

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM
IN HUMANITIES FOR THE JUNIOR
COLLEGE CURRICULUM

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AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Accompanying

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM IN
HUMANITIES FOR THE JUNIOR
COLLEGE CURRICULUM**

By

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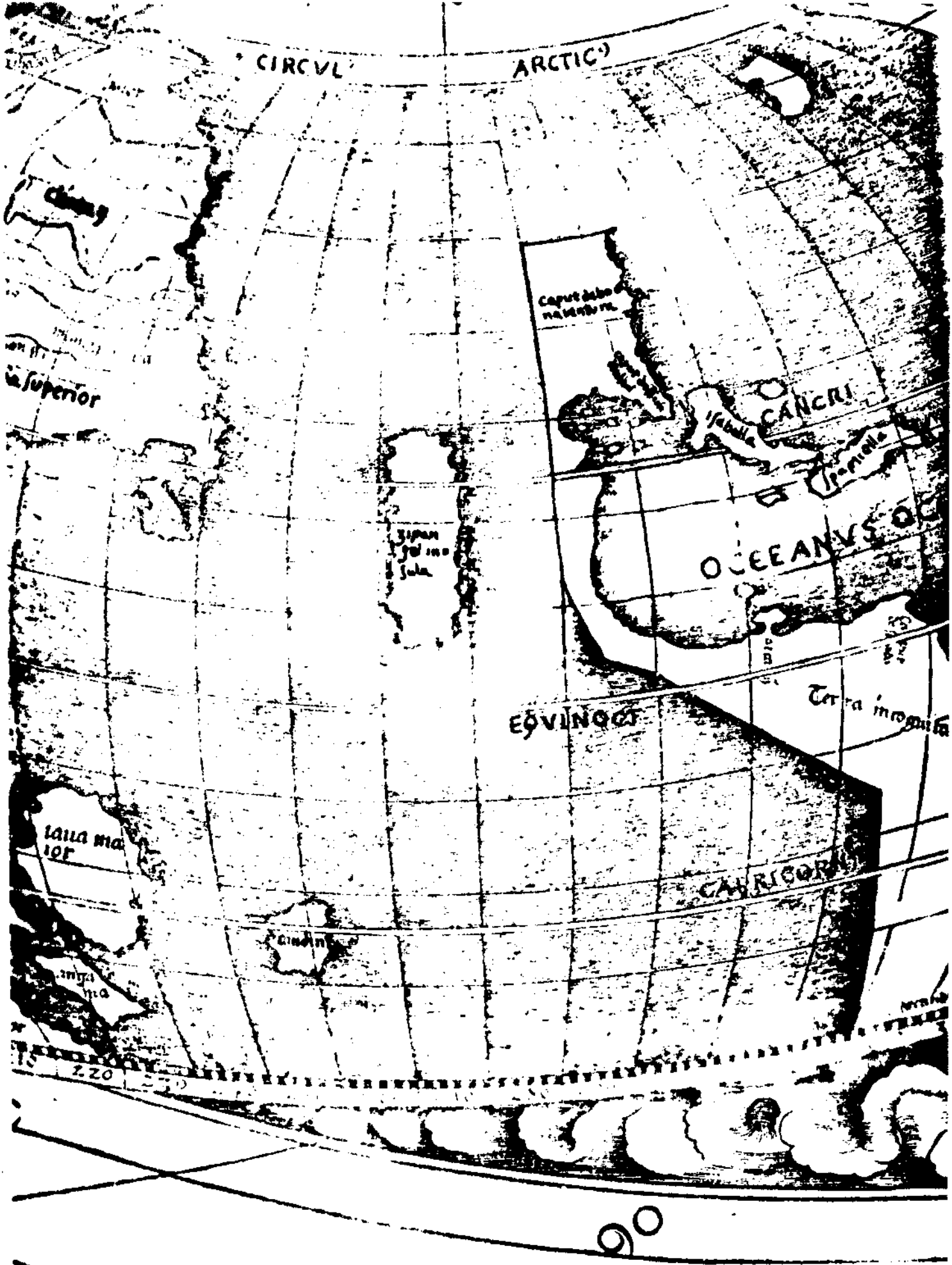
PREFACE

This volume contains a view of history based on ten time-zones. The countries of the world and the achievements in varied fields of learning are scanned in such a way as to present a general overview. Within this overview are summaries of work in certain fields, and there are glimpses of single individuals and events.

The reader may relate items in various countries and in different fields of learning by thinking in terms of these time-zones, each of which occupies a separate section in this volume. The zones were delineated by a study of thinking; that is, a special kind of thinking seemed to characterize each period of time. For example, the Age of Columbus occupied more than a century, but the reader may relate everything in that time-zone by considering the kind of thought that marked Columbus' voyage into unknown waters. The reader is already familiar with the date of Columbus' great discovery; that date is sufficient reference for the reader to be able to place the other events of that time-zone when he wishes to recall any of the other items.

The first time-zone includes the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries and marks the beginnings of our modern world. The last time-zone ends in 1960. Each zone consists of material

compiled from historical references, and quotations are used extensively. The relating of events and describing of individuals, movements, and achievements are presented in concise form, though enough flesh^h remains on the bones for the reader to detect the frequent pulse beat of greatness. This, then, is a historical compendium of the modern man's cultural heritage.



CIRCVL

ARCTICVS

Insula superior

Caput abo...

CANCRI

OCEANVS

Insulae septentrionales

EQUINOCT

Terra incognita

Insulae occidentales

CARIBORVM

220

FRONTISPIECE

The frontispiece is a portion of the world map of 1507 as printed by Martin Waldseemüller. It is the first map known to have used the word "America," a detail not shown in this portion, however. The main feature of this segment is the relationship of China (Chatay), India (India Superior), Japan (Zipangu), and North and South America, the former listing only Caput de Bonaventura, the Cape of Good Adventure and Isabella or Cuba, the latter bluntly stating Terra Incognita, land unknown. In one area of the map, not here shown, is the statement: "Hic videtur in rena horribile monstrum marinum," here in this place may be seen horrible sea monsters.

It is the purpose of this program to explore the mental lands-unknown which the student may have included in his own map of cultural awareness. The most horrible sea monsters live only in places unknown and have been banished from areas being explored herein.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
PREFACE	ii
FRONTISPIECE	iv
NOTES ON FRONTISPIECE	v
SECTION I: THE BEGINNING OF THE RENAISSANCE	1

The Beginning of the Renaissance

Friars

Fourteenth Century

Dante
Petrarch
Boccacci
Chaucer

Art and Literature

Other Writers of Fiction
Mystical Writers
Giotto
Literature

Travel

Trade Guilds

Hospitals

Women

Turkey

Monarchs

Science

Black Death

Clergy

Papal Schism

Universities

Roger Bacon

Gothic Churches

Sculpture and Architecture

Hysterical Social Movements

Social Progress

Democratic Government

Social Conditions

The Hanseatic League

Political and Military Exploits

Military and Political Events

China

The Moslem Communities

Nestorian Christians

Literature

Painting

Japan

Pre-Columbian America

The Aztecs

The Maya

The Chibcha

The Incas

Africa

Summary: Principal Events of the Thirteenth Century

Summary: Principal Events of the Fourteenth Century

SECTION II: AGE OF COLUMBUS 81

Leonardo and His Inventions

Other Painters

Other Sculptors
Art and Architecture
Michelangelo
Louis XI
Literature
America: Pre-Columbian Discoveries
Columbus' Voyages
Post Columbian Discoveries
Savonarola
Hus
Machiavelli
Henry VIII and the English Reformation
Martin Luther and the Protestant Reformation
Swiss Reformation
Geography
Medicine
Guttenburg
Science
Physical Science
Sir Thomas More
Famous Women
Education
Thomas A. Kempis: Imitatio Christi
Lorenzo de Medici
Wars: War of Roses

Tamerlane	
Wars: Fall of Constantinople	
Wars: 100 Years War	
Joan of Arc	
Suleiman	
Africa	
Latin America	
The West Indies and the Isthmus	
Peru and the West Coast	
The Conquest of Mexico	
Expansion to the South	
Summary: Principal Events of the Fifteenth Century	
Summary: Principal Events of the Sixteenth Century	
SECTION III: THE ELIZABETHAN AGE	161
Literature	
Artists	
Galileo	
Francis Bacon	
King James Bible	
Sir Walter Raleigh	
Dancing	
Michel de Nostradamus	
Education in Latin America	
Calvin in Switzerland	
Africa	

North American Exploration by the Spanish

Ignatius Loyola

Music

Meaning of "Baroque"

Physical Sciences

Mary and Elizabeth

Battle of Lepanto

Sain Bartholomew's Day Massacre

Social Conditions

England and Protestantism

The French in North Africa

The English in North America

Virginia

Massachusetts

Island Settlements

Dutch and Swedish Settlements

China

Japan

Summary: The Elisabethan Age

SECTION IV: THE PURITAN AGE 200

French Exploration in North America

The English in North America

Virginia

Massachusetts

Connecticut and Rhode Island

Maryland

Dutch and Swedish Settlements

India

China

Political Unrest in Europe

Coffee and Tea

Literature

French Literature

Philosophers

Mathematics

Artists

Sweden

France

Cromwell

The Revolt Against Puritanism

John Sobieski

Political Revolution

Cultural Progress in American Colonies

Vincent de Paul

Summary: The Puritan Age

SECTION V: THE AGE OF DEPENDENCE 227

Eighteenth Century Slowness

Social Conditions

Political Changes

Wars

Literature

Music

Meaning of "Rococo"

Monarchs

Maria Theresa

Catherine the Great

Education

Science

Philosophy

Spanish Exploration in North America

French Exploration

Japanese Wood-block Prints

Methodism

Summary: The Age of Dependence

SECTION VI: THE AGE OF INDEPENDENCE 254

Literature

Music

Philosophy

Social Reforms

Revolutions

The French Revolution

Napoleon Bonaparte

The American Revolution

George Washington

South American Revolutions

The Industrial Revolution

Science

Science Survey

Spanish Exploration in North America

British and French Exploration

Judicial Review

The Louisiana Purchase

Northeastern Confederacy

Lewis and Clark Expedition

War With the Pirates

Slavery and Social Progress

Baseball

Japan

Summary: The Age of Independence

SECTION VII: INTERNATIONAL GROWING PAINS 290

The Holy Alliance

French Politics

The Rise of Germany

Wars

The Civil War

Unification of Italy

Development of British Colonies

Hospitals

Oxford Movement

Art

Music

Early Negro Music

Karl Marx and Communism

Literature

Philosophy

Science

Science Summary

Exploration

Japan

Japanese Art

Africa

Summary: International Growing Pains

SECTION VIII: THE VICTORIAN AGE 332

Germany

William Gladstone

Spanish American War

Social Conditions

Commerce

Music

Literature

Drama

The Boer War

Africa

Monarchy

Prelude to War

Football

Basket Ball

Exploration

Art

Science

Science Survey

Summary: The Victorian Age

SECTION IX: THE SOPHISTICATED AGE 387

World War I

 The Versailles Treaty and the League of Nations

 Political Changes in the Near East

 Standard of Living

 Reforms

 Art

 Classic Music

 Jazz

 Philosophy

 Literature

 Drama

 Literary Criticism

 Exploration

 Monarchy

 British Government

 Russian Revolution and Development

 The Russian Revolution and Development Summarized

 The German Axis

 Economics and the "New Deal"

 Prelude to a Second World War

 Hitler's Rise

World War II

 The Russian Campaign

 The Battle of Britain

 The United States and the War

Religion	
Science	
Science Survey	
Summary: The Sophisticated Age	
SECTION XI: THE HOPEFUL AGE	446
Literature	
Music	
Science	
The End of World War II	
The Organization of Peace	
The United Nations	
Importance of the United Nations	
United States Political Policies	
Developments in Europe	
The Middle East and North Africa	
Palestine (Israel)	
Indo-China	
Other Far Eastern Matters	
India	
Formation of NATO	
The Korean War	
Brasilia	
Summary: The Hopeful Age	
APPENDIX	485
BIBLIOGRAPHY	496

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Section I

The Beginning of the Renaissance

Friars.--"The social history of the time is its most interesting feature for our era. The beginning of the period saw the rise of the two great mendicant orders, the Begging Friars, the Franciscans and Dominicans. A world so deeply intent on commerce as to give rise to Hansa and the great Italian commercial cities was afforded the example of two large bodies of men who took voluntary poverty for their lot so as to be free to do better things in life" (85, p. 561).

"The coming of the Friars in such an age produced a deep impression. Saint Francis is one of the most lovable men of all history. A young man who, during convalescence from a severe illness, learns in Dean Stanley's words that 'the world looks very different when viewed from the horizontal,' gets up from it, resolved that the fascination of trifles shall not obscure the good things of life. He proceeded to forget all about himself and his personal interests and found that all the world began to think of him. He got so close to the heart of nature that it is not surprising that we have legends that the birds and the fishes, and even the wolf of Gubbio harkened to him. He gathered around him a group of men forever

famous for their absolute simplicity of life and for their refusal to let selfish motives rule them in any way. Such a life might seem too ideal to have any practical influence over mankind, and, above all, too mystical to make any appeal except to a mediaeval world, yet literally dozens of lives of Saint Francis have been written in our very busy practical age. Probably never since his own time has there been so many people, and above all so many whose opinion is of value, ready to proclaim Saint Francis one of the most wonderful characters of humanity as in our age of crowded interests. The love for Lady Poverty of the 'little poor man of God,' as he loved to call himself, has appealed to all religious and poetic souls ever since. No wonder that Dante has made such a brave figure of him in the 'Divine Comedy,' and placed beside him as equal in influence and power the great founder of the Dominicans" (85, p. 562).

Fourteenth Century

Dante.--Following the great outburst of human achievement which came in the 13th century, the 14th might be expected to present a higher step in culture in accordance with the law of progress that is often presumed to rule in human affairs. On the contrary, as is so often noted, this great artistic period was followed by a time when art became more conscious, and elements of degeneracy are readily noted. The century witnessed a combination of its art and philosophy in Dante,

who was 35 years of age when it opened. His great poems belong to the century however, so that the period possesses the greatest poem, if not the greatest poet of all times" (86, p. 551).

"The literary monuments of the 14th century make it immortal. Dante's 'Divine Comedy' has been proclaimed by some the greatest poem ever written. It has not only lived, but with certain brief intervals has been a constant source of inspiration to poets, artists and serious students of every kind ever since. Now that the 600th anniversary of his death (1321) has been celebrated, Dante is higher in the world honor than ever. There have been periods of comparative neglect of their greatest poet which have only served to illustrate Cornelius' law, that whenever the Italians appreciate Dante properly, art and literature flourish finely, while whenever he is neglected they are in decadence. The profound influence of Dante over subsequent literature all over Europe can be best gauged by the number of works written with regard to him. The Dante Library at Cornell contains some 9,000 volumes and thousands of other titles of Dantiana, and the Dante section of the British Museum contains some material not represented at Cornell. Petrarch in one mode of literature, the sonnet, had a more immediate effect upon European literature than Dante, and gave rise to a flood of sonnets all over Europe. He continues to be the poets' poet at least" (86, pp. 552-53).

Petrarch.--"Scholarship rather than literature was the occupation of the university men of this century. Petrarch went so far as to write what he hoped was to be his greatest poem, the work by which he was to live, his epic, 'Africa,' in Latin, though this was a generation after Dante had written his 'Divine Comedy' in Italian. Petrarch could scarcely think that the vulgar tongue was elegant enough to hold thought for any length of time. Italian might do for love sonnets to be read for a generation or two but not for enduring literature. His Latin epic is never looked at now while his sonnets are a world possession. Petrarch's spirit influenced all the universities. It was a time of classical learning but only of the Latin classics. Greek attracted attention only in the next century. Translations of the Scriptures into the modern languages were being made, and the sublimity of thought in the Bible made even translations of literary value while the familiarity of the people with Scriptural expressions began the fixation of the mother tongue" (86, p. 552).

Boccaccio.--"Boccaccio created out of older elements a fictional literary mode scarcely less influential than that of Petrarch and his book has been read in all languages ever since, though not so much for its literary value as its abiding appeal to human nature. Italy anticipated the other countries of Europe in the creation in this century of a national literature that was to be a living force ever

afterward, but other countries mainly under her influence succeeded in the same achievement" (86, p. 553).

Chaucer.--"After Italian, English literature had the highest development at this time. Chaucer (1320-1400), probably a student of Cambridge, visited Italy when nearly 50 years of age and came under the influence of Petrarch, then the most illustrious man of letters in Europe. It was after his return from Italy that in imitation of Boccaccio he wrote his greatest and most original work, 'The Canterbury Tales.' Written in an English not very different from that of our time, this is one of the world's greatest works of literature, full of wit, humor, pathos and knowledge of humanity; written from so close to the heart of nature that it has lived and will live" (86, p. 553).

"Geoffrey Chaucer (c. 1340-1400), son of a London burgher, a layman, attached to the circle of John of Gaunt, a diplomat, active at court, later member of Parliament, combined observation with learning. Translator of Boethius' *Consolatio*, etc. Representative of the new cosmopolitanism of English society, he was under Italian and French influences; probably knew Petrarch. Creator of English versification; recaster of the English vocabulary by adding continental grace to the ruder Anglo-Saxon word-treasury. The influence of Wyclif, Oxford, Cambridge, the court, and above all, Chaucer, fixed Midland English as the language of the English people. The *Canterbury Tales* are a witty, sympathetic, sophisticated,

realistic picture of contemporary society (omitting the aristocracy)" (86, p. 553).

Art and Literature

*Perpendicular Gothic: Gloucester, transepts and choir (1331-1335); cloisters (1351-1412). Minor arts: Louterell Psalter (opening of the 14th century), illustrations. English influence on craftsmen of Rhineland, Paris, Lorraine.

*Popular songs: Anti-French songs in celebration of victories at Halidon Hill, Sluys, the capture of Calais, etc., c. 1377 first mention of Robin Hood" (39, p. 267).

Other writers of fiction.--"John Gower's (1325-1408) 'Confessio Amantis,' a collection of stories like the Tales, written after his friend Chaucer had demonstrated the power of expression of English, and diverted him from his Latin though he had to display his erudition in the title at least, is mainly of academic interest, a work of pedantry rather than of human nature, but completing our knowledge of the intellectual interests of the time for that very reason by its contrast with Chaucer. The third English literary movement of this century is the Vision of Piers Ploughman, probably by William Langland (1332?-1399?), a clergyman in sympathy with the lower classes. It is a spirited satire against vice and abuses in general, not sparing the faults of the churchmen of that time, emphasized by the social conditions after the Black Death. France possesses one writer of cardinal

importance in the period, Froissart, the historian who wrote in prose. England has her corresponding prose writer in the unknown translator of Sir John Mandeville's Voyages, the first to handle English prose as Chaucer did verse, with freedom and independence.

"The 14th century presents an unexpected feature of history in the career of a woman writer, who finding herself a widow at the age of 25 with three children to support, proceeded to make a living for them with her pen. This was Christine de Pisan, born in Italy but brought up in France and writing French ballades, rondeaux and other poems as well as an immense amount of hack work prose, translations and compilations of all kinds, so that, as she herself says, 'in the short space of six years (1397-1403) I wrote 15 important books, without mentioning minor essays which compiled, made 70 large copy-books.' It is indeed illuminating for the time to find the career of this kind in it, and it can scarcely help but revolutionize many commonly accepted notions with regard to mediaeval lack of interest in such things and utter denial of opportunities for a successful intellectual life for women who possessed the necessary talent and initiative" (86, p. 553).

Mystical writers.--"A very interesting development in the literature of this time is that of the mystical writers who in Italy, France, Germany and England wrote works which have

continued to live because of the depth of their meaning but mainly for their literary quality. Piers Ploughman in England and Wyclif's work belong in this class. Wyclif's translation of the Bible deeply influenced all subsequent English writers. Gasquet has disputed the genuineness of the versions of Scriptures attributed to Wyclif, and there is now no doubt that the Bible was familiar to laymen before this and that translations of the New Testament in English were common before Wyclif. Two 14th century works in Italian, the 'Fioretti' of Saint Francis and the letters and 'dialogues' of Saint Catherine of Siena are now attracting wide attention, 500 years later. The 'Fioretti,' which breathes the charm of Saint Francis better than anything ever written about him, has had a striking revival. The development of feminism has brought with it a renewal of attention to Catherine of Siena (1347-1380). Though she did not learn to read until she was 25 nor to write until she was 30 (and she died at 33), her 'work has survived the wreck of time because she wrote with a passionate tenderness, intense and always present, which her deep feeling transmutes into eloquence.' (Snell, 'Periods of Literature, Fourteenth Century'). She is the classic of Sienese, the other mode of Tuscan, besides the Florentine. These two equally influenced modern Italian. Saint Catherine, who was that curious composite being, 'a mystic, a poet, a politician and a saint,' deeply impressed her time. Her life was full of visions, yet she was a great practical social

worker who led in the correction of many abuses and the consolation of many sufferings and whose influence became so great that she was the peacemaker of the troubled times, not only between individuals but also cities and states. To her influence more than to any other single factor is due the return of the Popes from Avignon to Rome. In France, Jean Gerson (1363-1429), the chancellor of the University of Paris, deeply moved his own succeeding generations by his preaching and writing, and the authorship of the Imitation of Christ was for long attributed to him. It was in Germany, however, that mysticism in our modern sense of the word flourished at this time. Master Eckert with John Tauler and Heinrich Seuse, his disciples, created a mode of literature that was to have its culmination in the immortal 'Imitatio Christ' by a Kempis" (86, p. 553).

Giotto.--Painting had a wonderful period of development during the century. Cimabue at Florence and Duccio at Perugia had made great beginnings in the 13th century, and Giotto in the 14th continued their traditions and brought decorative art to one of its highest points of achievement. His pictures of the life of Saint Francis of Assisi and his decorations for the Chapel of the Arena at Padua are still the subject of loving study by painters, not only out of reverence for the past but particularly for the fine points of technique which they illustrate for all time. 'As compositions in color and

as wall decorations with certain architectural effects they have almost never been excelled. As serious and faithful efforts to realize the inner meaning of significance of the Bible stories and of the Franciscan incidents, they are quite admirable.' (Goodyear). Giotto was one of the first to make portrait studies and he has all the qualities of a great portrait painter. He was never surpassed in solemnity and seriousness, in religious feeling and in original power. The work of his students in the Campo Santo Pisa has always attracted loving attention" (86, pp. 553-54).

"The literature of the century is the proof of the intellectual quality of the time, for it was not only great but widely read. Its value will be best recognized from the fact that probably well-read people know the works of the 13th century better than that of any other, except their own, though they are often not quite conscious of the fact, not having noted the dates. The enduring work of the time begins with the Arthur legends put into fine literary form by Walter Map of Mapes, just as the century begins. To him we owe Lancelot. 'Like Paris, handsome, and like Hector, brave,' but with a fault that makes him even more appealing, so that probably he is the most interesting character of fiction ever created. Then came the ballads of the Cid in Spain, followed by the Nibelungenlied with the Meisteringers and Minnesingers and then the Troubadours and Trouveres with the Romance of the

Rose and Renard the Fox in what we call France, and, finally, the Trovatori in Italy, culminating in Dante who, the greatest of the Trovatori, was just ready to write what has often been proclaimed the greatest poem of all literature, as the century closed. Such other writers as Vilehardouin, Joinville, Matthew of Paris, the earliest encyclopedists, Vincent of Beauvais, Thomas of Cantimprato, Bartholomew the Englishman, and such works as that of William of Durandus and Jacobus de Voragine of the Golden Legend, are perennially interesting. The century has also the greatest of the Latin hymns, the Dies Irae, the Stabat Mater, the marvelously beautiful religious poetry of Saint Francis himself, of Saint Thomas Aquinas, of Bernard of Morlaix and of Saint Bonaventure.

"The century saw the publication of what must be considered the first of encyclopedias. Vincent of Beauvais, under the patronage of Louis IX, with the aid of a great many young assistants of the Dominican Order whose expenses were generously defrayed by the king, was enabled to gather an immense amount of information for his time. In spite of the difficulty of hand transcription, his work extends to over 50 of our volumes octavo. The matter is well chosen and of wide interest, and the surprise is how many things supposed to be much more modern in human knowledge are to be found in Vincent. Pagel declared 'the reading of the work easily becomes absorbing'" (85, p. 560).

Travel

"The century provided a magnificent series of contributions by explorers to the knowledge of the world at that time. Travelers in the Near and Far East told the stories of how other people lived and their books still extant demonstrate what excellent observers they were. The greatest of these explorers was Marco Polo, whose name was for so long a by-word for credulity and tendency to exaggeration, who proves now, like Herodotus, to have had a basis of real truth for all that he told. He visited the Christian kingdom of Abyssinia as well as China and nearly all the world between. He told of Burrah, of Siam, of Cochin China, of Japan, of Java, of Ceylon and India and he had heard interesting accounts of the coast of Zanzibar and distant Madagascar and at the opposite end of the world of Siberia and the shores of the Arctic Ocean. Colonel Yule, a modern authority on the literature of travel, can scarcely find words to praise Polo enough. There were many other famous travelers whose works have come down to us from the century and are republished in recent years. Friar John of Carpini went on a mission to the Tatar emperor of the time, across the Ural Mountains and River, past the northern part of the Caspian Sea, across the Jaxartes, along the Dzungarian lakes to the Imperial camp near the Orkhan River. Friar William of Rubruk or Rubruquis, the account of whose travels was printed by Hakluyt in his collection of voyages at the end of the 16th century, went even

further. Some of his observations, as for instance on Chinese writing, are surprising enough, but he has many details of Asiatic nature, ethnography, manners, morals, commercial customs, that were true to life. Friar Oderic a little later traveled through India and then through China to Nankin and Peking, reached the Great Wall, entered Tibet and appears to have visited Lhasa. Sir John Mandeville (15th century) borrowed much from him, as well as from the Praemonstratensian monk Hayton. Most of the men who thus wandered in distant lands were graduates of the universities of the time and while they were credulous with regard to what they heard, very much as Herodotus himself, they could be absolutely depended on for information with regard to things which they themselves had seen" (85, pp. 560-61).

Trade Guilds

"Besides the intellectual education which came in the cathedral schools and their developments at the universities there was a great phase of popular education along artistic lines which was initiated in the midst of the building of the cathedrals. Most of the beautiful things in the great Gothic churches were made by workmen of the little mediaeval towns in which they were built. None of these had more than a few thousand and probably did not average 10,000 inhabitants. Somehow artistic artisans to do all the beautiful work demanded were found and there was the popular taste to appreciate

and the diffusion of liberal education to patronize and encourage the making of such beautiful things. There are receipted bills for the payment to village blacksmiths and village carpenters, for iron and woodwork, which we now rank as artistic masterpieces. Practically all the decorations and fittings of their cathedrals were executed by the townsmen themselves and even their bells and stained glass were made at home, not brought from a distance. Transportation difficulties threw them back on themselves and compelled technical developments while transportation facilities in our time have had the opposite effect. To secure the making of such beautiful things there had to be a skilled and well-trained group of artisans. There has probably never been a time when the arts and crafts, in our modern sense of that term, have been so appreciated and cultivated. In this culture the working classes were probably the most important factor. Technical training was provided by the guilds. Boys were apprenticed to trades and crafts of various kinds, and after four or five years of training became journeymen and traveled from place to place to learn the secrets and customs of their craft in the various regions. After two or three years of this on the presentation and acceptance of an example of their work called a masterpiece--this is where this old English word comes from--they were admitted as master workmen into the guild. This represented a degree in technics. The

guild training was practically a technical school and as the guilds existed everywhere opportunities for arts and crafts education abounded. Any growing youth who had taste or talent for any form of artistic work could easily secure the opportunity for its development and then, more important still, obtain the chance to do his work in conditions where encouragement and appreciation would come to him. In England at the end of the Middle Ages there were 30,000 guilds (Foulmin Smith), the county of Norfolk alone having 900, the small town of Wymondham having 11 still known by name. One of them possessed a guild hall. All the guilds of the town are said to have been 'well endowed with lands and tenements.' In Bury Saint Edmunds, Suffolk, there were 23 guilds; Boston, Lincolnshire, had 14 of which the titles and particulars are known and London had a large number. The guild had increased in number greatly from the 13th century but there is definite evidence that most of the important guilds in existence in England at the end of the 15th century had been in existence for several hundred years. During this time they had accumulated very large amounts of money and invested funds of various kinds, not so much from the fees paid by their members as from bequests of various kinds made to them because it was felt that they were doing great good work. Unfortunately it was this accumulation of money that led to their legal destruction, though a few of the London guilds which

were spared in the time of Henry VIII on the plea that they were trading or secular associations and not religious organizations have at the present time an income of over \$50,000 per year each. The old guilds were trades unions, social clubs, insurance societies, civic organizations, popular entertainment committees, but without religious sodalities enforcing fulfillment of religious duties yet not permitting the clergy to hold office or dominate policy" (85, p. 561).

Hospitals

"The development of hospitals in the 13th century has been the subject of much study in the modern time. Virchow particularly has shown that there was probably scarcely a town of 5,000 inhabitants or more in Germany which did not have a hospital. He attributes this great development, more marked even in other countries than in Germany, to Pope Innocent III who founded 'the hospital of the Santo Spirito by the old bridge across the Tiber and blessed and dedicated it as the future centre of a universal humanitarian organization.' Pope Innocent summoned Guy of Montpelier to Rome, having heard that he was in charge of the best organized hospital of the time, built Santo Spirito under his direction and then when bishops come to Rome, as they had at regular intervals, he commended the hospital of Santo Spirito to their study and recommended, where it was virtually a command, that there should be a hospital as far as possible like that,

according to conditions in each locality, in every diocese in the world. Many of these hospitals were beautifully built. Municipalities constructed them for their citizens and they were public buildings, part of the scheme of the city beautiful which so many mediaeval cities cherished. In smaller places hospitals were often built by the nobility and Virchow has called attention to the number of them constructed under the patronage of the family to which Saint Elizabeth of Hungary belonged. Her hospital at Marburg not far from where the beautiful church erected in her honor a few years after her death now stands, was a model for others. The hospital of Siena, added to (14th century) in memory of Saint Catherine, was another center of charitable influence. The sister of Saint Louis of France, Marguerite of Bourgoigne, built a beautiful hospital at Tonnerre, which Viollet le Duc has figured in his 'Dictionary of Architecture.' This shows how well these hospitals solved the problems of hospital construction which we have realized again in the modern time. There was a fine organization of nursing in these hospitals under the care of religious orders of men and women, especially the Augustinians. How well their work was done can be best appreciated from the great development of surgery which took place at this time, for good surgery is impossible without good hospitals and good nursing. Portions of many of these hospitals remain as evidence for what they were" (85, p. 562).

Women

"With a notable development of social service during the century and the opportunity afforded for feminine education, it is not surprising that the names of a series of women of this time are well known, indeed their prestige has been growing constantly in this last generation just in proportion as similar opportunities are afforded in this century. Saint Elizabeth of Hungary is probably the most famous and the beautiful cathedral erected in her honor at Marburg within a few years after her death, one of the handsomest monuments ever raised to a woman, is the testimony of her generation to their affectionate regard for the 'dear Mrs. Saint Elizabeth' (Frau Heilige Elizabeth) as they quaintly called her because she was just a wife and the mother of four children who, though she died at 24, had found time to do great good work for the poor around her. Queen Blanche of Castile, the mother of Saint Louis of France, was another wonderful mother of the time. Her great son attributed all that he was to his mother's training. She was an administrator of high ability who lifted France out of a period of threatened anarchy to preserve his kingdom for her boy, and yet declared that she would rather see him dead at her feet than know that he had committed a mortal sin. The great women of the time came not only on thrones but also among the middle classes. Another mother of the time whose name is recalled in veneration was the wife of

a London tradesman, Mabel Rich, whose son, Saint Edmund of Canterbury, one of the most sterling characters of the time, a scholarly churchman, made archbishop, went into exile rather than submit to a tyrant king. Edmund tells how the poor around his mother's home in London blessed her for her charity and was quite frank that he owed nearly everything in life to her. Another distinguished Englishwoman whose name has come down to us from this time is Isabella, the famous countess of Arundel. She did not hesitate to admonish even the king himself, Henry VIII, when he was violating the liberties of England. Matthew Paris says that with dignity which was more than that of woman she reminded the king that many times he had extorted money from his subjects and not kept his word and the rights of Englishmen were written down and he was violating them. With the revival of interest in Saint Francis there has come a parallel rebirth of admiration for Saint Clare of Assisi who at the age of 17 left home to have Saint Francis teach her how to live a life that would not be wasted in worldliness. Her mother and sister, who had opposed her vocation originally, joined her in the second order of Franciscans in a few years" (85, pp. 562-63).

Turkey

"The foundation of the Ottoman or Turkish Empire (1299) under Othman I in Bithynia led to the consolidation of Mohammedan power to the serious disturbance of Europe. The

Turks are historically relatives of the Mongols who had already created the splendid empire of the Seljuks and who from the 11th to the 13th century governed the greater part of the caliphs' dominions in Asia and thus prepared the way for the Ottomans, their successors. The nucleus of their empire was formed in Asia Minor toward the end of the century under Ertoghul. Osman, or Othman, or Ottoman, his son, is looked upon as the founder of the empire" (85, p. 563).

Monarchs

"The century saw the career of the best ruler of all time, Louis IX of France, or Saint Louis as he came to be called. It has been said of him, 'Of all the rulers of men of whom we have record in history, he probably took his duties the most seriously with regard for others and least for himself and his family.' The watchword of his rule was justice, though he made it the aim of his life that men should have justice and education, and when for any misfortune they needed it--charity. For an unjust judge there was short shrift. The old tree at Versailles under which he used to hear the causes of the poor who appealed to him stood for many centuries the living reminder of Louis' efforts to make the dispensing of justice equal to all men. Voltaire, unsympathetic in so many ways, said of him, 'Louis IX appeared to be a prince destined to reform Europe if she could have been reformed, to render France triumphant and civilized and to be in all things a

pattern for men. A far-reaching policy was combined with strict justice and he is perhaps the only sovereign who is entitled to this praise; prudent and firm in counsel, intrepid without rashness in his wars, he was as compassionate as if he had always been unhappy. No man could have carried virtue further.' Guizot, the French statesman and historian, so little appealed to by the mediaeval, said 'The world has seen more profound politicians on the throne, greater generals, men of more mighty and brilliant intellect, princes that have exercised more powerful influence over later generations; but it has never seen such a king as this Saint Louis, never seen a man possessing sovereign power and yet not contracting the vices and passions which attend it, displaying upon the throne in such a high degree every human virtue, purified and ennobled by Christian faith. He was an ideal man, king and Christian, an isolated figure without any peer among his successors or contemporaries.' His reign is the history of France for nearly 50 years (1226-70). He influenced not alone France but the other peoples of his time deeply. He was chosen as the umpire in disputes in foreign countries.

"Louis' instructions to his son, so emphatic of justice as the great law among men, his deep interest in education, his foundation of the Sorbonne, his beneficence to the University of Paris, his encouragement of art and architecture, La Saint Chapelle is his monument, as well as his scholarly

patronage of men of letters in friendly intercourse, all stamps him as one of the most broad-minded of men" (85, p. 563).

"Two great Spanish monarchs deserve to be mentioned beside Saint Louis. They are Ferdinand (1200-1252), the Saint, king of Castile and Leon, whose mother, Berengaria, was the sister of Blanche of Castile, the mother of Saint Louis. To him is due the collection of translations in the vernacular of the Forum Judicum or Code of Visigothic laws, which is one of the oldest specimens of Castilian prose extant and the foundation of Spanish jurisprudence. His son, Alfonso X (1221-84), the Wise, is also known as the astronomer because of the Alfonsine tables, a series of astronomical observations compiled by his direction, but better known as the author of the code Las Siete Partidas, the basis of modern Spanish law. Ticknor ('History of Spanish Literature') declared that Alfonso 'first made Castilian a national language by causing the Bible to be translated into it and by requiring it to be used in all legal proceedings.' Under these two great monarchs, Spanish literature began its magnificent course, the ballads of the Cid and of Bernardo del Carpio becoming the common property of the people" (85, p. 564).

Science

"One of the last gifts which Mohammedan science transmitted to the western world was the 'Arabic' system of numbers,

which the Arabs had themselves acquired from India. Adelard of Bath had first introduced it when he translated al-Khwarizmi's arithmetic into Latin early in the 12th century, but a more conscious effort was made by the much-traveled Italian mathematician Leonardo of Pisa, when he asserted in his best-known book, *Algebra et Almuchabala*, or *Liber Abaci* (1202), that the system was but little known in Europe, and recommended it as being more convenient than the commonly used Roman system.

" . . . the Arabic notation . . . was in fairly common use by the end of the 13th century" (34, p. 105).

Black Death

"The mid-century was subjected to the severe trial of the Black Death, the Bubonic Plague, which ravaged most of Europe, carrying off more than half of the population, sparing neither sex nor age, and perhaps as a rule carrying off more of the vigorous individuals than the weaklings for they were more exposed, and resistive vitality was seldom sufficient to protect anyone however vigorous once infection took place.

"Medical factors have seldom been given due weight by historians, but the Black Death above all has not been estimated at its true value as a determiner of historical tendencies for a century afterward. To appreciate this, some of the figures of the losses are needed. Florence lost 60,000; Siena, 70,000; Venice, 100,000; Avignon, 60,000; Paris, 50,000; the comparatively small town of Saint Denis, 14,000; while

there were smaller towns in France in which but 2 out of 20 of the inhabitants survived, and in Sardinia and Corsica only one-third of the population was left. England is said by some to have suffered even more severely than this, one almost contemporary authority saying that there was scarcely 1 in 10 of the population left. Hecker (The Black Death, New Sydenham Society) declares this an exaggeration, yet it serves to show something of the awful ravages that must have been inflicted. He calculates the deaths throughout Europe from the disease at 25,000,000" (86, p. 551).

