	399- 401,	Anastasius I
1648-1668,	John II Casimir	401- 417,	Innocent
1669-1673,	Michael Wisniowiecki	417- 418,	Zosimus
1674-1696,	John III Sobieski	418- 422,	Boniface I
1697-1704,	Augustus II	422- 432,	Coelestinus I
1704-1709,	Stanislaus Leszczyński	432- 440,	Sixtus III
1709-1733,	Augustus II	440- 461,	Leo I
1733-1734,	Stanislaus Leszczyński	461- 468,	Hilarius
1734-1763,	Augustus III	468- 483,	Simplicius
1764-1795,	Stanislaus II Ponia-	483- 492,	Felix II
	towski	492- 496,	Gelasius I
1795-1918,	Partitioned among Rus-	496- 498,	Anastasius II
	sia, Prussia, and Aus-	498- 514,	Symmachus
	tria	514- 523,	Hormisdas
1918-1939,	Republic	523- 526,	John I
		526- 530,	Felix III

530- 532,	Boniface II	897	, Romanus
533- 535,	John II	897	, Theodore II
535- 536,	Agapetus I	898- 900,	John IX
<i>circa</i> 537,	Silverius	900- 903,	Benedict IV
537- 555,	Vigilius	903	, Leo V
556- 561,	Pelagius I	904- 911,	Sergius III
561- 574,	Benedict I	911- 913,	Anastasius III
579- 590,	Pelagius II	913- 914,	Lando
590- 604,	Gregory I	914- 928,	John X
604- 606,	Sabinianus	928- 929,	Leo VI
607	, Boniface III	929- 931,	Stephen VIII
608- 615,	Boniface IV	931- 935,	John XI
615- 618,	Adeodatus I	936- 939,	Leo VII
619- 625,	Boniface V	939- 942,	Stephen IX
625- 638,	Honorius I	942- 946,	Martin II
640	, Severinus	946- 955,	Agapetus II
640- 642,	John IV	955- 964,	John XII
642- 649,	Theodore I	964- 965,	Leo VIII
649- 653,	Martin I	965- 972,	John XIII
654- 657,	Eugene I	973- 974,	Benedict VI
657- 672,	Vitalianus	974- 983,	Benedict VII
672- 676,	Adeodatus II	983- 984,	John XIV
676- 678,	Donus	984- 985,	Boniface VII
678- 681,	Agatho	985- 996,	John XV
682- 683,	Leo II	996- 997,	Gregory V
684- 685,	Benedict II	999-1003,	Silvester II
685- 686,	John V	1003	, John XVII
686- 687,	Conon	1003-1009,	John XVIII
687- 701,	Sergius I	1009-1012,	Sergius IV
701- 705,	John VI	1012-1024,	Benedict VIII
705- 707,	John VII	1024-1032,	John XIX
708	, Sisinnius	1032-1044,	Benedict IX
708- 715,	Constantine I	1045	, Silvester III
715- 731,	Gregory II	1045-1046,	Gregory VI
731- 741,	Gregory III	1046-1047,	Clement II
741- 752,	Zacharias	1048	, Damasus II
752	, Stephen II	1049-1054,	Leo IX
752- 757,	Stephen III	1055-1057,	Victor II
757- 767,	Paul I	1057-1058,	Stephen IX
768- 772,	Stephen IV	1058-1059,	Benedict X
772- 795,	Adrian I	1058-1061,	Nicholas II
795- 816,	Leo III	1061-1073,	Alexander II
816- 817,	Stephen V	1073-1085,	Gregory VII
817- 824,	Paschalis I	1086-1087,	Victor III
824- 827,	Eugene II	1088-1099,	Urban II
827	, Valentinus	1099-1118,	Paschalis II
827- 844,	Gregory IV	1118-1119,	Gelasius II
844- 847,	Sergius II	1119-1124,	Calixtus II
847- 855,	Leo IV	1124-1130,	Honorius II
855- 858,	Benedict III	1130-1143,	Innocent II
858- 867,	Nicholas I	1143-1144,	Coelestinus II
867- 872,	Adrian II	1144-1145,	Lucius II
872- 882,	John VIII	1145-1153,	Eugene III
882- 884,	Marinus I	1153-1154,	Anastasius IV
884- 885,	Adrian III	1154-1159,	Adrian IV
885- 891,	Stephen VI	1159-1181,	Alexander III
891- 896,	Formosus	1181-1185,	Lucius III
896	, Boniface VI	1185-1187,	Urban III
896- 897,	Stephen VII	1187	, Gregory VIII

- | | | | |
|------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1187-1191, | Clement III | 1605-1621, | Paul V |
| 1191-1198, | Coelestinus III | 1621-1623, | Gregory XV |
| 1198-1216, | Innocent III | 1623-1644, | Urban VIII |
| 1217-1227, | Honorius III | 1644-1655, | Innocent X |
| 1227-1241, | Gregory IX | 1655-1667, | Alexander VII |
| 1241 | Coelestinus IV | 1667-1669, | Clement IX |
| 1243-1254, | Innocent IV | 1670-1676, | Clement X |
| 1254-1261, | Alexander IV | 1676-1689, | Innocent XI |
| 1261-1264, | Urban IV | 1689-1691, | Alexander VIII |
| 1265-1268, | Clement IV | 1691-1700, | Innocent XII |
| 1271-1276, | Gregory X | 1700-1721, | Clement XI |
| 1276 | Innocent V | 1721-1724, | Innocent XIII |
| 1276-1277, | Adrian V | 1724-1730, | Benedict XIII |
| 1277 | John XXI | 1730-1740, | Clement XII |
| 1277-1280, | Nicholas III | 1740-1758, | Benedict XIV |
| 1281-1285, | Martin IV | 1758-1769, | Clement XIII |
| 1285-1287, | Honorius IV | 1769-1774, | Clement XIV |
| 1288-1292, | Nicholas IV | 1775-1799, | Pius VI |
| 1294 | Coelestinus V | 1800-1823, | Pius VII |
| 1294-1303, | Boniface VIII | 1823-1829, | Leo XII |
| 1303-1304, | Benedict XI | 1829-1830, | Pius VIII |
| 1305-1314, | Clement V | 1831-1846, | Gregory XVI |
| 1316-1334, | John XXII | 1846-1878, | Pius IX |
| 1334-1342, | Benedict XII | 1878-1903, | Leo XIII |
| 1342-1352, | Clement VI | 1903-1914, | Pius X |
| 1352-1362, | Innocent VI | 1914-1922, | Benedict XV |
| 1362-1370, | Urban V | 1922-1939, | Pius XI |
| 1370-1378, | Gregory XI | 1939-1958, | Pius XII |
| 1378-1389, | Urban VI | 1958- | John XXIII |
| 1389-1404, | Boniface IX | Portugal | |
| 1404-1406, | Innocent VII | 1495-1521, | Emmanuel I |
| 1406-1417, | Gregory XII | 1521-1557, | John III |
| 1417-1431, | Martin V | 1557-1578, | Sebastian |
| 1431-1447, | Eugene IV | 1578-1580, | Henry |
| 1447-1455, | Nicholas V | 1580-1640, | Part of Spanish Mon- |
| 1455-1458, | Calixtus III | | archy |
| 1458-1464, | Pius II | 1640-1656, | John IV |
| 1464-1471, | Paul II | 1656-1667, | Alfonso VI |
| 1471-1484, | Sixtus IV | 1667-1706, | Pedro II |
| 1484-1492, | Innocent VIII | 1706-1750, | John V |
| 1492-1503, | Alexander VI | 1750-1777, | Joseph |
| 1503 | Pius III | 1777-1786, | Maria I and Pedro III |
| 1503-1513, | Julius II | 1786-1816, | Maria I |
| 1513-1521, | Leo X | 1816-1826, | John VI |
| 1522-1523, | Adrian VI | 1826 | Pedro IV |
| 1523-1534, | Clement VII | 1826-1828, | Maria II |
| 1534-1549, | Paul III | 1828-1834, | Miguel |
| 1550-1555, | Julius III | 1834-1853, | Maria II |
| 1555 | Marcellus II | 1853-1861, | Pedro V |
| 1555-1559, | Paul IV | 1861-1889, | Louis I |
| 1559-1565, | Pius IV | 1889-1908, | Charles I |
| 1566-1572, | Pius V | 1908-1910, | Manoel II |
| 1572-1585, | Gregory XIII | 1910- | Republic |
| 1585-1590, | Sixtus V | | |
| 1590 | Urban VII | Prussia | |
| 1590-1591, | Gregory XIV | Electors of Brandenburg: | |
| 1591 | Innocent IX | 1499-1535, | Joachim I |
| 1592-1605, | Clement VIII | 1535-1571, | Joachim II |
| 1605 | Leo XI | 1571-1598, | John George |

- 1598-1608, Joachim Frederick
 1608-1619, John Sigismund
 1619-1640, George William
 1640-1688, Frederick William
 1688-1701, Frederick III (as Frederick I, King of Prussia, 1701-1713)
- Kings of Prussia:**
 1701-1713, Frederick I
 1713-1740, Frederick William I
 1740-1786, Frederick II
 1786-1797, Frederick William II
 1797-1840, Frederick William III
 1840-1861, Frederick William IV
 1861-1888, William I (German Emperor, 1871-1888)
 After 1871, Part of German Empire
- Roman Empire**
 14- 37, Tiberius
 37- 41, Cajus Caligula
 41- 54, Claudius
 54- 68, Nero
 68- 69, Galba, Otho, Vitellius
 69- 79, Vespasian
 79- 81, Titus
 81- 96, Domitian
 96- 98, Nerva
 98- 117, Trajan
 117- 138, Hadrian
 138- 161, Antoninus Pius
 161- 180, Marcus Aurelius
 180- 193, Commodus
 193, Pertinax
 193- 211, Septimius Severus
 211- 217, Caracalla
 217- 218, Macrinus
 218- 222, Elagabal
 222- 235, Alexander Severus
 235- 238, Maximinus
 238- 244, Gordianus III
 244- 249, Philippus Arabs
 249- 251, Decius
 251- 253, Gallus
 253- 260, Valerian
 260- 268, Gallienus
 268- 270, Claudius II
 270- 275, Aurelian
 275- 276, Tacitus
 276- 282, Probus
 282- 284, Carus
 284- 305, Diocletian
 285- 305, Maximianus
 305- 306, Constantius Chlorus
 305- 311, Galerius
 306- 312, Maxentius
 306- 313, Maximinus
 308- 323, Licinius
- 306, Constantine
 (323)-337,
 337- 361, Constantius
 337- 340, Constantine II
 337- 350, Constans
 361- 363, Julian
 363- 364, Jovianus
 364- 375, Valentinian I
 364- 378, Valens
 375- 383, Gratian
 375- 392, Valentinian II
 379- 395, Theodosius I
- In the West:**
 395- 423, Honorius
 423- 425, Joannes
 425- 455, Valentinian III
 455- 456, Avitus
 457- 461, Majorianus
 461- 465, Severus
 465- 467, Ricimer
 467- 472, Anthemius
 472, Olybrius
 473, Glycerius
 473- 475, Julius Nepos
 476, Romulus Augustulus
- Rumania**
 1500-1856, Part of Turkey
 1861-1866, Alexander John Cuza, prince
 1866-1881, Carol I, prince
 1881-1914, Carol I, king
 1914-1927, Ferdinand I
 1927-1930, Michael I
 1930-1940, Carol II (abdicated)
 1940-1947, Michael I (abdicated)
 1948, Republic
- Russia**
 1462-1505, Ivan III
 1505-1533, Basil IV
 1533-1584, Ivan IV
 1584-1598, Theodore
 1598-1605, Boris Godunov
 1613-1645, Michael Romanov
 1645-1676, Alexis
 1676-1682, Theodore II
 1682-1689, Ivan V and Peter I
 1689-1725, Peter I
 1725-1727, Catherine I
 1727-1730, Peter II
 1730-1740, Anna
 1740-1741, Ivan VI
 1741-1762, Elizabeth
 1762, Peter III
 1762-1796, Catherine II
 1796-1801, Paul
 1801-1825, Alexander I
 1825-1855, Nicholas I
 1855-1881, Alexander II