Clergy

"Historians generally have represented that a great wave of irreligion followed close on the heels of the disease, but Hecker emphasizes exactly the opposite,--a great wave of religious enthusiasm, and above all of penitential exercises. The plague recurred at regular intervals, and when there came to be a feeling of security there was a reaction toward license, but mainly on the part of the cowards who had fled from the various posts of duty and thus saved themselves. It is easy to understand what a revolution in the social order was effected by these immense losses. A great many institutions were seriously paralyzed in efficiency. As pointed out by Gasquet, the clergy suffered particularly. Their duties of affording religious consolation to the sick, which were bravely fulfilled as a rule, exposed them to infection. Large

numbers of the religious orders perished because of this, and because the duty of nursing the sick so often incumbent on them was peculiarly dangerous and community life led to the spread of the infection. There were religious communities entirely wiped out or only a few left. A great many of the hierarchy fell victims through their zeal for their flocks and unworthy men, schemers for place, obtained high ecclesiastical positions which they would not have received in the more exemplary times before the Plague. Gasquet has traced a lively picture of conditions that developed in England which may be applied to other countries. The result was a sad degeneration in Church efficiency that gave good grounds for the bitter criticisms of ecclesiastics which are found in the literature at the end of this century and the beginning of the next. A corresponding degeneration took place in every serious phase of life; the progress of art was sadly interfered with, education interrupted for a generation and required several more to catch up with its previous state, while commerce and industry of all kinds suffered in like manner" (86, p. 551).

Papal Schism

"The 14th century witnessed the serious division of Christianity known as the Great Schism. This developed after the return of Pope Gregory XI to Rome from Avignon and his death, when Avignon and Rome had claimants to the Papacy.

Urban VI was elected at Rome and Robert of Geneva who took the name of Clement VII, elected at Naples, by disaffected Cardinals was driven from there and took up his residence at Avignon. Even the saints of the time were divided in their adhesion. Saint Catherine of Siena and Catherine of Sweden, as well as Blessed Peter of Aragon and Gerard de Groot, the great founder of the Brethern of the Common Life, acknowledged Urban as Pope, while Saint Vincent Ferrar and Saint Collette recognized Clement. Rome and Avignon Popes continued to be elected regularly until the end of the century. A third claimant to the Papacy was elected in Pisa, and it was not until the Council of Constance (1415) deposed one Pope, received the abdication of another, and dismissed a third, that the Schism was ended by the election of Pope Martin V. There are church theologians who argue that none of the claimants of this period were really popes, and that there was a long inter-regnum such as occurs for the brief intervals at the death of every pope" (86, p. 555).

Universities

"The intense interest in education at the beginning of this century is well illustrated by the number of important university foundations during the first 10 years. The University of Lyons was founded in 1300-01; the University of Avignon, 1303; Orleans, 1305; Perugia, 1307; Coimbra in Portugal, 1308. Many of these universities had existed as

schools of some importance as a rule, before this, but none were raised to university rank by some formal recognition, usually a Bull of the Pope. The University of Dublin for instance was thus refounded in 1320, a Bull for the erection of a university near Dublin having been granted by Clement V to Archbishop Lech, 11 July 1311.

"The Pope as the international authority of the time, regulated the interchange of scholars and professors and the maintenance of standards, and Papal Bulls required the same standards as those of Paris and Bologna, and sometimes demanded that the first professors should be graduates of one of these older universities in order that the university traditions might be properly established. The Papal Decrees enacted that examinations for degrees should be conducted under oath so as to insure fairness and even dictated the details of the time to be spent in study and the subjects, before permission would be given to come up for the examination. In erecting the University of Perugia, for instance, which was in the Papal States, Pope John XXII insisted that those who were to receive the degree of Doctor of Medicine should have devoted seven years, three of them hearing lectures, in medical science in accordance with the terms for taking the same degree at Paris or Bologna. In erecting the University of Cahors in his native town in France, the same Pope at the end of the first quarter of the century said in his Bull that he wished

that here 'a copious, refreshing fountain of science should spring up and continue to flow, from whose abundance all the citizens might drink, and where those desirous of education might become imbued with knowledge so that the cultivators of wisdom might sow the seed with success and all the students become learned and eloquent and in every way distinguished.'

"The first university deliberately founded as such, and not growing out of a school which had developed to a point where a studium generale (the mediaeval name for University), was the natural next step, was the University of Prague. It was founded by Charles IV in 1348, who ascended the Bohemian throne only two years before. Charles had been a student at Paris and now 'in memory of his student life, wished to have a copy of the university there in his Kingdom of Bohemia' (Dollinger). He founded it with all the faculties, conferring on it all the rights, privileges and immunities common to universities. For this he had obtained a Bull of foundation from the Pope in the preceding year, which as Laurie says, gave catholic (universal) validity to its degrees. The Archbishop of Prague became its chancellor. After this date, we find that important universities had usually two charters, the one papal, the other royal or imperial. The University of Prague is noteworthy as the starting point of the great German system. Before the end of the century, universities of the Parisian type were founded at Vienna, Erfurt and Heidelberg, and the University of Leipzig was founded by withdrawal

of students and professors from Prague early in the next century, similar to earlier corresponding incidents in Paris and Oxford.

"So great was the interest in the first part of this century in education that it seems literally true to say that there were more students at the universities of Europe in proportion to population at this time than at any other in history. The population of the European countries was very small compared to our time. England probably did not have more than three millions, and other countries had inhabitants in the same ratio. There were many thousands of students at the English universities and even with all the discounting of contemporary statistics sometimes deemed necessary, the universities of that time were undoubtedly ahead of ours in the numbers of students in attendance. University students included boys of 12 and over up to mature men well beyond 40. The boys seem to us entirely too young for university work, but it may be recalled that some of our distinguished statesmen of the 18th century received their college degree at 16 or even earlier, and that our present method of delaying graduate work until well beyond 20 is as yet on trial and not favorably viewed by all. The maturer students of the universities of the early 14th century were doing true university work in many cases. They were preparing to be lecturers and were often actually doing what would be called docent or

seminar duties of various kinds; they were writing books and taking part in disputations, sharpening the wits of students, and making the philosophical and theological principles clearer by elaborate distinctions. The intensive work led to an abuse of dialectics in this century, so that the means of getting at truth, that is, logical processes of various kinds, were often mistaken for an end in themselves. The tendency is an academic fault at all times, and technics have in the course of the development of the physical sciences in later days, shared this fate. Students for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy have in modern as in mediaeval times occupied themselves often with recondite subjects of very little interest to the public and of still less practical value. The 14th century did witness, however, a decadence in the university thinking out of great principles and their application to pertinent problems, religious and social, which had characterized the 13th century.

"Before the end of the century, Italy received its introduction to Greek and accepted it with an enthusiasm which augured well for the evolution of classical study. The Eastern Emperor harassed by the Turks and realizing that it would not be long unless he received aid from the West before his capital must fall, sent an embassy headed by Manuel Chrysoloras, an eminent Greek scholar, to Italy. The Florentines welcomed Chrysoloras to their city and at once offered

him a professor's chair in the University (1396). His lecture room was crowded. Not only the young, but the old came to hear him, and it is said that men past 60 'felt the blood leap in their veins' at the thought of being able to learn Greek. Addington Symonds says that 'if it is true that except the blind forces of nature, nothing moves in this world which is not Greek in its origin, we are justified in regarding the point of contact between the Greek teacher Chrysoloras and his Florentine pupils as one of the most momentous crises in the history of civilization'" (86, pp. 551-52).

"The historic life of the century centers around the cathedrals very much as their social life centered around them in the cities and towns. Their education came into existence as the development of cathedral schools and these were usually placed under the rectorship of the chancellor of the cathedral. The studia generalia, as the universities were then called because they provided education in so many different subjects, grew into their modern form during the courses of the century. At the beginning a few cities, Salerno, Montpellier, Bologna and Paris, and one or two others, had rather important schools of special subjects around which various faculties gradually gathered. By the end of the century there were some 20 important universities in our modern sense of the word with large under-graduate departments and as a rule the three graduate departments of theology, law and medicine. The course of study for under-graduates was summed up by Huxley

in his inaugural address as rector of Aberdeen University:
'I doubt if the curriculum of any modern university shows so clear and generous a comprehension of what is meant by culture as this old trivium and quadrivium.' The seven liberal arts, as the trivium and quadrivium were also called, constituted the undergraduate university studies of grammar, logic, and rhetoric, geometry, astronomy, theology and music.

"All of these subjects were treated from a scientific standpoint and these were really scientific universities. The study of the classics as the basis of undergraduate education did not come in until the Renaissance time. Hence Huxley's candid admiration for these old-time universities so that he did not hesitate to say that 'their work brought them face to face with all the leading aspects of the many-sided mind of man.' The philosophical teaching particularly anticipated many modern ideas. Matter and form as the explanation of the composition of matter resembles the modern physical chemistry theory that all matter consists of an underlying substratum the same in everything and differentiated into various substances by the dynamic elements which enter into it. The scholastics taught that matter and force could be annihilated by the power that brought them to existence, but not destroyed by any human agency, thus anticipating the modern experimental demonstration of the indestructibility of matter and the conservation of energy. They faced the ethical problems of

mankind, especially those which concerned social relations, exactly in the same spirit which the modern world, after a rather long interval of failure to recognize human rights as superior to those of property, has come around to it again. In writing on capital and labor for our time Pope Leo XIII quoted the ethics of Saint Thomas Aquinas, drawn up more than six centuries before.

"The numbers in attendance at the universities at the end of this century were probably larger in proportion to the population of the various countries than at any time in the history of education down to our own day. The universities of Bologna and of Paris had, during the last quarter of the century, more students than any university of modern times. Oxford and Cambridge were more numerously attended than at any time afterward. Some of the students were boys of 12 or 13 but graduation was earlier than with us as it is still in most foreign countries. On the other hand, many mature students remained at the university for years listening to a favorite professor or working up some special theme. The literary output of the universities in philosophy and theology as well as from the graduate departments generally was extensive. Original work was encouraged, though it was the subject of severe criticism. Groups at various universities were engaged in encyclopedic research and publication. A series of *summas* of knowledge in general and of special departments were made.

"The discipline of the immense numbers of students represented a problem which was solved by sharing disciplinary regulation with students' committees chosen by the Nations, that is, the organizations of the students from particular parts of Europe in attendance at the university. The Nations were fraternal unions which helped the student when he first came to the university to orient himself and get settled for his university work. They protected students against impositions and furnished information with regard to courses and professors. Many of the features of modern life at our universities were thus anticipated. Initiations accompanied by hazing were common practices and the Nations provided recreation of various kinds. On the other hand, when students were ailing or when remittances from home were delayed by the vicissitudes of the times, help was provided and students were tided over crises in their affairs. A number of abuses crept into university life through these organizations and conflicts between town and gown are noted before the end of the 13th century, but it was later in the history of universities that these became so intolerable as to demand correction. In the early history of the universities the students were as important a factor at least as the faculty and new universities were often founded by the withdrawal of dissatisfied students to some other town.

"The graduate schools were the most important departments of the universities. In theology, Saint Thomas of Aquin or

Aquinas has been an authority ever since and the contributions which he made to philosophy have been the subject of enduring interest. There was a magnificent development of law throughout the various countries and a corresponding evolution of the teaching of law. Canon law particularly was taught with a scientific thoroughness unequalled before and unsurpassed since. It became the basis of all European law. The medical schools are, however, the special surprise of our time. Early in the century the Emperor Frederick II made a law for the Two Sicilies requiring students of medicine to spend some three years at the university preliminary to their medical studies, and then four years at medicine, followed by a year of practice with a physician before they were allowed to practice for themselves. That is a modern standard re-established but recently after a long interregnum. Salerno, the first university medical school, set the example in teaching and insisted on the employment of the natural means of cure, fresh air, water, diet, exercise and occupation and diversion of mind. These are all emphasized in the famous Regimen Sanitatis Salernitauum, issued at Salerno about the beginning of the century and published in some 300 editions since the invention of printing. It was the most read popular book on medicine for centuries, republished many times even in the last century. The textbooks in surgery extant from this time have been a revelation. The surgery of the four

masters of Salerno who collaborated in the work quite after the modern fashion of textbook writing is surprising in its anticipation of modern surgery. We have, besides, the book of Theodoric of Lucca and of Bruno of Longoburgo as well as of William of Salicet, Lanfranc and Mondeville. In these, anaesthesia,--through mandrake and opium,--antisepsis by the use of strong wine--they boasted of union by first intention--and a great many of the operations, especially a whole series of intra-abdominal and intra-cranial operations, as well as many instruments and modes of treatment considered to be modern are described. In the large, very well-planned hospitals of the time, with finely organized nursing, many operations undreamt of in the intervening centuries until our generation were successfully accomplished, not merely as emergency interventions, but to save suffering and prolong life.

"The names of the teachers in these graduate schools, Albertus Magnus, Thomas Aquinas, Roger Bacon, Bonaventure, Duns Scotus and Alexander of Hales, are probably better known than any group of teachers in history. Instead of losing prestige in the course of time they have gained repute in recent years with increase of interest in the mediaeval period. Albertus Magnus is the only scholar in history with whose name the adjective great has become incorporated as if it were a family name. He was a man of the widest interests, intent on testing all knowledge carefully. Humboldt pointed

out how much he knew about physical geography, physics, climatology and the physiology of plants. Meyer the historian of botany declared 'No botanist who lived before Albertus could be compared with him unless Theophrastus with whom he was not acquainted, and after him none has studied plants so profoundly until the time of Conrad Gesner and Caesalpino.' Albert discussed scientifically the Milky Way and its significance, the irregularities in the moon's surface, lunar rainbows, various kinds of refraction and many other problems supposed to be modern. His great pupil Aquinas, adopting Aristotle, laid down the metaphysical principles which are now coming to be recognized as fundamental ideas in the physical and social sciences. Hence a great revival of study of his works. Even more immediately interesting than these to the modern world is Roger Bacon, the international celebration of whose 700th birthday attracted so much attention at Oxford in June, 1914. Bacon probably invented gunpowder, suggested that explosives might be used for motor purposes,--boats running without oars or sails and carriages without horses,--discussed the theory of lenses, declared that mathematics and experiment were the two important factors for advance in science; anticipated modern ideas as to Biblical revision, insisted on the value of Greek and Hebrew for education, declared that light travels with appreciate velocity and spoke with assurance of aviation. It is clearer than ever now why

the people of his time called him Doctor Admirabilis, the admirable teacher.

"A feature of 13th century education most interesting for our time is the feminine education of the period. At Salerno in southern Italy women were encouraged to study even medicine during the 12th century and the department of women's diseases was in their charge. We have many licenses to practice medicine in the Two Sicilies granted to women at the time still extant. At Bologna at the end of the 12th century the daughter of Irnerius the great teacher of law became an instructor in the law school. All of the Italian universities had women teachers on their staff. The unfortunate Heloise and Abelard incident at Paris seems to have given a serious setback to feminine education in the universities of the west of Europe, but in Italy the custom established in the 13th century continued, and there have been women professors at the Italian universities every century since" (85, pp. 558-59).

Roger Bacon

"But the most important of the Franciscan scientists was a simple friar In science his main interest was in optics. He understood the laws of reflection and refraction of light, and explained how lenses could be arranged to act as spectacles (the invention of which is frequently attributed to him) and telescopes, although there is no record of his

ever having made either himself He described how mechanically propelled carriages, ships and flying machines might be constructed--the imaginary forerunner of our automobiles, steamers and airplanes--discussed possible uses of gunpowder and burning-glasses, the circumnavigation of the globe, and other things which seemed strange in his time, but have become commonplace today. He argued against the "naturalness" of circular motion, condemned the Ptolemaic system of astronomy as unscientific, and thought it was probably untrue.

"But his general principles were more important than his detailed achievements, which were after all meager enough. In his Opus Majus he argued that mathematics should be at the foundation . . . (of) scientific knowledge (which) could only be acquired by experiment; this alone gave certainty, while all else was conjecture" (34, pp. 110-11).

Gothic Churches

"The central interest of the century and its greatest triumph was the Gothic cathedrals. In England and France particularly, but also in Germany and Italy, there arose in the early part of the century some of the most beautiful edifices ever built by man. The generations solved the architectural engineering problems of these huge constructions with absolute success. The decoration of them made a universal appeal and for sheer beauty and suitability has never been excelled. The sculpture on the facade of many of these Gothic

cathedrals as at Amiens, Chartres, Rheims, is among the greatest plastic work in the history of art. The figure of Christ over the main door at Amiens has been declared the most beautiful presentation of the human form divine ever made. Every phase of cathedral decoration took on the perfection of its sculpture. The carved stone work, the hammered iron of the gates and grilles, the very hinges and latches of the doors, the brass and bronze work in connection with the altar, the bells, the stained glass, all approached perfection so closely that they have been objects of deep admiration ever since whenever men have been profoundly interested in the arts and crafts.

"All the fittings and furnishings of the cathedral, even the least obtrusive, partook of the same surpassing qualities. Dark corners were not left unfinished for it was the house of God. Every detail was the object of loving devotion. The needlework of the time is probably the best in history. The cope of Ascoli (circa 1280) is looked upon as the most beautiful ever made. The church vestments and hangings were charmingly worked. The precious vessels for the altar were gems of the metal workers art, of exquisite line and form, delicately finished and appropriately set with jewels. The Mass books, as well as the Books of Hours, used by the educated worshipers were so beautifully illuminated that they have been marvels ever since and command high prices in the auction

rooms. Manifestly, there was nothing that the people of the time wanted to do so well which they did not accomplish with a marvelous perfection" (85, p. 558).

Sculpture and Architecture

"In Pisa the sculpture of the 14th century flourished, though this had reached a culmination in the preceding century. Giovanni Pisano directed the sculptural effects on the facade of the Cathedral of Orvieto at this time. In this earlier Renaissance, the painter was often a sculptor also, as Giotto's fine plaques for the Campanile at Florence illustrates, and Orcagna's work on the tabernacle of the Oratory of Or San Michele. Pisan sculptors worked throughout Central Italy, and the bronze doors by Andrea of Pisa on the Florence baptistery show how well. Architecture flourished quite as luxuriantly as painting and sculpture, though some signs of decadence are to be seen. The secular buildings of Italian Gothic of this period and especially the great town halls and civic palaces are admirable. Many of these buildings were literally town fortresses to withstand the stormy outbreaks and civic convulsions in which the overflowing vigor of these municipalities found vent, but their massive simplicity adds impressive dignity to their fine lines. Siena, Perugia, Florence, Piacenza contain some beautiful palaces from this time, and above all, Venice is the place to study the

development of beautiful palaces of private citizens. There were fountains and other monuments also erected which show that Italy at this time had fully reached the idea of the city beautiful. The interior decorations of these buildings were done by the best painters of the time, and they are still models of artistic taste and charm. Particularly hospitals were the subject of loving attention in this way, as is very well illustrated by the hospital built after her death in honor of Saint Catherine of Siena. It was felt that the ailing poor should have something to occupy their minds during the time while they were confined to the hospital. The city built its public buildings for its citizens for whom nothing was too good and then had them decorated fittingly. At times, the decorations or portions of them were done by artists who had been cared for by the hospital and who wished to leave a substantial memorial of their gratitude. Instead of being deterrent, then, hospitals become some of the most attractive of municipal structures. The museum as such was unknown but the various public buildings, cathedral, town hall, hospital, took its place, and the pictures made for them were thus exhibited in a suitable environment" (86, p. 554).

Hysterical Social Movements

"The severe shock to humanity caused by the immense mortality of the Black Death and the serious disturbance of social

life due to its ravages made the people of the end of the century incline to hysteria. It is very probable that not a little of this was due to the fact that the braver souls among men had nearly all perished and the race for the time was being propagated to a large extent by those who had escaped death by cowardly flight during the epidemic. The movement known as the Flagellants was in its origin probably only a real penitential impulse on the part of men and women who felt that the sins of mankind had brought down the awful scourge of disease and who hoped to allay the storm of Divine vengeance by due acknowledgement in self-inflicted punishment. After a time, it came to be an hysterical epidemic associated with many abuses and productive of serious evil. Other hysterical manifestations as for instance the Dancing Mania spread throughout Europe and deeply affected the populations of a great many countries. Hecker, the medical historian of the Black Death, has treated these manifestations also, and suggests that after all they represent only a certain exaggeration of reaction to the religious emotions that are common at many times in history. Various curious sects still existing are the testimony to the fact that human nature is not changed and is still quite capable of going to these excesses" (86, p. 554).

Social Progress

"The Black Death produced one other result that was of far-reaching importance. By making labor scarce, it raised

laborers' wages and gave an opportunity to secure rights hitherto denied them. Toward the end of the century, Wat Tyler, that is Walter the tiller, led an insurrection in Kent, while Jack Straw led a similar movement in Essex. John Ball, a priest, had been preaching in the open air, the churches being denied to him, against the luxury of the rich and their oppression of the poor, and had produced wide discontent. Wat Tyler led his men to London and London Bridge was shut against them, but they threatened to burn the city and were admitted. Tyler met the young king, Richard II, then only 15 years of age, with a retinue of only some 60 horsemen, and made his demands, one of which was that the king should cut off the heads of all the lawyers in England. When Tyler became insulting, he was struck down by Sir William Walworth, the mayor of London, and the young king with out-stretched hands rode toward the mob of 30,000 who were just preparing to send a flight of arrows, and said, 'Tyler was a traitor, I am your king. I will be your captain.' And thus ended the dangerous riot. The leaders of the mob were punished, John Ball was put to death, but the movement which they had set on foot continued to make itself felt and by the end of another century, many of the worst abuses they complained of had been corrected. It takes blood to bring about social change of any importance; the first martyrs to the cause, or even their generation reap none of the benefits" (86, p. 554).

Democratic Government

"Representative government developed during the century parallel with other achievements. Magna Charta was signed in 1215; the concluding sentence of chapter 1 runs: 'We have also granted to all free men of our kingdom, for us and for our heirs forever; all the unwritten liberties to be had and held by them and their heirs of us and our heirs forever.' Whatever the original intention, this became eventually a grant to all free Englishmen. In 1257 the Provisions of Oxford under Henry III established the stated recurrence of the great national council of Parliament. In 1265 the Knights of the Shire and the representatives of the townspeople who formed later the House of Commons were admitted to Parliament, while those personally summoned to attend by the king from the great nobles formed the House of Lords. Beginning with 1295, under Edward I, the attendance of the town members became regular, making Parliament really representative of the country. In the meantime, Bracton's Digest of the English Common Law (1286) secured the legal rights of Englishmen of all classes, and forms the basis of law down to our own time in all English-speaking countries" (85, p. 564).

Social Conditions

"The condition of the great mass of people as the result of the growth of genuine democracy in this period is particularly interesting for our time. Good authorities have

declared it the happiest century of human existence. More men and women than probably at any other time enjoyed the blessedness of having found their work and that work eminently satisfying, because it represented an interest of the mind or soul rather than the body. Artistic power and the art impulse were never so widespread, and triumphs of arts and crafts work were made even in very small towns. As for those without special talent the manual workers, Thorold Rogers, in his Economic Interpretation of History says: 'On the whole there were none of those extremes of poverty and wealth which have excited the astonishment of philanthropists and the indignation of working men. The age, it is true, had its discontents . . . but of poverty that perishes unheeded, of willingness to do honest work and a lack of opportunity, there was little or none.'

"Wages were very low, according to our standards and money values, but the necessaries of life were proportionately cheap, and the ratio between wages and prices is the all-important consideration. The social improvement which marked the 13th century led to the fixing by statute in the time of Edward III in the early 14th century of the minimum wage of four pence a day and set maximum prices for necessaries of life. A pair of handmade shoes was four pence, a fat goose two and one-half pence, a fat sheep a shilling and two pence, and a stall-fed ox only 24 shillings. Needless to say this

ratio between wages and prices secured the workmen against want. An act of Parliament in the 14th century names 'beef, pork, mutton and veal as the food of the poorer sort.' Holidays were frequent. Besides the Sundays there were some 35 holy days during the year on which no work was done, and Saturday afternoon was free after the vesper hour, 2 p.m., as also the vigils of all first-class feasts. Standish O'Grady declared this abundance of leisure a source of the greatness of the time. Twice in the world's history, in the 5th century B.C. in Greece and the 13th century A.D., men have spent one-third of their time in leisure in preparation for and in celebration of religious mysteries. In both periods they had the time and the energy to create artistic and intellectual monuments which the world will never willingly let die" (85, pp. 564-65).

The Hanseatic League

"No date can be fixed for its organization, which was evidently the result of the lack of a powerful German national government able to guarantee security for trade. Its information was no doubt facilitated by the mediaeval affinity for cooperative action and for monopoly. The term Hanseatic League was first used in a document in 1344. The exclusion of Germans abroad (1366) from the privileges of the Hansa indicates a growing sense of unity, but league members spoke of

the association merely as a *firma confederatio* for trade, and throughout its history it remained a loose aggregation. This looseness of organization allowed a maximum of independence to its members and was not modified until the league was put on the defensive in the 15th century. The league never had a true treasury or officials in a strict sense; its only common seal was that of Lubeck; it had no common flag. Assemblies of the members (*Hansetage*) were summoned by Lubeck at irregular intervals and were sparsely attended, except in times of crisis. The objectives of the league were mutual security, extortion of trading privileges, and maintenance of trade monopoly wherever possible. The chief weapon against foreigners or recalcitrant members was the economic boycott and (rarely) war. Primarily concerned with the North European trade the Hansa towns dealt chiefly in raw materials (timber, pitch, tar, turpentine, iron, copper), livestock (horses, hawks, etc.), salt fish (cod and especially herring), leather, hides, wool, grain, beer, amber, drugs, and some textiles. The four chief kontors were Wisby, Bergen, London, and Bruges.

*In 1340-1375, Waldemar IV of Denmark, freed his country of the German domination and took up the struggle against the powerful Hansa towns. He threatened the Hanseatic monopoly of the herring trade by his seizure of Scania, and in 1361 cut the Russian-Baltic trade route by his capture of Wisby. In 1362 he defeated the German fleets at Helsingborg. By the

Peace of Wordingborg (1365) the Hansa was deprived of many of its privileges in Denmark.

"In 1367, the Confederation of Cologne, effected by a meeting of representatives of 77 towns, organized common finance and naval preparations for the struggle. Reconstruction of Scandinavian alliances to meet the threat from Waldemar. After a series of victories, the German towns extorted from the Danish Reichsrat.

"In 1370, the Peace of Stralsund, which gave the league four castles in Scania (dominating the sound), control of two-thirds of the Scanian revenues for 15 years, and the right to veto the succession to the Danish throne unless their monopoly was renewed by the candidate. The treaty marked the apogee of Hanseatic power and virtually established control over the Baltic trade and over Scandinavian politics. The Baltic monopoly was not finally broken until 1441, after a war with the Dutch. Wisby itself never recovered from Waldemar's sack, and was long a nest of pirates (e.g. the famous Victual Brothers).

"The Germans in Bruges received a special grant of privileges in 1252, which allowed them their own ordinances and officials. They later (1309) established exemption from the usual brokerage charges levied on foreigners and eventually won an influential voice in the affairs of the city, notable in foreign policy. The revised statutes of the Bruges Kontor

(1347) recognized the division of the Hanseatic League into thirds: The Wendish-Saxon; the Prusso-Westphalian; and the Gothland-Livland thirds. Bruges was the most ardent champion of Hanseatic unity, and, with Lubeck, was the chief source of such cohesion as the League attained. A boycott in 1360 brought the town into complete submission to the League.

"In England the Hansa towns, by maintaining friendly relations to the crown, were able to ignore the growing national hostility to alien traders (directed at first mainly against the Italians) and to avoid granting reciprocal privileges to the English in return for their own exclusive rights (notably those claimed under Edward I's Carta Mercatoria of 1303). One source of Hanseatic influence derived from loans to the crown, especially during the Hundred Years' War. The English themselves began to penetrate into the Baltic (c. 1360) and growing public resentment against the league led to increased customs dues, but Richard II in 1377 renewed the privileges of the league, thus firmly establishing the Hanseatic power in England. The Sound was opened to the English in 1451, and the league, profiting by the Wars of the Roses, secured full title to the steelyard in London (1474) and the renewal of rights in Boston and Lynn. Not until the days of Elizabeth were the Hanseatic privileges finally reduced.

"Externally the league was weakened by the disorders of the Hundred Years' War; by the rise of Burgundy and the new

orientation thereby given to the Dutch trade (e.g. Brill wrested the monopoly of the herring trade from the league); and by the great discoveries and the opening of the new trade routes. But above all, the monopolistic policies of the league aroused even sharper opposition in the countries where the league operated (notable in England, Holland, Scandinavia, and Russia; Ivan III destroyed the Novgorod Kontor in 1494). Internally the league continued to suffer from lack of organization. The island towns held aloof from the Baltic policy and Cologne sent no representatives to the assembly until 1383. The assembly itself was summoned only at irregular intervals. The delegates were strictly bound by their mandates and their votes were subject to review by their home town" (39, pp. 307-09).

"Nothing of all the accomplishment of the century probably possesses livelier interest for our commercial age than their organization of business in spite of what must have seemed insuperable difficulties in less enterprising times. Trade combinations and municipal affiliations as well as commerce facilities among distant, different peoples, were rendered possible and even easy. Some even of the most modern developments of international intercourse were anticipated. Miss Zimmern ('The Hanseatic League,' Stories of Nations Series) said: 'There is scarcely a more remarkable chapter in history than that which deals with the trading alliance or association

known as the Hanseatic League. The league has long since passed away, having served its time and fulfilled its purpose. The needs and circumstances of mankind have changed and new methods and new instruments have been devised for carrying on the commerce of the world. Yet, if the league has disappeared, the beneficial results of its action survive to Europe, though they may have become so completely a part of our daily life that we accept them as matters of course, and do not stop to inquire into their origin" (86, p. 564).

Politics and Military Exploits

"The political history of the 14th century was if possible even more full of turmoil than usual. The emperors chosen were usually of no special significance, until it came to be realized that the man elected to the office must have considerable dominions of his own. Charles IV, the king of Bohemia, made a good king but a poor emperor, and is remembered for his Golden Bull by which the election of the emperor was regulated but which lessened the imperial powers in favor of the Princes. The English and French became deeply occupied with the Hundred Years' War, not of actual fighting but without lasting peace. The English took Calais and won the battle of Crecy (1346) and Poitiers (1356). King John of Bohemia was killed in Crecy; King John of France was taken prisoner at Poitiers, and became the companion in captivity of David, King of the Scots, the son of Robert Bruce, taken prisoner

in 1346. King Edward of England took the title of King of France borne by all the kings of England down to 1800.

"The century is famous as the scene of many national legends and heroes whose names have been famous at least among their own people ever since, though modern historians have sadly diminished the authenticity of their exploits. William Wallace, the Scottish chief, was beheaded in 1303, but his brave effort against his country's enemies probably encouraged Bruce in the great enterprise of freeing Scotland. About the same time William Tell inspired the Swiss with a renewal of that love of freedom which has ever since kept their little country independent in the midst of warring Europe. Arnold Winkelried may have gathered all the Austrian spears into his single devoted breast at the battle of Sempach (1385), but his story has proved a real source of courage. Rienzi, the 'Last of the Tribunes,' (1347) attempted to restore the Roman Republic while Artevelde (died 1382) led the revolt of the Flemings for freedom. Apart from these, glorious if sometimes mythical deeds, political history of the time is a dreary period of wars and destruction, political jealousy, dynastic rivalry and corrupt practices. Dante wrote his great poem in exile, and Italy was rent by the struggle of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, though somehow in spite of the disturbances, men found not only the time but the freedom of spirit for the pursuit of great literature and fine scholarship.

The Popes left Rome because of political disturbances and transferred their See to Avignon in France. For 70 years, sometimes called the 'modern Babylonian Captivity,' the Popes were out of Rome, and it was given over to violent political dissension. An earthquake occurred to further disturb the city, and at one time of this century it is said that Rome contained scarcely 10,000 inhabitants" (86, pp. 554-55).

Military and Political Events

"The military and political events of the century have a special significance because as a rule their influence still lives. The Crusades came to an end, the fourth under Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat (1222), the fifth led by King Andrew II (1228), the sixth (1248) and the seventh and last (1270), under Louis IX of France. The Children's Crusade (1212) was one of the sad interludes of an enthusiasm which went beyond reason. Most of the many thousands of children crusaders perished miserably or were sold into slavery by designing leaders. In 1230 the Teutonic Knights in the crusade against the pagan tribes of the Baltic region established themselves in Prussia and laid the foundation of what at the Reformation, through the ambition of a grand master, was to become a duchy, the beginning of modern Prussia. In 1282, Rudolph of Hapsburg, a Swiss noble, elected emperor in the first election held after the reform of the Imperial Electorate and the creation of seven electors, conferred on his

sons the duchies of Austria and laid the foundation of the Hapsburg dynasty. All during the century the kings of Aragon were extending their sway over the Spanish Peninsula and the Balearic Islands (1230). After the Sicilian Vespers, a massacre of the French in Sicily by the Sicilians, so-called from its commencement at vespers on Easter Monday (1282), the kingdom of Sicily passed to them. Less than 20 years before (1265) the French under the House of Anjou had ascended the throne of the Two Sicilies. In 1235 the duchy of Brunswick was formed under the House of Guelph. Five centuries afterward, when reigning in Hanover, the Guelphs were to succeed to the throne of England (George I) where they still reign. The century saw the rise of Florence in importance, the decline of the republic of Pisa, the increase of Venice in power under an aristocracy which became hereditary toward the end of the period and the enfranchisement of the serfs of Bologna. The closing year of the century Pope Boniface VIII proclaimed the first jubilee and the crowds who flocked to Rome to celebrate it were so large that they could not cross the bridge to the Vatican until the rule of the road of keeping to the right was proclaimed, the first time in history there is mention of it.

"Everywhere political events were occurring destined to far-reaching significance. Edward I of England to whom the contest between Robert Bruce and John Baliol for the crown of Scotland had been referred as umpire, conferred it upon Baliol on condition that he should receive it as a vassal of

England. The Scotch refused to acknowledge any such dependence, for Scotland, to which Magnus of Norway (1266) had ceded the Hebrides, felt its nationality at stake. Baliol was dethroned and fled to Edward who attempted to enforce his rights. William Wallace, the famous hero of Scottish popular poetry, led an insurrection that was joined by Sir William Douglas and Robert Bruce who gathered round them most of the Scots. They were defeated by Edward at Falkirk (1299), but Robert Bruce was proclaimed king and succeeded in maintaining himself until the defeat of Edward II at the great battle of Bannockburn (1306) settled him firmly on the throne" (85, p. 563).

China

"Surprising enough one phase of political history outside of Europe in the century is as important as anything in Europe. Genghis Khan founded the Mogul or Mongol Empire. He was a Tartar (Tatar) chieftain, by name, Temuchin, who on the death of his father succeeded to the Mongol throne at the age of 13 (1175). The chiefs who owed him allegiance were turbulent and restless, and had been restrained by the iron rule of his father. They refused to submit to a mere boy, but Temuchin's mother had the courage and vigor to repress many of them and keep them to their allegiance until Temuchin showed before long that he could rule them himself. He soon extended his sway over neighboring chiefs and in 1206

proclaimed himself emperor, invaded northern China and securing firm footing within the Great Wall soon conquered most of the country. He then turned westward, defeated the Mohammedans who had beheaded his envoys, overwhelming an immense army of nearly half a million, of whom 160,000 were left dead on the field. Pressing westward he besieged Bokhara, capturing it and Samarcand, and then Merv, all of which were sacked and burned. Astrakan was taken, the Russians defeated and Great Bulgaria ravaged. His troops conquered more of India and most of China, so that this onetime chief of a petty Mongol tribe 'lived to see his armies victorious from the China Sea to the banks of the Dnieper; and though the empire which he created ultimately dwindled away in the hands of his degenerate descendants, leaving not a wrack behind, we have in the presence of the Turks in Europe a consequence of his rule, since it was the advance of his armies which drove their Osmanli ancestors from their original home in northern Asia and thus led to their invasion of Bithynia under Othman and finally their advance into Europe under Amurath I'" (86, p. 564).

"The Crusades left Europe with a greatly expanded horizon, with much more extensive trade interests and connections, and with an accentuated hostility toward Islam. The great conquests of the Mogols in the 13th century (Jenghis Khan, 1206-1227; period of greatness under Kublai Khan, 1259-1294), in uniting most of Asia, the Near East, and eastern Europe

under one sway opened direct communication between Europe and the Orient and raised the prospect of an alliance against the Moslems" (39, p. 362).

"In 960-1279, the Sung Dynasty marked the advent of modernity, not only in governmental and social organizations, but in thought, belief, literature, and art; not least in the diffusion of learning through print. It was an age of humanism, of scholar statesmen who were at once poets, artists and philosophers. The first half of the dynasty is often distinguished as the Northern Sung (960-1127)" (39, p. 341).

"In 1160-1173, Rabbi Benjamin of Tudela (in Navarre) traveled through Persia, central Asia, and to the very confines of China, but for religious reasons his records had little influence on Christian Europe. The same was true of the researchers of the great Arab geographer Yaqut, who lived in the late 12th and early 13th centuries and wrote a great geographical dictionary.

"In 1245-1247, John Pian de Carpine, an Umbrian, was sent to the court of the Great Khan to propose an alliance against Islam and if possible to convert the Mongols. Traveling by way of southern Russia and the Volga, Carpine crossed central Asia and reached the Mongol court at Karakorum. Though well received his mission proved abortive.

"The Pole brothers, Nicolo and Maffeo, Venetian traders in the Black Sea, who traveled to central Asia, spent three years in Bokhara and proceeded thence to China. They returned

to Acre in 1260 bearing letters to the Pope from the Mongol ruler.

"In 1271-1295 was the second journey of the Poles, accompanied this time by Nicolo's seventeen-year-old son, Marco, greatest of all mediaeval travelers. They took the route Mosul-Baghdad-Ormuz-Kerman-Khorasan-Pamir-Kashgar and thence across the Gobi Desert to the court of the Great Khan. The Mongol ruler was so favorably impressed that he took them into his service. During the next fifteen years Marco became acquainted with much of China, Burma and India. The Poles returned by sea by way of Sumatra, India and Persia. Marco's famous Book of Various Experiences was dictated, probably in 1297, while he was a prisoner in Genoa. It was almost immediately popular and colored the whole geographic outlook of the succeeding period. Marco died in 1324.

"During this period, 1290-1340, lively trade relations sprang up between Europe and Asia. Specific records are few, but such as they are they indicate the existence of commercial colonies and missionary groups in Persia (Tabriz), in India (Gujerat and Malabar coast), and in China (Peking and other cities). The great trade routes from central Asia through southeastern Russia and the Black Sea, and from Trebizond through Persia were wide open. Embassies were constantly passing between western rulers and the Ilkhans of Persia,

whose emissaries on various occasions came as far as England (1287, 1289, 1290, 1307).

"In 1289 the pope sent out Friar John of Monte Corvino to take charge of the newly established Archbishopric of Peking. John remained at his post until his death in 1328 and seems to have built a flourishing Christian community.

"The year 1368 marked the overthrow of the Mongol domination in China. Under the succeeding Ming dynasty foreigners were again excluded. The conquests of Timur the Great, shortly after, served to block the Near-Eastern trade channels once more.