- 1881-1894, Alexander III
 1894-1917, Nicholas II
 1917-1923, Republic
 1923- , Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
- Dictators:
 1917-1924, Nicholas Lenin
 1924-1953, Joseph Stalin
 1953-1955, Georgi Malenkov
 1955-1957, Nikolai A. Bulganin
 1957- , Nikita Khrushchev
- Scotland
 See Great Britain
- Serbia
 1459-1830, Part of Turkey
 1804-1813, Karageorge, prince
 1817-1839, Milosh
 1839 , Milan
 1839-1842, Michael
 1842-1858, Alexander
 1858-1860, Milosh
 1860-1868, Michael
 1868-1882, Milan, prince
 1882-1889, Milan, king
 1889-1903, Alexander
 1903-1921, Peter
 1918- , Part of Yugoslavia
- Slavonia: See Croatia
- Slovakia: See Czechoslovakia
- Slovenia (Carniola, etc.)
 1300-1809, Part of Austrian Monarchy
 1809-1813, Part of French Empire
 1813-1918, Part of Austrian Monarchy
 1918- , Part of Yugoslavia
- Spain
 1479-1504, Ferdinand and Isabella
 1504-1506, Ferdinand and Philip I
 1506-1516, Ferdinand and Charles I
 1516-1556, Charles I (V of Holy Roman Empire)
 1556-1598, Philip II
 1598-1621, Philip III
 1621-1665, Philip IV
 1665-1700, Charles II
 1700-1746, Philip V
 1746-1759, Ferdinand VI
 1759-1788, Charles III
 1788-1808, Charles IV
 1808-1813, Joseph Bonaparte
 1813-1833, Ferdinand VII
 1833-1868, Isabella II
 1870-1873, Amadeo of Savoy
 1873-1875, Republic
 1875-1885, Alphonso XII
- 1886-1931, Alphonso XIII
 1931-1939, Republic
 1939- , Dictatorship
- Presidents and Dictator:
 1931-1936, Niceto Zamora
 1936-1939, Manuel Azaña
 1939- , Francisco Franco, dictator
- Sweden
 1397-1523, Part of Danish Monarchy
 1523-1560, Gustavus I Vasa
 1560-1568, Eric XIV
 1568-1592, John III
 1592-1604, Sigismund
 1604-1611, Charles IX
 1611-1632, Gustavus II Adolphus
 1632-1654, Christina
 1654-1660, Charles X
 1660-1697, Charles XI
 1697-1718, Charles XII
 1718-1720, Ulrica Eleonora
 1720-1751, Frederick I
 1751-1771, Adolphus Frederick
 1771-1792, Gustavus III
 1792-1809, Gustavus IV
 1809-1818, Charles XIII
 1818-1844, Charles XIV
 1844-1859, Oscar I
 1859-1872, Charles XV
 1872-1907, Oscar II
 1907-1950, Gustavus V
 1950- , Gustavus VI
- Turkey
 1451-1481, Mohammed II
 1481-1512, Bayezid II
 1512-1520, Selim I
 1520-1566, Suleiman II
 1566-1574, Selim II
 1574-1595, Murad III
 1595-1603, Mohammed III
 1603-1617, Ahmed I
 1617-1618, Mustapha I
 1618-1623, Othman II
 1623-1640, Murad IV
 1640-1648, Ibrahim
 1648-1687, Mohammed IV
 1687-1691, Suleiman III
 1691-1695, Ahmed II
 1695-1703, Mustapha II
 1703-1730, Ahmed III
 1730-1754, Mahmud I
 1754-1757, Othman III
 1757-1773, Mustapha III
 1773-1789, Abdul Hamid I
 1789-1807, Selim III
 1807-1808, Mustapha IV

1808-1839, Mahmud II
 1839-1861, Abdul Medjid
 1861-1876, Abdul Aziz
 1876, Murad V
 1876-1909, Abdul Hamid II
 1909-1918, Mohammed V
 1918-1922, Mohammed VI
 1923-, Republic
Presidents:
 1923-1938, Mustapha Kemal Pasha
 1938-1950, General Ismet Inonu
 1950-, Celal Bayar

West Frankland

840- 877, Charles the Bald
 877- 879, Louis II
 879- 882, Louis III

879- 884, Carloman
 898- 923, Charles the Simple
 936- 954, Louis IV
 954- 986, Lothair
 986- 987, Louis V

Yugoslavia (State of Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes)

1918-1921, Peter I (King of Serbia, 1903-1918)
 1921-1934, Alexander I
 1934-1946, Peter II (Regency Council)
 1946-, Federated Republic proclaimed