"The Yuan Dynasty (as distinguished from the Mongol Empire), 1260-1368, was effectively founded when Kublai (1214-1294) had himself elected khan by his own army at Shang-tu (1260), although he adopted the dynastic title only in 1271. He ruled in China according to Chinese precedents. His dynastic name is Shih tsu.

"The Mongol Empire was reunited (1264) by capture of Kublai's brother Arikboga, who had been proclaimed khan at Karakorum (1260). Twice (1277 and 1287-1288) its unity was defended against Khaidu, head of the house of Ogedei. Kublai's authority was respected by his brother Hulagu and the succeeding Ilkhans of Persia, and in theory by the Golden Horde on the Volga. He transferred (1264) the winter capital to Yenching where he constructed Khanbalig, modern Peking

(1267). He erected an astronomical observatory on the city wall, wherein were installed bronze instruments cast by Kuo Shou-ching (1279).

"A disastrous attack upon Japan was made in 1281. An assault in 1274 having failed, a Mongol army of 45,000 from Korea joined (June) a tardy armada with 120,000 men from the southern Chinese coast, landing at Hakozaki Bay. The invaders were repulsed by the well-prepared Japanese until a typhoon destroyed their fleets, leaving them to death or slavery.

"In 1294 tribute was received from the Siamese kingdoms of Xieng-mai and Sukhotai.

"Kublai devoted special attention to economic matters; The Grand Canal was restored (1289-1292) from the former Sung capital, Lin-an at Hang-chou (the Kinsay of Marco Polo), now a great and rich city, to the Huai River, and carried north to the outskirts of Peking. Imperial roads were improved, and postal relays of 200,000 horses established. Charitable relief was organized (1260) for aged scholars, orphans, and the sick, for whom hospitals were provided (1271). Imperial inspectors every year examined crops and the food supply with a view to purchase when stocks were ample for storage against famine.

"The T'ang first employed paper money orders, to which the Sung and Chin added various bills of exchange. When issue

of paper currency was suggest to Ogedei (1236), Ye-lu Ch'u-ts'ai secured limitation to value of 100,000 oz. of silver. Under Kublai, a Mohammedan financier, Saiyid-i Edjill Chams al-Din Omar (1210-1279), kept annual issues at an average of 511,400 oz. (1260-1269). His successor Ahmed Fenaketi increased emissions (1276-1282) to 10,000,000 oz. annually. After Ahmed's murder, inflation increased until a Uighur, Sanga, reduced the rate of printing to 5,000,000 oz. (1290-1291). Circuit stabilization treasuries (1264 and 1287) were given reserves inadequate to redeem the flood of bills at 2½% discount, the official rate of 1287. The issue of 1260 depreciated until replaced 1 for 5 by that of 1287, which again was replaced 1 for 5 in 1309. All printing was discontinued in 1311; but the credit, financial and moral, of the dynasty was already on the wane. The southern provinces of the empire rapidly fell from its control.

"Marco Polo, in the service of the khan (1275-1292) traveled widely in Cathay (from Khitai, hence north China), and Manzi (South China), and to Burma. Through his Division of the World he first brought detailed and accurate knowledge of eastern Asia to Europe. In his time, and even in that of the Arab, Ibn Battuta (c. 1345), Zayton (Ch'uan-chou) was the busiest deep-sea port in the world, leading Kinsay (Lin-an), Foochow (Fuchou), and Canton in shipping silks and porcelains to Java, Malaya, Ceylon, India, and Persia in exchange for

spices, gems, and pearls. The itineraries given by Chao Jukua (1225) imply in the precision of their bearings the use of a compass needle mounted on a dry pivot.

"The Moslem communities.--The Moslem communities of Persian and Arab traders at these ports were small compared to those which now grew up in North China and in Yunnan. Saiyid-i Edjill as governor of Yunnan (1274-1299) built the first two mosques in what became a stronghold of Islam. Most popular religion with all the Mongols was Buddhism. Kublai welcomed a gift of relics of the Buddha from the raja of Ceylon. He conferred the title "Teacher of the State" upon a Tibetan lama Phags-pa, whom he employed to convert the Mongols and to whom he entrusted government of the three provinces of Tibet.

"Nestorian Christians.--Nestorian Christians enjoyed full protection. The Patriarch of Baghdad created an archbishopric at Peking (1275); churches were built in Chen-kiang (1281), Yang-chou, and Hang-chou; and a special bureau was created (1289) to care for Christianity. Mar Yatusiaha, pilgrim from Peking to Jerusalem, was elected patriarch (1281), and his companion Sabban Sauma was sent by him and Aigus Ilkhan of Persia, to Rome and France. He negotiated with Pope Nicholas IV an entente between the Nestorian and Roman churches. John of Montecorvino was the first of several Roman missionaries to China (1294-1328). He baptised 5,000

converts and was named by the pope (1307) Archbishop of Peking. He received a three-year visit from Oderic of Pordenone who reported to Europe the custom of foot-binding, which had spread through South China under the Southern Sung, but which was unknown to the Chin and early Yuan.

"Literature.--The Mongol period introduced the novel and the drama, the latter accompanied by raucous percussion music. Although neither was at once admitted as a form of polite letters, both are now recognized to possess artistic merit.

"Painting.--One group of artists continued traditions of the Southern Sung while another boldly swept away the mists which had shrouded landscape. Ch'ien Hsuan (1235-c. 1290) is perhaps the greatest painter of flowers and insects. Chao Meng-fu (1254-1322) was particularly adept at depicting the horses and other live-stock which were prominent in Mongol economy. Yuan porcelain reveals in arabesques no less than in the technique of penciling in cobalt blue directly on clear white paste the debt of Chinese potters to Persian models. From these also is derived the Byzantine form of cloisonne enamel.

"The Ming Dynasty was founded by Chu Yuan-chang (Ming T'ai Tsu, 1328-1398) a monk turned insurgent amidst anarchy, who seized Chiang-ning (Nanking) in 1356, set up there an orderly government, and proceeded to annex the holdings of surrounding southern war-lords until in 1368 he was strong

enough to drive the Mongols from Peking with Shensi, Kansu (1369) and Szechuan (1371). Like all the emperors of this and the following dynasty he ruled under a single reign-title, Hung-wu (1368-1398), which is accordingly often used instead of his personal name" (39, pp. 345-46).

Japan

"In 1395-1408, Yoshimitsu ruled as shogun. Yoshimitsu, the third Ashikaga shogun (1369-1395), after crushing his principal opponents, uniting the two imperial courts and bringing the Ashikaga power to its apogee, passed on the title of shogun to his son and retired as a monk to his Kitayama estate on the outskirts of Kyoto. The Golden Pavillion (Kin-kaku) he erected there is the outstanding remaining architectural work of the day. Kan-ami (1333-1384) and his son Se-ami (1363-1444) perfected the highly refined No drama from early dramatic and Terpsichorean performances. The luxurious but artistically creative life of the Kitayama estate was continued for several decades after Yoshimitsu's death by his successors" (39, p. 359).

Pre-Columbian America

"A highly complex social organization was developed, with priest-emperors, standing armies, schools, courts, and systematized religions. Intellectual progress was marked by astronomical research, the invention of accurate calendars,

and . . . in Yucatan and Mexico . . . an elaborate heiro-glyphic writing.

"In the Peruvian area the early Nasca and Chimu cultures were followed by Tiahuanacan and, in immediately pre-Columbian times, by the Inca civilization. Influences spread from this center across the Andes into the Amazon basin and down the Andes to the Argentine region. Farther north, the Chibchan and Chorotegan cultures occupied the intervening area between Peru and Yucatan, where the Maya civilization, the climax of native American achievement, developed during the 1st millennium B. C. and reached its culmination shortly before the Spanish Conquest. Similarly, in the Valley of Mexico the Archaic and Toltec cultures culminated in the Aztec civilization, discovered by the Spaniards. The effect of these powerful centers of influence must have been felt in lessening degree throughout much of North America, especially in the advanced cultures of the Pueblo area of the southwest, the southeast, and the Mound Builder area in the Mississippi drainage.

"The aborigines of America, varying among themselves in certain racial characteristics, migrated from Asia to North America in successive waves by way of the Bering Strait. These migrations began at a very early date, and apparently continued until relatively recent times. The migrants, when they arrived, were in a very primitive state. Becoming

isolated from other peoples, they slowly expanded throughout both continents and developed autochthonous cultures which ranged from savagery to a relatively high degree of civilization. Many groups at a comparatively early date attained the agricultural stage, and the Inca of Peru achieved the use of bronze. The use of iron and the principle of the wheel were unknown. The dog universally, the turkey, the duck, and, in the Peruvian highlands, the llama, alpaca, and guanaco were the only existing domestic animals, the llama being the sole beast of burden.

"At the time of the discovery the peoples of highest culture, most complex society, and greatest political importance were the Aztec, with their center in the Valley of Anahuac; the Maya of Yucatan and portions of Mexico and Central America; the Chibcha of the Columbian plateau; and the Inca, whose empire centered in the highlands of Peru. Between the higher civilizations of Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America and between those of the Andean region there was extensive interchange of culture over a lengthy period, and it is possible that there was culture interchange between the peoples of Central America and those of the Andean region. The civilization of the Aztec and the Inca were built upon preceding cultures of a high order.

"The Aztecs.--The Aztecs were originally a minor tribe of the great Nahua group. This group evolved the high Toltec

civilization which, receiving through cultural transmission mathematical and astronomical knowledge and a calendar from a lowland people, possibly the Maya, reached its height in the 13th century and declined thereafter, being followed by the transition to Chichimec culture.. Reaching the shores of Lake Texcoco in 1325, the Aztecs erected an impregnable capital, Tenochtitlan, in the marshes of the lake and, through superior political and military capacity and alliance, extended their control over central and southern Mexico from the Gulf to the Pacific and established colonies in Central America. In 1510, Tenochtitlan was a city of some 60,000 householders and the Aztec Empire included perhaps 5,000,000 inhabitants. The government was relatively centralized, with an elective monarch, provincial governors appointed by the central authority, a well-organized judicial system, and a large and efficient army. The Aztecs attained a high degree of development in engineering, architecture, art, mathematics, and astronomy. Principal buildings were of mortar and rubble faced with stucco. There existed a body of tradition, history, philosophy, and poetry which was orally transmitted. Picture writing which was rapidly approaching phonetic was evolved. Music was rudimentarily developed. Agriculture was far advanced and commerce and simple industry flourished. The working of gold and silver and the production of pottery and textiles were highly developed. The religion of the Aztecs

was polytheistic, and although it included many lofty concepts, the deity of war, Huitzilopochtli, was the principal god and his worship led to the development of one of the most extensive systems of human sacrifice which has ever existed. The priesthood constituted a powerful group, political as well as religious. Certain of the peoples subjected by the Aztecs were restive under their domination and were prepared to rebel at the first opportunity. In the mountains to the east of Lake Tezcuco there existed the powerful republic of Tlaxcala, which, maintaining its independence, regarded the Aztec as hereditary enemies. These conditions created a situation favorable to the Spaniards during the conquest.

"The Maya.--The Maya before the Christian Era established themselves in the peninsula of Yucatan, Tabasco, Chiapas, northern, central, and eastern Guatemala, and western Honduras. They developed a civilization which, reaching its apogee well before 1000 A.D., was in certain cultural aspects the highest in the New World. The Maya culture in the early period extended with considerable uniformity throughout the greater part of their general area, but after about 1000 A.D., tended to center in the northern part of the peninsula of Yucatan. During the period of highest development the Maya did not evolve a united empire, the area being divided into city states governed by politico-religious rulers or ruling groups. Art, architecture, mathematics, engineering, and astronomy were

far advanced, and the Maya had evolved the conception of zero, a vigesimal numerical system, and a calendar more accurate than the Julian. Temples and other major buildings were constructed of stone and mortar and were faced with carved stones. The system of causeways existed. Codices were formed for religious and astronomical purposes, but writing did not exist. A body of traditions, history, religious prophecies were orally preserved. Religion was polytheistic and relatively humane, and the priestly class, exercising political authority as well as religious, possessed, with the ruling groups, a monopoly of learning. Widespread commerce existed, and weaving and pottery making were well developed. Agriculture was on an exceedingly high level. Civil war occurred during the 13th century and certain Mexican groups conquered the Maya of northern Yucatan. Mexican cultural influences were consequently introduced, especially in art, and religion. In the same century a greater degree of political cohesion appears to have been established in the northern part of the peninsula, and this resulted in a period of peace which endured until the 15th century, when internecine strife led to the destruction of Mayapan in 1451 and the abandonment of the great cities Chichen Itza and Uxmal. The Maya civilization was decadent culturally and politically when the Spaniards arrived, although certain of the independent provinces were relatively powerful militarily. The Maya of Yucatan numbered perhaps 400,000 to 500,000 on the eve of the Spanish conquest.

"The Chibcha.--The political organization of the Chibcha, who numbered some 1,000,000, was comparatively cohesive. The Zipa at Bacata and the Zaque at Tunja were the political rulers, and supreme religious authority was held by the high-priest known as the Iraca. The Chibcha possessed a well-developed calendar and numerical system and employed pictographs. Extensive commerce and simple industry existed, ceramics and textiles being highly developed. In gold working the Chibcha were in certain respects unequalled. The Chibcha employed wood and thatch in the construction of buildings.

"The Inca.--The Inca with their capital in Cuzco, successors to the high coastal and upland cultures of Chimu, Nasca, Pachacamac, which flourished during the early centuries of the Christian era, extended their control over the area from Ecuador to central Chile along the coast and inland to the eastern slopes of the Andes including the Bolivian plateau. Expansion was particularly rapid from the 14th century onward and one of the greatest of the conquerors, Huayna Capac, lived until the eve of the Spanish conquest. The empire, with a population of perhaps 6,000,000 to 8,000,000, was a thoroughly organized absolute, paternal, socialistic, and theocratic despotism. All power emanated from the Inca as the ruler and representative of the Sun Deity, whose worship constituted the religion of the Inca. There existed a close-knit and graduated system of provincial and local

administration. Each individual had a fixed place in society, and the state benignly provided for the welfare of all. The army was large and well organized, and a system of post and military roads extended to all portions of the empire. In mathematics and astronomy the Inca were not as accomplished as the Maya and Aztec, but in engineering and architecture, and the production of textiles and ceramics they were far advanced. The Inca did not evolve writing, but possessed a device to aid memory in the form of the quipu, through which governmental records were kept, tradition was preserved, and messages were sent. In gold working a high degree of skill was attained. Commerce, entailing extensive navigation along the coast, was well developed. A great body of oral tradition and poetry existed, and music was comparatively well developed. Principal buildings were of stone. Politically the Inca were the most advanced of the peoples of the New World. At his death Huayna Capac, contrary to practice, divided the empire between Huascar, his son by a lawful wife, and Atahualpa, his son by a concubine. A civil war followed, in which Atahualpa, shortly before the arrival of the Spaniards, triumphed and imprisoned his half-brother" (39, p. 361).

"There were historically only two road systems: the Roman roads, which covered 56,000 linear miles through Europe, the Near East, and Africa, and that of the Incas, which moved across the surface of the Andes from Argentina to Columbia

and along the entire length of desert coast, amounting to more than 10,000 miles of all-weather highways.

"In order to hold the Inca realm together and to convert these congeries of geography--desert, mountain, and jungle--into a close-knit empire, the best of communications was needed; the result was the Inca road, a system only comparable to the Roman roads, an American laborer which Alexander von Humboldt (who knew both), characterized as 'the most useful and stupendous works ever executed by man.'

"In the main there were two roads: the 'royal road' (Capacnan), which moved through the Andes from the border of the empire at the Ancasmayo River (1° North Latitude), down through Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, and thereafter into Argentina (coming to an end at Tucuman), and then into Chile, where it ended at the Rio Maule (35° South Latitude). There the Incas built a fortress and their most southern post-station at Puru-mauca. The coastal road, beginning at Tumbes (3° South Latitude), the frontier city which marked the coastal end of the Inca realm, ran southward through the brazen desert, the entire length of Peru; thence down deep into Chile, connecting at Copiapo with the road coming over from Argentina and continuing down to the aforementioned river in Chile which marked its end.

"The Andes 'royal road' was 3,250 miles in length (making it longer than the longest Roman road--from Hadrian's

Wall in Scotland to Jerusalem); the coastal road was 2,520 miles in length.

"In addition to these arterial roads, there were numerous laterals, careening down the sides of the V-shaped valleys and connecting the mountain roads with the coastal one; there were special gold roads, such as those which moved into the rich areas of Carabaya, east of Lake Titicaca, and there were especially wide military roads such as the one built from Huanuco to Chachapoyas, stone-laid in its entire length of 400 miles in order to undertake the conquest of an escaped tribe of Chancas Indians. Roads also pervaded the jungle. They were built at the highest altitudes ever used by man in constant travel; the highest Inca road recorded is the one behind Mount Salcabay, 17,160 feet.

"The standard width of the Inca coastal road was 24 feet. It is not known, as yet, why so wide a standard was set or what precise measurement determined it, but from hundreds of measurements made upon the road by the von Hagan Expedition along 1,000 miles, this was the standard gauge; it only departed from it when some immovable obstacle prevented this 'official' width from being obtained. Considerable nonsense has been written about the roads; to some they were mere footpaths, and to others 'stone roads laid with porphyry'; neither extreme is true. The Incas had no wheel and no dray animals, the common denominator was the foot of

the Indian and the hoof of the Llama. There was no need for the deep roadbed of the Roman roads which were solidly constructed to accommodate vehicular traffic. And it is known historically that 'nowhere did prepared surfaces appear on ancient roads' until wheeled transport came into general use.

"On the coast the natural hard-packed surfaces of the coastal llanos were sufficiently hard to support traffic without a surface. When the road passed over a bog it was raised high as a causeway; when it moved down steep inclines it became a step-road. When the roads entered the larger coastal cities and their environs, they were oftentimes paved for short distances.

"The consistent 24-foot width is the architectural feature which distinguishes the Inca roads from those built by anterior civilizations. Another feature of the Inca road is the side wall to keep out the sand drift, to mark the road, and to keep the soldiers, who mostly used it, within the bounds of the road. This was one of the first things noted by the Spaniards. 'Along this coast and vales the Caciques and prime men made a road . . . with strong Walls on both sides ' These walls can still be seen in many places" (83, pp. 179-80).

Africa

"During the Middle Ages much of Africa was familiar to the Arabs. Ibn Batuta, greatest of Arab travelers, between

the years 1325 and 1349 journeyed from his home in Morocco across northern Africa, through Egypt, the Near East, Arabia, eastern Africa, and thence to India. Later he traveled northward to the Crimea and thence through central Asia to India. After spending eight years at Delhi, he went on to Ceylon and China. On his return to Morocco in 1349 he set out across the Sahara and visited Timbuktu and the Niger region. His remarkable journeys serve to record not only the Arab trade from Egypt down the east coast to Africa and to India and beyond, but also the regular caravan trade from southern Morocco across the desert to the Kingdom of Ghana (i.e. Gyinea) in Nigeria.

"In 1225, under the tolerant rule of the Almohades and Marinides in Morocco, the Franciscans and Dominicans were allowed to establish their missionary centers in the country. By the end of the 13th century Christian and more particularly Jewish European merchants were engaged in the trans-Saharan trade, dealing chiefly in gold and ivory. In 1447 the Genoese Antonio Malfante penetrated far to the south.

"Having heard of a Christian king in East Africa (legend of Prester John, widespread in Europe after the spurious letter of 1165), the pope sent eight Dominicans to Ethiopia in 1316. Others seem to have been sent in the course of the century" (39, p. 363).

"In 1352-1353, the great Arab traveler, Ibn Batuta, having crossed the Sahara, visited the Mandingo Empire, of which he wrote a description" (39, p. 329).

Summary: Principal Events of the Thirteenth Century

1194-1260. Building of Chartres Cathedral (59, p. 151).

1200. Founding of Universities of Paris and of Oxford (59, p. 185).

1202. The Fourth Crusade led by Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat.

1204. Conquest of Normandy. Constantinople is besieged and taken by the French and Venetians. Baldwin, Count of Flanders, elected emperor of the East.

1206. Genghis Khan, the Mongol emperor, begins his career of conquest, extending his expeditions from China to Bulgaria.

1209. The Inquisition instituted at Avignon to check heresy.

1212. Defeat of the Saracens at Tolosa, Spain. Contests between Moors and Christians arouse the spirit of chivalry. The ill-starred Children's Crusade.

1214. The liberties of Oxford University confirmed by papal authority.

1215. General revolt against the king of England. John I of England forced to sign Magna Charta. Rise of trade guilds and labor unions.

1220. Venice becomes independent. Golden period of commerce. Cities of Venice, Genoa and Pisa furnish ships for the Crusades. Architecture, fine arts, and the industries flourish throughout western Europe.

1226. Louis IX, afterward known as Saint Louis, ascends the throne of France. Saint Francis of Assisi, founder of the Franciscan Order, dies.

1227. Death of Genghis Khan.

1228. The Fifth Crusade led by King Andrew II.

1230. Teutonic knights established themselves in Prussia.

1231. Saint Elizabeth of Hungary dies.

1236. Tartars invade Russia.

1248. Saint Louis IX of France leads the Sixth Crusade (85, p. 565).

1260. Kubalai Khan, Mogol Emperor in China (59, p. 185).

1261. Recovers Constantinople from Western domination.

1262. The Barons' War in England.

1263. Sir John de Baliol founds Baliol College, Oxford (83, p. 565).

1265-1321. Dante (59, p. 185).

1265. Henry III of England reigns. Deputies of the Commons first summoned to Parliament.

1268. The Mongol-Tartars invade China.

1270. The Seventh and last Crusade. Death of Saint Louis of France.

1271. Marco Polo's travels extend the knowledge of the world.

1274. Saint Thomas of Aquinas 'Prince of Scholastics' dies (85, 2p. 565).

1280. Kublai Khan founded the Yuan Dynasty in China (59, p. 185).

1280. The Mongol-Tartars conquer China, overthrow the Southern Sung Dynasty and establish the Dynasty of Yuan. Under Kublai Khan, grandson of Genghis, the grand canal of China is dug.

1294. Roger Bacon, the 'Doctor Admirabilis' of English science dies.

1295. The English Parliament is organized.

1297. Edward I takes the coronation chair and the records of Scotland to London.

1299. The Ottoman or Turkish Empire founded (85, pp. 556-65).

Summary: Principal Events of the Fourteenth Century

1301-08. Founding of important European universities.

1304. Regal power made independent of Papal influence. Wallace, the Scottish chief, beheaded in London.

1306. Robert Bruce becomes king and liberator of Scotland.

1307. William Tell appears as the liberator of Switzerland. Coal first used as fuel in England.

1314. Battle of Bannockburn. The Scots defeat the English under Edward II.

1321. Civil War in England. Death of Dante.

1326. King Edward II of England dethroned.

1327. Edward III of England commences his reign.

1328. Philip IV of France founds the Valois dynasty.
Edward III of England assumes title of King of France.
1331. The art of weaving cloth introduced into England by Flemish artisans.
1338. Froissart, French chronicler and historian, born.
1339. English invade France and the Hundred Years' War begins.
1342. Factions of the Guelphs and Ghibellines in Italy. Rule of the Medici.
1346. Battle of Crecy, 26 August. The French defeated by Edward III of England.
1347. Rienzi, the 'last of the Roman tribunes,' assumes power 'in the name of liberty, peace and justice.' English capture Calais. Admiralty and Law Courts instituted in England.
- 1348-51. The Black Plague ravages the world.
1353. Boccaccio's literary fame commences.
1356. Battle of Poitiers, 19 September. King John of France made prisoner by the English.
1360. Calais ceded to England.
1362. Use of French language abandoned in English law courts for the native tongue. Langland writes his Vision of Piers Plowman.
1368. Revolution in China. Yue-chang or Hong-wu founds the Ming or 'Bright' dynasty. Makes Nankin his capital. Receives ambassadors from Persia and Constantinople.

1371. The Stuart dynasty founded in Scotland.

1377. Wickliffe's doctrine condemned in England.

1378. Schism begins in the Catholic church and lasts to 1417.

1381. Tyler's insurrection in England. Bills of exchange first used in England.

1383. Cannon first used by the English governor of Calais.

1383. Eycliffe completes translation of Bible into English.

1391. The Pope's power and authority abolished in England by the Parliament.

1396. Chrysoloras appointed professor of Greek at Florence; vitalizes scholarship (86, p. 556).

1309-1376. Popes at Avignon, not at Rome.

1320-1384. John Wycliffe.

1363. Tamerlane, Mongol conqueror.

1405. Death of Tamerlane (59, p. 185).

Section II: Age of Columbus

The Meaning of the Word "Renaissance"

"The word Renaissance, 'rebirth,' applied to the time is often misunderstood. For many, it means that there occurred a rebirth of interest in the intellectual life and in art and education after presumably a prolonged period of neglect in the Middle Ages, the 'Dark Ages' as they were called.

"What really happened was a renaissance or a rebirth of interest in Greek literature and art, with the stimulus to

mental development which intimate contact with Greek sources has always given. Sir Henry Maine's expression, 'Whatever lives and moves in the intellectual world is Greek in origin,' is far from being absolutely true, but is eminently suggestive of Greek values. The fifteenth century, conceited by its cultivation of Greek, proceeded to dispise the forefather generation that lacked similar advantages. In their interest in the revival of Greek architectural forms, erudites of the Renaissance called the pointed architecture of the Middle Ages Gothic--as if it were worthy only of the barbarous invaders, the Goths, who had wiped out the older culture. The literature and art of the preceding time which we have learned to value highly was in similar strain spoken of as Gothic and was considered almost beneath notice. It has taken centuries to counteract the tradition thus created. Only in our day has due sympathy for the preceding ages developed. This lack of proper critical appreciation of the work of their predecessors is probably the worst fault of the Renaissance. It has led to a reaction which has reacted on the Renaissance itself. In its admiration for Greek things generally, the Renaissance took up the Olympian religion and, without accepting it, at least allowed interest in it to sap reverence for Christianity. Goethe's corresponding state of mind in the latest renaissance of Greek in Germany illustrates what happened. There was a distinct pagan spirit abroad, and while, of course, expressions used in the fashionable Latin letters

are only conceits of antiquarian elegance, there was undoubtedly a widespread lessening of reverence for Christian forms. This is not so noticeable among the really great minds of the Renaissance" (87, p. 189).

"In Burckhardt's hands, the conception of an age of the Renaissance received a new content, a novel application and valid historical meaning. He explained the growth of the new individualism by the political and social developments of Italy in the later Middle Ages, while the rebirth of classical learning was an invigorating, but only subsidiary, element in the evolution of the new philosophy of life" (11, pp. 8-9). "Burckhardt spoke of the Italian Renaissance as the first modern age--not a mere stepping-stone to the Enlightenment, but one of the high points in the historical development of humanity, to be studied for its own sake. . . . Only by choosing a cross-section of history and making the birth of a historic civilization the subject of his study could he hope to elucidate what seemed to him the fundamental human problem in history Burckhardt had an abiding faith in the creative power of man" (11, pp. 9-11).

Leonardo's Art and Inventions

Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519) was not only one of the most remarkable artists of all time but was a figure whose varied genius seemed to reflect almost every facet of the Renaissance and to excel in many of those facets. At the age

of twenty he became a member of the Painters' Guild of Florence. By 1482 he was commissioned by Lorenzo de Medici to present a rare gift to Lodovico il Moro, the gift consisting of a musical instrument which Leonardo had invented and for which he had composed the music. In Milan, he seems to have become the personal representative of the duke, Lodovico il Moro, and acted as both city engineer and military engineer. He planned and constructed the Martesana Canal, built a number of public buildings, helped design the Milan Cathedral, and wrote a book on painting. About that time he painted a number of Madonnas, including the 'Madonna and Saint Catherine'" (96, pp. 98-99).

"He became military engineer for Cesare Borgia in 1502 and probably spent the next four years simultaneously moving about Italy on military campaigns and working on his most famous portrait, 'Mona Lisa.' Da Vinci was then appointed painter to King Louis XII of France. He maintained studios for painting and carried on engineering projects and studies in natural sciences in Florence and Milan and produced two copies of the 'Madonna of the Grotto.' He had painted his famous 'Last Supper' in 1497"(59, p. 223). In that painting the figures are tied together in compact groups of three, ". . . and each group is linked up with the next by a carefully designed connecting gesture" (49, p. 57).

Leonardo's portraits and figures were drawn in a manner very true to life. It may be that Leonardo's interest in anatomy helped him solve many problems of depicting the human body, problems which his predecessors had been unable to solve. He reached new heights in showing color and light contrasts and created a whole school of painting which emphasized the mystical and poetic qualities of the human face. The landscape in the background of the "Mona Lisa" emphasizes the mystical quality of the woman's smile. Among those directly influenced by Leonardo were Raphael, Fra Bartolommeo, and Andrea del Sarto (96, pp. 99-100).

Leonardo was a man "equally interested in a unicorn and a foetus, a cannon foundry and a wildflower, a human face and a fold of drapery" (57, p. 96). He made a series of inventions from the wheelbarrow and the self-dumping derrick to locks for canals and the coffer dam. He made a number of experiments with flying toys and left drawings of an autogyro which, based on evidence obtained five hundred years later, would have flown if he had had a motor to use in turning the blades. His notes are still sources of ideas for both artists and scientists. Within his notes were found sketches and an outline for a poetic novel. Since this novel was never actually written, there will always be room for speculation as to whether Leonardo would have ranked as an author of equal

stature with his position as an artist, city managers, diplomat, military engineer, cryptographer and inventor (87, p. 188).

Other Sculptors

"Other noted sculptors were: Ghiberti, Donatello, Verocchio, Luca della Robbia, Adam Kraft, the Vischers, and the great architects, Alberti and Brunelleschi, with Bramante's early work. In all of these departments of aesthetics there are a number of other successful workers besides those named who in any period would be leaders, though in this environment they are only secondary. More interesting monuments of painting, sculpture and architecture have been the subject of constant admiration ever since than from any other century. It was an era not only of art, and of the arts and crafts, but also of great practical discoveries; casting in bronze and porcelain sculpture and art work were both highly developed" (87, p. 188).

Art and Architecture

"The still living spirit of the Renaissance made the century a period of great art. Leonardo da Vinci and Raphael died not far apart (1519-1520). The great Venetian painters, the Bellinis, Titian, flourished, and such men as Correggio and Botticelli, not to mention a whole host of lesser lights,

lived from the preceding century and did some of their best painting which has always been an inspiration. Architecture decayed to some extent, but it was in this century that Michelangelo built the great dome of Saint Peter's at Rome, and some of the finest Italian palaces were planned and constructed. Sculpture under the group of men from Michelangelo and Benvenuto Cellini to John Bologna, achieved masterpieces that were to be forever famous.

"Italy was not alone in this great development of the arts, for such men as Jean Goujon and Germain Pilon were distinguished as sculptors in France, and the chateaux of the Loire are enduring monuments of French architecture and great beginnings of French paintings were made. German painting had Durer and the Holbeins and sculpture the Vischers and Adam Kraft. In Spain, as well as in the Netherlands, there came a fine initiative for the supreme period of their painting which was to follow in the next century.

"The art of the 16th century is, however, its greatest chapter. It contains all the work of Raphael, the greater part of that of Michelangelo, not a little of Leonardo da Vinci, most of Titian, not to mention a number of men who in any other period would be looked upon as of the very first rank. Raphael has been called the greatest painter of all time and while modern art criticism has discounted that flattery,

scarcely anyone would be ranked above him. When he died at the age of 37 he had reached distinction as an architect and archaeologist as well as a painter. Narrow specialism was extremely rare in the Renaissance and many men did many things well. Titian is one of Raphael's great rivals; some of his Madonnas are among the most beautiful in the world. Delacroix declared that he came closest to the spirit of antiquity. Another great painter of the time whose work is growing in appreciation in our time is Correggio. Leigh Hunt declared him the most skillful artist since the ancient Greeks in the art of foreshortening. He was master of every technical device in painting and this was a time of fine technique. It is easy to trace art decadence in the century but not difficult to understand it, once it is appreciated that at the beginning Botticelli was doing his famous tondi or rondo, Leonardo da Vinci was painting the 'Mona Lisa' and Fra Bartolommeo had just come under the influence of the Venetians and the spell of their rich color. It would have been almost impossible to expect that painting could be maintained on any such high level as all this indicates" (88, p. 54).

"The period is famous for its devotion to the arts and crafts. The furniture is noted for its charm of design and fine execution and was often designed by the great artists.

Objects for church use were made the most beautiful works of art. A thurible or censor made by a pupil of Leonardo da Vinci sold at auction recently for some \$60,000 because it was thought to be the most beautiful piece of bronze work of its kind in the world. Candelabra for church and home use, cups, plaques and other articles were made with similar perfection. Artistry was the keynote in every department of life. When Aldus published (1501) his Virgil in italics, the designer of the type was Francia, the famous painter at Bologna who had designed all Aldus' previous fonts of type. The home beautiful was the special cult of the time. The ladies of the Renaissance planned charming private apartments, music-rooms, art galleries and reception-rooms which reflected their personalities and are most beautiful of their kind ever created. Some of them have been reproduced in modern museums in the hope of stimulating emulation. The apartments of Lucrezia Borgia at Ferrara were particularly famous. Landscape architects made the gardens surrounding these houses beautiful and artists were appealed to to plan details of all kinds so as to be sure that all would be beautiful as well as useful.

"Painting outside of Italy flourished wonderfully and the names of Albrecht Durer and the Holbeins in Germany, of the Clouets, Cousin and Fouquet in France and of Navarete, of Juan Bourgona, of Louis de Vargas and Pablo de Cespedes in Spain, as well as Mabuse, Van Orley, Blondeel and Justus

of Ghent in the Netherlands all lived in honor among those interested in the history of art. In sculpture there is a distinct descent from the preceding century, except for some great work of Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo, but the sculptures of John of Bologna deeply influenced succeeding generations and are greatly admired in our time. In France, Goujon's reliefs for the Fountain of the Innocents are among the most beautiful works of their kind ever produced. Germain Pilon's group of the Three Graces is a monument to the refined tastes of the time, and to the genius of the sculptor, even though it may show signs of the beginning of decadence. In Germany the great group of figures for the monument of the Emperor Maximilian at Innsbruck, executed early in the 16th century, show how high were the standards of plastic art everywhere at this time. Saint Sebald's tomb, executed by the Vischers, father and son, at Nuremberg remains one of the unapproached marvels of a great period. There were many foci of fine artistry in southern Germany during the period" (88, p. 64).

Michelangelo

"The century witnessed the career of the man often declared to have been the finest intellectual and artistic genius who ever lived, Michelangelo Buonarotti. He is the most distinguished of sculptors since the Greeks. Some of his painting rivals that of the very greatest painters. His

decoration of the Sistine Chapel made him forever famous and has been the subject of reverend study ever since. As an architect he is undoubtedly one of the world's supreme geniuses in construction. Without steel or steam or any mechanical aid except a mule and an inclined plane, he built the great dome of Saint Peter's, one of the architectural wonders of the world. Meant to be seen as the first object visible in Rome to the travelers who, in the old days, came over the mountains in carriages or on horseback 20 miles away, it looks more like the work of the Creator than of the creature. This greatest of sculptors, painters, architects, has written sonnets that have only been equaled by Dante and Shakespeare and have never been surpassed. In every mode of aesthetic expression, he was a master in the highest sense of the word. After having worked hard all his life, he lived to be nearly 90 in the full possession of his faculties. His personal character is equal to his genius. He was a deeply religious man who all his life had been well known for his thoughtfulness to others. He left a sum of money in his will, the income of which was to be 'given for the love of God to the modest poor.' One of his sonnets is a prayer that he may not let himself become so occupied with the mere trifles of life as to forget that it is a preparation for another. Vittoria Colonna declared that those who admire Michelangelo's works admire but the smallest part of him. The artist is often a disappointment after his works; Michelangelo's

personality had just the opposite effect. At the end he declared that 'life, which had been given us without our asking, had wonderful possibilities of good in it, and death which came unsummoned from the same Providential hand could surely not prove less full of blessing'" (88, p. 54).

Louis XI

"The national spirit that had been aroused in France under the stimulus of Joan of Arc's inspiration served to unify the country, but the consolidation of modern France in this century is mainly due to the machinations of Louis XI. Louis is one of the most dispicable characters in history. He succeeded however in bringing low the power of the nobles and consolidating France during his troubled reign with its devious political ways and his many broken pledges, in the midst of internal dissensions, until he created the beginning of the modern France that we know. Louis succeeded in incorporating Burgundy and Picardy with the territory of Boulogne into the royal domain, and obtained, moreover, the cession of Artois and Franche-Comte as the dowry of the daughter of Maximilian, while he extended his rule over Armagnac and Rousillon, so that the troublous times of the preceding reigns with the nobles against the king could be no more. As Commines said on the death of the Duke of Burgundy, Charles the Bold, who for so long successfully opposed the king: 'Never afterwards did the King of France find a man bold enough to

raise his head against him or to contradict his will'" (87, p. 192).

Literature

"The French literature of the 15th century contains some writers destined to world influence, at least among literary men, ever since. The most prominent of these is undoubtedly Francois Villon (1431-1484), the vagabond poet, who has had a striking revival in our time. Another is the royal poet, Charles d'Orleans (1391-1467) whose ballade for his dead wife has been a favorite poem for poets at least, for some five centuries. Villon owed his life when forfeited to the state for theft to Charles, but the poetry of the ne'er-do-well far surpassed in interest for the modern time that of his royal contemporary and benefactor. A third poet was Alain Chartier (died 1449), better known however as an orator 'the father of French eloquence.' French prose is very well represented by Commines (1445-1511), often spoken of as a chronicler, but really one of the first modern historians. No one would think of trying to understand the period with regard to which he wrote without reading his work" (87, p. 192).

"Only England was not touched by the spirit of the time, though the response in literature in the magnificent Elizabethan period must be credited to make up for it. While it is not generally realized, the Renaissance evoked a great

literature as well as a great art in all the countries of Europe. The development of this was somewhat delayed, and occurs in the 16th much more than in the 15th century. It includes Ariosto, Machiavelli, Lorenzo de Medici in Italy; Marguerite of Navarre and the Pleiades, in France. The culmination of Renaissance literature came in the Elizabethan period in England. Michelangelo, poet as well as artist, died just two months before Shakespeare was born, and the two men are complements of each other at the extremes of cultural Europe. The Teutonic countries presented a great development of scholarship though not of original literature" (88, p. 54).

America: Pre-Columbian Discoveries

"In 790, Irish monks, searching for religious retreats and for new fields of missionary enterprise, reached Iceland, after discovering the Faroe Islands in the 7th century.