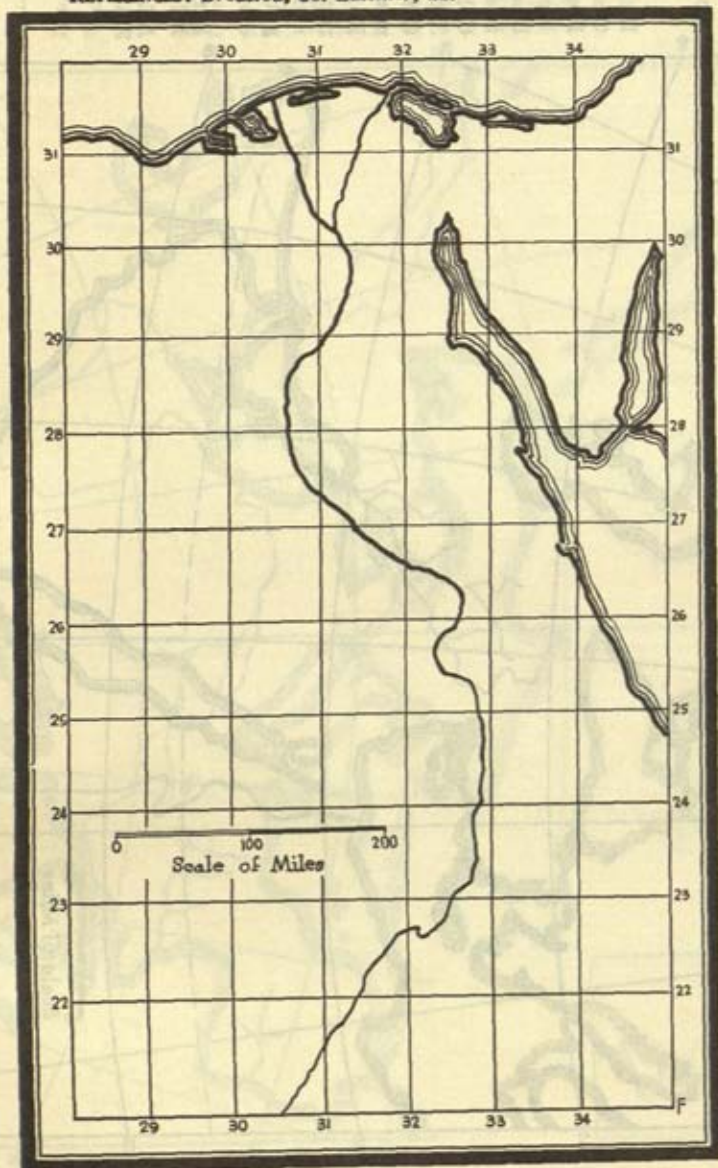
Dictator:

1946-, Marshal Tito

No. 1, Egypt and the Nile Valley:

Insert the following: the Nile valley and bordering plateau, the Red Sea and the Gulf of Suez, the Nile delta, the First and Second Cataracts, and the cities of Alexandria, Cairo, Memphis, and Thebes.

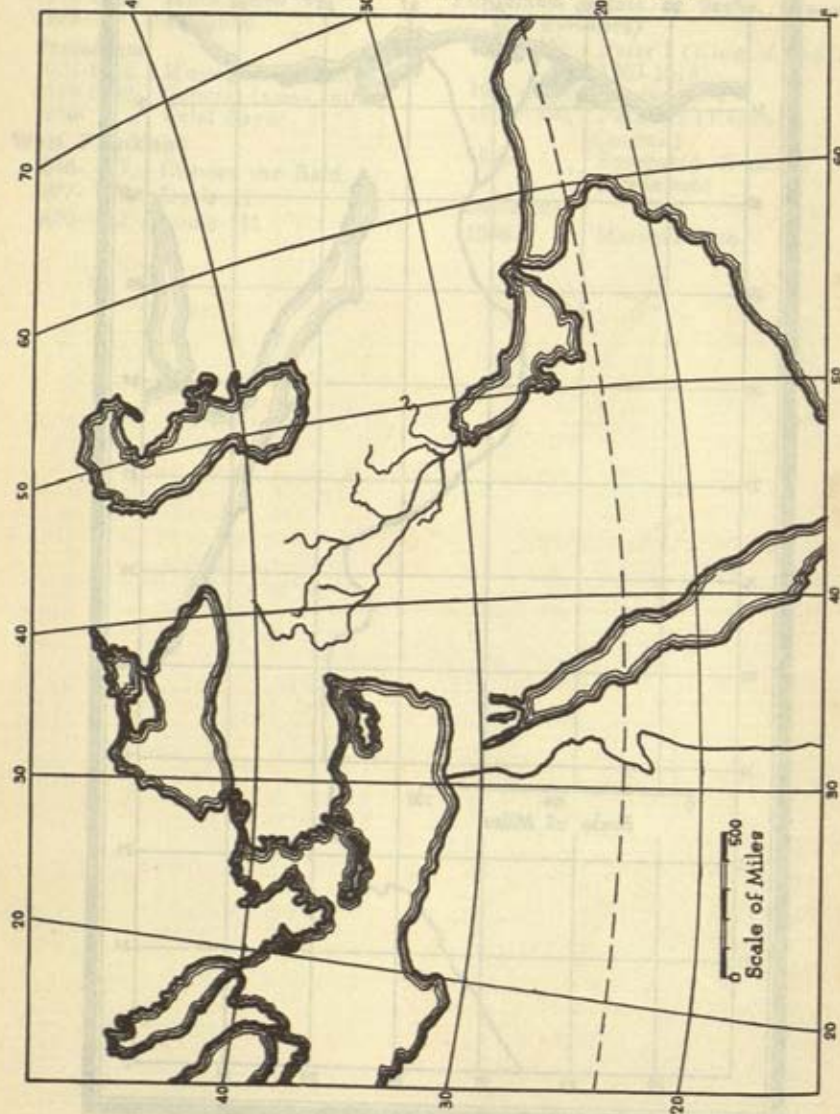
REFERENCES: *Breasted*, 36. *Laistner*, 21.



No. 2, The Ancient Near East:

Locate: the Fertile Crescent, the Arabian Peninsula, the Red Sea, Mediterranean Sea, Black Sea, Caspian Sea, Dead Sea, and Persian Gulf: the Plain of Shinar, Asia Minor, the Caucasus, and Zagros mountains: the Tigris Euphrates, and Nile rivers, and the various nations that arose, together with their capitals.