"In 874, the Norsemen (Normans, Vikings) arrived in Iceland and settled.

"In 981, Leif Ericsson, returning from Norway to Greenland, was driven onto the American coast, which he called wineland (Vinland), from the grapes he found there. Wineland was probably Nova Scotia.

"In 1003-1006, Thorfinn Karlsefni set out from Greenland with three ships to settle Wineland. He and his party spent three winters on the American continent. There is no general agreement regarding the localities visited by him, which have

been placed by different authorities as far apart as Labrador and Florida. One recent writer puts the Helluland (Flatstone Land) of the Greenlandic-Icelandic sagas in northern Labrador; Frudustrand (Wonder Strand) on the north side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence; Straumfjord (Stream Fjord), where the first and third winters were spent, on Chaleur Bay (New Brunswick); and Hop (Lagoon) on the New England coast, either north or south of Cape Cod. Another recent writer is convinced that Karlsefni visited only the Labrador coast and both sides of the northern peninsula of Newfoundland, Straumfjord being, perhaps, in the vicinity of Hare Bay. Wineland was first mentioned in Hamburg Church History by Adam of Bremen, but most of our knowledge derives from the Norse sagas written down in the 14th century. Supposed Norse remains on the American continent (Dighton Rock, Old Stone Millrun, Newport) have all been rejected by scholars as spurious, with the exception of the Kensington Stone, found near Kensington, Minnesota, in 1898, under the roots of a tree 70 years old. The stone contains a long runic inscription recording the presence there of a group of Norsemen in 1362. The stone and the inscription are clearly not forgeries, and a majority of geographers as well as many historians are disposed to accept the authenticity of the record. The philologists are less favorable, because of irregularities in the language that are hard to explain. Within recent years a Norse grave, with sword,

shield, and two axes, is reported to have been found in Ontario.

"How long the Norsemen continued to visit America is obviously an open question. The last definite mention, apart from the Kensington Stone evidence, is for 1189, A. D., but there is some reason to believe that they came at least as far as southern Labrador for ship's timber as late as 1347. After that date the Greenland colonies declined, though the West Colony (in southeast Greenland) continued to exist until at least the mid-15th century and ships appear to have gone there periodically, probably trading in walrus hides and tusks" (39, p. 371).

"A great many theories have been advanced in recent years, notably by the Portuguese, but also by others, to show that the Portuguese knew of the existence of America before Columbus sailed. Most of the theories rest upon conjecture and clever deductions. All we can say is that, after the translation of Ptolemy's Geography into Latin (1410), the idea of the sphericity of the earth (never entirely lost during the Middle Ages, cf. Roger Bacon's Opus Majus of the late 13th century) spread rapidly in scientific circles and revived the idea of reaching Asia by sailing westward. Prince Henry the Navigator, for all his interest in the African route, sent expeditions to the west. In 1427-1431 Diogo de Seville discovered seven of the Azores, which may have been

known to the Italians as early as 1351. Flores and Colvo were discovered in 1451-1452. The map of Andrea Bianco (1448) shows land of the proper conformation where Brazil lies. It is clear that after 1450 many Portuguese expeditions set out in search of legendary islands (St. Brandan's, Brazil, Antillia, Island of the Seven Cities, etc.) and, according to some scholars, the Lisbon government enforced a policy of rigorous secrecy with regard to new findings. Nevertheless, no present evidence of Portuguese knowledge of America before 1492 can be regarded as conclusive" (39, p. 372).

"1487, Aug.--1488, Dec. Voyage of Bartolomeu Dias.

Having followed the African coast, Dias was driven by a great storm (Dec.-Feb.) south of the tip of Africa. He turned east and soon discovered hills running to the northeast, showing him that he had rounded the Cape of Good Hope. He followed the east coast of Africa as far as Mossel Bay and the Great Fish River and then was obliged by his crew to return.

"1500, Mar. 9--1501, June 23. Voyage of Cabral, who set out with 13 ships to establish Portuguese trade in the east. After touching Brazil he went on to India which he reached in Sept. The fleet loaded pepper and other spices and arrived safely in Lisbon. From this time on Portuguese trading fleets went regularly to India, and Lisbon soon became the chief entrepot in Europe for oriental products.

"In 1509-1515, Alfonso de Albuquerque, who in 1507 had conquered Ormuz on the Persian Gulf, made Goa the capital of

the Portuguese possessions (1510), and in 1511 took Malacca. He opened communication with Siam, the Moluccas and China" (39, p. 370).

Columbus' Voyages

"The extreme length to which Africa extended made the journey long and rounding the cape was dangerous, and so with the idea that the earth was only half the size it really is, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, proposed to travel westward. After his scheme had been rejected as visionary by a number of governments, Columbus finally obtained the help of Isabella and rediscovered the Western Hemisphere, 1492. He thought he had reached some part of the Indies, hence the name West Indies and the term Indians. Up to his death he probably never knew that he had found a New World. Amerigo Vespucci a few years later reached the Continent and described it in a widely read book and the Western Hemisphere was named America for him. In 1498 the Portuguese reached India proper by the African route and founded the Indian Empire. This led to dislocation of the eastern trade from Venice to Portugal" (88, p. 195).

"In 1451, bet. Aug. 26 and Oct. 31, Cristoforo Colombo (Span. Cristobal Colon) was born near Genoa, the son of Dománico Colombo, a weaver. Almost nothing definite is known of his youth (general unreliability of the biography by his son Fernando). He was probably himself a weaver and probably

went to sea only in 1472, when he made a trip to Scio. He seems to have come to Portugal in 1476 and to have made a voyage to England in 1477 (the story of his visit to Iceland is rejected by almost all authorities). In 1478 he appears to have made a voyage to the Madeiras and in 1482 possibly to the Guinea coast. In 1480 he married the daughter of Bartholomew Perestfello, hereditary captain of Porto Santo, near Madeira. By this time Columbus must have learned much about Portuguese discoveries and certainly about the ideas current in Lisbon. His appeal to the great Florentine geographer, Paolo Toscanelli, and the latter's reply (1474) urging a voyage to the west, have been called in question by some writers and may be spurious. In any event the idea of seeking India or China in the west was not novel.

*In 1483 or 1484, Columbus appealed to King John II of Portugal to finance a voyage to the west, but whether to seek new islands or a route to Asia is not clear. At this very time the king was authorizing self-financed expeditions to the west of the Azores (1486, Ferman Dulmo) and he might have licensed Columbus had the latter been willing to finance himself. Others maintain that the Portuguese already knew that Asia could not be reached in this way. Apparently Columbus, whose geographical knowledge appears to have been very incomplete, was regarded as a vain boaster. His project was rejected.

"In 1486 Columbus, through the mediation of some Franciscan monks, was able to submit his project to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. His religious fervor and personal magnetism impressed the queen, but the project was again rejected by experts. In the following year Columbus met the three Pinzon brothers, wealthy traders and expert navigators, from whom he doubtless learned much.

"In 1492, after being recalled to court, Columbus finally induced the queen to finance his expedition. It is not yet clear whether he set out to discover new islands and territories, or whether his object was to find a route to the Indies. He was made Admiral and governor of the territories to be discovered, but also carried letters to the Great Khan, which makes it probable that his purpose was twofold.

"1492, Aug. 3--1493, Mar. 15, the first voyage: Columbus left Palos with three ships, of which Martin Penzon commanded one, and the famous pilot Juan la Cosa another. He left the Canaries (Sept. 6) and reached land in the Bahamas (probably Watling's island) (Oct. 12), naming it San Salvador. He then discovered Cuba, which he thought was the territory of the Great Khan, and Santo Domingo (Española). A post, Navidad, was established on Santo Domingo, after which Columbus returned (1493, Jan. 4), touching at the Azores (Feb. 15), landing at Lisbon (Mar. 4) and finally reaching Palos (Mar. 15). He announced that he had discovered the Indies, news of

which spread over Europe with great rapidity and caused much excitement.

"In 1493, May 4, the Line of Demarcation: At the instance of the Spanish rulers, who feared counterclaims by Portugal, Pope Alexander VI granted to the Catholic kings exclusive right to the possession of all lands to the south and west toward India, not held by a Christian prince on Christmas Day, 1492, beyond a line drawn one hundred leagues west of the Azores and Cape Verde Islands" (39, p. 372).

"1493, Sept. 25--1496, June 11, Second Voyage of Columbus: He left with 17 caravels and 1500 men to establish Spanish power. On this voyage he discovered Dominica, Puerto Rico and other of the Antilles and Jamaica, explored the southern coast of Cuba and circumnavigated Espanola, where he founded the town of Isabella. He left his brother Bartholomew in charge, who in 1496 transferred the settlement to the southern coast (Santo Domingo)" (39, p. 373).

"1498, May 30--1500, Nov. 25, Third Voyage of Columbus: Discovery of Trinidad Island (1498, July 31) and South America (Aug. 1) near the mouth of the Orinoco. He explored the coast westward as far as Margarita Island. He then went to Espanola, where a revolt broke out against him. He requested the crown to send out a judge. The government sent out to the Indies Francisco de Bobadilla (1499), who sent Columbus and his brother to Spain as prisoners. Columbus was released and treated with distinction, but, despite the earlier rights

granted him, was never restored to his former authority or monopolistic grants. With Bobadilla direct royal control was established.

"1502, May 11--1504, Nov 7, Fourth Voyage of Columbus: He reached the coast of Honduras and passed south of Panama, returning after having suffered shipwreck at Jamaica.

"1506, May 21. Columbus died in relative obscurity at Valladolid. It is reasonably clear that he believed to the end of his days that he had discovered outlying parts of Asia, despite the fact that ever since 1493 the conviction had spread among experts (e. g. Peter Martyr) that a New World had been discovered" (39, p. 373).

Post Columbian Discoveries

"1497, May 2--August 6. Voyage of John Cabot. Cabot was a wealthy Italian merchant (born in Genoa, resident of Venice) who had traveled in the east (Black Sea, Alexandria, Mecca) and who settled in England about 1490. For several years he sent out expeditions from Bristol to seek the island of Brazil, in the hope of securing the valuable Brazil wood used in dying. Columbus' supposed discovery of Asia in the west spurred him on. The expedition reached land (June 24) evidently on Cape Breton Island, whence it then cruised along the southern coast to Newfoundland. Cabot was convinced that he had discovered the country of the Great Khan and intended

to return, passing south along the coast to the region of Brazil wood and spices.

"1498, May. John and Sebastian Cabot sailed with six ships on a second voyage. They went north, coasted along the east coast of Greenland, thence passed to Labrador and went south by Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the New England coast, as far as perhaps Delaware. Thence they returned to England. The date of their arrival is not known. Having found no spices, their efforts evidently no longer interested the king or country. John Cabot is not heard of after March, 1499" (39, p. 373).

Post-Columbian Discoveries

"1497, July 8--1499, Aug. 29 or Sept. 9, Voyage of Vasco Da Gama: This would have been undertaken sooner, excepting for internal troubles in Portugal and disputes with Castile arising from the discoveries of Columbus. Da Gama left with four ships to find the way to India, the feasibility of this being perfectly clear after the discoveries of Covilha and Dias. He rounded the cape in Nov. 1497, reached Quilimane (Jan. 1498). Mozambique (Mar.), and then Mombasa. Despite trouble with the jealous Arab traders he was finally able to get a pilot from Melind. He reached Calicut on the Malabar coast (May 22). He started for home in Aug. 1498, touched Melindi (Jan. 1499) and rounded the cape (Mar.). The exact date of his arrival at Lisbon is disputed.

"1501, May--1502, Sept. Second Voyage of Amerigo Vespuccie, this time in the service of Portugal. The voyage took him south along the Brazilian coast to about 32° S. L. if not farther. It was from the published account of this voyage and from Vespucci's conviction that what had been found was a New World that the geographer Martin Waldseemuller was led to propose that this New World be called America (1507). The name was at first applied only to South America and the use of it spread slowly until its general adoption toward the end of the 16th century" (39, p. 374).

"1519-1522, Circumnavigation of the Globe by Ferdinand Magellan (Fernaõ de Magalhaes, 1480-1521): Magellan was sent out by the Spanish crown to find a strait to the Moluccas. He reached the Brazilian coast near Pernambuco, explored the estuary of the Rio de la Plata and, after wintering at Port St. Julian, passed through the strait which bears his name and entered the South Sea, to which the name Mare Pacificum was given. After following the coast to about 50° S. L. he turned northwest and after months of sailing reached the Ladrones and Philippines. In the latter place he was killed in a skirmish with the natives. One of his vessels, under Sebastian del Cano, continued westward and reached Spain, thus completing the circumnavigation of the globe" (39, p. 374).

"The Popes of the second half of the century, once the effects of the Great Schism passed, bulk large in history.

Pope Nicholas V (1448-55) was a generous patron of the New Learning and founded the Vatican Library. Pope Calixtus III (1455-58), the first Borgia pope, continued this liberal policy as a man of cultivated mind and fine taste. With Spanish zeal against the Mohammedans, he stirred up the rulers of Europe against the Turks. Menzel, the German historian, says 'that anything at all that was done against the Turks was wholly due to the exertions of the Pope.' He encouraged the coming of Greek scholars into Italy and such men as Theodore Gaza, George of Trebizond, Chalcondyles of Athens, Argyropulos and Gemistes Pletho of Constantinople brought with them literary treasures while their teachings stimulated an enthusiasm for Greek learning. Calixtus began the unfortunate policy of Papal nepotism by creating two nephews Cardinals on the same day and the third Duke of Spoleto and Governor of the Castle of Saint Angelo, thus initiating the prominence of the Borgia family in Italian politics. His successor was Aeneas Silvius Piccolomini the distinguished Renaissance scholar who took the name of Pius II (1458-64). Born in poverty because of his father's exile, he was 18 before he began his studies but he became famous for the elegance of his Latinity, his poetry and--strange combination--of deep knowledge of canon and civil law. In the midst of a most successful career as a diplomat, a serious illness led him to realize the emptiness of earthly ambitions and taught him as he said himself that 'the sum of all knowledge is to know how to die.'

He became as distinguished for his piety as for his learning and having passed through the various degrees of the hierarchy, was elected Pope. He made it the task of his life to rouse the Christian nations against the Turks but with little avail. He tried to bring about the conversion of the Moham-
medan ruler to Christianity with like failure. The Christian Princes were divided by their own ambitions, the Sultan Mohammed was bent on his. The failure of his efforts hastened his death. His successor Pope Paul II (1464-71) feared the danger of religion of pagan learning unless properly regulated and endeavored to moderate the tide of enthusiasm. As a result he became the subject of bitter aspersion in the scholarly writings of the time. His successor, Pope Sixtus IV (1471-84), is a most difficult character to estimate. He enlarged the Vatican Library, appointing the scholarly Platina, in disgrace under his predecessor, its librarian. He built the Sistine Chapel and invited Perugino, Ghirlandaio and other great painters to decorate it. He adorned Rome with a number of magnificent public structures and was a munificent patron of literature and the painting press. He continued, however, the unfortunate nepotism which marked Papal politics at this time, and used some most dishonorable means to further his political aims. His successor Innocent VIII (1484-92) had been married earlier in life and his son had married the daughter of Lorenzo de' Medici. As Pope, he entered into a

close alliance with the de' Medici and made Lorenzo's son, Giovanni, a Cardinal when only 13. He debased Papal power for political purposes, yet devoted himself to allying the Christian princes and peoples in a new Crusade against the Turks but without success. He succeeded however in reconciling the rivalries of the great noble houses in Rome and putting an end to the feuds which had disturbed the city so that the Romans conferred on him the honorable title of 'Father of his country.' Innocent's successor was another Borgia, Pope Alexander VI (1492-1503), whose character is one of the most disputed in history. Roscoe, the English historian of Lorenzo de' Medici, began the protest against the traditional history of Alexander. His life was irregular before he ascended the Papal throne. He had suffered for the faults of his children, whom he idolized. Historians are agreed now that he has been fearfully calumniated. The charges of poisoning and other horrible crimes imputed to him by the scandal mongers of the time have been completely disproved. As a Spaniard making his way to Italy, he was the subject of bitter ill-will and his repression of the feudal aristocracy at Rome and his political opposition to the French made him enemies who stopped at no mode of discrediting him. His daughter Lucrezia has been completely vindicated by Gregorovius and though her name was a by-word in history, her people of Ferrara followed her to the tomb as a saint and her husband, the Duke d' Este was inconsolable" (87, p. 193).

Savonarola

*The end of the century was the scene of the career of Girolamo Savonarola (1452-98) who about the time of Columbus discovered America, alarmed by the pagan elements which had been stealing into social customs during the Renaissance, preached penance and reform to the Florentines. He stirred them so deeply that the women brought their finery and jewelry and the ornaments, personal and of household, and piled them in the streets to be burned. The fervid preacher then suggested that Florence should become a Theocracy and Christ be proclaimed king. This invasion of politics brought about his downfall, and he was condemned to death, burned, and his ashes thrown into the Arno.

*Savonarola has often been proclaimed a pre-Reformation reformer, but he was a faithful Dominican, the prior of his monastery, and a devout adherent of the old Church. He recognized abuses and strove to correct them and never doubted for a moment that the mission of the Church to men had been impaired by these abuses. Even popes since have suggested the possibility of his canonization and his name has been thoroughly vindicated (87, p. 193).

Hus

*The early century was the scene of the rebellion of John Hus, the Bohemian reformer, who had taken up Wyclif's doctrines and was condemned for them by the Council of

Constance (1415). He was handed over to the civil authorities and put to death because it was felt that the teaching of his doctrines would be subversive of authority in both Church and State. Hus's doctrines had been examined by Jean Gerson, the Chancellor of the University of Paris, who warned against their heretical character. Hus's execution was followed the next year by that of Jerome of Prague, but this was only the beginning of a very serious religious disturbance which waged in Bohemia for more than a generation. The most important question was whether the laity should partake of the chalice as well as of the Host of the Sacrament of communion, and it was not settled until 1485, when King Wladislaw granted equal liberties and rights to both parties. By degrees then, the Utraquists (from Latin, utraque, both, in reference to the Sacrament in both kinds) conformed to the Roman rites and in the next century resisted the Lutheran reform even better than the Subunists (under one kind)" (87, pp. 193-94).

Machiavelli

"The characteristic product of the time in contrast with Savonarola, showing how the same period may produce the opposite extremes, is Machiavelli. He was born in the next decade after Savonarola (1469), and went through the penitential period at Florence as an acquaintance at least, of the great Dominican, and yet was the writer early in the next century

of works in political philosophy that represent a climax of utter lack of principle" (87, p. 193).

He read the classics and almost every piece of literature that came within his grasp in order to derive lessons in statecraft. He constantly sought to penetrate into the secrets of the successful empire builders of the past. He held a number of diplomatic posts in Italy and France and learned some lessons first hand from Cesare Borgia.

Machiavelli finally conceived the idea of giving a scientific basis to politics. Morals were of value only when politically useful. Exiled for a time from Florence, he wrote some poems and satiric dramas, including "Mandragola." He is best known for his books, The Prince and Discourses on the First Ten Books of Titus Livius, the former being a study of monarchical institutions, the latter on republican institutions.

Means are constantly examined to see how they might aid in building a state. Effectiveness is the measure of value (40, pp. XIV-XLVI). Machiavelli only dimly foresaw nationalism, but he clearly expressed the realistic use of power from the political center of a state and so emphasized "the method by which unity could be achieved. Therein lies the importance of The Prince in the subsequent history of the Western world. Machiavelli wrote a grammar of power . . ." (40, p. XXXIV).

Henry VIII and the English Reformation

"1509-1547. Henry VIII. He was six times married: (1) Catherine of Aragon, widow of his brother Arthur, mother of Mary the Catholic (married June 3, 1509, divorced March 30, 1533). (2) Anne Boleyn, mother of Elizabeth (married Jan. 25, 1533, beheaded May 20, 1536). (3) Jane Seymour (married May 20, 1536, died after the birth of her son Edward VI, Oct. 24, 1537). (4) Anne of Cleves (married Jan. 6, 1540, divorced June 24, 1540). (5) Catherine Howard (married Aug. 8, 1540, beheaded Feb. 12, 1542). (6) Catherine Parr (married July 10, 1543, outlived the king). Henry united in his person the claim of both Lancaster and York.

"In 1511, Henry, a member of the Holy League, received from the pope the title of Most Christian King" (39, p. 375).

"In 1527, Henry, desiring to divorce his wife in order to marry Anne Boleyn, alleged the invalidity of marriage with a deceased brother's wife, and appealed to Rome. The delays of the pope and the scruples of Wolsey enraged the king, who in 1529 deprived the latter of the great seal and gave it to Sir Thomas More (1478-1535; published Utopia in Latin, 1516). Sentence and pardon of Wolsey, who, however, died in disgrace (1530). At the suggestion of Cranmer (1489-1556) the question was referred to the universities of England and Europe, and a

number deciding in the king's favor, Henry married Anne Boleyn. Henry also broke with the Church of Rome. Confiscation of the annates, followed by the resignation of Sir Thomas More (1532).

"The pope excommunicated Henry and annuled his divorce from Catherine, which Cranmer, now Archbishop of Canterbury, had pronounced. After the birth of Elizabeth, Parliament confirmed the divorce, recognized Elizabeth as heir to the throne (1534), and secured the succession to the other children of Anne in case of the death of the princess.

"In 1534, the Act of Supremacy appointed the king and his successors Protector and only Supreme Head of the Church and Clergy of England. This may be taken as the decisive beginning of the English Reformation. The break with Rome had political and personal origins; at first there was no real differences on dogma and liturgy. Refusal to take the oath of supremacy was made high treason, under which vote Sir Thomas More was condemned and beheaded (1535).

"In 1536, Tindale's translation of the Bible was published by Coverdale, under authority from the king" (39, p. 376).

Martin Luther and the Protestant Reformation

"The most disputed character of the century is Martin Luther. Lord Acton once declared his life the most difficult problem in historical writing. The movement initiated by him separated the Teutonic peoples from the Pope and then

made their monarchs the head of both Church and State (Cujus regio ejus religio). There had been unfortunate abuses within the Church and many felt that these could be corrected without breaking away from Rome. A number of deeply religious people followed Luther out of the Church for this reason. Political motives and the confiscation of the property of the Church and of the religious orders helped the movement. Sweden affords a typical example of this. Most of this property had been held in trust for the poor and for education. In the religious conflict which followed, social organizations for the benefit of the poor and education suffered severely. Fewer universities were founded, the attendance was smaller, intellectual life declined (Erasmus), there was less academic freedom (Pualson). Luther's doctrine of liberty of judgement and personal interpretation of the Scriptures soon led to a multiplication of sects, each bitterly opposed to the others. Calvin in Switzerland and Knox in Scotland are as difficult to estimate properly as Luther. They too gathered round them many of those in their environment most deeply interested in religion. Rev. Dr. Briggs suggested that there were other and greater reformers in the century than these popular heroes. He mentioned Sir Thomas Moore, Erasmus and John Von Staupitz as 'the three irenic spirits . . . the beacons of the greater reformation that was impending.' Luther's movement began a reaction for sadly needed reform in the Church which was

directed by the Council of Trent (1545-63). Henry VIII, after having received the title of Defender of the Faith for writing against Luther, broke with Rome over the affair of Anne Boleyn and became by Act of Parliament the head of the Church as well as of the State. The Anglican Church as such did not come into existence until under the boy king, Edward VI (1547-1553). Queen Mary (1553-1558) restored Catholicism. Anglicanism was firmly established by Elizabeth (1558-1603).

"The Protestant Reformation undoubtedly brought about a great reawakening of personal religion and aroused the clergy to an ampler sense of their duties in leadership with regard to their flocks. Religion had come to be for a great many people a convention, lacking those personal elements of relationship between man and his Creator which foster the spiritual life. The Renaissance served to set the intellect of Europe rather definitely against religion, though the great leaders were exceptions to this and a profound reawakening of the spiritual life of the people was needed. The movement is too close to us even yet to be properly appreciated in its entire significance though the World War has helped to its understanding" (88, p. 56).

Swiss Reformation

"Swiss military prestige had reached its zenith in the latter part of the 15th century. Swiss mercenaries took an

important part in the Italian expedition of Charles VIII and continued to form a crucial part of the French and Italian armies" (39, p. 409).

"The beginning of the Reformation in Switzerland was under the leadership of Ulrich Zwingli (b. 1484; educated at Basel and Bern; priest at Glarus, 1506; after taking part in the Italian campaigns, became priest at Einsiedeln, 1516; preached at Zurich, 1518). Zwingli denounced indulgences and other abuses in the Church and made a great impression in Zurich. In 1521 he denounced the hiring of mercenaries, and in 1522 condemned fasts and celibacy (he himself married in 1524). The town, following his teaching, abolished confession (1524) and closed the monasteries. Zwingli acted independently of Luther, from whom he was separated chiefly by difference of opinion on transsubstantiation.

"In 1524, five cantons (Lucerne, Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, and Zug) banded together against Zurich and the Reformation movement.

"In 1528, Bern and Basel accepted the Reformation, and were followed by three others. Freiburg and Solothurn remained Catholic and sided with the original five (rural) cantons.

"In 1531, there was a war of the Catholic cantons against Zurich. The Zurichers were defeated in the battle of Kappel (Oct. 11) and Zwingli was killed. Thus the division of the

confederation was complete; the weakness resulting therefrom made impossible all effective action in the ensuing century.

"In 1536, Geneva (allied with Bern) adopted the Reformation, largely through the efforts of William Farel. In the same year John Calvin (1509-1564) arrived in the city. His teaching made a deep impression, but also aroused much opposition. In 1538 he was banished and retired to Strassburg" (39, p. 409).

Geography

"The physical science of the time came in geography. The Portuguese proved hardy navigators and under the inspiration of Prince Henry the Navigator (1394-1460) penetrated farther and farther into the mysterious seas to the south of them baring the secrets of the African coast. In 1448 the Azores were discovered. About the middle of the century, the Guinea coast was explored and some of the black men carried to Portugal as slaves, creating the negro problem as well as the slave trade. The explorations continued because it was hoped to find a trade route to the Indies. It was not until 1486 that Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern part of Africa which he called the Cape of Good Hope, because at last the road to India lay open" (87, p. 195).

Medicine

"Medicine received a new impulse at the end of the 15th century, and the two most important personages in it are

Leoniceus and Linacre. Leoniceus was professor of medicine at Padua, Bologna, and Ferrara and noted for his knowledge of Latin as well as of medicine. He made a famous translation of the Aphorisms of Hippocrates. He was no mere translator and commentator however but a practical scientist whose most important work was the correction of the botanical errors in Pliny's Natural History. Leoniceus also wrote on certain clinical problems of his day, notable lues. The problem of whether syphilis was introduced into Europe from America or not at the end of this century is considered by some an unsolved question, but there are now many documents and traditions pointing to its European existence for centuries before, and the treatment of it by mercury had even been worked out. The technique of some of the surgeons of this century show that the old form of anaesthesia survived, and that a great many operations subsequently abandoned, to be revived at the end of the 19th century were being performed.

"The greatest benefit conferred upon medicine at this time was the printing in magnificent scholarly editions of some of the classics in medicine. This led to their preservation, and though many of them were lost sight of and their significance unappreciated until the last generation, the printed editions were in many libraries waiting for modern students and ready to be reprinted. Above all, the Renaissance printers preserved for us the books of the great teachers of

the late Middle Ages, of the surgeons of Salerno, of Theodoric and Bruno, of Guy de Chauliac, and of others which were circulating in manuscript and were liable to be lost. The Italian medical schools were waking up to the study not only of Greek medicine but also of clinical medicine by observation and the value of pathology for the real meaning of disease. Beniveini (died 1502), besides being an able surgeon wrote 'the only work on pathology which owes nothing to any one,' (Malgaigne). Medical students from many countries in Europe found their way to Italy; among them Linacre from distant England, and Copernicus, physician as well as astronomer, from Poland, so that the tradition of going to Italy for advanced medical studies became the condition so notable in the next century" (87, p. 195).

Guttenburg

"This century saw the invention of printing which has been declared the most important and the most perilous discovery in the annals of history. Printing blocks for the making of playing cards and of certain pious pictures had been in use during the late Middle Ages. On these were cut some lines of text and from this to the making of whole pages in this way was but a step and a number of books were printed in this fashion in the first half of the 15th century. The next step was the invention of movable letters and this was accomplished very probably by John Guttenburg (1400-1468) of

Minz in Germany. The oldest printed book from movable types was a Latin Bible issued by Guttenburg and Faust at Minz about 1455. Before the close of the century, there were presses everywhere. Italy particularly took up the new art with the greatest enthusiasm and Venice alone had some two hundred printing presses before 1500. The most important chapter in the history of printing is the story of Aldus Manutius (1450-1515) who established the Aldine Press. He published some magnificent editions of the classical authors, securing as editors some of the great scholars of the time. The most beautiful books ever issued were produced during this first half century of printing. When William Morris in England in the last generation of the 19th century wanted to restore printing to the art that it had been, from the mere cheap handicraft that it had become, he went back to take as models for his work some of the beautiful printed editions of the later 15th century. It was a time too of beautiful bindings, so that books fitted admirably into the charming interiors that were being made at this time. The first half of the century had seen the making of beautiful illuminated books so that the printers had fine models before them and it is not surprising to hear that when a great book collector of the time was asked to purchase printed books, he scornfully refused to add any 'machine-made volumes' to the beautiful collection of hand-made books that had been his life's devotion.

Books were extremely valuable and even printed books were very dear, so that in libraries to which any number of people were admitted, books were chained to the shelves, quite as in our time we lock up expensive editions" (87, p. 194).

Science

"As the Renaissance advanced, the Greek classics were read not only for their value as literature but also for their content in science. The result was a reawakening of interest in the physical sciences which was destined to produce important results. This study of Ptolemy aroused an interest in mathematics and astronomy, while the issue of Galen in the original reawakened attention to clinical medicine. Purbach at Vienna (1423-1461) and Johann Mueller (1436-1476) known as Regiomontanus after the fashion of Latinizing the names of scholars at that time, devoted themselves to the study of Ptolemy, and though both died in early middle life, their names have been deservedly remembered. The most important personality in the scientific development of the time was Nicholas of Cusa, a fellow student at the University of Padua of Toscanelli who influenced Columbus so much. The attitude of the Church toward science at the time is well illustrated by the fact that Cusanus as he is called was made Bishop of Brixen, Apostolic Delegate to Germany and finally Cardinal. Cantor in his History of Mathematics devotes a score of pages to Nicholas. His ideas in astronomy are well represented by

his declarations that the earth was not the center of the universe; that it moved in the heavens as the other stars, and could not be absolutely at rest. His thoughts with regard to the constitution of the sun are surprising anticipations of modern ideas. He suggested the correction of the calendar and the use of laboratory methods in the study of disease that gives him a place in the history of medicine. Cusanus' best known work is his De Docta Ignorantia (On Learned Ignorance), in which he points out how many things there are which people think they know that are not so.

"The curiosity of men was aroused, and astronomy received an impetus which was to culminate in the career of Copernicus, who was 27 before the century closed" (87, pp. 194-195).

Physical Science

"The foundation of the physical sciences were laid broad and deep in this period. The greatest scientific discovery is that of Copernicus, who revolutionized man's thinking as to the universe more than any other who ever lived. He did not make many observations nor were those he made particularly exact, but he reached a magnificent generalization, the Copernican theory, which has come to be accepted teaching as to the universe. His theory was not acceptable to his generation and practically all the mathematicians and astronomers objected to it. It was not generally accepted until the generation after Galileo in the following century. Copernicus'

studies had been made in Italy; it was there, according to tradition, that he first hinted of his theory, and when he published his book it was dedicated with permission to Pope Paul III. Until Galileo's unfortunate insistence on teaching the theory as absolute science, there was no hint of opposition. Copernicus' greatest scientific contemporary was Leonardo da Vinci, whose work in science belongs to this century (died 1519). Leonardo discovered capillarity and diffraction, made observations on resistance, on density, on the weight of air, on dust figures, on vibrating surfaces and on friction and its effects. Duval has claimed a place for him in the history of the biological sciences for his original observations in botany, zoology, palaeontology and physiology. He developed practical engineering, studied the problems of flying and made a series of very practical inventions. He was a zealous dissector and made sketches of his work which, rediscovered in recent years, show clearly that his proposal to write a textbook of human anatomy was quite serious" (88, p. 57).

Sir Thomas More

"One of the supremely great men of history was Sir Thomas More (beheaded 1535). A close personal friend of King Henry VIII, he was sent on an embassy into the Netherlands (1516), and while there wrote Utopia, probably the most interesting and practical of the books on ideal republics ever written. He had been, before this, one of the group of

men, including Erasmus, Linacre and Dean Colet, most prominent in the Renaissance in England. Erasmus thought him one of the greatest minds of the time. On the fall of Wolsey, Henry VIII insisted on making More, Lord Chancellor. Wolsey declared him the most suitable to be his successor, but the post was accepted not without misgivings on the part of More. His well-known sympathy for the poor and his sterling uprightness of character had made him popular, so that his installation took place 'to the joy and applause of the whole kingdom'. His career fulfilled expectations. He is the only man who ever cleared the docket of the Court of Chancery. More refused to take the Oath of Supremacy, that is, that the king was the head of the Church. Practically all the bishops of England except John Fisher had consented to take the oath by some evasion of conscience, but More persisted in refusing. He was executed for treason going to the scaffold with a joke on his lips. Lord Campbell (Lives of the Lord Chancellors) says, 'Considering the splendor of his talent, the greatness of his acquirements and the innocence of his life, we must regard his murder as the blackest crime that has ever been perpetrated in England under the form of the law.' He adds, 'The mean, sordid, unprincipled chancellors who succeeded him made the latter half of the reign of Henry VIII the most disgraceful period in our annals'" (88, p. 57).

Famous Women

"The most interesting feature of this revival of education in the 15th century was that women were admitted to it as well as men. Vittorino da Faltre made two conditions on his coming to teach at Mantua: one was that poor students who showed ability should be allowed to enter his classes, and that women should also be students. Some of the young women were his favorite pupils. Cecilia Gonzaga began the study of Greek under his direction at the age of seven, could read Chrysostom at eight, and could write Greek with singular purity at the age of twelve. Issotta Nogarola the favorite pupil of Guarino of Verona, the serious rival of Vittorino da Feltre as a teacher, is scarcely less famous than Cecilia Gonzaga and there are many stories which reveal how deep was feminine interest in education at this time. Sandys in his Harvard lectures on The Revival of Learning, notes that 'the studious temper was often associated with habits of piety and strong religious feeling,' and names some of these learned young ladies who later entered religious orders. Most towns in Italy of any importance had their school of New Learning and with it opportunities of higher feminine education. It would seem that by the end of the century as many young women in proportion to the rather meagre population of the time were enjoying the privilege of education as in our time.

"The distinguished women of the Italian Renaissance include besides the Gonzagas and the d'Estes, such names as Vittoria Colonna of the great Roman family of that name, Lucrezia Tornabuoni, the mother of Lorenzo the Magnificent, and such less well-known names as Tullia d'Aragona, noted for her precociousness, Olympia Morata, Hippolita Sforza, Battista Montefeltro, both famous for addresses delivered in Latin on important occasions, Leonora Cibo and Pellegrina Lascara who translated the Aeneid of Virgil and the Odes of Horace, and others who might be mentioned. These learned women of the Renaissance made erudition fashionable and study a social duty, but they are famous mainly for making their homes beautiful and devoting themselves to the beautification of their surroundings. These traits have only come to be properly appreciated since we have paid more attention in recent years to the house and garden beautiful and have realized that the home and its surroundings must reflect the owner's tastes. The models left by the Renaissance women are now an inspiration and exemplar" (87, pp. 191-92).

"Women of the century played an extremely important role in its political as well as its intellectual life. The most important character of the first half was Joan of Arc. The greatest personage of the second part was Isabella of Castile, the greatest of women rulers and one of the greatest of all rulers. Joan's career ended at the stake but Isabella after

the expulsion of the Moors and Columbus' discoveries, lived to be the ruler of one of the greatest empires the world has ever seen. Her character was equal to the occasion, hence her place in history. She and her husband were so poor on their marriage that they could not give the presents usual according to Spanish custom. She is said to have repaired one of her husband's coats no less than seven times. Beautiful specimens of her needlework are shown in many Spanish churches. Anxious to learn Latin, she shared her children's lessons. She made a magnificent collection of books, fostered the universities, was a generous patron of Cardinal Ximenes who did so much for Spanish scholarship at this time, helped him to found the University of Alcala, invited prominent scholars to Spain and made it clear in every way that she felt education to be the most important thing for her people. Under her reign, the Inquisition was established but nothing shows so well the original intention of the institution as a means to prevent internal dissension among her people as Isabella's well known tenderness of heart. In the midst of the almost continual wars of her early reign, she found time and means to organize camp hospitals, the first it is said, in history. She was solicitous to spare captured enemies and insisted that wounded prisoners must be treated like their own wounded. The poor were always her special care and nothing so aroused her indignation and her prompt action for justice as to learn

that a noble had been imposing on them. She often put herself to great personal inconvenience to maintain their rights. When Columbus offered some of the Indians he had brought home with him to some of the Spanish nobles, the Queen indignantly demanded, 'Who gave permission to Columbus to parcel out my subjects to anyone?' Hearing that some of the Indians were held as slaves in Spain, she ordered that they should be returned to their own country at the expense of the person who held them. She was a woman of inexhaustible energy. The mother of many children, she spent nights in the saddle when maternal duties might seem to make that impossible. She was the very life of her soldiers in their struggle with the Moors. Her reign issued in a period of greatness for Spain which lasted for many generations. She encouraged education for women so successfully that in the following century practically every university in Spain had women professors. Prescott compares her to Queen Elizabeth, but sets Isabella far above her English rival" (87, p. 192).

"The century embraced the careers of a number of women in whom interest has never died. The list includes Vittoria Colonna and Marguerite of Navarre who corresponded with each other, Isabella and Beatrice d'Este, Saint Teresa. Vittoria Colonna, called the Saint of the Renaissance, was a wonderful character of fine intelligence and broad education who deeply influenced her own and subsequent generations. She wrote

some religious poetry that is still republished, but it was her personality that counted. Her deep impression on Michelangelo in his old age, as demonstrated by his sonnets to her, some of the greatest ever written to a woman, reveal her power. The contrast to her would seem to be Liciozia Borgia, whose name has become the byword for all that is worst in feminine human nature, but Gregorovius has vindicated her. Her contemporaries deeply loved and respected her. Aldus, the great printer, who knew her well, praises her charity to the poor, her unselfish devotion to the afflicted and her ability as a ruler. Chevalier Bayard declared 'that neither in her time nor for many years before has there been such a glorious princess.' When she died at the early age of 40, all of Ferrara, where the last 20 years of her life was spent, followed her body to the tomb as that of a saint. Her popular reputation is a lesson of the fallibility of historical traditions without contemporary documents.

"Saint Teresa of Spain has been called the greatest of intellectual women. Her works are still issued, edition after edition, in many languages. A number of Lives of her have been written, even in English in this present century. Cardinal Manning, himself the most practical of men, declared that 'she was one of those sovereign souls that are born from time to time, as if to show what her race was created for at first and to what it is still destined.' The Spaniards call

her their Doctor of the Church, and her statue, the only one of a woman, is among the Fathers and Doctors of the Church in Rome, with the title Mater Spiritualism. She is the world authority on mystical theology and an unsurpassed writer of the Spanish prose. It had often been said that from behind her convent grill she, more than any other, was the barrier against that divisive religious movement which caused such bitter dissensions in most other countries of Europe, but spared Spain. In striking contrast to her is Marguerite of Navarre, sister of Francis I of France, herself a queen, whose volume of stories, the Heptameron, is still popular in every language, while her poems, Les Marguerites de la Reine Marguerite are known to all lovers of literature. She had an extremely beautiful character and radiated the finest influence over her generation. In order to neutralize the evil done by certain immoral stories current at court in her time, she retold them in literary form, adding morals to them. Like so many good people, she had the idea that human passions may be influenced for the better by sweet reasonableness. Instead of doing good, her book has done harm. Most people read the stories and not the morals, or when they read both, forget the morals promptly, while the evil suggestions remain.

"The founder of feminine education in the century was Angela of Merici. A young woman of the lower middle class, of a small town in Italy, she recognized that not only the

better class of women but all women needed to be educated in order to bring up their children properly and influence those around them for the best. She established a little community for the teaching of girls. Under her direction this movement spread and she wrote a rule for the women who had come to share her work. In approving this constitution, Pope Paul III said to Saint Ignatius, the founder of the Jesuits, 'I have given you, sisters.' The Ursuline schools spread over Italy in a single generation and they had houses in Paris and Bordeaux in the second half of the century. They opened a school in Canada in 1639 and one in New Orleans in 1726. They were the first to offer more than a common-school education for girls, in the northern United States at least, though their house at Charlestown, Mass., was burned down by a mob in 1834. Most of the pupils at the convent at the time were from some of the old Puritan families of New England. The Ursulines have taken up college work for women in our time very successfully and they have schools all over the world with many thousands of members at work" (88, p. 58).

Education

"The 15th century saw a revolution in education and as always happens with such an event, there was a wide-spread awakening of interest in educational matters. The Latin and Greek classics became the favorite foundation in education

under the name of the Humanities or the New Learning. The universities at first, with some notable exceptions, as Florence, refused to admit these studies in their curriculum. They had as the basis of their teaching the seven liberal arts, the Trivium and the Quadrivium, which were really seven important disciplines taught from a scientific standpoint. Very much the same situation developed then as in the last generation of the 19th century when university faculties, conservative as always, refused to place the classical training of undergraduates which had finally gained ground in the Renaissance by the newly developed physical sciences. Denied admittance to the universities of the 15th century, the classics were taught in special schools of the New Learning, founded by princes and cities, and special schoolmasters were invited to take charge of these schools. The greatest of these teachers of the Humanities was Vittorino da Feltre, who was invited to Mantua to teach the Gonzagas and their friends. His course included besides Latin and Greek, philosophy, mathematics, grammar, logic, music, singing and dancing. He emphasized however that the principal aim of education was to teach scholars 'to live the simple life, to tell the truth, and to remember that true scholarship is inseparable from virtue and a sense of lofty gratitude towards the Creator.' The training of the body was not neglected. Out-door sports were insisted upon for both women and men so as to secure a

healthy mind in a healthy body. Virgil, Cicero, Homer and Demosthenes were read with running comments. Greek themes, that is, exercises from the vernacular into Greek were insisted upon, and certain of the more elegant passages had to be learned by heart. Vittorino believed in solid mental development secured through hard work, not showy erudition. A contemporary declared that 'for virtue, learning and a rare and excellent way of teaching good manners, this man surpassed all others.' Vittorino was one of the great schoolmasters of all time. The details of his teaching methods are of special interest because they formed the model for other teachers.

"Italy was not alone in developing schools of the New Learning in this century. The Humanities were the subject of profound attention in the Teutonic countries and such distinguished teachers as Rudolph Agricola, Reuchlin who was known as 'the three-tongued wonder of Germany,' Jacob Wimpfeling to whom the title of 'schoolmaster of Germany' has been given, did their work largely in this century. Erasmus was 35 years of age before the century closed and in its later years exercised a deep influence on the classical scholarship of England during his stay there. The most important classical schools outside of Italy at this time were those of the Brothers of the Common Life. The best proof of their success as teachers is to be found in the names of such pupils as Cardinal Nicholas of Cusa, Thomas a Kempis, Agricola,

Alexander Hegius, Erasmus, Wimpfeling, not to mention others scarcely less prominent in the intellectual life of the time. The main purpose of their teaching was to afford instruction to the poor and often they assisted those who were unable to pay their living expenses.

"Their schools multiplied rapidly, as well in numbers as in attendance, and Deventer the most famous of them counted some two thousand students about the time of the discovery of America. The period owed much to 'those humble minded, patient teachers and thinkers whose devotion and fire of soul for a century and a half made the choice treasures of palaces and convents and universities a common possession along the low-lying shores of the Netherlands" (87, p. 191).

"The 15th century continued that striking evolution of education which had marked the 14th. Altogether 18 universities were founded in the 14th century, and some 29 in the 15th. Saint Andrew's in Scotland is a type of the university foundation of the time. It was established by Bishop Wardlaw in 1411, but he was very proud to announce to the masters and students that his authority for doing so came from the Pope, and when the university had completed its first year a formal Papal Bull of erection was issued. The practice, in a word, was not unlike that in effect in our time, schools being required to do some work and a report as to their efficiency and the need for them being demanded before formal recognition

by authorities. Galsgow followed Saint Andrew's in 1454, and Aberdeen received its charter in 1477. Altogether some 80 universities, for there is some dispute as to whether certain institutions deserve the name of university or not, had been founded before the 16th century.

"No less than seven universities were founded in Germany in the second half of the century, and this fact alone shows how deep was the interest in things intellectual at this time. They are Greifswald (1456); Basel and Freiburg (1460); Ingolstadt (1472); Treves (1473); and Tubingen and Mainz (1477). As Wittenberg was founded in 1502 and Frankfort-on-the-Oder in 1506 no less than nine universities were established in Germany in these 50 years. The endowment of these came in the order of importance from the clergy, the princes, nobles and burghers, though even the poorer classes and those living on the land were sufficiently interested in education to leave legacies for the benefit of needy students which did much to encourage the educational movement" (87, p. 194).

Thomas a Kempis: Imitatio Christi

"The greatest literary product of the brethern is the Imitatio Christi, now universally attributed to Thomas a Kempis. This has been declared 'the most influential book that ever came from the hand of man', the Scriptures having come from the hand of God. It has been popular all down the ages among all classes of people and has not lost its

popularity in our time. When some years ago lists of the ten best books of the world were asked for from the most distinguished living writers, the Imitation was almost invariably placed among the first five with the Bible, Shakespeare, Homer and Dante. It is a marvel of knowledge of the human mind and its motives" (87, p. 191). The work contains thoughts of great psychological insight. The whole "Imitatio" is divided into four books. The first contains admonitions useful for a spiritual life; the second, admonitions leading to the interior life or the elements of life other than the purely spiritual ones. The third book contains thoughts on interior consolation and includes the famous passage on love. The fourth book exhorts the reader to partake of Holy Communion. The practical ideas within the book are notable, and there are many statements made on analyzing one's self and therefore gaining more understanding in ways of working with others.

Lorenzo de Medici

"Italy was the most significant country for the early Renaissance and the important political development there was the prominence of Florence and the rise of the Medici family. Florence at the end of the Middle Ages was a city of beautiful buildings, unsurpassed works of art, with its citizens famous for practical interest in commerce and in the development of trade, but even more interested in the arts and crafts. The most important family in Florence was the de Medici, whose name first appeared in the chronicles of the 13th century, and may have been due to the fact that they were members of

the Guild of the Apothecaries at the time when these dealt not only in drugs but in perfumes, jewels, and precious Eastern stuffs of various kinds, and thus laid the foundation of an immense fortune. Giovanni, the son of Bicci de Medici, the founder of the family, ignored politics and devoted himself to trade and especially to international banking. The fortune thus acquired gave his descendants their immense influence in the city. Giovanni died in 1429, leaving two sons, Cosimo and Lorenzo. Cosimo's descendants exercised the most absolute sway over Florence for generations. The younger branch of the family reached distinction later, becoming Dukes of Tuscany. Cosimo, without holding any office in Florence, established a domination over the city, all the more surprising because Florence was a pure democracy whose citizens were jealous of their liberty. In spite of this, without official title, the de Medici ruled Florence for more than a century. Historians have searched history for parallels. 'It was a very different matter with the lords or tyrants in old Greece, and it was much more than Pericles was to Athens, for the authority was passed on from father to son. It was more like the power of Augustus and the other Roman Emperors who respected the forms of the Commonwealth.' The best parallel for an American would be that of a political 'boss' holding no office yet dictating elections and maintaining power quite apart from the completely democratic form of our government. One great difference is that the Medici exercised their power for the benefit of the city and had as much pride in maintaining Florence's prestige

as any of her citizens, though of course, they carefully looked out for the family interests.

"The greatest of the Medici was Lorenzo, the grandson of Cosimo, who owed his popularity to the immense prestige which his grandfather had left him as an inheritance. After Cosimo's death, the citizens of Florence conferred on him the title of Pater Patriae (Father of His Country). Lorenzo was very much less interested in the commercial affairs of the house than his ancestors but was possessed of distinct literary talent, and had, besides, a fine taste in literature and the arts. He was a thoroughly practical politician, however, and succeeded in neutralizing the schemes of his enemies. Lorenzo died at the age of 53 in 1492, but what he accomplished for Florence by his patronage of arts and letters during his short life eminently merited him the title of the Magnificent, which he has received in history. His influence served to make Florence the center of the intellectual and artistic world of the period, and the men who gathered around him achieved some of the greatest masterpieces that the world has ever known. His own part in the literature of the time, gave him a distinction from the other Maecenases of history. The Medici palace became an academy. Distinguished scholars like Politian and Pico della Mirandola were in constant attendance upon Lorenzo, and the Platonic academy they organized, fostered the knowledge of Greek literature and art as well as philosophy. However, scholarship and classic erudition were not more welcomed at court than poetry in the vernacular. Pulci gave readings of

his Morganti Maggiore, and Lorenzo read his own poems and encouraged Italian poetry in every form. Artists found a munificent patron in him. It is said that Lorenzo himself could speak with equal fluency on painting, sculpture, music, philosophy and poetry. He was imbued with the idea of creating a true national literature for Italy and refining the Tuscan speech as his country's language. His faults are evident and particularly his thorough-going ways with his enemies and his readiness to meet treachery and underhand means by similar weapons. He was a beneficent autocrat in so far as his autocracy replaced the democracy of Florence" (87, pp. 190-191).

"Lorenzo's efforts to conciliate Pope Sixtus IV netted him a confirmation of the Medici banking privileges and the appointment as receiver of the papal revenues.

"Pope Sixtus and Ferrante of Naples were asked to join the alliance of Florence, Venice, and Milan (concluded in 1474), but Ferrante, feeling isolated, and Sixtus, angered at Lorenzo's opposition to his nephews, the Riarios, drew together. Italy became divided into two camps. The Pazzi family, rivals of Medici, were given the lucrative position as receivers of the papal revenues.

"The Pazzi Plot was in 1478. The Riarios (apparently without Sixtus' knowledge), plotted to have Lorenzo and Giuliano assassinated in the cathedral at Easter mass.

Giuliano was killed, Lorenzo wounded. The Medici almost exterminated the Pazzi and hounded the fugitives all over Italy" (39, p. 295).

Wars: War of the Roses

"The War of the Roses absorbed English attention for a generation and caused an immense amount of suffering and death before it could be settled whether the House of York, whose symbol was the white rose, or the House of Lancaster of the red rose should rule in England. The Lancastrians were supported mainly by the north of England, the Yorkists by the south. More important than any of the kings of the time was the Duke of Warwick, the king-maker as he came to be called, whose adhesion to one side or the other again and again turned the scale. The pathetic character of the time is Henry VI, the gentle, kindly but weak monarch who probably deserves the name of saint which some people have accorded him, though others have proclaimed him simply a fool. He will ever be recalled for his liberality in the cause of religion and learning and for his foundations at Eton and Cambridge. The villain of the Wars of the Roses is Richard III, whom historians have been vindicating in recent years and who was undoubtedly an able man and popular among the people. The stigma upon his name for the murder of the little Princes in the Tower of London has never been wiped out, and this makes it easy to

understand why historians should have been ready to credit other evil traditions with regard to him.

"After varying fortunes, the Yorkists winning the first battle at Saint Albans, 1455, and others in 1459 and 1460, Margaret, the undaunted wife of Henry VI, refusing to accept the compromise by which Henry was to reign for life and be succeeded by the Duke of York, moved heaven and earth for her son Edward, and won the battle of Wakefield, where York was slain. She also won the Second Battle of Saint Albans. Decisively defeated by Warwick at Towton Heath, Margaret still kept up the struggle until her son was slain at Tewkesbury (1471). When the Yorkists won Tewkesbury, York seemed assured of the throne. The death of Edward IV, however, leaving Edward and Richard, the little Princes in the care of their uncle, Richard Duke of Gloucester, who murdered them, gave the chance for Lancaster in the person of Henry VII to make a popular appeal, gathered an army and defeated Richard at Bosworth. By marrying Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV, Henry united the two houses. He proved to be a very thrifty king who imposed taxes and gathered immense sums of money, consolidating the kingdom for his son Henry VIII, who proceeded to spend royally until his treasury was exhausted" (87, p. 190).

Tamerlane

"The 15th century holds the transition between the Middle Ages and modern history. The end of the Middle Ages is

usually said to be the fall of Constantinople in 1453, though occasionally it has been suggested that a better date for a boundary between the two periods would be the discovery of America in 1492. The fall of Constantinople is the most important military and political event of the century. It was led up to from the very beginning. Tamerlane, Tomur the Mongol of the Lane, a successor of Jhenghis Khan, occupied the Caucasus, Armenia and Mesopotamia" (87, p. 188).

"He invaded Persia, took Ispahan, and made a pyramid of human skulls of his victims, defeated the Russians and sacked Moscow, invaded India successfully and took Bajazet the Sultan of the Turks prisoner after the great battle just as the next century opened (1402)" (86, p. 555).

"Just at the beginning of the 15th century he was forced by a rebellion in Syria to turn, and in 1401 destroyed Aleppo, burned Damascus and stormed Bagdad. He defeated Bajazet or Bajezid, the Sultan of the Turks, who died in prison in 1403. Timur himself followed his prisoner to death in 1405. Timur's empire then fell to pieces and left the Turks free for their long contemplated capture of Constantinople" (87, p. 189).

Wars: Fall of Constantinople

"A series of attacks were made upon the city. It was clearly but a question of time before the capital of the Eastern Empire would fall. The recognition of this impending

disaster aroused some of the serious thinkers of Europe to the necessity for a Crusade, but without avail. A series of Popes took up the subject and the result was at least a bringing together of the Eastern and Western Churches. A council was held at Ferrara for the union of the Latins and the Greeks, but in spite of Cardinal Bessarion's influence, and the fact of Pope Eugenious IV, the long years of religious differences between the peoples prevented the reunion from being more than short-lived. A European army was sent to aid the Greeks, and the Turks were defeated, Sophia and Nissa being conquered by Hunyadi the Magyar Christian hero (1443). Another expedition under the heroic Skanderbeg (Castriota), Prince of Alania, was defeated (1444). The Hungarians and Albanians were the only champions of Western Christianity, and their efforts proved vain against the overpowering numbers of the Turks. In the spring of 1453 Mohammed besieged Constantinople by both land and sea with 150,000 men, 420 ships, and the place fell by storm, 23 May* (87, p. 188).

Wars: 100 Years War

*The year of the fall of Constantinople (1453) was also that of the end of the Hundred Years' War between France and England, which has served to hamper the intellectual development of both these countries to a very serious extent. Now they might have had time for other thoughts and the Renaissance been given opportunity to exert itself to the full, but

it was seriously set back in England by the unfortunate civil wars of the Roses and by internal dissensions of many kinds in France. The English who had laid claims to French territory ever since the time of William the Conqueror had been able to vindicate those claims to some extent in the later 14th century, but Henry V with a small army of English soldiers won the Battle of Agincourt, 1415, and marrying the French king's daughter, was to succeed to the title of King of France on the death of the poor mad French monarch, Charles VI. His son Charles VII found a following in France that enabled him to hold out for a time against the English under the Duke of Bedford, but he was nearly at the end of his resources in every way when Joan of Arc, a young shepherd maiden of Domremy offered to lead his army, awakened the country, relieved Orleans and had Charles crowned King of France at Rheims" (87, p. 188).

Suleiman

Suleiman I (The Magnificent) was the only son of Selim. Born in 1520, he became "a highly cultivated but proud and ambitious ruler, generally rated as the greatest of the sultans. In reality he left affairs largely to his famous visers. Ibrahim Pasha, son of a Greek Parga, practically ruled the Empire from 1523 to 1536. In 1524, after an attempt of the Turkish governor of Egypt to set himself up as sultan, Ibrahim completely reorganized the government of the country, with more effective control by the Turks" (39, p. 428).

Belgrade, after several assaults was captured. In the succeeding years the Turks raided regularly in Hungary and Austria, creating a panic throughout central Europe.

In 1522, Rhodes was captured. It had become the headquarters for Catalan and Maltese pirates who threatened Turkish communications with Egypt. The Knights of St. John put up a valiant defense, but the help expected from the West did not materialize. They thereupon capitulated. In 1530 they were established at Malta by Charles V.

In 1529 was the first Siege of Vienna. "After several assaults the Turks withdrew (Oct. 16), partly because of valiant resistance of the garrison, partly because of wretched weather and inability to bring up the heavy artillery. But Suleiman rejected repeated offers of Ferdinand to pay tribute for Hungary in return for recognition.

"In 1538, the Holy League, allied against the Turks (Charles V, the pope, and Venice). Abortive efforts of Charles V to buy off Khaireddin. After a defeat at sea (Battle of Prevesa) the Venetians made peace (1540), losing Nauplion, their last station in the Morea, and paying a large indemnity.

"A Turkish naval expedition went through the Red Sea to the northwest coast of India. The entire east coast of the Red Sea (Yemen, Aden) was taken over" (39, p. 428).

In 1541, Suleiman campaigned in Hungary. "He marched to Buda and took over control during the minority of John Sigismund Zapolya. Direct Turkish administrative control was established" (39, p. 428).

African Exploration and Development

"In 1402, an Ethiopian embassy reached Venice. There were others in 1408 and 1427. In 1452 Ethiopian emissaries arrived at Lisbon and in 1481 at Rome. The object of these embassies, and of those sent in return (especially by the pope in 1453) was to establish a Christian alliance against the Moslem Mamelukes in Egypt and later against the Ottoman Turks. Nothing came of this project, but the exchange of missions served to acquaint Europe with that part of Africa" (39, p. 363).

Prince Henry the Navigator was the greatest patron of cosmography and discovery. "Prince Henry, as general of the Order of Christ, was able to turn the crusading enthusiasm as well as the funds of the order into the fields of science and discovery. From 1418 onward, the prince sent out, almost annually, expeditions carefully prepared and ably conducted. There can be little doubt that the religious factor dominated the work of the prince, though the scientific and commercial factors were hardly less important. That Prince Henry hoped to open up direct communications with Guinea by sea is clear. That he hoped ultimately to find a sea-route to Ethiopia and thence to India has been questioned by some, but is reasonably certain" (39, p. 363).

In 1435, an expedition was sent by Prince Henry to conquer the Canary Islands from Castille, but failed. He did succeed in gaining a treaty which allowed the Canaries to

remain the property of Castille while West Africa, Guinea, and the islands of the ocean were assigned to Portugal. The Portuguese explorers then began a long series of expeditions along the coast of West Africa. The Africans themselves sought colonies and waged organized warfare. In 1468, the Songhay ruler recaptured Timbuktu from the Tuaregs. By the year 1490, the Portuguese had ascended the Congo River for about 200 miles and converted the King of the Congo Empire. They established a post at Sao Salvador and exercised a wide influence in the region until the end of the 16th century. In 1505-1507, the Portuguese took Sofala and Kilwa from the Arabs and founded Mozambique. In 1513 they ascended the Zambezi, establishing posts at Sena and Tete. Missionaries probably penetrated much of the hinterland, but details are unknown.

In 1517, Egypt was conquered by Selim I. The country was put under a Turkish governor, but the Mamluk beys were left in effectual control, acting as landholding oligarchy. The Spanish conquest of Tunis completed the conquest of the North African coast begun in 1494 with the acquisition of Melilla. (39, p. 329).

African Archeology

"When Vasco da Gama's four small ships had passed the Cape of Good Hope in 1498 and sailed northward along an East African coast that was utterly unknown to Europe then, their near-mutinous crews, weary from months of battling with gray Atlantic loneliness, were astonished to come upon busy ports and populous

cities. To their relief and joy they found themselves among sailors who knew the seaways to India and beyond; who sailed with charts and compasses and quadrants as good as their own, or better; whose knowledge of the world was wider even than theirs. They anchored in havens that were thick with ocean shipping. They went ashore to cities 'with many fair houses of stone and mortar, very well arranged in streets.' They watched a flourishing maritime trade in gold and iron and ivory and tortoise shell and slaves, and saw that they had blundered on a world of commerce that was wider and perhaps wealthier than anything that Europe knew. And when at last they sailed for India, it was with an Arab pilot, who knew the voyage well.

"It has long seemed likely that new knowledge of this Indian Ocean trade, ranging as it did from Southeast Africa to Southern China, would throw new light not only on the civilization of the city-states and trading stations of the East African coast but also on their suppliers in the hinterland--among whom the people of the kingdom of Monomotapa, whose capital was probably at Great Zimbabwe, were prominent. For the whole culture of Great Zimbabwe, Miss Caton-Thompson thought, 'the trade connexion with India is undoubtedly strong--indeed, I believe it to be the primary stimulus which led to the development of the indigenous Zimbabwe culture.'

"The latest findings of archeology tend to confirm this. They also suggest that the light will be stronger than was generally supposed, and more plentiful. Exports from East and South-central Africa were mainly in raw material, and

this offers no evidence of date, for it has vanished. But imports into Africa yield much more promising answers. From India these imports were mostly textiles, which have disappeared, but they were also in beads and pottery; and, from China, in porcelain. Nearly all these 'hard stuffs' can be dated with a fair accuracy. And they are there, in East Africa, in no mean quantity. 'I have never in my life,' remarked a leading British archeologist, Sir Mortimer Wheeler, after visiting Tanganyika a few years ago, 'seen so much broken china as I have seen in the past fortnight along the coast and the Kilwa islands; literally, fragments of Chinese porcelain by the shovelful In fact, I think it is fair to say that as far as the Middle Ages are concerned, from the tenth century onward, the buried history of Tanganyika is written in Chinese porcelain.'

"Since Wheeler said this, a group of British archeologists, led by Dr. Gervase Mathew, has completed a preliminary survey of pre-European sites along the coast of British East Africa; those for Tanganyika alone number as many as sixty-four. Most of these are medieval, ranging from the tenth to the fourteenth centuries; but some are earlier than that. A few are contemporary with the great years of Ptolemaic and Roman expansion. Coins are also proving useful. Reporting to a conference on African history and archaeology held under the auspices of London University's School of Oriental and African Studies

in July, 1957, Dr. Freeman-Grenville wrote of coins discovered on Zanzibar and nearby East African islands, 'Sassanian and Parthian; Roman, Byzantine, Ummayad, Mamluk; a hoard of 176 Chinese coins ranging from the seventh to the thirteenth centuries.' Having come so near to accurate dating of these coastal cities, modern research is now on firmer ground for tackling the much greater problems of the hinterland.

"These few examples may be enough to show that this 'rediscovery of Africa'--of African history in the thousand years or so before European penetration--is no longer the product of wishful sentiment or mere enthusiasm. They could be multiplied by many other examples from other parts of the continent. M. Mauny and his colleagues of the Institute Francais de l'Afrique Noire, at Dakar in French West Africa, have important findings to their credit. In the region of Lake Chad, M. Leboeuf and others have excavated a hitherto legendary civilization that worked finely in bronze and iron from at least the tenth century onwards. Further north M. Vercoutter, director of antiquities of the republic of the Sudan, is completing a comprehensive survey of attested sites of the great Kushite civilization that flourished on the Middle Nile for a thousand years after about 800 B. C. Dr. Mathew and Mr. Lanning have had important things to report from Uganda. Dr. Clark and Dr. Summers have published valuable contributions from Rhodesia. Dr. Biobaku has investigated

Yoruba origins in southwestern Nigeria. Dr. Dike, another Nigerian scholar, is now in charge of writing the history of Benin" (17, p. 42).

"During the Middle Ages much of Africa was familiar to the Arabs. Ibn Batuta, greatest of land travelers, between the years 1325 and 1349 journeyed from his home in Morocco across Northern Africa, through Egypt, the Near East, Arabia, eastern Africa, and thence to India. Later he traveled northward to the Crimea and thence through central Asia to India. After spending eight years at Delhi, he went on to Ceylon and China. On his return to Morocco in 1349, he set out across the Sahara and visited Timbuktu and the Niger region. His remarkable journeys serve to record not only the Arab trade from Egypt down the east coast of Africa and to India and beyond, but also the regular caravan trade from southern Morocco across the desert to the kingdom of China (i.e. Guinea) in Nigeria" (39, p. 669).

Latin America

"In the broader sense the conquest and colonization of Spanish America progressed logically outward from the earliest colony in Santo Domingo until by 1600 the territory from New Mexico and Florida on the north to Chile and the Rio de la Plata on the south was, with the exception of Brazil, effectively under the rule of the crown of Castile.

"The motives which inspired the Castilian sovereigns to create a vast empire in the Americas were the desire to achieve more extensive realms, propagate Christianity, and obtain increased revenues. The early conquistadores were impelled by several motives which varied in intensity with regard to individuals, time and place: desire to gain wealth and position, desire to add to the glory of the Castilian crown, zeal to propagate Christianity, and love of adventure. The most important of the early conquests were achieved at no direct cost to the crown. Individual leaders by their own initiative, in the name of the sovereign or by virtue of royal patents, conquered territory at their own expense, hoping to receive or to be assigned authority and revenues in the lands subjugated. In this manner Cortes conquered Mexico, Alvarado, Guatemala, Pizarro Peru, Jimenez de Quesada New Granada, and Montejo Yucatan. The crown of Castile soon established direct and absolute control and evolved complex machinery of government to rule its vast colonial empire. The Church, over which the crown exercised patronage, achieved complete organization and exercised vast influence. The military triumphs of the Spaniards over incredible numerical odds was the triumph of indomitable representatives of a more highly developed society over those of a lesser. The conquest was accompanied by great cruelty, but it was no greater than that of contemporary conquest elsewhere. Ruthless exploitation of

the natives followed colonization, but such was the common lot of subject peoples during the period. The intent of the Castilian crown toward the Indian masses, if not the actual practice, was beneficent. While the production of gold and silver was the chief source of crown revenues in the Indies and became the basis of much private wealth, agriculture, grazing, and commerce were soon highly developed and local industries of various types came into existence. Certain colonies like Chile, Yucatan, and the Rio de la Plata were almost exclusively agricultural and pastoral. A relatively large measure of intellectual activity came into being in the larger cities and within the Church. The existence of a large Indian population, many groups of which possessed high cultures of long standing, and the impact of European culture and Christianity on the New World civilizations led to fundamentally important social, cultural, and racial developments" (39, p. 46).

The West Indies and the Isthmus

"Santo Domingo became the first seat of Spanish government in the Indies. Immigration to Espanola, although not heavy, increased and mining and agriculture were developed.

"In 1501, Negro slavery was introduced. The Indian population rapidly disappeared as a result of warfare, enslavement, and disease.

"From 1508-1511, Puerto Rico was conquered, San Juan being founded, and Jamaica was settled.

"In the years 1511-1515, Diego Valesquez, as lieutenant of the viceroy, Diego Columbus, conquered Cuba and founded Santiago and San Cristobal de la Habana.

"In 1509-1513, under royal patents, Alonso de Ojeda founded a colony on the coast of South America east of the Isthmus of Panama and Diego de Nicuesa founded Nombre de Dios on the Isthmus. The settlement founded by Ojeda was transferred to the Isthmus at the suggestion of Vasco Nunez de Balboa (1474-1519). There the colonists united with those of Nicuesa.

"Balboa became governor of the colony in 1513 and as such he discovered the South Sea (Pacific Ocean) and took possession for the crown of Castile.

"Avila dispatched expeditions by land and sea to adjacent areas, including the Gulf of San Miguel, founded Panama as the seat of government, refounded Nombre de Dios, and established a route across the Isthmus. Balboa, as adelantado of the South Sea and subordinate to Avila, continued explorations on the Pacific coast, but as a result of quarrels with the governor, was executed by him (1519)" (39, p. 488).

Peru and the West Coast

"Francisco Pizarro (1470-1541), under authority of Avila, in association with Diego de Almagro (1475-1538) and Hernando

de Luque, a priest, determined upon the conquest of Peru. An initial expedition reached the San Juan River and a second the Gulf of Guayaquil and Tumbes, where evidence of the high civilization and great wealth of the Inca was encountered.

"In 1528-1529, Pizarro went to Spain and concluded a capitulation with the crown by which he was granted the right of discovery and conquest in Peru for a distance of 200 leagues south of the Gulf of Guayaquil with the offices of adelantado, governor, and captain general. Almagro was assigned command of the fortress of Tumbes, and Luque was named Bishop of Tumbes.

"Returning to Panama, accompanied by his brothers, Gonzalo (c. 1505-1548) and Hernando, and a small group of recruits, Pizarro organized an expedition of 180 men, with 27 horses and two pieces of artillery, and sailed for the conquest. Pizarro consolidated his position at Tumbes and founded San Miguel. After having been joined by further recruits, Pizarro moved into the interior with 62 horses and 102 foot soldiers, invited by the Inca Arahualpa, and reached Cajamarca on the central plateau, near which the Indian monarch was camped with a large army.

"In 1532, when Atahualpa visited the Spanish camp, Pizarro seized him. This bold stroke produced great moral effect among the Inca and paralyzed the machinery of government. While a prisoner, Atahualpa caused his rival half-brother Huascar to be murdered.

"The Inca paid an enormous ransom in gold and silver, but for political reasons was executed by the Spaniards. Having been joined by Almagro, Pizarro occupied Cuzco, the Inca capital, and set up Manco, brother of Huascar, in Inca.

"In 1535, Pizarro, having left Cuzco, founded Lima which became the capital of the later viceroyalty of Peru. In Pizarro's absence the natives revolted under Manco and conducted a lengthy but unsuccessful siege of Cuzco. This was the only serious attempt of the Incas to expel the Spaniards (1535-1536).

"In the following years the area of Spanish dominion was greatly extended. In the south the region about Lake Titicaca was reduced and Chuquisaca founded (1536-1539). The rich silver mines of Potosí were opened (1545). To the north the region of Quito, where lieutenants of Atahualpa had established control after his seizure, was reduced in 1534 by Pizarro's subordinate, Belalcazar (1495-1550). Pedro de Alvarado, governor of Guatemala, having heard of rich lands in Peru, led an expedition of some 500 men from Central America and sought to secure control of Quito in 1534-1535. Alvarado was ultimately induced to relinquish his claims in return for monetary compensation. Belalcazar founded Cali and Popayan (1535-1536) and advanced to the Bogota plateau, where in 1539 he encountered Quesada. In the same year Gonzalo Pizarro, governor of Quito, led an expedition across the Andes and reached the upper Amazon. One of his lieutenants, Francisco

de Orellana, seeking to gain territory for himself, continued down the Amazon and reached the sea (1541). He went to Spain and secured authority to conquer the Amazonian area, but died on the return to the New World. His followers accomplished nothing.

"In 1541, partisans of Almagro assassinated Pizarro and set up Almagro's son as governor, but the younger Almagro was, in turn, overthrown by the royal governor Vaca de Castro (1542).

"In the meantime the Spaniards had begun expansion into Chile" (39, p. 481).

The Conquest of Mexico

"To continue the discoveries of Hernandez de Cordoba, Diego Velasquez and Hernando Cortes (1485-1546) organized an expedition of some 600 men, with 17 horses and 10 cannon. Cortes was put in command. Sailing from Cuba despite Velasquez' orders, he followed the coast of Yucatan, subjugated Tabasco and reached San Juan de Ulloa. There he renounced the authority of Velasquez and, acting as a direct agent of the crown, founded Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz. Cortes was elected chief magistrate by the soldiers and sent representatives to Spain to secure confirmation.

"After negotiations with Moctezuma (Montezuma), ruler of the Aztecs, and after winning the support of Totonac, a people subject to the Aztec, Cortes moved into the interior, overcame Tlaxcala, and formed an alliance with the republic.

Moving on the Aztec capital, Cortes thwarted a treacherous attempt to destroy his force at Cholula and entered Tenochtitlan (1519, Nov. 8), where he was amicably received by Moctezuma. To safeguard his position, Cortes soon made the native ruler a prisoner, and the latter and his chiefs swore fealty to the Castilian sovereign.

*Meanwhile (1520), Velasquez, named royal adelantado of the lands discovered by Hernandez de Cordoba and Grijalva, sent an expedition under Panfilo de Narvaez to reduce Cortes to obedience. Cortes, placing Pedro de Alvarado (1485-1541) in command at Tenochtitlan, went to the coast and by combined subterfuge and vigorous action won over the majority of the forces of Narvaez, thereupon returning to the Aztec capital. Harsh rule by Alvarado aroused the Aztecs to revolt against the Spaniards and Moctezuma, and Cortes was forced to evacuate Tenochtitlan with heavy losses (1520, June 30). Moctezuma who had been injured by his own subjects, died or was killed by the Spaniards at the time of the evacuation. Cortes retreated around the northern end of Lake Tezcuco, overcame an overwhelming Aztec army at Otumba (1520, July 7), and reached Tlaxcala, which remained loyal. At Tlaxcala Cortes reorganized his forces. He then conquered the province of Tepeaca, founding Segura de la Frontera. An expedition was sent into southern Vera Cruz, and two outposts were established. Having received reinforcements, among them the members of the

Garay expedition to Panuco, Cortes established his base at Tezcucoc and undertook the investment of Tenochtitlan by land and water.

"After a prolonged and desperate siege the Spaniards, aided by a horde of native allies, captured the Aztec capital, making prisoner Guatemoc, who had become emperor and had organized resistance. Spanish control was firmly established over the immediate vicinity and the conquest was rapidly extended. Tenochtitlan was razed and Mexico City, which became the seat of government of the later viceroyalty of New Spain, was erected. A bitter suit between Cortes and Velasquez, carried on before the crown during the period of the conquest, terminated in favor of Cortes and the emperor named him governor and captain-general of New Spain (1522, Oct. 15)" (39, p. 496).

Expansion to the South

"In 1522-1524, Cristobal de Olid subdued Colima and part of Jalisco. Another settlement was made in Michoacan, the territory of the independent and civilized Tarascans, whose ruler had given allegiance to Cortes. Farther south Oaxaca and Tehuantepec were reduced, the latter by Alvarado.

"Embassies from certain towns of Guatemala having made submission, Cortes sent Alvarado to that region. Alvarado conquered the civilized Quiche and Cakchiquel and founded the city of Guatemala. The conquest was then extended into

Salvador, and Alvarado became governor of the general district of Guatemala. Chiapas was reduced by expeditions from New Spain (1523-1528).

"The conquest of Yucatan was assigned to Francisco de Montejo (c. 1473-1553) as adelantado. The first attempt of Montejo to conquer the Maya failed after eight years of effort, and he was diverted to Honduras upon appointment as governor. The final conquest and colonization of Yucatan were achieved by the son and nephew of Montejo under his general direction. Campeche, Merida, Valladolid, and Salamanca (Bacalar) were founded (1539-1545)" (39, p. 496).

Summary: Principal Events of the Fifteenth Century

1401. The Renaissance in Italy awakens the spirit for learning and the fine arts.

1403. Yunglop, son of Hong-wu, dethrones his nephew and makes Peking the capital of China. Frames the Chinese code of laws. Maintains a fleet that dominates the East, and receives foreign ambassadors (87, p. 196).

1405. Death of Tamerlane (59, p. 185).

1411. Saint Andrew's University, Scotland, founded.

1413. Henry V becomes King of England (87, p. 196).

1414-1418. Council of Constance, Schism healed (59, p. 185).

1415. Battle of Agincourt. Henry V of England conquers Normandy. John Hus condemned by the Council of Constance and burned.

1416. Jerome of Prague burned for heresy.
1420. Hussite wars begin.
1422. Henry V of England becomes King of France. Constantinople besieged by Amurath, the Turkish emperor.
1429. Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans.
1431. Joan of Arc burned at Rouen by the English.
1440. Printing, long known by Chinese, invented in Germany by Gutenberg.
1448. The Azores discovered by Portuguese navigators.
1450. Jack Cade insurrection in England.
1451. The English evacuate Rouen and other French towns.
1453. The Turks capture Constantinople under Mohamet II, and with the extinction of the Comneni and Palaeologi the Eastern Empire ends.
1454. Glasgow University founded.
1455. War of Roses begins in England. The Battle of Saint Albans. First book printed from movable types.
1456. Siege of Belgrade. Turks repulsed by Hunyadi.
- 1456-1477. Seven universities founded in Germany.
1457. Glass first manufactured in England.
1461. Louis XI of France begins to reign.
1468. Louis XI imprisoned by Charles the Bold.
1469. Machiavelli born (87, p. 196).
- 1469-1492. Lorenzo de Medici, ruler of Florence (59, p. 223).