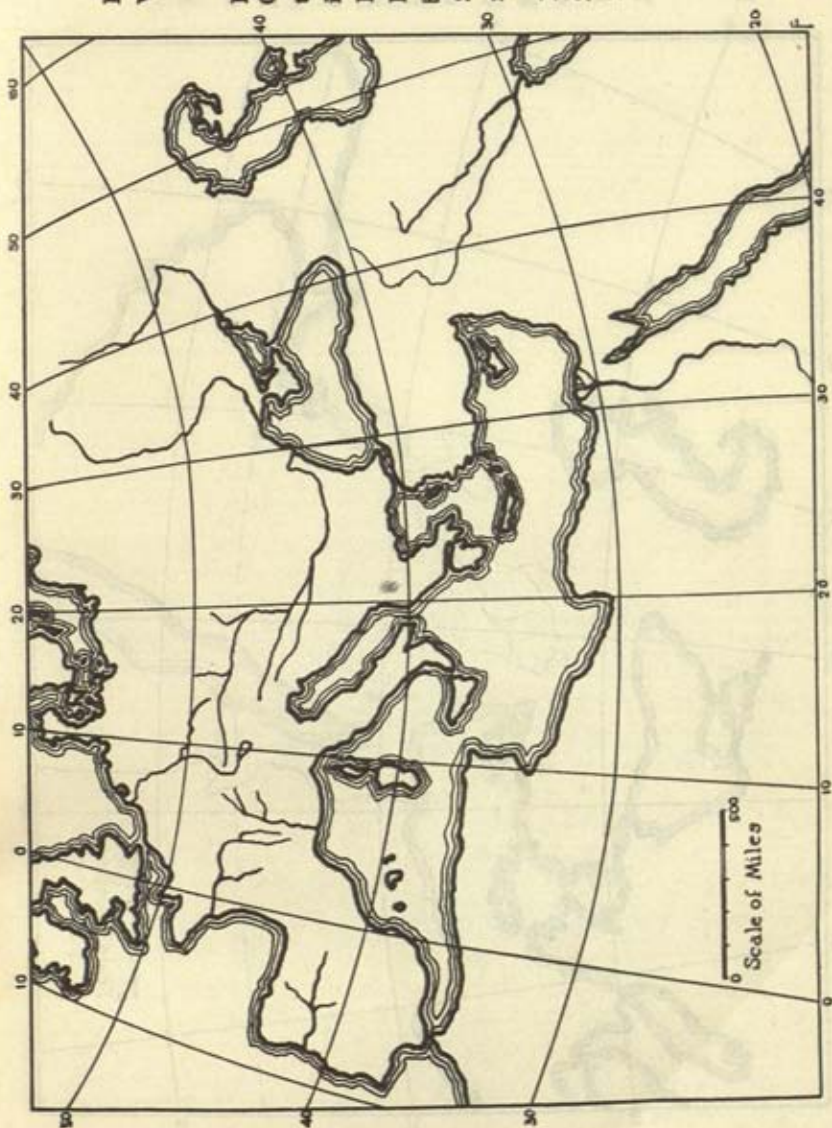
REFERENCES: *Breasted*, 102, 252, 262, 288, 346. *Leistner*, 120, 126, 216, 224. *Thorndike*, 36.



No. 3, The Greek
World, Fifth Cen-
tury B.C.:

Locate and name the
Greek colonies. Name
the bodies of water and
islands on the map.
Bound the Athenian
Empire, and distinguish
between Athenian allies,
Spartan allies, and
neutral states.

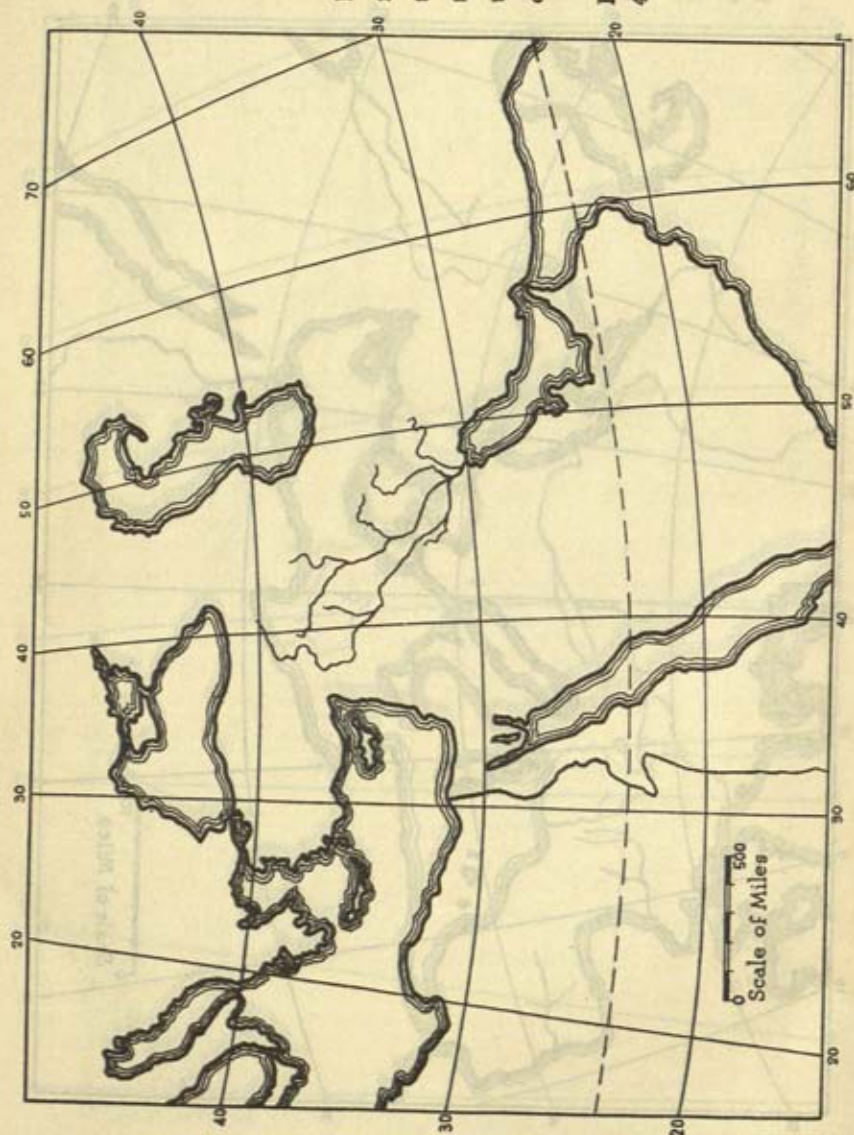
REFERENCES: *Breasted*,
262. *Laisner*, 22A.
Thorndike, 36, 102.