1477. Aberdeen University founded.
1479. The Kingdom of Spain formed by the union of Aragon and Castile.
1483. Richard III of England the usurper.
1484. The Inquisition established in Spain.
1485. King Ladislas of Bohemia grants religious liberty.
1485. Battle of Bosworth, England; Richard III slain; Richard VII succeeds.
1486. Bartholomew Diaz reaches the Cape of Good Hope.
1487. The Court of Star Chamber instituted in England.
1492. Columbus rediscovers America. Granada falls and the Moors are driven out of Spain.
1492. Charles VIII invades Italy.
1497. Cabot discovers North America (87, p. 196).
1497. Leonardo da Vinci's Last Supper (59, p. 223).
1498. Portuguese navigators reach India around the Cape of Good Hope. Savonarola condemned to death and burned (87, p. 196).
1498. Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope to India (59, p. 223).

Summary: Principal Events of the Sixteenth Century

- 1500-1501. Portuguese discover Brazil.
1502. The island of Saint Helena discovered.
1509. Henry VIII of England began to reign (88, p. 60).
- 1508-1512. Michelangelo painted ceiling of Sistine Chapel.

1511. Erasmus' In Praise of Folly (59, p. 223).
1515. England and Scotland at war. The battle of Flodden.
1517. Martin Luther began the Reformation in Germany.
1519. Leonardo da Vinci dies.
1520. Raphael dies (88, p. 60).
1521. Mexico City was then besieged in 1521 . . . (59, p. 223).
1527. Pizarro invades Peru.
- 1520-1566. Suleiman the Magnificent.
1534. Luther's German translation of the Bible (59, p. 230).
1521. Luther at the Diet of Worms. Turks take Belgrade. Henry VIII of England is titled Defender of the Faith by the Pope.
1522. Circumnavigation of the world completed by Magellan.
1524. Verrazano entered New York harbor. Holbein the Elder died.
1527. Rome taken and sacked by the French under the Constable of Bourbon.
1528. Durer, the renowned German artist, dies.
1529. Henry VIII quarrels with the Pope over his refusal to grant a divorce.
1533. Henry VIII of England divorces Catherine of Aragon and abolishes papal authority in England.
1534. Ignatius Loyala founds the Company of Jesus.

1535. Church of England founded. Sir Thomas More beheaded.

1536. Printing introduced into Mexico.

1539. The Bible printed in English. Monasteries suppressed in England and Wales (88, p. 60).

1541. Calvin introduced Reformation into Geneva (59, p. 247).

1543. Copernicus published his theory of the rotation of the earth around the sun (88, p. 60).

Section III: The Elizabethan Age

Literature

The Elizabethan Period in English literature is, with the art of Italy, the twin triumph of the century. It holds all of Marlowe's writing and up to the very flowering of Shakespeare's genius. It has, besides, the poetic beauties of Sidney and Spencer, the marvelous English of Chapman's translations and the best of Ben Jonson's dramatic work. It is not only the greatest period of literature in English, but one of the greatest periods of world literature. The English people were extending their domains beyond the sea. The peril from the Armada had deeply stirred the English mind and the reaction after the victory gave a great stimulus to thought and writing. As is so often the case when the country was growing in national importance, intellectual genius bloomed also and so 'the spacious times of great Eliza'

furnished a stimulus that was well responded to. A very great period of dramatic literature developed quite unexpectedly, continued for a generation and then began to decline. By the end of the second generation the inspiration had faded and only conventional work was being done.

"This century saw a wonderful outburst of European literature, culminating in the latter part. The Elizabethan period in England was rivaled in other countries. In Portugal Camoens wrote Os Lusíadas, the epic story of Portuguese exploration of Africa and Asia and of the foundation of Portugal's Indian empire. Friedrich Schlegel declared it the greatest epic of modern times. In Spain came the beginnings of the careers of Lope de Vega and Cervantes; in France Rabelais, at the beginning of the century, Montaigne, at the end, did their work; in Italy Ariosto and Tasso, as well as Cellini with his remarkable autobiography. Had Shakespeare visited the Continent as a young man he might have met nearly all of these. The writers of the most humanly interesting play, Hamlet, of the greatest novel ever written, Don Quixote, of the greatest modern epic, Os Lusíadas, of the greatest letters (Saint Teresa) and the greatest essays (Montaigne) were all doing their work together in the last quarter of the century. Some of them were to accomplish their best work only at the beginning of the next century, but their inspiration came from this.

"The Jacobean period, named after James I (king 1603-1625), who had been James VI of Scotland, the son of Mary Queen of Scots, contains Shakespeare's mature work--Hamlet, the Roman plays, Lear, Macbeth, and Henry VIII--a number of the plays of Ben Jonson, besides all of the dramatic product of Beaumont and Fletcher and Massinger, with most of the work of Shirley and Davenant.

"The literature of the century opened with Shakespeare's Hamlet, 'more written about than any man that ever lived' (Furness) and Don Quixote, 'incomparably the best novel ever written' (Macaulay). The Spanish promise was well fulfilled. Cervantes' short stories have been declared the best of their kind. Spain excelled, however, in dramatic literature. Calderon has been compared to Shakespeare (Russell Lowell). Lope de Vega (1560-1635), 'a prodigy of nature,' wrote more plays than any other man that ever lived. His plots at least deeply influenced writers in other countries. Alarcon, an American by birth, and Tirso de Molina, the creator of the world-type Don Juan, whose biography has been re-created in our day, for he wrote under a pseudonym, are other Spanish dramatic writers with a place in world literature. In history (Mariana), in philosophy (Suarez), in ascetics (Rodriguez) as well as in theology (Molina) and grammar (Alvarez), the Spanish writers of this period are famous and their works have been re-published many times" (88, p. 55).

Artists

"The century stands out in the history of art, Rembrandt (1607-1669). A series of great painters, besides Rembrandt in the Netherlands, are noteworthy: Rubens (1577-1640) did his best work in this century, and his pupil Van Dyke (1599-1641) belongs entirely to it. His greatest work was done in the fourth decade of the century in England. Ruysdael, Hobbema, Paul Potter, Vermeer, Teniers and others maintained the primacy of the Netherlands in painting during this century" (89, p. 613). Others of note were: Tintoretto (1518-1594), El Greco (1545-1614), Veronese (1528-1588), and Peter Brueghel the Elder (1528-1569)."

Galileo

"The century proved a great period in the history of mathematics. Kepler succeeded Tycho Brahe as mathematician-astronomer to the Emperor Rudolph (1602). In working out Tycho's observations he deduced the great laws that bear his name. Galileo's discoveries opened further occasions for mathematics.

"The name of the period around which ever-recurring controversy has centered is that of Galileo (1564-1642) the physicist-astronomer. He invented the thermometer, discovered the isochronism of the pendulum and the hydrostatic balance and the barometer. His great invention was the telescope with which he discovered Jupiter's moons (1610). For teaching

in opposition to all the mathematicians and astronomers of his time that the Copernican theory is the only tenable doctrine of the heavens though his reasons for it have all since been contradicted, and Copernicanism is now held on entirely other grounds. Galileo was compelled by the Inquisition to abjure his Copernican teaching in 1633. He was disciplined but not imprisoned, and prominent ecclesiastics continued to be his friends. His trial at Rome has been taken as the symbol of Church opposition to science, but as it is practically the only case in some six centuries, Cardinal Newman emphasized the fact that it had just the opposite significance, and was the exception which proved the rule of Church relations to science as favorable. Galileo himself continued to be a faithful and even devout Catholic" (89, p. 614).

Francis Bacon

"The man of the period most famous in the aftertime was Lord Bacon (Baron Verulam), Lord Chancellor of England. His Novum Organum with its discussion of the inductive method brought him fame. It is recognized now that he was only one of a group of men about this time, many before him, who emphasized the value of induction in science. Some of the greatest discoveries of our modern sciences were made by the inductive method before and after Bacon's time by men who knew nothing of Bacon. Telesio stated fully the inductive

method 100 years before Bacon; his great namesake Roger Bacon, as well as Albertus Magnus, Nicholas of Cusa and many others employed it before the Middle Ages closed, and Copernicus Versalius, Eustachius, Leonardo da Vinci, Caeslpinus and many others had used the method of observation and experiment in the 16th century, and Gilbert and Galileo, Bacon's contemporaries, used it very successfully but quite independent of his influence. Bacon's modern fame is founded on the claim that he was the author of Shakespeare's plays. This 'Baconian theory' as it is called, owes its vogue to one Delia Bacon, who claimed to be a descendant of the Lord Chancellor, and who first made the claim for him some 250 years after Shakespeare's death. The year after she was adjudged insane and never afterward recovered her sanity. The theory was not an invention of hers, as the curious delusions of the insane seldom are, but the chance suggestion of a writer on travel in Mexico who threw out the hint that it must have been a learned man who wrote Shakespeare's plays" (89, p. 614).

King James Bible

"After Shakespeare's plays, the most important landmark in English literature of this century is the King James version of the Bible (1611). Done by a group of scholars into the virile English of the time, under the influence of the still living Elizabethan tradition, this translation fixed the language, prose and verse, for all the after time. It has

had the strongest influence on nearly all the English writers, though more particularly writers of prose, and still remains what may be called the best English" (89, p. 614).

Sir Walter Raleigh

"The romantic career of Sir Walter Raleigh (1552-1618) closed tragically. As a favorite of Queen Elizabeth he went on expeditions to America, tried to found a colony in Virginia, named by him after the 'virgin queen,' and was one of the gentlemen adventurers of the later 16th century, well known by everyone. He lost favor in King James' time, was accused of taking part in a conspiracy against the king, for which he was imprisoned in the Tower for some 13 years, and finally, having failed in an expedition to America, was beheaded. During his long confinement he relieved the tedium of prison life by writing a History of the World, of no value as history, but an interesting example of the prose and mode of thought of the time. Raleigh will always be remembered for having introduced the potato into Ireland and the use of tobacco into England. The use of tobacco was condemned by Church and State and bitterly denounced by King James I, who wrote a book against it, but spread all the faster, apparently, for that. It was supposed to be the secret of the health and vigor of the Indians, the significance of their life in the open and their simple food being missed. Tobacco was destined to become the most popular of narcotics, almost universal in

use. Only the American Indians used it in the 15th century; now it is used everywhere throughout civilization" (89, pp. 613-614).

Dancing

"Many of the mediaeval dances were solemn and stately in character like the dances basses, which were danced to psalm tunes at the court of Charles IX of France. It is said that the whole august Council of Trent danced at a ball given in 1562 to King Philip II of Spain. The Galliarde and Nolta were introduced into France from Italy by Catherine de Medici Catherine de Medici introduced the ballet into France, and encouraged dances by females that would now be deemed highly improper, to distract the attention of her son, Henry III, from state affairs" (22, p. 448).

Michel de Nostradamus

"One of the strangest figures of the time was the French physician and astrologer, Michel de Nostradamus (1503-1566). Studied first at Avignon, and then at the medical school of Montpellier, and after taking his degree acted for some time as a professor, but afterward settled as a medical practitioner at Agen. Finally, after traveling in Italy, he established himself at Solon, near Aix, about 1544, where he wrote his famous Prophecies (Centuries) or astrological predictions written in rhymed quatrains. They obtained great success.

Catherine de Medici invited him to court to cast the horoscope of her sons, and the apparent fulfillment of his predictions led, on the succession of Charles IX, to his appointment as royal physician" (89, p. 457).

Education in Latin America

"The cultural development of the Spanish-American countries during the century is one of the surprises of recent historical research. Schools were established in Mexico and Peru during the second quarter of the century and in 1551 the universities of Mexico and Lima received royal charters. During the last quarter of the century, medical and law departments were organized and these universities had many hundreds of students. The printing press was introduced into Mexico (1536) and the first book printed was La Escala Espiritual (The Ladder of the Spirit) the following year. Seven printers plied their craft in the century. Professor Bourne of Yale declared that Mexican scholars before the end of the century 'made distinguished achievements in some branches of science, particularly medicine and surgery, but especially linguistics, history and anthropology.' In the following century there were chairs in all the sciences and 'some of the professors, notwithstanding the vast distance, gained the applause of the litterati of Europe.' In range of studies, in standard of attainments by the officers, the

Mexican institutions of learning surpassed anything that existed in English America until the 19th century" (88, p. 55).

Calvin and Switzerland

"In the years 1541-1564, Calvin, recalled to Geneva, organized the town as a theocratic state (City of God). A consistory of twelve laymen and six clericals controlled the council and the government. Drastic suppression of all godlessness (i.e. everything at variance with Calvinist doctrine).

"In 1553, he executed Servetus for denying the Trinity.

"In 1555, there was a ruthless suppression of anti-Calvinist uprising. Geneva became a center for Protestant refugees from England and France and a radiating point for Calvinist doctrine. But the Protestant cantons of Switzerland remained predominantly Zwinglian" (39, p. 409).

Africa

"In the years 1555-1633, the Portuguese (Jesuit) Missions in Ethiopia, converted to two successive rulers. The conversion led to repeated religious wars against the Portuguese faction. Ultimately the Portuguese were expelled and all Catholic missions prohibited.

"In 1562-1576, John Hawkins initiated the British slave trade, making three voyages from West Africa to the New World with slave cargo.

"Those years marked the apogee of the Empire of Kanem or Bornu (dating from the 13th century) under Idris III. It controlled most of the territory about Lake Chad.

"In 1574, the Spaniards lost Goletta, marking the end of the Spanish rule in Tunis, which became a Turkish regency, with an elected bey.

"In 1591, a force of Spanish and Portuguese renegades in the service of the Moroccans, crossed the desert and defeated the forces of Songhoy by use of firearms. Gao was destroyed and the Moroccans established themselves at Timbuktu. The entire Negro culture was destroyed and the country fell prey to rival pashas. These made themselves independent of Morocco in 1612 and continued to rule at Timbuktu until 1780.

"In 1595, the first establishments of the Dutch appeared on the Guinea coast" (39, p. 528).

North American Exploration by the Spanish

"In the year 1521, Juan Ponce de Leon, under royal patent, tried unsuccessfully to colonize Florida.

"In 1528, Panfilo de Narvaez, having secured authority to colonize the territory assigned to Garay on the Gulf coast and to Ponce de Leon in Florida, landed in Florida with colonists from Spain. After exploration he tried to reach the area of the Panuco River. The expedition was wrecked on the coast of Texas and most of the colonists died of hunger and disease, or at the hands of the Indians.

"In search of a strait and of new lands, Cortes dispatched expeditions which reached northern Sinaloa and Lower California.

"In 1535, Cortes himself attempted, though without success, to found a colony in Lower California, but Francisco de Ulloa, in command of an expedition organized by Cortes, reached the head of the Gulf of California (1539). Alarcon, co-operating by sea with Coronado's expedition in New Mexico, reached the same district and passed up the Colorado River (1540).

"Around 1539-1543, Hernando de Soto (1499-1542), granted a patent for the colonization of the Gulf coast (Florida), headed an expedition from Spain, landed in Florida, explored the southeastern portion of the United States, discovered the Mississippi River (1541), traversed Arkansas and Oklahoma to the Arkansas River, and followed the latter river to the Mississippi. While moving down the Mississippi, De Soto died (1542) and the expedition, under Luis de Moscoso, continued on to the area of the Panuco (1543). Luis de Cancer, a Dominican, and certain companions sought to bring the nations of Florida to obedience by peaceful means, in accord with theories of Las Casas, but de Cancer was killed, and the attempt was abandoned (1549).

"Reports brought by Cabeza de Vaca and the legend of the Seven Cities of Cibola caused the viceroy, Mendoza, to send the Franciscan Fray Marcos de Niza northward in 1539. Having

reached the Zuni pueblos of New Mexico, the friar returned with exaggerated accounts.

"Francisco Vasquez de Coronado, governor of New Galicia, with the authority of the viceroy, led an expedition overland to the new lands, while Hernando de Alarcon proceeded by sea along the west coast. Coronado reached the Zunis and his lieutenants reached the Moqui pueblos and the Grand Canon of Colorado. In search of Gran Quivira, Coronado traversed northern Texas, Oklahoma, and eastern Kansas before his return.

"As part of his project for South Sea discovery, Mendoza sent Juan Rodriguez de Cabrillo to search for a northern strait. Cabrillo, and, after his death, the pilot Bartolome Ferrelo, explored the Pacific coast as far as Oregon, but failed to discover the Bays of Monterey and San Francisco.

"Under directions from the crown, the viceroy, Velasco, dispatched a large expedition under Tristan de Luna to colonize the region of the Carolinas (Santa Elena). De Luna established a garrison at Pensacola, moved inland, and founded a settlement. The colonists were soon transferred to Pensacola. Villafane replaced De Luna as governor and sought without success to colonize the Carolinas. The garrison left at Pensacola was soon withdrawn. In view of constant failure, Philip II ordered that no further attempt be made to colonize Florida (1561), but need for protection of the Bahama Channel (the route for the return to Spain of plate and merchant fleets) and French

attempts to occupy the region led to a reversal of this policy.

"In 1562, Jean Ribaut failed in an attempt to establish a French Huguenot settlement at Port Royal (in South Carolina). but shortly afterward Laudonniere founded Fort Caroline, on the St. John's River (1564). Ribaut arrived with a third expedition, with instructions to establish a fortified place to command the route of the Spanish plate fleets. As a result of these activities Philip II determined upon the expulsion of the French and the permanent colonization of Florida.

"In 1565, as adelantado of Florida, Pedro Menendez de Aviles founded St. Augustine, captured Fort Caroline, and slew the garrison. Thus danger of French occupation was removed.

"Under the royal patent, Juan de Onate secured the submission of New Mexico and sent out expeditions which explored the region from Kansas to the Gulf of California. Santa Fe was founded soon after the resignation of Onate.

"In the meanwhile the Spaniards had extended their conquests far up the Pacific Coast" (39, pp. 492-493).

Ignatius Loyola

"Ignatius of Loyola, a Spanish soldier, wounded at the siege of Pamplona by the French in 1521, had his leg rebroken when it had healed in bad position, bearing the awful pain in those preanaesthetic days, rather than have his pride annoyed

by the deformity. During the enforced idleness he read, after exhausting all the romances of chivalry at hand, a Life of Christ and lives of various saints, particularly that of Saint Francis of Assisi, and came to the conclusion that life was only worth living when lived in imitation of the God-Man. Amidst many almost incredible difficulties, for more than a dozen years he formed his character by spiritual exercises, took up the study of grammar in a class with little boys, supported himself by begging as one of the beggar students of the time, and gathered around him at the University of Paris a group of seven men, who in 1534 took their vows with him as members of the Company of Jesus. With true Spanish chivalry, their first object was to win over the Holy Land from the infidels by going to Jerusalem and converting it. Prevented by war from doing this, they became teachers and missionaries in Italy. Their zeal was so great and yet so reasonable, they were so absolutely unselfish and had a charm that attracted so much attention, that they accomplished wonders. The Pope received them with kindness and gave them provisional confirmation of their rule. Pope Paul III had insisted on limiting the number of religious orders because of abuses that had arisen in them, but after reading Ignatius' rule he declared 'the finger of God is here,' gave them the fullest confirmation and in 1543 they were acknowledged as one of the religious orders of the Church.

"The Jesuits, thus simply founded, proved to be one of the creations of that great period most far-reaching in influence. By the end of the century they had schools in nearly every country in Europe, with many thousands of pupils. A hundred years later they had some 200,000 pupils. They went as missionaries to China and Japan, Mexico, Peru, Brazil, Paraguay and Chile, to Farther India and to the North American Indians. They wrote many thousands of books and their bibliography contains over 11,000 authors. The list of Bellarmine's works fills 50 pages, double column, one of them published in 54 languages. They were discoverers in astronomy, founders in anthropology, writers on every scientific topic, and Pogendorff has 500 of them in his 'Bibliographical Dictionary of Science.' The last prayer of Ignatius was that his order should be persecuted. As Francis Thompson said, 'Most singular bequest that a founder ever transmitted, it has been singularly fulfilled.' Suppressed by the Pope in 1773, they survived in Russia, were restored in the early 19th century and there are over 20,000 Jesuits in the world now" (88, p. 56).

Music

"The century witnessed the foundation of modern music. The greatest genius of it is Palestrina. He is to music what Dante is to literature and art, and whenever he is properly appreciated that generation has a good musical taste. The

beginnings of the century's music comes from Flanders. Archadelt, the master of Palestrina, wrote some church music which is still used. Claude Goudimel, another Fleming, influenced his time deeply and as the master of Orlando di Lasso, the first to co-ordinate words and music so as to harmonize and bring out the meaning of both, influenced all the aftertime. Other pupils of Goudimel were the brothers Animuccia who created the Oratoria, named in honor of the oratory of Saint Phillip Neri, their great friend, at Rome. Josquin (Josse Despres) in France and Hans Sachs in Germany laid the foundation of modern popular song music and foreshadowed many subsequent developments" (88, p. 67).

Meaning of "Baroque"

"The word 'Baroque' implies the odd, the whimsical or the extraordinary. There are two directions in which a work of art can depart from the normal; one is the way of classical art, which is the way of idealism--ideal proportions, ideal harmony--in short, ideal beauty; the other direction is the way of fancy, which is a denial of reality, a contradiction of all its laws and *raison d'être*. Both succeed in giving aesthetic pleasure, and which you prefer is probably a question of your own particular temperament. It is certainly prejudice which stands in the way of most people's appreciation of Baroque art, and it is prejudice, as Riegl tried to show, which is contrary to our real nature as Northerners.

For between Northern art and Baroque art there is a bond of natural sympathy which does not exist between Northern and Classical art. In Northern art the emphasis is always on the expression of spiritual states (or what Roger Fry has called 'psychological volumes'); we see this clearly exemplified, not only in the Gothic cathedrals, but in painters like Rembrandt and even Turner. In Classical art, and particularly in the Classical art of the Italian Renaissance, all the emphasis is on the exploitation of the material, on the external handling of the subject by the artist (that is why rules are so important). Now in the Baroque style, Italian art approaches the Northern type of art--that is to say, it begins to represent spiritual states, or psychological volumes. But it still clings to its love of material exploitation, and the whole difficulty or strangeness of Baroque art springs from the contradiction. It is psychological in intention, but materialist in means.

"Michelangelo has been called the father of Baroque art, and the style can be actually traced to him" (57, p. 109).

Physical Sciences

"The biological sciences developed strikingly, beginning with Vesalius, the 'father of modern anatomy,' who wrote a great textbook, magnificently illustrated, and still one of the bibliophilic treasures of medicine. His pupil, Columbus, working as a papal physician at Rome, discovered the

circulation of the blood in the lungs, and one of his successors in the Papal University, Caesalpino, described the circulation of the blood in the body. In the meantime, Servetus, a Spaniard working in Paris, had written a description of the circulation in a theological work on the Trinity, for which, unfortunately, he was put to death by Calvin at Geneva.

"Many other important discoveries were made in Italy at this time. The names of Eustachius, Fallopius, Varolius, Sylvius, are forever enshrined in the history of medicine because of structures named after them which they were first to describe. After anatomy, botany developed the most and Caesalpinus, the anatomist, is called by Linnaeus 'the first systematic botanist.' Many of the universities had botanical gardens of their own and collections of plants for study were made. The great names in botany are Valerius Cordus, Conrad Gesner and Leonard Fuchius. Before the end of the century, the calendar was corrected under Pope Gregory XIII to the form we now have and some extremely important developments in practical medicine and surgery had been made. Italy was the great Mecca for enthusiastic students of science and Copernicus, Linacre, Vesalius and Caius in the early part of the century and Harvey later went down there to do special work. Padua was the most famous university of the world and almost no ambitious young university man in another country felt

that he could count himself fortunate unless he had been there" (88, p. 57).

Mary and Elizabeth

"Mary Queen of Scots is one of the much-disputed characters in history. After 18 years in prison, she was beheaded, at the age of 44. She was crowned Queen of Scotland as an infant on the death of her father, James V (1542). At the age of 16 she was married to the Dauphin of France. Her husband became king as Francis II of France when she was 17. He died the next year and at 19 Mary returned to try to rule the turbulent Scottish barons. At 25 she was imprisoned and was released for two weeks only, when she threw herself on Elizabeth's mercy, who kept her in prison until her execution. She lived in the most difficult of times, and this brilliant intellectual woman, whose heart sometimes led her astray, is a type of the Renaissance. Her successful rival for the throne of England, for on Queen Mary's death Mary of Scots had claimed the English throne as well as Elizabeth, is a greater genius without heart. She had the discernment to gather around her the men who laid broad and deep the foundations of modern England, and its colonial empire. The 'Good Queen Bess' of traditional history has suffered severely from modern historical research. She was a woman of great administrative ability, but of lamentable personal character. Prescott says of her, 'she was haughty, arrogant, coarse and

irascible, while with these fiercer qualities, she mingled deep dissimulation and strange irresolution She was desperate, selfish, incapable of forgiving, not merely a real injury, but the slightest affront to her vanity, and she was merciless in exacting retribution.' She had her father's Tudor character, but his genius for managing men" (88, p. 58).

Battle of Lepanto

"The most important historical event of the 16th century is the battle of Lepanto (1571), which marked the definite defeat of the Turks and put a period to the long fight between Christians and Mohammedans which had been in progress for nearly a thousand years. Pushed out of Spain and halted in the Balkan region, the Mohammedans had gradually acquired dominion in the Mediterranean Sea, had taken Cyprus and almost succeeded in capturing Malta from the Knight Hospitallers who defended it with a dauntless courage which finally gave them the victory. Something had to be done to stay their progress. Thousands of Christians were being captured every year by Turkish pirates and held as slaves in the cities of the Barbary Coast or even being sold into the East. The Turks were making incursions on coast cities with great destruction and loss of life. Under the inspiration of Pope Pius V, an alliance was formed between the Venetians and Phillip II of Spain, whose commerce had suffered most, and they gathered

an immense fleet. Don Juan of Austria, Phillip's half-brother, just then the popular military hero of Europe because of his recent success in a crusade against the Moors, was in command. The Christians met the Turkish galleys in the Gulf of Lepanto on the western coast of Greece and utterly defeated them. This broke the power of the Turks on the sea forever. Though in the next century, the Turks advanced as far as Vienna and besieged the city; they were never the real danger to Europe that they had been before Lepanto. Besides the commander-in-chief, the one name now remembered from the battle is that of Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote. He was wounded while bravely fighting, though on the morning of the battle the physicians had ordered him to stay in bed because he was suffering from fever. He was very proud of his wound and liked nothing better than to be known as 'the maimed soldier of Lepanto.' He was afterward captured and sold as a slave among the Mohammedans. This slave making continued, though in ever-decreasing importance, until the young American republic, at the beginning of the 19th century, inflicted severe defeat upon the Mohammedan pirates" (88, p. 59).

Saint Bartholomew's Day Massacre

"The best known event of the century, because of the endless disputes as to its significance, is the massacre of Saint Bartholomew's Day in Paris, 24 Aug. 1572. A great many

Huguenots were murdered under the direction of the government, with sad disgrace to France. Catherine de Medici, the widow of Henry II, and the mother of the three kings who succeeded each other rapidly at this time, Francis II, Charles II, and Henry III, is undoubtedly responsible for it. Since Ranke's declaration on the subject, most historians have agreed that there was no deliberate premeditation of the massacre. Catherine was angered at Admiral Coligny and in a spirit of revenge resolved to do away with him. Assassination by governmental order was still repudiated in most countries. Coligny's assassination was attempted 22 August, but failed. In her alarm over the failure, Catherine worked up the fears of her son Charles II, that the Huguenots might in revenge bring about counter attacks and had him order a massacre in which Coligny would surely be included. Only the leaders of the Huguenots were to have been put out of the way, but in the mob spirit that ensued a great many others were killed. Many rich people became victims, their houses being pillaged regardless of their religious opinions. Mezeray declared that to have money or enviable position, avaricious heirs made almost anyone a Huguenot at this time. The number of the victims is not known. Ranke estimated that 2,000 fell in Paris and larger estimates than this are undoubtedly exaggerations. The 'Martyrologie des Huguenots' mentions less than 1,000 dead. There had been religious wars in France between the Huguenots and Catholics in 1562-63, 1567-68 and 1569-70, and it was

hoped that this might put an end to the civil strife, but it only inveterated it. Lyons, Toulouse, Bordeaux and Rouen all had massacres later than Paris, Toulouse 23 September, Bordeaux 3 October. The lack of simultaneity shows that the massacre had not been planned but was a sudden decision. Charles II sent a message to his Ambassadors throughout Europe: 'Coligny and his followers were all ready to visit upon us the same fate that we dealt out to them.' The French magistrates ordered thanksgiving every year on 24 August in gratitude for the timely discovery of the conspiracy. The Pope, told that the French king and his family had been saved from a conspiracy, ordered thanksgiving, but when he learned the truth he refused to receive the man who had fired on Coligny, saying 'He is an assassin'* (88, p. 59).

Social Conditions

*At the beginning of this century the conditions of the people generally may be judged from conditions in England a generation before. Fortesque, Lord High Chancellor, gives a striking picture of the times quite incredible but for his authority. He said 'The inhabitants are rich in gold, silver and in all the necessaries and conveniences of life. They drink no water unless at certain times, upon a religious score, and by way of doing penance. They are fed in great abundance, with all sorts of flesh and fish, of which they have plenty everywhere; they are clothed throughout in good

woollens, their bedding and their furniture in the house are of wool, and that in great store. They are also well provided with all sorts of household goods and necessary implements for husbandry. Everyone, according to his rank, hath all things which conduce to make mind and life easy and happy.' By the end of the 15th century religious conflict had sadly disturbed social conditions. The rights of the people were trampled under foot and the hard-won privileges of the Middle Ages were lost. Such social institutions as the guilds, hospitals and various organizations for the care of the needy suffered most. The decline in social service which began in this century reached a climax that brought reaction only in the 19th century. Education suffered almost as severely as social organization for the times were too disturbed to permit of proper attention to intellectual matters and religious controversy consumed mental energies" (88, p. 59).

England and Protestantism

"Elizabeth (1558-1603), brought up as a Protestant, repealed the Catholic legislation of Mary; reenactment of the laws of Henry VIII relating to the Church; also the Act of Supremacy, Act of Uniformity, and Revision of the prayer-book.

"On the accession of Francis II, King of France, Mary, his wife, assumed the title of Queen of England and Scotland. Conformity exacted in Scotland. The Confession of Faith was adopted by the Scotch Estates. Mary returned to Scotland

(1561) after the death of Francis II, where she was at once involved in conflict with the Calvinists (John Knox).

"The year 1563 saw the completion of the establishment of the Anglican Church (Church of England, Episcopal Church). A compromise Church, largely Protestant in dogma (though many of the thirty-nine articles are ambiguous), but with a hierarchical organization similar to the Catholic, and a liturgy essentially that of the Roman Church translated into English. There were numerous dissenters or nonconformists; Puritans-- even then a broad, inexact term, covering various groups who wished to 'purify' the Church; to substitute a simple early-Christian ritual for the existing ritual, to make the Church more 'Protestant'; Separatists, Puritans who left the Anglican Church entirely to organize their own churches; Presbyterians, Puritans who sought substitute organization by presbyters and synods for organization by bishops within the Anglican Church; Brownists, extreme leftist Puritans religiously, the nucleus of the later Independent or Congregationalists; Brownists and Catholics alone of the Elizabethan religious groups could not be brought under the Queen's policy of toleration within the Anglican Church. Elizabeth therefore did not 'tolerate' and did 'prosecute' Catholics, Brownists, and, of course, Unitarians (who denied the doctrine of the Trinity)" (39, p. 378).

The French in North Africa

"Norman and Breton fishermen visited Newfoundland coasts perhaps as early as 1500. There are unconfirmed reports of attempts to explore the Gulf of St. Lawrence in 1506 and 1508, and of an unsuccessful colony on Sable Island in 1518.

"In 1524, Giovanni de Verrazzano, sent out by Francis I, probably explored the coast from Cape Fear to Newfoundland.

"The years 1534-1541, marked the voyages of Jacques Cartier. On the first voyage he sighted the Labrador coast, passed through the Straits of Belle Isle and explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence. On the second (1535-1536) he sailed up the St. Lawrence, stopped at the site of Quebec, proceeded to the La Chine Rapids and to the site of Montreal. On the third (1541) he was accompanied by M. Roberval, a Picard nobleman, whom Francis I had made viceroy of Canada, Newfoundland and Labrador. Unsuccessful attempts were made to establish a settlement at Quebec, and therewith the French efforts to colonize the St. Lawrence Valley came to an end until the 17th century.

"In the south the activities of the French necessarily led to conflict with the Spaniards.

"In 1598, Marquis de la Roche attempted to found a colony on Sable Island. The survivors were rescued five years later.

"Pontgrave, accompanied by Samuel de Champlain, explored the St. Lawrence as far as La Chine Rapids. Champlain also

explored the Acadian coast. In the next three years De Monts and Champlain organized a settlement on St. Croix Island, but moved later to Port Royal. Champlain followed the New England coast as far as Cape Cod, and returned to France in 1607.

"In 1608, Champlain acting as lieutenant for De Monts, founded the settlement of Quebec. In the following year, accompanied by a party of Algonquin and Huron Indians, he ascended the Richelieu River to the lake which now bears his name.

"Champlain explored the Ottawa River to about 100 miles above the present city of Ottawa. In 1615 he went up the river to Lake Nipissing and thence to Georgian Bay, being the first white man to blaze the fur-trader's route into the interior.

"In 1615, four Recollet friars arrived at Quebec, marking the beginning of French missionary activity. In 1625 five Jesuits arrived, beginning the work of that order" (39, p. 505⁷).

The English in North America

"Following the voyages of the Cabots the English showed little interest in the New World until the second half of the 16th century.

"John Hawkins, having taken a cargo of slaves in Africa, disposed of them in Espanola. The Spaniards made efforts to stop a second slave-trading voyage (1564-1565), and on his

third voyage (1567-1568) Hawkins was driven by a storm into the harbor of Vera Cruz, where his fleet was largely destroyed.

*Francis Drake, nephew of Hawkins, carried out reprisals on Spanish commerce. Sailing in 1577 he passed through the Straits of Magellan, up the west coast of South America and north to Drake's Bay, California. He named the region New Albion and took possession for England. He then sailed to the East Indies, across the Indian Ocean, around the Cape of Good Hope, and thence home to England, being the first Englishman to circumnavigate the globe.

*After unsuccessful efforts by explorers of the Muscovy Company to find a northeast passage to China, English efforts became concentrated on the search for a northwest passage. Martin Frobisher sailed from England in June, 1676, explored the Labrador coast, crossed Hudson Strait, coasted along Baffin Land, and entered the inlet known as Frobisher's Bay. In 1577-1578 he made a second voyage.

*In 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert took possession of Newfoundland in the name of Elizabeth, but lost his life on the return voyage.

*Virginia.---"In 1584, Sir Walter Raleigh, under patent, sent out Amadas and Barlow to establish a colony. They landed on Roanoke Island and named the country Virginia. Supply ships were sent out in 1586, but they found the colony deserted, the colonists having been taken back to England by Drake.

"In 1587 another party of colonists was sent out under Governor John White. Upon his return in 1591, White found only the ruins of the colony.

"A number of voyages were made to America, the most important having been that of George Weymouth in 1604. Weymouth visited the New England coast and his favorable report did much to stimulate the desire to establish further colonies.

"A group of London men was given a charter to organize the London Company, with the object of colonizing the region between 34° and 41° N. L. Another group, composed of Plymouth, Bristol, and Exeter men, was chartered as the Plymouth Company, to operate between 38° and 45° N. L. The London Company at once sent out (Dec. 1606) three ships with 120 colonists, under command of Christopher Newport.

"May of 1607 saw the founding of Jamestown colony at the mouth of the James River. The colony was held together largely through the efforts of Captain John Smith.

"In 1610, Captain Newport arrived with 400 more colonists and with Lord Delaware, the new governor. Delaware left again in 1611, but remained governor until his death in 1618. Sir Thomas Dale was left in command of the colony and ruled with an iron hand.

"In 1619, the first Negro slaves arrived in the colony. Sir Thomas Yeardley arrived as governor, bringing instructions for each plantation to elect two burgesses to a general

assembly. The assembly met at Jamestown on July 30 and was the first representative assembly in America.

"Massachusetts.--In 1606 the charter was granted to the Plymouth Company. In this very year two unsuccessful attempts were made to found colonies. In 1607 settlers were landed at the mouth of the Kennebec River, but the enterprise was abandoned the next spring.

"Captain John Smith, of the Virginia settlement, explored the coast of New England and mapped it. He was made Admiral of New England by the Plymouth Company (1615) and made an abortive effort to start a colony. Several fishing and trading voyages were made to the New England coast between 1615 and 1620 under the direction of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, a member of the Plymouth Company.

"Island settlements.--A Virginia supply ship, under command of Sir George Somers, was wrecked on one of the Bermuda Islands. On his return to England Somers interested a number of persons, mostly members of the Virginia Company, in the islands, with the result that the Somers Islands Company was formed (1612) for the colonization of Bermuda. The island had 600 settlers in 1614 and between 2,000 and 3,000 in 1625. It became an important producer of tobacco" (39, p. 507).

Dutch and Swedish Settlements

"In 1602, the United East India Company was chartered by the States-General of Holland.

"1609. The company employed Henry Hudson, an Englishman, to search for the northwest passage. He sighted land at Newfoundland, explored the New England coast, rounded Cape Cod, proceeded south to Virginia, probably entered Chesapeake Bay, entered Delaware Bay, and explored the Hudson River to Albany. Friendly relations with Iroquois Indians.

"1612. Dutch merchants sent Christianson and Block to Manhattan Island to engage in fur trade. A post was established in 1613" (39, p. 510).

China

"Ming thought was at first almost wholly dominated by authority of Chu Hsi and his school. The Hsing Li Ta Ch'uan, a digest of moral philosophy from the works of 120 of these scholars, was published under imperial authority in 1416. Opposition to the positive and authoritarian aspects of such teaching was most vigorously expressed by Wang Shou-jen (pen name Wang Yang-ming) (1472-1528 or 1529), who insisted that moral judgements spring from the intuitive faculties within all men. Sages differ from common men in quantity, not quality, of true perceptions. Experience is for him the test of truth. Chu Hsi through emphasis on objective study had opened the door to scientific research. Wang, by insistence on subjectivity, did much to prevent it.

"The early part of the dynasty saw a vigorous national reaction led by the Academy of Letters (Han Lin Yuan) against

all things foreign. Buddhism was now almost completely naturalized as Chinese, and Islam was too strongly entrenched in the north and southwest to be eradicated; but both Nestorian and Roman Christianity were suppressed. So too were various secret fraternities with obscure social and political objectives, like the White Cloud and the White Lotus, which had enjoyed official status under the Mongols.