**No. 4, Alexander's
Empire:**

Trace the path of Alexander in his campaigns, and locate places where he fought battles or founded cities. Name the bodies of water on the map and indicate the countries that he conquered.

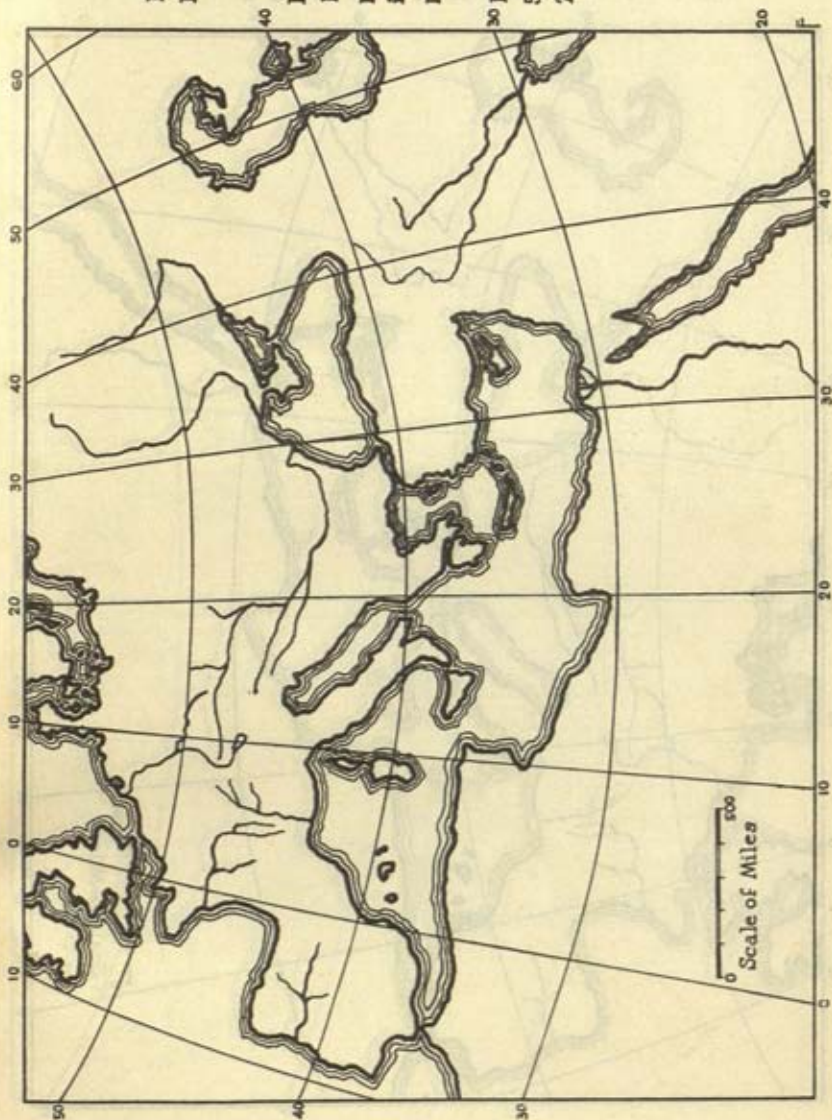
REFERENCES: *Breasted*, 434, 450. *Laitner*, 334.



No. 5, The Roman Empire at Its Greatest Extent:

Indicate the various bodies of water, the provinces, and the most important city in each province.

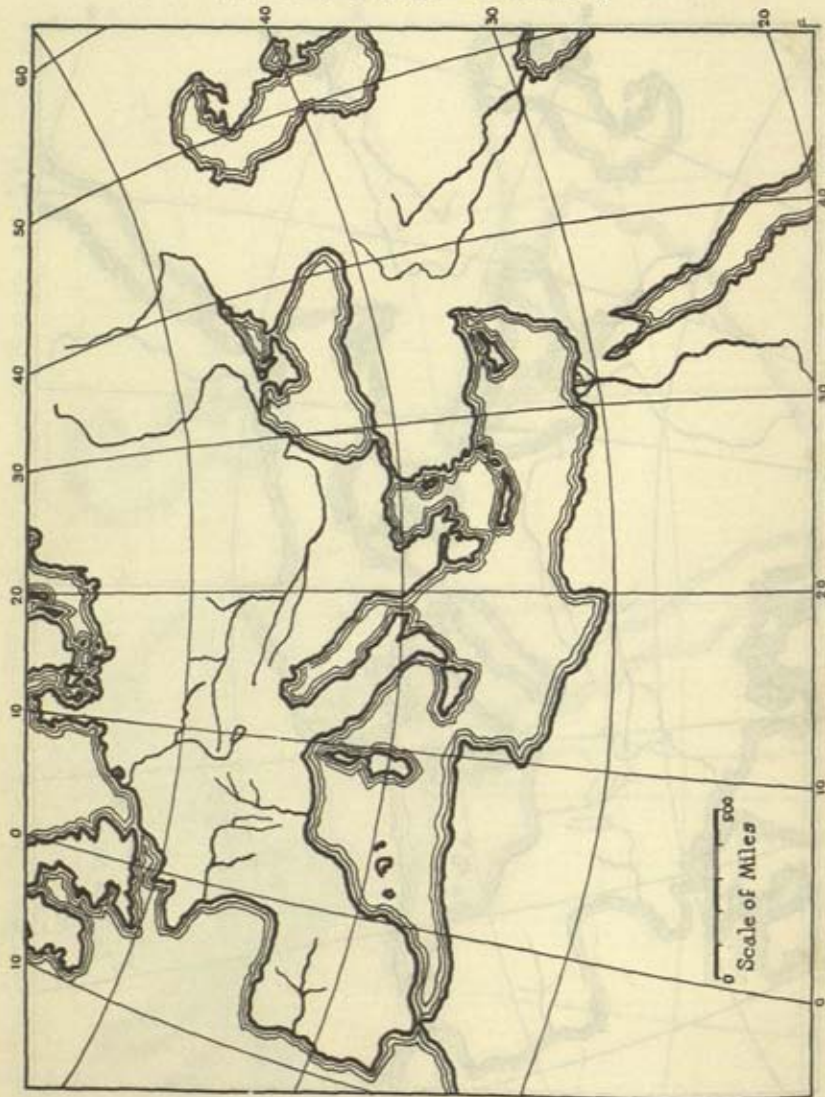
30 REFERENCES: *Breasted, 552, 636. Leistner, 520. Thorndike, 318.*