"Matteo Ricci (1552-1610), Macao (1582) won toleration for the Jesuits and a salary at court (1601) by presenting clocks, etc., to the throne and preparing a huge map of the world. News in Peking (1606) of the arrival in Kansu of Benedict de Goez, who had come overland from India (1603-1605), first established for modern Europe identity of Marco Polo's Cathay with maritime China (Thinai in the Periplus, A. D. 18-89, from Sanskrit Cina). Rapid conversions and private church services at Nanking brought suspicion of secret aims like those of the White Lotus, and consequent deportation (1616) of the missionaries to Macao, whence they gradually returned. Johan Adam Schall von Bell (1591-1666, Peking, 1622) was charged (1630) to reform the dynastic calendar (already begun by Jesuits, 1611 and 1629). He cast astronomical instruments; and (1636-1637) twenty 40-lb. cannon, with camel-guns for use against the Manchus.

"The Academy of Letters supervised an imposing series of official compilations. The Yung Lo Ta Tien, an encyclopaedia

into which numerous whole works were transcribed, was compiled in 10,000 manuscript volumes of folio size (1402-1409). The precedents of the T'ang, Sing, and Yuan were followed by issue, in numerous editions, of the dynastic legal and administrative codes and a territorial survey of the empire. The practice was begun of gathering many small choice works by various authors into uniform collections. Mao Chin published from his private library the Chi Ku Ko, fine critical editions of the Thirteen Classics with Commentaries, the Seventeen Standard Histories, and many other works.

*Ming painters, besides much imitation of Sung ink landscape which was now reduced to conventional formulae, revived a coloristic tradition of vivid blues and greens. Tai Chin (fl. c. 1446) specially developed a new style of free rapid composition in ink which was much better adapted to representation of life and movement than the exquisite but somewhat static Sung technique. The potters of the Hung Wu and Yung Lo reigns achieved bold effects by application of 'three-color' glazes (aubergine, turquoise, and yellow) with dark blue to monumental potiches. In the Hsuan Te period they learned to control copper oxide red for decoration of white paste under clear glaze, in addition to the cobalt 'Mohammedan blue' of which the purest supply came intermittently from Turkestan. Decoration in overglaze enamels, often in combination with underglaze blue, was used brilliantly on rather

bombastic vases in the Chia Ching and Wan Li periods. The imperial kilns at Ching-te-chen in Kiangsi were developed to supply immense quantities of Porcelain to the palace" (39, p. 536).

Japan

"Buddhism was in decline, and Christianity was early stamped out, but there was a great revival in lay learning, the old feudal code of conduct received definite formulation under the name of Bushido, Confucian philosophy enjoyed a protracted period of unparalleled growth and popularity, philosophers and teachers of ethics abounded, there was a revival of interest in Japanese antiquity, Shinto developed new life both as a nationalistic philosophy and as a popular religion, and the newly arisen merchant class contributed greatly to the intellectual and cultural growth of the land.

"Literature and art in the Tokugawa period were comparatively free from Chinese influences and were less aristocratic and more popular than in earlier periods because of the influence of the merchant class. A new poetic form, the haiku, which consists of only 17 syllables as opposed to the classic form of 31 syllables, was popularized at this time. The novel enjoyed a second great period of flowering. The refined No drama slowly gave way to more realistic, more exciting, and decidedly less restrained forms, the Kabuki and puppet plays which both developed from long poetic recitations called

Joruri. Applied arts reached great heights of technical excellence, but architecture was an uninspired and often de-based imitation of the 16th-century styles. Painting was largely traditional, but there were able masters of design and an important new school of realism" (39, p. 546).

"In 1542, Antonio da Mato and two companions, driven by a storm, first reached Japan" (39, p. 536).

"Around 1602, Spanish traders arrived in eastern Japan. Ieyasu befriended Spanish missionaries, hoping thereby to persuade Spanish traders to trade directly with eastern Japan, but, although a formal treaty was negotiated with the Spanish acting governor of the Philippines in 1610, few traders ever came.

"Hidetada was made shogun in 1605. This was the formative period of the Edo government, first under the direction of the retired shogun, Ieyasu (d. 1616), and then under that of his uninspired but dependable son, Hidetada.

"In 1608, Hayashi Razan (1583-1657), a Confucian scholar, was appointed attendant scholar (jidoku) to Ieyasu. This marked the beginning of a Tokugawa policy of using Confucianism as a stabilizing force in politics and society. Razan, who founded the Edo Confucian temple in 1623, represented the orthodox Sung Confucian school of Chu Hsi (J. Shushi), which was the orthodox school in Japan throughout the period. Other schools of Confucian philosophy were those of Wang- Yang-ming

(J. Oyomei), of Ming China (represented by Nakae Toju (1608-1648) and Kumazawa Banzan (1619-1691), and the Ancient School (Kogakuha), a reformed school which returned to pre-Sung Confucian commentators (represented by Ito Jinsai, 1627-1705, and Ogyu Sorai, 1666?-1728). The Japanese Confucianists made many contributions to various fields of learning and some attacked the pressing economic problems of the time.

"In 1609, the Dutch established a trading post at Hirado in western Japan after an invitation from Ieyasu in 1605. This invitation had been obtained by Will Adams (d. 1620), the English pilot of a Dutch vessel wrecked in Japan in 1600. Adams was forced to remain in Japan by Ieyasu, who made of him an honored adviser.

"In 1612, a definite persecution of Christianity commenced after a series of anti-Christian edicts beginning in 1606. Ieyasu's mounting fears of the political menace from Christianity and his realization that trade with Europe could be maintained without the presence of Catholic missionaries as decoys had made him gradually abandon his at first friendly attitude toward the missionaries.

"In 1613, Cocks established an English factory at Hirado and Date Massamune (1565-1636), a prominent lord of northern Japan, dispatched an embassy to Spain and to the Pope. Hideyori (1593-1615), the son and heir of Hideyoshi, and the former's mother, Yodogimi (1577-1615), had remained in the

Osaka Castle after the battle of Sekigahara, constituting a dangerous rallying-point for disaffected elements. Their ultimate destruction deemed necessary by Ieyasu. In 1614 on a trumped-up charge he laid siege to the castle, and after a short peace captured and destroyed it and its inmates in 1615" (39, p. 546).

"The year 1616 saw the death of Ieyasu, who had unified Japan. His tomb at Nikko is perhaps the most magnificent of Japanese architectural and landscaping triumphs.

Summary: The Elizabethan Age

1545. The Council of Trent began 13 December and lasted 18 years.

1546. Socialism sprang up in Italy.

1547. Cervantes, the celebrated author of Don Quixote, born.

1551. Universities of Mexico and Lima chartered.

1553. Queen Mary restores Roman Catholicism in England. Servetus burned at Geneva. Rabelais dies.

1557. Charles V of Germany resigns the crown.

1558. Elizabeth becomes Queen of England and restores the Protestant Church. France recovers Calais from the English.

1560. Presbyterianism established in Scotland (88, p. 60).

1561. Francis Bacon born (59, p. 247).

1564. Michelangelo, the most prominent artist of the Renaissance, dies. Shakespeare born, Vesalius, the father of modern anatomy, dies.

1564. Puritan party founded in England.
1566. The 39 articles of the Church of England formulated.
1568. Mary, Queen of Scots, imprisoned in England. The Reformation introduced in the Netherlands.
1571. Benvenuto Cellini, the famous Italian sculptor, dies. Defeat of the Turks at the Battle of Lepanto.
1572. Massacre of Saint Bartholomew in Paris.
1576. Titian dies.
1580. Sir Francis Drake sailed around the world. Camoens the great Portuguese poet dies.
1582. Pope Gregory adjusts the Julian calendar and advances 5 October to 15 October in Catholic countries.
1585. Raleigh established the first English colony in America.
1587. Mary, Queen of Scots, beheaded. Drake destroys 100 sailing ships in Cadiz Bay.
1588. The invincible Spanish Armada destroyed by the British. Duke of Guise assassinated.
1589. Henry IV of France begins to reign.
1590. Battle of Ivry. Jansen, a spectacle maker in Germany, invents the telescope.
1591. Watches introduced in England from Germany.
1594. Palestrina, founder of modern music, dies.
1595. Tyco Brahe defines the obliquity of the ecliptic.
1598. Edict of Nantes. Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland.

1600. Incorporation of the East India Company.
1603. Queen Elizabeth of England dies. Union of Scotland and England under James I. Hamlet written.
1605. The English gunpowder plot.
1607. Hudson's Bay discovered by Hendrik Hudson.
1608. Galileo with a telescope observes the satellites of Jupiter (89, p. 60).
1608. Quebec founded by French (59, p. 285).
1610. Assassination of Henry IV, King of France.
1614. Logarithms invented by Napier.
1618. Manchus invades China.
1619. Harvey discovers the circulation of the blood (89, p. 60).

Section IV: The Puritan Age

French Exploration in North America

"French settlements in the West Indies first included St. Christopher (1625). The Company of St. Christopher was formed in 1626, to extend the settlement. This was superseded in 1635 by the Company of Isles of America. Guadaloupe, Martinique, and Tortuga were occupied, and between 1648 and 1656 settlements were made on St. Martin, Saint Bartholomew, Saint Croix, The Saints, Marie, Galante, Saint Lucia and Grenada.

"In 1627, Richelieu organized the Company of the Hundred Associates to colonize New France. The company was given all

lands between Florida and the Arctic Circle, with a monopoly of trade, except in cod and whale fisheries.

*In 1628, Acadia and Quebec were captured by the English, but restored in 1632.

*Champlain, hearing of a great waterway in the west and believing it might be a passage to China, sent Nicolet on an exploring expedition. Nicolet reached Sault Ste. Marie, explored the south shore of the upper peninsula of Michigan, and reached the southern extremity of Green Bay.

*Father Marquette and Joliet, a trader, followed the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers to the Mississippi, which they descended to the confluence of the Arkansas. In the same year, 1673, Count Frontenac, governor of New France, founded Fort Frontenac on Lake Ontario.

*La Salle explored the shores of Lake Michigan and in the Illinois country. He erected Fort Crevecoeur near present Peoria (1679) and sent Hennepin to explore the upper Mississippi while he himself returned to Fort Frontenac. In 1682 La Salle reached the mouth of the Mississippi and took possession of the whole valley in the name of the king of France.

*To check the Spanish advance, to control the Gulf coast and to forestall possible British occupation of the lower Mississippi, French forces under Iberville established posts at Biloxi and started the French colony in Louisiana (1699) The post was moved to Mobile Bay in 1702 and named St. Louis.

Mobile was founded in 1710 and New Orleans was founded in 1718" (39, p. 505).

The English in North America

"Virginia.--In 1621, Sir Francis Wyatt, the governor, brought over new regulations providing for government through a governor, council of state, and assembly, the latter consisting of two burgesses each elected from every plantation and town.

"The charter was revoked in 1624. This step was taken as a result of dissension within the company and because of the king's disapproval of popular government and of the raising of tobacco, as well as because of his desire to please the Spanish, who had protested against the founding of the colony. Virginia became a royal colony, with a governor and council appointed by the crown.

"Massachusetts.--The Plymouth Company having failed to found a colony, Gorges and others secured the incorporation of the council, which was given jurisdiction between 40° and 48° N. L., in November of 1620.

"The Pilgrims arrived at Cape Cod in 1620. They were a group of separatists who had migrated from Scrooby to Amsterdam and thence to Leyden in Holland. In 1617 they decided to seek a new home in order to preserve their English identity. They obtained a patent from the London Company and John Carver was made their governor. They left England in the Mayflower

and reached Cape Cod, which they found to be outside the jurisdiction of the London Company. They therefore drew up the Mayflower Compact, by which they formed themselves into a body politic and agreed to enact laws for the welfare of the colony. The basis of government, then, was the will of the colonists rather than that of the crown. Plymouth was selected as the site of the settlement.

"Settlements of Portsmouth and Dover (New Hampshire) and at Casco Bay and Saco Bay (Maine) were made under the auspices of the Council for New England. A group of Dorchester merchants settled on Cape Ann (1624).

"In 1628, John Endicott and some 50 colonists arrived at Salem, acting under a patent obtained by Rev. John White of Dorchester from the Council for New England. This patent ran for lands between the parallel three miles north of the source of the Merrimac River and that three miles south of the Charles River.

"Five ships, with some 400 settlers, arrived at Salem. John Winthrop and other prominent men meeting at Cambridge (England) agreed to emigrate to Massachusetts Bay, provided the charter and government might be legally transferred to America. The company decided to make the transfer and Winthrop was named governor.

"In 1630, seventeen ships brought about 1,000 persons to the colony. By the end of the year settlements had been made

at Dorchester, Boston, Watertown, Roxbury, Mystic and Lynn. The first general court of the colony was held at Boston (Oct. 19). From then on no person was to be admitted as a freeman of the corporation unless a member of some church within the colony. In 1634 a representative system was introduced into the general court, because the growth of the colony prevented attendance of all freemen.

"The Massachusetts Bay Colony, during the years 1630-1642, received some 16,000 settlers from England.

"In 1636, the general court voted £400 toward the founding of a college. In 1638 John Harvard bequeathed to the college £780 and 260 books. The institution was named Harvard College in 1639.

"Connecticut and Rhode Island.--The Earl of Warwick, to whom the Council for New England had granted much of the Connecticut River Valley, transferred his rights to Lords Saye and Sele.

"In 1633, the Dutch, who had explored the coast, erected a fort on the river near the present Hartford.

"In 1635, Lord Saye, with his associates, sent out settlers under John Winthrop, Jr., who established Fort Saybrook, at the mouth of the river. In the same year settlers from Dorchester (Massachusetts), seeking better land, established themselves at Windsor. In 1636 Rev. Thomas Hooker led Cambridge settlers to Hartford, while other colonists from Watertown settled at Wethersfield.

"Rev. John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton founded a theocratic colony at New Haven.

"Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield drew up Fundamental Orders, which provided that the governor and assistants, with four representatives from each town, should constitute the general court. These three settlements were commonly referred to as Connecticut.

"Meanwhile Roger Williams had arrived at Boston, from England (1631). After spending some time at Salem, he repaired to Plymouth, where he concluded that the land rightfully belonged to the Indians and that the king had no right to grant it. He returned to Salem, where he argued that the church and the state should be separated. He denied the right of the magistrate to control the churches, and objected to enforced oaths, since they obliged wicked men to perform a religious act, thereby destroying the freedom of the soul. In Oct., 1635, he was banished from Salem.

"Roger Williams settled at Providence, where he organized a government democratic in character, with separation of church and state.

"In 1638, Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, the center of a controversy which shook Massachusetts Bay Colony to its foundations, was banished and took refuge on the island of Aquidneck, later called Rhode Island, where she and a small group of associates founded the settlement of Portsmouth. The following year another settlement was made at Newport.

"Maryland.--George Calvert (later Lord Baltimore) had bought the southeastern peninsula of Newfoundland from Sir William Vaughan (1620) and had secured a charter (1623) for a colony, which he called Avalon. He visited Newfoundland in 1627 and resolved to abandon the colony because of the unfavorable climate. He then asked for a grant in Virginia, which was made in 1632, despite opposition from the Virginians.

"The charter of the new colony was drawn up in the name of Cecillius Calvert, George Calvert having died. The province was named Maryland, and Calvert, as proprietor, was given the right to collect taxes, make grants of land, create manors, appoint ministers and found churches according to the laws of England. As the charter did not forbid the establishment of other churches than the Protestant, Baltimore (Calvert) made use of it to help his co-religionists, the Catholics.

"In 1633, Baltimore dispatched to Maryland two vessels with some 20 gentlemen, mostly Catholics, and about 200 laborers, chiefly Protestants. Arriving at the mouth of the Potomac (1634, Mar.), they founded the settlement of St. Mary's" (39, pp. 508-510).

Dutch and Swedish Settlements

"In 1621, the Dutch West India Company was chartered and given a monopoly of trade in Africa and America.

"In 1626, Peter Minuit became director-general of the company. He purchased Manhattan Island from the Indians for

24 dollars and founded the settlement of New Amsterdam. The company also made settlements in Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania. Men, known as patroons, were given large areas of land on condition that they bring over a stipulated number of settlers. The Dutch, under Governor Kieft of New Netherland, protested in vain against the founding of New Haven.

"Meanwhile the attention of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden was called to the Delaware country by William Usselinx, who had withdrawn from the Dutch West India Company. Usselinx received a charter for the South Company which came to naught. In 1633 the New South Company was organized, but it, too, failed" (39, p. 510).

India

"Shah Jahan (d. 1666) ruled with even less regard for his subjects, but destroyed Ahmadnagar (1632) and defeated Golconda (1635) and Bijapur (1636).

"The Taj Mahal was built in 1632-1653 as a tomb for his wife, Mumtaz Mahal, for whom he had already built the splendid palace Khass Mahal on the fort at Agra.

"In 1639, the site of Madras was granted to an Englishman.

"In 1658, Aurangzeb rebelled, following the illness of Shah Jahan and competition for the succession among his four sons. He imprisoned Shah Jahan (d. 1666), and became emperor. The Mogul dominion was undermined, in part by Aurangzeb's

sacrifice of political stability to religious zeal, and his failure to control his subordinates, of whom he was inordinately suspicious" (39, p. 533).

China

"The Shun Chih Reign of Shih Tsu (1644-1661) was filled with military effort to destroy Ming resistance, which centered about Prince Fu at Nanking (1644-1645), Prince T'ang in Fukien (1645-1646), Prince Lu at Shaohsing, Amoy, Chusan (1645-1651), and Prince Kuei from Canton to Yunnan (1646-1659). Conquest was accompanied by imposition of the Manchu shaven head with queue. Foot-binding, at first forbidden (1638-1645, 1662), was at length permitted to Chinese only (1668). Manchus were appointed as colleagues of Chinese in all principal posts of central administration, and garrisons from the eight Manchu banners were distributed among strategic provincial cities; but Chinese were appointed in the provinces both to civil posts and to command of Chinese auxiliary troops. Four Chinese were sent as viceroys to hold the south and southwest.

"1645-1683. A pirate dynasty upheld the Ming. Chen Chih-lung (1645-1646, executed at Peking 1661) was succeeded by Cheng Ch'engkung, known to the Portuguese as Koxinga (1646-1662). Koxinga seized Amoy (1653), Ch'ung-ming Island (1656), attacked Nanking (1657), and by a long siege of Fort Zelandia (1661-1662) wrested Formosa from the Dutch. So

formidable was his naval power that the Manchus decreed (1661) evacuation of the whole coastal population to a depth of ten miles from the sea" (39, p. 537).

Political Unrest in Europe

"This was a century of bitter political dissension, religious wars and ever-recurring turmoil of many kinds throughout Europe. The Huguenot wars in France during the first 30 years, the Thirty Years' War in Germany (1618-1648) and the frequent wars of France with nearly all her neighbors under Louis XIV in the latter half of the century make it forever notorious. England put King Charles I to death (1649), was ruled by Cromwell for some 10 years, restored the Stuarts (1660) only to banish them in the person of James II (1688) when his Catholicity offended the realm, so as to please his Protestant daughter Mary, with her consort, Prince William of Orange, on the throne. This furnished the occasion for the drawing up of the Declaration of Rights, which the king and queen as all subsequent English sovereigns had to guarantee before their coronation, so that the Revolution of 1688 well deserves its title of 'glorious' as a landmark in the progress of constitutional government" (89, p. 613).

Coffee and Tea

"This century saw the introduction of coffee into Europe as well as of tea. Coffee houses became popular centres, and

tea was served to them in the latter half of the century with and without alcoholic additions. The two exotic plants and their products were destined to revolutionize social usages in many ways, and their use has gone on increasing in spite of medical and other warnings with regard to possible dangers" (89, p. 614).

Literature

"The latter part of the century had Dryden, Congreve and Wycherley. The Jacobean was followed by a period of Puritan literature, the supreme products of which are Milton's Paradise Lost, the greatest epic in English, and Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, the greatest English allegory, both with a high place in world literature. Milton succeeded admirably in his revival of the classic drama in Samson Agonistes, but it is his shorter poems that reveal his greatness as a poet. Bunyan, a wandering tinker, confined to Bedford jail for 12 years, found the time to write his allegory, a marvelous bit of English prose and of Puritanic philosophy. He was so full of the Scriptures that his book breathes their very style. The subsequent reaction against Puritanism gave rise to the licentious Restoration drama. Even Dryden allowed his work to be tinged by the license of the time. His poetry is the greatest of the period and perhaps the greatest for two centuries after" (89, p. 614).

French Literature

"The century contains the 'Golden Period' of French literature. Richelieu founded the French Academy (1635), and this gave a great impetus to the cultivation of the French language. Louis XIV was most liberal in his patronage of Frenchmen of letters, and his was a real Augustan age, with a great many of the literary men of the time ready to sing the praises of the king because of his generous patronage. The political glory of Louis' reign and the many French victories in war stimulated the French imagination with magnificent literary results. France's crowning prestige in this period made the French literature of very far-reaching influence. Latin gradually ceased at this time to be used as a common language in diplomatic and scientific circles. French replaced it, so that everyone in Europe who had any pretensions to education knew French besides his mother tongue, and was interested in French literature. It is not surprising, then, that under the stimulus of a world audience every mode of French literature developed in wonderful fashion. Corneille, Racine and Moliere are the great dramatic poets, worthy of a place beside the dramatists of any other time or country; Descartes and Pascal, the philosophical writers who have deeply influenced all the succeeding generations; Boileau and La Fontaine the poets, still widely read after nearly three centuries; Bossuet, Bourdaloue and Flechier the orators,

among the greatest of history; La Rochefoucauld and La Bruyere as moralists are still living forces, and La Rochefoucauld is almost more quoted than any other author since his time. Fenelon has a place by himself and it is very high. The period also saw the development of a school of romance, mainly of women writers. Madame de Sevigne wrote French prose while coteries of immortal French literary ladies made literature a fashion, though little of their work has survived. Mademoiselle de Scudery's writings had an immense vogue and probably suggested the comic romance of Scarron and some other romantic developments. Madame de la Fayette wrote in the Princess of Treves, a story that anticipates our modern fiction in many ways" (89, pp. 614-615).

Philosophers

"Three philosophers who have notably affected human thinking ever since wrote at that time. Descartes (1596-1650), who probably had influenced modern philosophy more deeply than any other, was distinguished as a mathematician, but put that aside to spend 20 years in retirement in Holland (near Leyden) elaborating his system of philosophy. He began by doubting everything, even his own existence, but his 'I think, therefore, I am,' became for him the foundation of certitude. Spinoza (1632-1677) was the greatest modern expounder of Pantheism. He was descended from Portuguese Jews and made his living as a lens-grinder in Amsterdam. His

metaphysical speculations were founded on Descartes, who had gone into philosophic retirement not far from where Spinoza also retired when he gave up his occupation to write out his Pantheistic theories. Pascal (1623-1662) was like Descartes, first a mathematician and then a philosopher. He is famous for his prose style. He died before his magnum opus, an apology for Christianity, was completed. All that we have of it is the Pensees, thoughts on great subjects" (89, p. 614).

Mathematics

"Cassini's tables of the motions of Jupiter's moons led to his invitation to the observatory in Paris, and the Cassinis continued for generations as successful workers in astronomy and mathematics. Descartes and Pascal graduated from mathematics into philosophy and carried the modes of their previous discipline into the new sphere of thought. The Bernoullis, Jacques and Jean were followed in succeeding generations, like the Cassinis, by great mathematicians. Jacques Bernoulli (1654-1705) solved the isoperimetrical problem and discovered the properties of the logarithmic spiral. The two greatest mathematicians of the century are Leibnitz (1646-1716) and Newton (1642-1727). Leibnitz was the inventor of the differential and integral calculus (independently discovered by Newton), and was also a writer of influence on philosophy. Newton's astronomical mathematics, depending on the determination of the length of a degree on the earth's

surface by Picard in Paris (1671), made him famous. His Principia Mathematica was presented to the Royal Society (1686) and published the following year" (89, p. 614).

Artists

"The most outstanding artist of the time was the Spanish Velasquez who lived from 1598 to 1660. "Besides Velasquez there were in Spain many who reached distinction and that distinction has grown in recent years. The best known among them are Zurbaran, Murillo, and Ribera. In France, though the French were under the influence of the Italians, such names as Nicolas Poussin and Claude (Lorrain) are forever famous" (89, p. 615).

Sweden

"Sweden came to occupy a very important place in European politics during this century. King Gustav Adolf (Gustavus Adopphus) intervened in the Thirty Years' War to prevent the further aggrandizement of the Hapsburgs. The Swedes looked upon the Baltic as a Swedish lake and their supremacy seemed imperiled. After the fall of Madgeburg, 1631, when that city was stormed by Tilly and given up to pillage, the Protestant princes of Germany, alarmed, united with the Swedish king. Tilly was defeated at Breitenfeld (Leipzig) 1631, and again the following year, when he was fatally wounded. The emperor had to turn to Wallenstein, who had been in disgrace. Under

him a battle was fought with the Swedes at Luetzen in Saxony, which the Swedes won, but at the fatal price of their king. Wallenstein fell under the suspicion of the emperor who caused him to be assassinated (1634). After this the latter part of the Thirty Years' War became a political struggle between the house of Bourbon and the house of Austria, though for a time it had seemed to be a war on religious grounds between Catholics and Protestants. The Treaty of Westphalia, which ended the war, established the principles of balance of power in Europe, which has been the source of so much disaffection and so many wars since.

"On the death of Gustavus Adolphus, his daughter Christina, but six years old, succeeded under a regency. At the age of 18 she assumed the government, at once concluded the war with Denmark and hastened the conclusion of the Thirty Years' War in Germany. She had the genius of her father but applied it to peace, and all his virtues and some of his faults. She patronized literature and philosophy, brought Descartes to Sweden and tried to bring order out of the chaos at home and abroad. Dissatisfied, she secured the election of her cousin Charles Gustavus as her successor, abdicated in 1654 and embraced the Roman Catholic faith. She settled in Rome, where she became the patroness of letters and science and collected a great library which was afterward incorporated with that of the Vatican" (89, p. 615).

France

"France became the dominant power in Europe during this century. This was largely due to the genius of Richelieu, but also to his almost complete disregard for any law, human or divine, that opposed his ambitions for his country. He intrigued with Protestants when that suited his purpose, was the champion of Catholicism on occasion, oppressed the nation at home and schemed abroad--the type of statesman praised because he put the state above every other consideration. He aimed to make the power of France supreme in Europe and to make the king absolute in France. By intrigue, by diplomacy, by every other means, he succeeded in these ambitious projects. He crushed the Huguenots, suppressed the aristocracy and wiped out the local assemblies and courts with their old privileges. He did not live to see France the leading power of Europe, but his policy carried out, proved successful in the hands of others. When Louis XIII died, his son Louis XIV was but five years of age. He reigned 68 years. It looked as though, under a child ruler, France might lose her prestige, but Cardinal Mazarin continued Richelieu's policies, loading France with the taxes that eventually brought the Revolution in its train, to do so. When Mazarin died, Louis at 23 at once took the government into his own hands. For more than 50 years he was his own Prime Minister and gave attention to every detail. He waged four great wars, three of them in this century--that about the Spanish Netherlands (1667-1668),

that of the Protestant Netherlands (1672-1678), that of the League of Augsburg (1688-1697). He succeeded in extending his rule over certain Flemish towns, but his war with Holland proved a failure, the sturdy Dutch cutting the dikes, flooding their country, making the French army useless and driving the French fleet from the seas. Louis seized the free town of Strassburg (1681) without provocation and thus extended his kingdom to the Rhine. He revoked the Edict of Nantes which guaranteed religious freedom to the French Protestants, but only succeeded in depriving France of many worthy citizens, some of whom sought refuge in America to be sturdy upholders of liberty, and others in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State to be the backbone of independence there. A League of Nations was formed against Louis, embracing not only the Protestant countries, of England, Holland and Sweden, but also most of the Catholic powers of Europe, including Spain and the emperor. The war lasted 11 years. The French made important conquests but were unable to hold them and laid them waste. At the end of the war, all parties gave up the territory they had won, though Louis succeeded in retaining Strassburg" (9, p. 616).

Cromwell

*The most interesting character of the century is Oliver Cromwell. The son of a simple country gentleman, educated at Cambridge, he was returned by his university to the Shortland

and Long Parliaments. He became captain of a Parliamentary company of horses in 1642, and then colonel. He organized a regiment which, on account of its invincible courage, was known as the Ironsides. He was a prominent member of the High Court that signed the death warrant of Charles I. His position in the army gave him a controlling voice in the government, and after his expedition to Ireland (1649), he was made commander-in-chief. Later, defeating the Scotch (1651), and expelling the Rump Parliament, he was made Lord Protector of the Commonwealth (1653). He ruled practically alone. He was a benevolent autocrat who labored 'to make England great and to make her worthy of greatness.' His autocracy was tempered by his manifest desire to rule England in accordance with Scriptural precepts. He had the vindictiveness of the Old Testament deep in his character. His treatment of the Irish put an indelible stain on his memory. Over half a million of them were killed or banished. The best lands of the island were confiscated and granted to English and Scotch settlers. The famous Cromwellian settlement is called the 'curse of Cromwell' by the Irish. Disaffection has existed ever since. As Lord Protector, Cromwell ruled firmly and secured the respect of foreign countries and peace and prosperity at home. He made England the leading Protestant country and interposed whatever Protestantism on the Continent needed an ally. He protected the Huguenots, won the Duke

of Savoy to stop the persecution of the Vaudois and opposed the political policies of France and Spain except when they might favor Protestantism. Confident that the Pope was responsible for all opposition to Protestantism, he had him informed that unless there was peace, the sound of English guns would be heard in Rome. When he died unexpectedly of influenza (1658), he was succeeded as Lord Protector by his son Richard, timid and without resolution, who yielded to the disaffection of the army and resigned his office the next year. Anarchy seemed in prospect, but General Monk, commander of the army in Scotland, took control and the Long Parliament restored the Stuarts in the person of the son of Charles I* (89, p. 616).

The Revolt Against Puritanism

*Charles II was received with the heartiest of welcomes. His reign saw a long reaction against the gloomy Puritanism of the preceding generation, during which morality sank to a low ebb, the drama declined, women appeared as actresses and literature became a pander. England suffered severely from plague (1605) and the great fire in London (1666) wiped out most of the town but gave opportunity for reconstruction, with widened streets and created much more healthful conditions. Sir Christopher Wren was put in charge of the reconstruction and built a number of handsome buildings. Great dread existed lest Roman Catholics gain any power in England and the

announcement of the discovery of a Popish plot (1678) to kill all Protestants, beginning with the king and Parliament, caused great excitement. Informers came forward to testify and Titus Oates particularly gained notoriety. Many Catholics, convicted on the testimony of perjured witnesses, were condemned. The revulsion of feeling over the injustice done led to the Habeas Corpus Act (1679) which has stood ever since as the safeguard of personal liberty all over the English-speaking world" (89, p. 617).

John Sobieski

"The hero of the century is John Sobieski, the brave king of Poland (1629-1696). He had risen by merit to the command of the Polish army when Poland was the most important country in central Europe and had been especially successful against the Cassacks and Tartars, encroaching on their frontiers. Later, when the Turks invaded Poland, he won several battles from them and his crowning victory of Chocim cost them 20,000 men and many guns. He became a national hero and was unanimously elected king (1674). His reign was occupied in battling with the Turks. Finding it vain to attack the Poles, the Turks turned against Austria, laid siege to Vienna, from which the Emperor Leopold fled, after imploring Sobieski's help. In spite of political reasons to the contrary and Louis XIV's counsel against it, Sobieski at once went to the rescue and with an army of scarcely more than 75,000 men,

defeated some 300,000 Turks and saved Vienna. The victory was largely due to the prestige of Sobieski's name, for the Turks stood their ground until they heard that 'The Northern Lion' was on the field, when they lost courage and broke in confusion" (89, p. 617).

Political Revolution

"What has been called the political revolution of modern times begins after the peace of Westphalia (1648). For the next century and a half the seeds of political disaffection grew to reach fruition in the French Revolution (1789). The revolutionary spirit was fostered by the frequent wars of the time, so many of them undertaken merely for the benefit of particular reigning families, that the period has been called in history the 'era of dynastic wars.' The culmination of arbitrary power centered in one man was reached in Louis XIV of France, who may not have used the expression attributed to him often 'L'Etat c'moi--I am the state,'--but his career exemplified that motto. Since Henry VIII's time, the divine right of a monarch in England had become more explicit and was formally claimed by James I and the Stuarts after him. The second half of the 17th century brought with it the beginning of the reaction against this exaggeration of the place of royal authority and thoroughly prepared for the revolutionary movements of the next century" (89, p. 617).

Cultural Progress in American Colonies

"All of the colonies suffered much from the Indians except Pennsylvania, where William Penn paid them for their land and always treated them fairly. Most of the colonies developed slowly but by the beginning of the 18th century, had begun to show some signs of the power they were to be. Unfortunately the colonists brought with them all the prejudices of their former European environment. Even those who had been driven from Europe by religious persecutions refused to permit religious liberty in America. Only the Quakers of Philadelphia allowed freedom of worship. As a result, Philadelphia, though latest founded and situated far from the sea, soon became the largest city of the colonies and the centre of their cultural and commercial life. Massachusetts grew very rapidly, receiving some 20,000 immigrants before the middle of the century, and Harvard College, the first collegiate institution in English America until the 18th century, was founded in 1638. The first book printed in the English colonies was the Massachusetts Bay Psalm Book (1639)" (89, p. 617).

Vincent de Paul

"The great social worker of the century, the type of social reformer that was to come, is Vincent de Paul (b. 1576; d. 1660), perhaps the greatest benefactor of the poor that ever lived. Ordained priest at 25, he was captured by Turkish

pirates shortly after and sold in Tunis as a slave. After two years, he escaped with his master, a renegade Christian, whom he brought back to his religion. After this experience, the one ambition of his life was to do good to those in need. The poor in the country places in France were sadly neglected-- little better than slaves on the land. He organized missions and conferences of charity for their benefit. By his enthusiastic and yet thoroughly practical ways, he won to his aid a number of distinguished patrons. Then he took up the care of the convicts in the galleys. While on land, they were crowded, in chains, in damp dungeons, their only food black bread and water, and they were covered with vermin and ulcers. He went among them, bringing them food, medicines and, above all, human solace. Nothing was repulsive to him and he dressed the ugliest of wounds. He began his work in Paris and when it attracted the attention of the king, Louis XIII, he was appointed Royal Almoner, he took advantage of the position to visit Marseilles and Bordeaux. In each place a hospital was erected for the convicts. Their moral regeneration was even more his care than their physical improvement. He recognized the need of special training for the assistants in such social work for the missions and charities, and so he established an association for this purpose. He gathered around him as an auxiliary a number of ladies of the nobility of France, organized as the Ladies of Charity. Through them

he collected immense sums of money which were distributed to the poor. Foundling children were his special care, particularly after he discovered that sometimes they were deliberately deformed by scoundrels who thus appealed to public pity. The municipal asylum for foundlings was little better than a place for them to die. The 17th century was a time of war, with poverty rife, and the children suffering above all, so Vincent next organized the Daughters of Charity, young women who were willing to devote their lives to social work. This foundation still exists as the well-known Sisters of Charity, all over the world. Poverty became so bitter that Vincent had to organize for the shelter and employment of some 40,000 unemployed near and around Paris. His reputation and prestige enabled him to get the needed help. The king granted the lands of the Salpetriere for a hospital and lodgings. In what is known as the French Period of the Thirty Years' War, the war zone, as in our own time, was in Lorraine, Franche-Comte and Champagne, around Metz, Toul and Verdun, for nearly 25 years. Vincent came to the assistance of the poor people there, secured hundreds of thousands of dollars at a time when money was worth five or six times as much as now. He established a periodical, Le Magasin Charitable, in order to publish accounts of what was done, to call attention to special needs, and touch the hearts of others by letters received from those helped. He founded a series of public kitchens to feed the

poor, and also to instruct them how to prepare their food economically and advantageously. He himself gave minute instructions as to the quantity of fat, butter, vegetables, and bread people should use and the mode of preparing the soup. He founded societies to bury the dead and clear away dirt to prevent disease. These were under the Sisters of Charity. He distributed seeds so that the war-stricken people might prepare their harvest. The triumph of his charity is the foundation of a special organization for the relief of the impoverished nobility. In the midst of all this work, he lived to be 85 years of age and wrote some 30,000 important letters, all of them without exception for some good purpose for others" (89, pp. 617-618).

Summary: The Puritan Age

- 1620. Voyage of the Mayflower. The Pilgrims land at Plymouth Rock. Slavery introduced in Virginia.
- 1625. Charles I of England begins to reign.
- 1627. Siege of Rochelle. Torricelli invents the barometer. Drabellius invents the thermometer.
- 1629. Cardinal Richelieu becomes Prime Minister of France.
- 1631. Battle of Leipzig.
- 1632. Death of Gustavus Adolphus at the battle of Lutzen.
- 1641. The Irish rebellion and massacre of Protestants.
- 1642. Civil War begins in England. Battle of Edgehill.
- 1643. Louis IV of France begins to reign. Wars of the Fronde.

1644. Cromwell's victory at Marston Moor over the English royalist forces. The Chinese Ming dynasty overthrown and the Manchu rule established.

1645. Complete defeat at Naseby of King Charles of England.

1648. End of Thirty Years' War.

1649. Charles I of England beheaded.

1653. Cromwell becomes Lord Protector of England.

1660. The English restoration. Charles II becomes King of Great Britain. Death of the great social reformer of the century, Vincent de Paul.

1665. The great plague of London in which 68,000 persons died.

1666. The great fire of London which in three days destroyed 13,000 houses.

1667. French invade the Netherlands.

1668. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (89, p. 60).

1674. Nienn Amsterdam finally became British by treaty and was named New York (59, p. 285).

1678. The habeas corpus act passed in England (89, p. 60).

1682. La Salle claimed Louisiana territory for France (59, p. 285).

1683. The Turks capture Vienna.

1685. James II becomes king of Great Britain. The Newtonian philosophy first published. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

1688. War of the Spanish succession. Revolution in Great Britain. James II abdicates.

1689. Peter the Great becomes tsar of Russia. William and Mary crowned rulers of Great Britain (89, p. 60).

Section V: The Age of Dependence

Eighteenth Century Slowness

"Carlyle made the 18th century for readers who accepted his ideas, and they were legion, a period of extreme decadence and even degradation of interest in all that was best for humanity. He called it the 'age of prose, of lying sham, the fraudulent bankrupt century, the reign of Beelzebub, the peculiar era of Cant.' Frederic Harrison came in defence of the period with the suggestion that 'invectives against a century are more unprofitable than indictments against a nation,' and pointed out that almost all of Carlyle's heroes of the modern time apart from Oliver Cromwell are 'children and representatives of that unspeakable epoch' from Frederick of Prussia, Mirabeau, Danton and George Washington to Samuel Johnson, Burns, Watt, Arkwright and others. The century was so slow in its interest in architecture that it is not surprising that Ruskin thundered against it that 'Satan must have had a hand in the designing of the churches of the Georgian era,' and there is no doubt that its art and education were far below the standards of preceding centuries, but on

the other hand it is the greatest of musical centuries, the pioneer of physical science development, and its sad history of utter neglect for the poor is redeemed to a great extent by the upward movements which made themselves felt very widely at the end of the century in politics, economics and social welfare, especially as regards the insane, prisoners and the defectives" (90, p. 29).