No. 6, The Barbarian
Invasions of Rome:

Trace the routes taken
by each invading group.
Name the bodies of
water and political sub-
divisions. Locate the
limits of Attila's Em-
pire about 450 A.D.

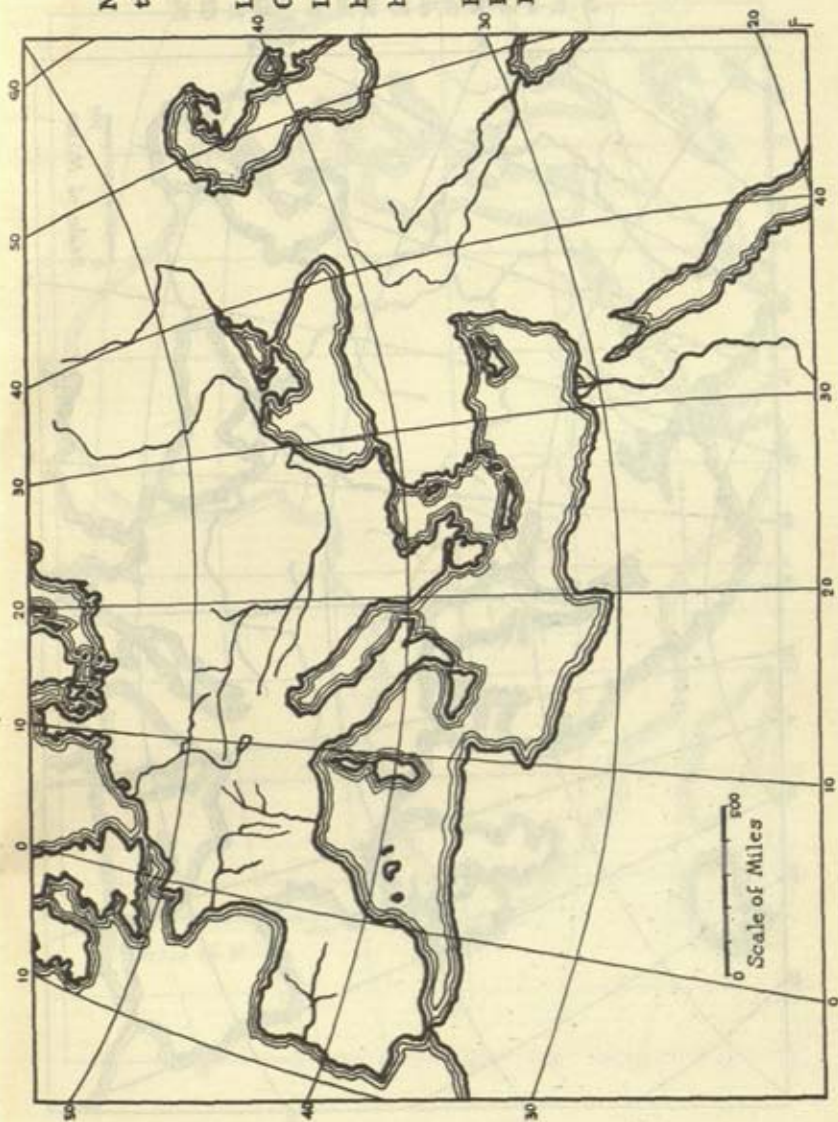
REFERENCES: *Breasted,*
690, Robinson, Brief
Ed., 26; I, 40, Sallery
and Krey, 22, Thomp-
son, 55.



No. 7, The Disruption of Charlemagne's Empire:

Locate the kingdoms of Charles, Lothaire, and Louis in 843. Name the bordering regions or bodies of water.

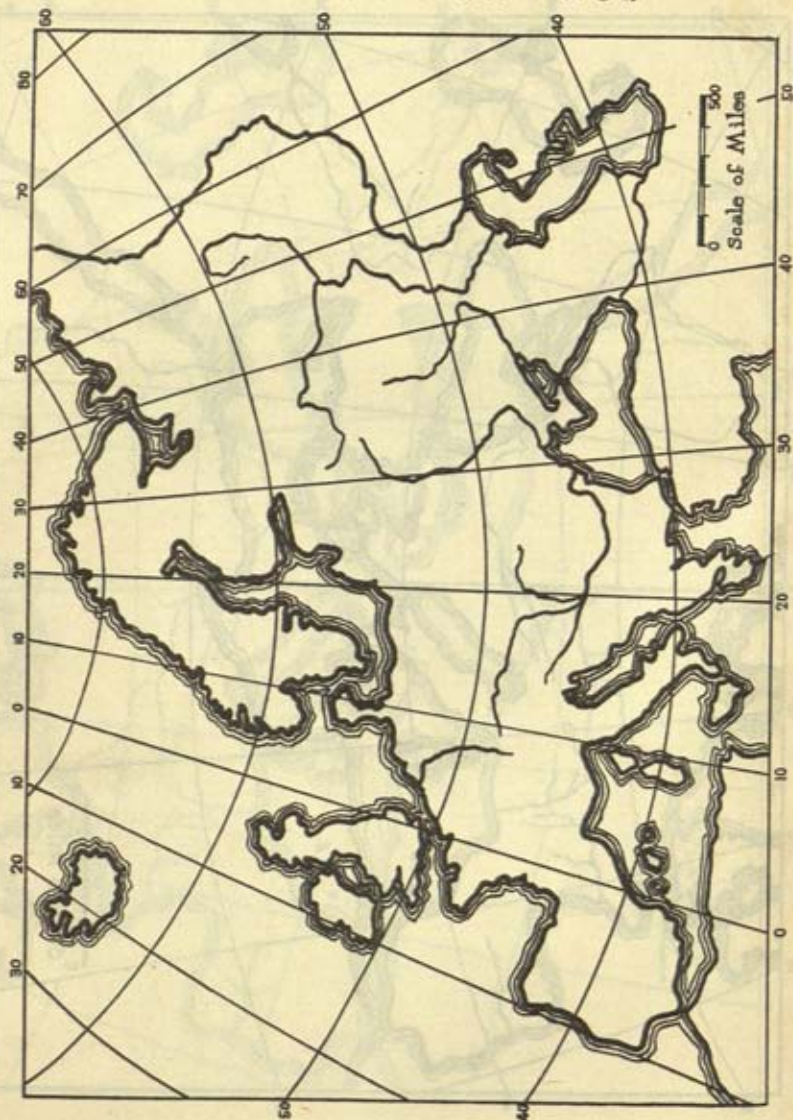
REFERENCES: Robinson, Brief Ed., 93: 1, 110, 119. Thompson, 125.



No. 8, Europe in
1815:

Indicate in an appropriate manner the various political states of Europe after the Congress of Vienna had met, together with the chief city in each state. Name the bodies of water on the map, and insert the six most prominent rivers.

REFERENCES: *Hoyes, II, 1. Robinson, Brief Ed., 626; II, 322. Schapiro, 56. Schenill, 428.*



No. 9, The Partition of Africa:

Show, by colors or otherwise, the territory controlled by each nation of Europe in 1914. Show the independent nations, the chief rivers and lakes, and the bordering bodies of water.

REFERENCES: *Hayes*, II, 625. *Schapiro*, 646. *Schevill*, 628.



No. 10, Europe in
1914:

Locate the various
states of Europe in
1914, together with
their capitals. Name
the most important
bodies of water and
rivers.

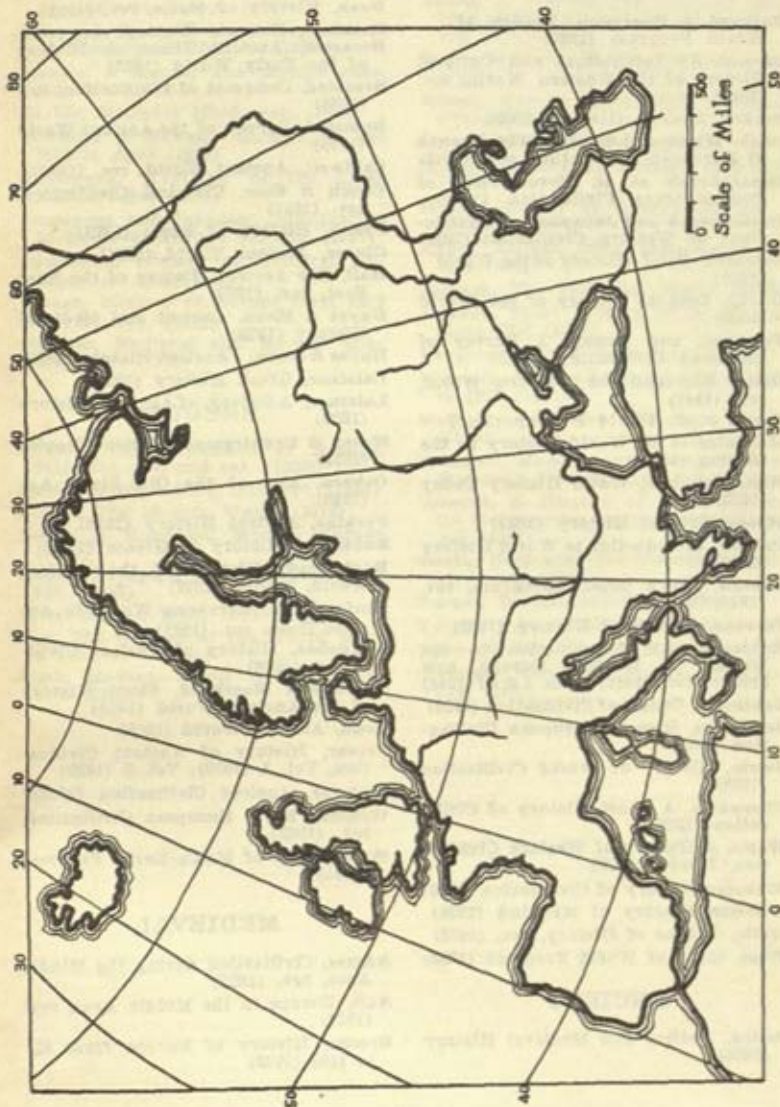
REFERENCES: *Hayes*,
717. *Robinson*, Brief
Ed., 754; II, 444.
Schapiro, 256.



No. 11, Europe in
1920:

Locate the various states
of Europe, together
with their capitals.
Name the most impor-
tant bodies of water
and rivers.

REFERENCES: Robinson,
Brief Ed., 800; II, 484.
Schapiro, 786. Schevell,
684.



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