Social Conditions

"The saddest chapter of the 18th century is that of the social conditions. In order to explain the French Revolution so much attention has been devoted to social conditions in France that there has come to be a very general impression that social abuses were at the worst in that country. As a matter of fact with the exception of England the poorer classes were better off in France than anywhere else in Europe. The awful picture of the Ancien Regime is true, but it should be remembered that the German lower classes were in still worse condition and the Russian serfs were quite literally slaves and life and death were practically in the hands of their masters. The nobility in all the countries apparently felt themselves to be of quite different clay from the human beings below them in the social order and treated them accordingly. With the coming of the capitalist class as the result of industrial revolution something of this same feeling was to develop on the part of rich employers to employees. Whenever

human nature has the chance it imposes on those below it and it must not be forgotten that the Declaration of Independence in the last quarter of the century was written and most strongly upheld by men who thoroughly believed in the institution of negro slavery and insisted on maintaining it for nearly a full century.

"The most shocking element in social conditions was the utter neglect of the wards of the state, prisoners, the insane, feeble-minded, and the poor. The awful conditions which existed in prisons and hospitals were described by John Howard toward the end of the century who brought about a beginning of reform. The prisoners were huddled together utterly regardless of their influence on each other, the young and the old, the first offender and the hardened criminal, and the treatment of women was almost worse than that of men. Hundreds of women in London prisons were crowded together, some of them women of the streets and some accused of little thefts to keep their children alive, and with many of the prisoners children were allowed to be there because there was no one else but their mother to care for them. Nearly 250 crimes were called felonies and were subject to punishment by hanging. Poor women were often hanged for having passed a counterfeit pound note which sometimes they themselves did not know was a counterfeit and the fact that they had children at their breast or were at an early stage of

pregnancy was no mitigation of their offense. The insane who had ever shown any sign of violence were shackled and were seldom allowed to be free again. The quarters in which the insane were cared for were filthy beyond description and they were often confined in cells underground or chained to the walls of dark rooms into which the sunlight never penetrated. Quaker philanthropists in England began a crusade for the reform of insane asylums which slowly gained ground and the movement spread to America. It had been the custom to permit visitors in search of amusement to stand at windows where they could view the antics of the insane, a small sum of money being collected for this privilege. This amusement became so popular that many thousands indulged in it every year and the fee constituted an important source of revenue. Pinel in France dared to strike the shackles off the insane in the great asylum and hospital at Bicetre though a great many of his medical colleagues were convinced that it was a dangerous proceeding. The care of the defectives and for the poor in the poor-houses continued to be almost unspeakably bad until well on into the 19th century, and indeed in some cases until our own time.

"Personal liberty on the Continent had sunk to a very low ebb indeed. Most of the rulers were absolute monarchs and there being no written guarantee of rights men had almost no redress against the monarch's ill will in their regard if

he wished to exercise it. In France particularly the king might order the imprisonment of a subject no matter what his rank and keep him in prison for any length of time that he wished. This process was accomplished under the sealed document issued by the king called a Lettre de Cachet. This mode of imprisonment had been very much abused under Louis XIV, but the abuse reached a climax under Louis XV, when it is said that over 150,000 sealed orders were issued. Sometimes men thus imprisoned would be entirely forgotten and the reason for their imprisonment be quite unknown. A clause of Magna Charta made any procedure denying an accused the right of jury trial a violation of the rights of Englishmen, but in other countries the practice was quite common" (90, p. 31).

Political Changes

"Certain great political changes which took place in the 18th century had far-reaching effects on subsequent generations, some of which are only working out to legitimate conclusions in our own time. Apart from the creation of the American Republic, itself a great significance for the course of civilization, the three most important political changes were the establishment of Prussia as a kingdom (1701), the rise of Russia to be a great European power which began under Peter the Great (d. 1725), and the establishment of British power in India which led eventually to the erection of the British

Empire. In the light of recent events probably the first of these must be considered the most important. The electorate of Brandenburg, whose ruler was one of those privileged to elect the emperor, came under the Hohenzollern family late in the Middle Ages. It was a narrow strip of territory less than 50 miles east and west of the little town of Berlin. It is the special pride of the family that each one of the reigning heads added something to his ancestral domain. The ruler was known only as Margrave and was considered of no special importance in German life. Prussia which fell to them by inheritance at the beginning of the 17th century had been originally ruled by the Teutonic Knights who had conquered its pagan inhabitants in a Crusade in the 13th century and continued to rule it through their grand master. At the time of the religious revolt in Germany in the early 16th century the Teutonic Order was dissolved, and their lands were secularized and out of them the duchy of Prussia erected, the grand master of the time occupying what had hitherto been an elective office now becoming the Duke of Prussia with the right of inheritance. He was a relative of the Elector of Brandenburg and when this branch of the Hohenzollern died out the duchy was united to Brandenburg, the Hohenzollerns now ruling over such distant provinces as Cleves and Mark in the Rhineland and Prussia far to the east. The great elector as he is called succeeded in welding these two widely separated

territories into a strong state. His son, Frederick I, obtained from the emperor, for military aid rendered, permission to change his title from elector to king though he was but king in Prussia as he did not rule over the whole of Prussia, but he preferred this title because his Prussian dominions were outside the Imperial limits and he was more independent. After the partition of Poland his title became King of Prussia.

"His son, Frederick William I, though noted more for his eccentricities and for his rude boorish manners than for interest in anything higher, consolidated the Prussian dominions, created an army of nearly 100,000 men, drilled and trained probably better than any other soldiers of the time. He was almost miserly in his penuriousness with regard to anything except military expenses, reduced the number of his court servants, coined the family silver and sold most of the royal jewels at auction. He left his son, Frederick II, a magnificent army and a well-filled military chest. Frederick II, to be known in history as the Great, whose interest in literature and the arts had disgusted his father in his youth, had no sooner ascended the throne (1740), at the age of 28, than he proceeded to use the military advantages which his father had secured for him to the utmost, Maria Theresa having ascended the throne in Austria the same year, Frederick taking advantage of the expected weakness of a female ruler, without any reasonable grounds laid claim to Silesia and began the War of the Austrian Succession. He enlarged his territories in

every way that he could, showed great military genius in his campaigns and devoted himself to the encouragement of arts and sciences, the building of public structures for music and libraries and built a series of palaces, not all of them in good architectural taste, but not behind that of the century in which he lived. He especially enriched the city of Berlin with public buildings and though he encouraged French more than German literature did much for the intellectual life of the Prussian people. Under him Prussia became an important power in Europe.

"The second of these great political changes of the century was the rise of Russia. This was mainly due to one man, Peter, to whom history has given the title of The Great. The house of Romanoff came to the throne of Russia on the extinction of the dynasty Rurik, 1598. The 17th century was spent in breaking the power of the nobles, encouraging mining, manufactures and commerce and increasing Russian territory in the west at the expense of Poland. Peter The Great came to the throne in 1699 and reigned till 1725. He insisted on introducing the ways of European civilization, shaving off the beards of his nobles and cutting short their long gowns himself when they refused to obey his order in the matter, for he declared that people so dressed and bearded could not be good soldiers. He made war on the Turks and conquered Azov. Just at the beginning of the 18th century, Peter made

his way to Holland because he felt that Russia must have an outlet to the sea and that Holland could teach her lessons in shipbuilding. He worked as a ship carpenter for a while at Zaandam in Holland and studied the shipbuilding methods of the English on the Thames. He returned to put down an insurrection in Russia and the Cossacks under Mazeppa (1707), and then proceeded to take territory away from Sweden which would allow him an outlet to the Baltic Sea. He established nearby his capital, Petersburg, his desired 'window into Europe,' at immense expense, setting it up on piles in the swamps. In spite of the fact that Peter was succeeded by his wife, Catherine, who reigned for several years, and that between Elizabeth and Catherine II for most of the rest of the 18th century Russia was ruled by women of the most licentious personal character, whose favorites had much to do at least with the internal affairs of the empire, the country continued to gather strength and importance in Europe until at the beginning of the 19th century it was one of the strong factors against Napoleon on many occasions. German intrigue riddled the country, however, and especially under Elizabeth and Catherine II succeeded in Germanizing the nobility to a great extent and especially the bureaucracy and keeping the Russian people in the worst possible condition of serfdom and subjection.

"The third important political event of the 18th century was the subjection of India to England. About the middle of

the 18th century the French, owing to the genius of Dupleix who had been governor of Pondicherry since 1741, came into prominence in Indian affairs. Dupleix dreamed of a French empire in India following the lines of the old Mogul Empire which had fallen at the beginning of the 18th century. Robert Clive who went to India as a clerk took on himself to make headway against Dupleix who was unsupported by his own government. In the midst of the wars between England and France which occurred around 1750, the American events of which are Braddock's defeat and the French and Indian War, and during the Seven Years War, Clive gradually built up the Indian Empire, often under conditions that would not have been approved at home but that once concluded were accepted as accomplished facts. As a result at the beginning of the 19th century some 300,000,000 people in India were under English rule" (90, pp. 29-31).

Wars

"What is particularly notable in the history of the 18th century is its wars in almost unbroken succession dictated by royal ambition or for dynastic reasons, while during much of the time king's mistresses or licentious women monarchs ruled the internal affairs of the kingdoms. The war of the Spanish succession (1701-1714) began with the century. The same first year of the new century saw the active carrying on of what was called the Northern War, lasting from 1700 to

1721. In 1718 war broke out between Spain and Austria, in the midst of which there was a formal declaration of war by England against Spain, and peace was not made until 1720. In the meantime the rebellion in favor of the Pretender, as he was called, the heir of the Stuarts who assumed the name of James III, came to Scotland in 1715 and was not suppressed until the following year. The Treaty of Utrecht (1714), which concluded the War of the Spanish Succession, changed the map of Europe as no previous treaty, not even that of Westphalia at the end of the Thirty Years War (1648), had done, but instead of settling the politics of Europe established a number of foci of irritation eminently calculated to unsettle them. Naples and Milan were given to Austria and the Austrian rule in Italy thus begun was to continue for a century and a half, always the subject of serious disturbance from within and without. Austria received the Spanish Netherlands, now to be called the Austrian Netherlands and to be a similar focus of disturbance. The Bourbon Philip V was allowed to rule in Spain on the condition that the French and Spanish possessions should never be under the rule of a single individual. Great Britain received Nova Scotia and Newfoundland and the Hudson Bay region, thus precluding the expulsion of French from North America, and Gibraltar which brought with it the command of the Straits but has been a frequent subject of political irritation ever since. These wars of the first

quarter of the century were only typical of the period. There was scarcely a year during the century when two important European powers were not at war; there were long series of years when a number of the states were embroiled with each other. The War of the Spanish Succession had its counterpart in what is known as the War of the Polish Succession (1733), between Austria, Russia and Denmark, with France, Spain and Sardinia becoming involved. When the Emperor Charles VI of Austria died (1740), he left no sons, but had negotiated a treaty, the Pragmatic Sanction (1731), to secure the succession of his daughter Maria Theresa. The very year of his death saw the War of Austrian Succession. In 1739 England and Spain were at war and in 1745 Charles Edward Stuart, the Young Pretender as he was called, encouraged by France, led an insurrection of the highlanders. This was terminated by the bloody battle of Culloden under 'the butcher' Cumberland. In 1748 the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was signed and the various countries of Europe made mutual restitution of their conquests so as to assure future peace, only Spain and Prussia being the gainers. It was to no purpose, for France and England became embroiled in war in the early fifties; in 1756 came the Seven Years War involving most of the important countries of Europe" (90, p. 29).

Literature

"The literature of the 18th century, opening with The Rape of the Lock . . . must surely be considered as of

significant import in the history of literature. It includes in Germany the work of Winckelmann, Lessing; in France the writings of Montesquieu, of Voltaire and the Encyclopedists, and in England such historians as Hume, Robertson and Gibbon, as well as such potent writers of English prose and verse as Addison, Steele, Samuel Johnson. Frederic Harrison has suggested that it is the first age since that of Augustus which ever left inimitable pictures of its own daily home existence. The Spectator, Walpole's and Fanny Burney's letters are the novels of Richardson, Fielding and Smollett have given a picture of the times that has probably never been equalled. What is interesting above all about the literature of the 18th century is its interest in ordinary human beings. The problems of men as men were here first stated in literature and sympathy aroused for even the lowest of mortals. Gay's Beggars Opera, Crabbe's Tales and Defoe's and Swift's romances are representative in this regard. Defoe and Swift wrote from so close to the heart of human nature that their best works are forever popular" (90, p. 34).

Music

"This century contains the most important chapter in the history of music. Scarlatti (1659-1725) who wrote some hundred operas, a number of oratorios and an immense amount of ecclesiastical music, introduced three novelties destined to influence music deeply. The two principal of these are

the Sinfonia or Overture and the accompanied recitative. Every country in Europe took up music and made distinct contributions to it. Purcell's work in the 17th century in England had finely prepared the public mind, and Handel and Bach completed the organization of the art of music on a firm footing. It has been said that 'these two great composers of the 18th century, wrote every combination of musical notes that down to our latest times has ever been employed with good effect' 'The more the works of these masters are studied the more they are found to foreshadow the supposed novelties in harmony, employed by subsequent artists.' The period includes also the life and works of Gluck who did much to unite music and plot in opera into one harmonious whole. Piccini, Gluck's rival in the famous musical war in Paris, was a much less important musician, but he had dramatic power and real musical talent. . . .

"Handel's oratorios were given to crowded houses and as Frederic Harrison has said 'the ill designed churches of the period were often crowded with people who were deeply touched by the sacred music given and whose emotions were heartfelt and not at all the result of any fashionable or conventional feeling'" (90, p. 34).

Meaning of "Rococo"

"Rococo had its birth in France, and reached its supreme development in Germany. If anyone is to be named the

actual originator of the style, the honour should be shared by two Parisian architects, Robert de Cotte and Gilles-Marie Oppenord, both pupils of Jules Hardouin-Mansart, the famous architect of Versailles. It was de Cotte who finished the Grand Trianon and the chapel at Versailles, whilst his chief work was the hotel de la Vrilliere in Paris. Oppenord was a Dutchman by birth who had studied in Italy; and Max Osborn, in the book already mentioned, rightly says that this latter fact is not without significance, in view of the undoubted relationship that exists between the late Italian Baroque style with its aspirations towards freedom of movement and the new style in which that full freedom was attained.

"Rococo begins as a style of inferior decoration. Baroque had developed to a point at which the interior had become a sham replica of the exterior--colonnades, architraves, and all the panoply of a Baroque facade reversed on the inner side of the building. The discovery of de Cotte and Oppenord really amounted to no more than a recognition of the fact that the conditions determining the material of external decoration no longer applied to these decorations inside the building; in short, that within the shelter of four walls you could use a plastic stucco instead of stone. Once given this plastic medium, the will to freedom knew no bounds, and the characteristic mannerisms of the Rococo style were evolved.

"It would be a mistake, here as elsewhere in the history of art, to impute a change of style to a discovery of material. On the whole it is probably truer to say that the emergent 'will' to some spiritual manifestation (in this case toward 'freedom' in contradistinction to classical restraint) is the first factor and the one which determines the changeover to a new material" (57, pp. 110-111).

Monarchs

"The monarchs of the century whose names are best known are the Georges I, II, III, in England and Louis XV in France. The English were ruled for nearly 100 years by kings who could not speak their language, or but as a foreign tongue, and whose interests were much more in their German Hanoverian dominions and mistresses than their English people. Perhaps the political conditions of the time are best illustrated by the fact that their rule caused comparatively little disaffection in England itself, though fortunately it provoked the American Revolution, which brought independence to the United States. Louis XV, succeeding to the magnificent dominions created by the genius of Louis XIV, whose personality subjugated the French people and set an unfortunate example for other European monarchs, proved utterly unworthy of his great position and allowed himself to be ruled by designing mistresses. His reign increased the debt and the taxes of the French nation until Louis XVI fell heir to an impossible

situation. In spite of Louis XV's weakness, France at the end of his reign (1774) had even more territory than at the death of his grandfather, Louis XIV (1715). Social conditions had however sunk to a level almost indescribable and the reaction against them was inevitable and could not be long delayed" (90, p. 29).

Maria Theresa

"The greatest woman character of the century in the best sense of the word was Maria Theresa, queen of Austria or 'king' as her Magyar subjects loved to call her, and finally Austrian empress. Her father had anticipated trouble for his daughter's rule and made the treaty called the Pragmatic Sanction to secure it, but his worst portents were confirmed and Maria Theresa was scarcely seated on the throne before she became embroiled in a series of wars for the preservation and integrity of her states. Probably no woman in history has ever taken her duties as sovereign more seriously. On the other hand as mother of 17 children she took her domestic duties quite as seriously and was a model wife and mother. Her letters to Marie Antoinette during the French troubles show her maternal solicitude at its best and her wisdom as a ruler and administrator. She treated her subjects very much as she did her family, with the most loving care and profound wisdom. She practiced strict economy, encouraged manufactures and commerce, reformed the army with the idea of preventing

bloodshed by being prepared for war, and organized a system of military colonies on the frontiers so as to prevent invasion and save her subjects from the worst hardships of war, that of having the enemy in their midst. Above all Maria Theresa won the love of all the different peoples who composed her multilingual kingdom. It has always been a historical mystery why the heterogeneous peoples who constituted the Austrian Empire have hung together and it has often been supposed that it was a mere question of armed forces and repression. There can be no doubt, however, that there was real attachment to the House of Hapsburg and above all Maria Theresa's long reign of nearly 50 years had much to do with creating a spirit of solidarity among these peoples. Her readiness to do for the suffering among her people was literally unbounded. It is said that once she was driving through a part of the country where famine was rife and people were starving. Passing by a mother seated at the roadside trying to nurse her child, and evidently unable to supply it with food, the empress threw a piece of money into her lap and told her to get something to eat, but the mother with tears in her eyes insisted that it would be too late to save her baby. The mother of 17 children might well be expected to be in a condition to supply the lack of infant food, and so the starving baby nursed at the Imperial breast and its life was saved. It is easy to understand that among peoples who

had traditions of acts of this kind on the part of their empress queen, deep feelings of affection would be aroused to become a tradition in favor of the family of which she was a member.

"The one thing that stains the reign of Maria Theresa is the partition of Poland. There is no doubt at all that she entered upon it with great unwillingness and felt that she was forced to take part lest there should be such a disturbance of frontiers and the balance of powers in central Europe as would leave her kingdom and people open to attack under unfavorable conditions. Perhaps another fault was the association of her son Joseph II in the government. Maria Theresa was a woman of heart and high administrative powers. Her son Joseph was an intellectual prig who was quite sure that humanity could be made better by rules and regulations and that men could be governed by sweet reasonableness and intellectual reform. His career as a ruler was an utter failure. He tried to make himself a benevolent autocrat for the benefit of his subjects and was so terribly disappointed by his failure that he died a broken-hearted man before he was 50" (90, p. 33).

Catherine the Great

"Women were destined to play an extremely important role in 18th century history. The reign of Queen Anne is a great

period in English history but unfortunately unworthy women were to be the most influential characters of the time. The most noteworthy of these whose career is typical in many ways of the lamentable political influences that were at work was Catherine II, the empress of Russia, who reigned from 1762 to 1796. She was not a native Russian, but a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst in upper Saxony. Her name Sophia Augusta was changed to Catherine on her admission into the Greek Church just before her marriage with Peter who had been selected to succeed his aunt, the Empress Elizabeth, on the throne of Russia. She was not the first thus to be lifted from obscurity to the high position of empress of the Russians, for her earliest predecessor in the 18th century, Catherine I, the wife of Peter the Great, who reigned for two years after his death, 1725-1727, was the natural daughter of a country girl in Livonia. The first Catherine, after having been the mistress of a series of Russian generals, attracted the attention of the tsar and became his mistress and subsequently his wife. She died at the early age of 40, her end being hastened by dissipation. She never learned to read or write, but she knew how to manage men. The second Catherine was quite as dissipated, and had even more administrative ability, but she had devoted herself to her own education until she came to be looked up to as one of the scholars of the time. She was a friend of Voltaire and of the Encyclopedists. She was a great believer

in the new social philosophy which they preached, and maintained correspondence with them. Her husband frittered away his life in senseless dissipation, but while the Empress Elizabeth lived, Catherine maintained some show of respectability and acquired deep influence over her. Her mode of life, however, soon became such as to make the paternity of her children a matter of grave doubt. With the death of Elizabeth the half-imbecile Peter, her husband, soon got into serious difficulty with his people and with his nobles, and Catherine through her lovers took advantage of this to secure the throne.

*All during her life Catherine continued to live most licentiously. One lover succeeded another, though one favorite, Potemkin, maintained his influence over Catherine for some 15 years, supplying her with new favorites when his mistress's personal inclination for himself suffered an interval or ceased entirely. Catherine's lovers are said to have cost Russia over \$100,000,000 at a time and under circumstances when money was worth at least five times as much as it is now. In spite of this utterly depraved personal character Catherine ruled Russia for Russia's advantage though not for the benefit of her subjects. She pursued relentlessly the policy of giving Russia an egress for its commerce by sea. She succeeded in bringing Courland with its Baltic coast line into the Russian Empire, had Poniatowski, and old lover,

elected to the throne of Poland, and finally brought about the infamous division of Poland--Catherine obtaining about two-thirds of the Polish territory. An insurrection of the people under Kosciusko, the Polish hero of the American Revolution, failed the Russian army stormed Warsaw and the last trace of Poland as an independent country was obliterated (1794). It was the foulest deed in history. War with the Turks led to Catherine's conquest of Bessarabia and other countries down the Caspian and came near realizing the Russian empress' dream of driving the Turks entirely from Europe and the establishment of her own empire at Constantinople. She was completely alienated from all sympathy for French ideas by the progress of the French Revolution and prohibited the publication of French works in Russia. French admirers used to call her the Semiramis of the North and her career, political and moral, amply justifies the comparison, with the moral balance in favor of the ancient ruler who anticipated Catherine by some 2,500 years. It was the presence of such rulers as herself and Louis XV during the 18th century that brought about the reaction against monarchical government which was to attract so much attention during the 19th century" (90, pp. 33-34).

Education

"Education reached a very low ebb in the 18th century so that Cardinal Newman suggests the middle of the century as

representing probably the lowest period in the history of university education, when the students at Oxford and Cambridge scarcely more than 'ate their terms,' that is, lived in residence to receive their degrees, while Winckelmann, wanting to teach Plato at the end of the century, had to have manuscript copies of the author because no Greek edition had been issued in Germany for over 100 years" (90, p. 35).

Science

"The 18th is above all the century of the fundamental organization of the physical sciences in their modern form. The period crystalized the data of scientific information, till then held in solution, and gave the physical sciences the form they have maintained since. Physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, comparative anatomy, electricity and psychology as well as the elements of social science both in history and in statics took shape. Lancisi at the beginning of the century in Italy revolutionized methods and results in the sciences related to medicine. Morgagni founded pathology. Auenbrugger initiated clinical diagnosis, and the example of such men as Percival Pott, after whom Pott's disease and Pott's fracture are named, gave a new impetus to accuracy of surgical diagnosis. The Vienna School of Medicine began its work as an inheritance from some great students of Boerhaave at the beginning of the century, and such men as Cullen, Heberden, Currie, Pothergill. Huxham left an indelible

impress upon medical history. Franklin, Galvani, Volta laid the foundations of the science of electricity. La Grange declared that Newton, whose Principia received its final form in this century, 'was the greatest genius that ever existed.' Beside him deserve to be named such men as Halley of the comet, Euler, the Bernouillis, the elder Herschel and Legendre" (90, p. 35).

Philosophy

"Philosophy was the subject of a good deal of attention and exploitation usually on the part of men not directly connected with the universities. It is the age of Bishop Berkeley in England, whose stay in America influenced Jonathan Edwards, of Voltaire and the Encyclopedists in France and of Kant in Germany. The work of these men lived to influence the 19th century. Religion was at low ebb and it was an age of scepticism. The work of the devoted John Wesley in England, which proved the incentive for the Oxford Movement of the succeeding century, was the first index of reaction. French philosophy in its atheistic aspects was curiously enough a child of English scepticism. Voltaire and the French Encyclopedists attracted attention rather by the brilliancy of their style, the keenness of their wit and their biting satire than by depth of thought. Voltaire himself pronounced the period an 'age of trivialities'" (90, p. 35).

Spanish Exploration in North America

"Fearing loss of territory to France, the Spaniards permanently occupied Texas in 1720, mainly through the efforts of the Marquis of Aguayo, governor of Coahuila" (39, p. 492).

French Exploration

"In 1701, Detroit founded by Cadillac, to control the entrance from Lake Erie to Lake Huron and to control the trade with the Illinois country. Antonine Crozat was granted a monopoly of the trade in the territory from Illinois to the coast. Crozat surrendered his patent (1717) and Louisiana was in the same year taken over by the Campagnie d'Occident, which became the Campagnie des Indes (1719)" (39, p. 507).

Japanese Wood Block Prints

"The most interesting development in painting was the so-called ukiyo-e school, a school of popular artists who chose for their subject matter, not Chinese scenes and historical events, but the people, street scenes, and landscapes of contemporaneous Japan. The style was introduced in the 17th century and found its most popular expression in the prints of the great wood-block masters of the 18th and first half of the 19th centuries" (39, p. 546).

Methodism

"John Wesley and his brother Charles returned from Georgia, set up the little groups of evangelical Christians out of which

came the Wesleyan societies, and, after the death of John Wesley (1791), the various independent Methodist Churches. George Whitefield, their great collaborator, was ordained in 1736. The Methodists were emotional and revivalistic, but politically conservative. The movement was probably important in preventing the spread of political radicalism in 18th century England" (39, p. 434).

Summary: The Age of Dependence

1701. Frederick (III) Elector of Brandenburg is crowned first king of Prussia, 18 Jan.

1702. Anne, Queen of Great Britain, begins her reign.

1703. St. Petersburg is founded by Peter the Great.

1704. Battle of Blenheim.

1707. The union of Scotland with England is ratified and the first parliament of Great Britain assembles.

1712. Newcomer's steam engine invented. James Watt improved it in 1769.

1714. George I, Elector of Hanover, becomes King of Great Britain.

1715. Scotland revolts; the Stuart Pretender appears, but his supporters are defeated at Sheriffmuir. Louis XIV of France dies.

1717. The Turks are defeated at Belgrade.

1718. Charles XII of Sweden is killed at the siege of Frederickshall, Norway.

1722. Peter the Great assumes the title of Tsar of Russia.

1725. Death of Peter the Great. Persecution of Protestants in France.

1727. George II becomes King of Great Britain.

1728. Rise of Methodism in England.

1733. France and Poland at war.

1736. Kien-Lung ascends the throne of China. He receives embassies from Russia, Holland and Great Britain.

1739. Nadir, Shah of Persia, conquers the greater part of Mogul Empire.

1740. Frederick the Great begins to reign. Maria Theresa becomes Queen of Hungary.

1743. The Allies defeat the French at Dettingen.

1744. Great Britain declares war against France, 31 March. Commodore Anson completed his voyage around the world.

1745. Battle of Fontenoy, 30 April. British forces take Cape Breton. N. S. Rebellion in Scotland. English forces defeated at Gladsmuir, 21 Sept.

1746. English forces defeated at Falkirk, 17 Jan. Scottish forces defeated at Culloden, 16 April, and the rebellion suppressed.

1747. Defeat of the allied army at Lafeldt. British victory over the French fleet. The Prince of Orange becomes Stadtholder.

1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle between Great Britain, Spain, Austria and Holland.

1752. Calendar revised in Great Britain, Sept. 3 becoming Sept. 14.

1756. Seven Years' War begins. Rupture between Great Britain and France.

1757. Damien's conspiracy against Louis XV. Prussian victory at Rosbach over French and Austrians, 5 Nov. King of Prussia becomes master of Silesia.

1759. France loses Canada in the final battle of the Heights of Abraham.

1760. George III begins his reign.

1763. Seven Years' War ends with Frederick victorious. Peace ratified at Paris between Great Britain, France and Spain.

1764. The British Parliament grants Mr. Harrison \$50,000 for discovering the longitude by his chronometer.

Section VI: The Age of Independence

Literature

"In literature the classical and didactic 18th century gradually gave way before the romantic early 19th, though not without a struggle. Percy's Reliques aroused Sir Walter Scott first to romantic poetry and then to be the founder of a great movement in fiction" (51, p. 357). In poetry Wordsworth, Keats, Shelley, Byron, Coleridge, and Burns were the

great figures of the English romantic movement. In Germany, Herder, Schiller, and Goethe were outstanding.

Music

"Haydn, often spoken of as the father of the symphony, contributed greatly to the development of music and some of the sons of the great Sebastian Bach have an enduring place in the history of musical art. Mozart whose untimely death at the age of 35 cut him off in the flower of his achievement is one of the greatest musicians of all time. Before the end of the century Beethoven had rounded the symphony into its modern form and left the world eternally his debtor for his marvelous command over notes. The opera comique of the French which dates from early in the 18th century, the distinction from grand opera being that there was spoken dialogue interspersed with the music, provided opportunity for the development of lighter music that was to occupy so much attention in modern times" (90, p. 34).

"Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756-1791) had broken down under the impact of social crisis. As a young man he had left the security of a court musicianship, was never able to find other employment, and paid for his daring with a short, pitiful life in poverty and burial in potter's field. Still, smiling under tears, he created an almost unbelievable wealth of works in all the fields of music, from songs to operas,

from piano pieces to symphonies. Even within the opera, he covered the whole expanse from the Italian buffa and seria to the German Singspiel. He not only mastered the styles of Germany, France and Italy side by side; he integrated them into a higher, supranational whole. 'Reconciling beauty and character, German and Italian spirit, the tragic and the comic, drama and music, voices and instruments, melos and counterpoint, he was graced in a blissful moment of history to hold the scales of style in perfect balance.'

"When Mozart passed away at the age of 35, with his Magic Flute completed and a Requiem left as a torso, Ludwig van Beethoven (1770-1827) was coming of age. Beethoven's works seldom smile and rarely cry; they sometimes laugh; but most often they show the superhuman tension of a hero fighting for peace, perfection and truth. More than Haydn or Mozart, Beethoven expressed himself, his suffering, and his struggle; but unlike the romantics after him, he elaborated and remodeled his works in a long process of transformation until they left the stage of personal confession and attained an all-human sublimation. Beethoven was the first composer who (his boyhood excepted) did not accept or even desire a fixed position in life. And he was the first who wrote comparatively little on commission for some demanding master or church. Thus he left one single opera (Fidelio, 1804-1814) against the 20 of Mozart's, 9 symphonies against the more than

100 by Haydn, one violin concerto against Mozart's six. But each work stands in its own right, in a vein and a form of its own. And probably for the first time in history, his last works, among them the three last, esoteric quartets of 1825-1826, were couched in a language beyond the comprehension of the contemporaries and had to be rediscovered in later decades. The fatal divorce of 'modern' composers from their contemporary audience had set in.

"This is why the immediate influence of this giant was less than we should expect. It was nonexistent in the operatic composers of his time, of whom only the four most important may be mentioned. In Paris, Etienne Mehul (1763-1817) kept the noble tradition of French opera alive; also in Paris, and later in Berlin, the Italian, Gasparo Spontini (1774-1815), revived the heroic opera in the wake of Gluck but led it eventually down the path of soulless showmanship; all over the Old World and the Continent, the Italian, Gioacchino Rossini (1792-1868), began to enchant the opera fans with the sweetish melodies and neck-breaking coloraturas of his operas; and in Germany, Carl Maria von Weber (1786-1826) raised the German Singspiel in his Freischutz to heights that it had never achieved before. In the great works of the 1820's, Der Freischutz (1821), Euryanthe (1823), and Oberon (1826), Weber firmly established the romantic opera with, poetically, its predilection for mysterious extrahuman powers and, musically, its stress on descriptive harmony and orchestration as the essential elements of dramatic expression.

"The only composer who had some affinity with Beethoven was Franz Schubert (1797-1828). Still, he was a younger generation and therefore a fullfledged romantic, fond of streaming melody and the beauty of sheer sound, and always ready to change with a few significant chords from bliss to tragedy. And as a romantic, Schubert allowed the smaller forms an equal place with the larger ones. To be sure, he wrote extensive chamber music and, like Beethoven, nine symphonies, including the 'heavenly endless' one in C major, but he gave much of his best to the Impromptus and Moments musicaux for the piano. Even from the splendor of his trios and quartets, the music lover comes back again and again to the 603 lieder, which one would call divine if they were not so movingly human" (64, p. 633).

Philosophy

"Rousseau suggested the abandonment of artificial culture and refinement and the going back to the primitive state of nature because it seemed hopeless to guide men by reason. Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations represented the English philosophy of independent morality applied to practical life" (90, p. 35).

Adam Smith made the law of supply and demand, operating without restriction in a free market, the basis of his economic system: Laissez Faire.

"By critical examination of facts, Hume pioneered in the sciences of political and cultural history" (61, p. 556).

"It is an incontestable fact that the germs of the American Declaration of Independence are contained in the second of John Locke's Two Treatises on Government, published in 1690 in order to justify the British Whig Revolution of two years before" (61, p. 722).

Social Reform

"The serious idea of reform, however, began to take hold of thinking people before the end of the 18th century. The United States was a leader in these reforms. When de Tocqueville visited America and gathered the material for his book on Democracy he was here as a member of a commission to investigate our prison system in order to secure the reform of French prisons" (90, p. 31).

Revolutions

"The spirit of liberty manifest in the French Revolution failed egregiously, but was destined to spread all during the 19th century. Between 1810 and 1826 all the South American colonies of Spain and Mexico (1836), after an imperial incident under Iturbide (1820), became independent republics. After a revolution Brazil became a constitutional empire of great liberality, independent of Portugal. The revolt of the Greeks against the Turks was unsuccessful but it attracted

the attention of Europe to an impossible situation that could not be permitted to endure, and Byron's romantic death for the cause of Greece at Missolonghi deeply stirred the spirit of liberty everywhere" (91, p. 352).

The French Revolution

"A profound reaction in social matters was due in Europe. It came with the French Revolution in 1789. Begun as an attempt to distribute the burdens of taxation more equally on the French, or indeed to solve the problem of the bankruptcy of the country, it developed into a great outburst of the oppressed classes. As Hilaire Belloc who probably knows the period better than anyone in our time suggests it was an organized effort to win back for men some of the privileges which they had enjoyed in the Middle Ages. In that sense it continued to make itself felt all during the 19th century and down to our own time. It is the aspect of the movement that has until now not been properly appreciated. Hailed by all the liberal thinkers of Europe as a new dawn for civilization the Revolution degenerated into the saddest of butcheries, and gave place to utter anarchy until the French people themselves, tired of bloodshed, welcomed a military dictator with power to maintain public order. In 1789 the States-General were summoned for the first time since 1614. This was changed shortly into the National Assembly. A new constitution was proclaimed in 1790. In 1792 the monarchy was abolished and

the next year the well-meaning but unfortunate Louis XVI was put to death and Marie Antoinette, his queen, Maria Theresa's beautiful daughter who had been the administrator of Europe, followed. These events alienated all Europe and the new republic fought them all in combination and won battles that enabled her to extend her territory but finally brought her under the heels of a military despot" (90, p. 32).

Napoleon Bonaparte

"The most compelling figure of the 18th century is Napoleon Bonaparte and his career is the index that French affairs had reached a point where reaction was inevitable. This product of the time was, to quote Freeman, 'nearer to being the master of Europe than any other man had been before.' 'He called himself consul and an old Greek would have said that he had made himself tyrant, but he was a more absolute ruler than even Louis XIV had been.' One of the last reflections made by Gibbon, the historian of the Roman Empire, whose wide knowledge of world history would seem to give him a right to an opinion on the subject, was that he would never again see a great conqueror arise who like Alexander or Caesar might threaten to have the world under his dominion. Gibbon died in 1794. Had he lived but a scant 10 years more he would have been able to witness the utter contradiction of this opinion, though there is no doubt now that most of the learned men of his time and especially those familiar with history

would have accepted his reflection as almost so obvious as to be an axiom. In this after all Gibbon differed very little from many a serious student of history of a century later who would not have hesitated to say that he now felt sure that a great prolonged European war shared by most of the civilized nations of the world was an utter impossibility.

*Bonaparte was carried to the height of power on a flood of military success. Arrived there he proved to have a genius for administration that enabled him to maintain himself and that has stamped his influence on all modern legislation. He came to the front in the Italian campaigns of the wars of the French Revolution when his victories in Italy forced the Emperor Francis of Austria to surrender the Austrian Netherlands to France and to withdraw from northern Italy with the result that Piedmont and Savoy were annexed to France. France was a republic, but there was no republicanism in the spirit of French conquests once the mania of victory developed. Republics were sacrificed quite as readily to French ambition, or rather to the ambition of French military leaders, as were monarchies. In return for his surrender to France of these large territories the Austrian emperor was permitted to join the French in destroying the ancient commonwealth of Venice, which with all that was oligarchical in its government had at least some show of self-ruling about it. The French and the Austrians divided the Venetian territory between them.

When in 1798 Bonaparte planned his expedition to Egypt and the French needed money to finance it the Directory of France calmly proceeded to attack Switzerland, for some six centuries a republic, for no better reason than because the town of Berne was known to possess a large treasure. The French Revolution would seem then utterly to have failed in its purpose, but it was only an eclipse for a time and in spite of many vicissitudes its spirit was to work for good for more than a century later. Napoleon came to be the hammer by which a great many of the presumedly most firmly established things of the old order in Europe were smashed upon an anvil of war to be made over for the better, though the betterment was often not immediate" (90, pp. 32-33).

"Some nation in Europe has been at war on the average every second year since 1450, that is, during modern times, but the 19th century had more than its share of these wars. They were, too, ever so much more costly in life than older wars, industrial development having favored the evolution of destructive agents. Napoleon led the first 15 years. Made first consul (1798), President of the Italian Republic (1802), emperor by overwhelming popular vote (1804), he proposed to Tsar Alexander at Tilsit (1807) in the raft conferences on the Nieman River to divide the world between them into eastern and western empires. It seems almost impossible to imagine the 19th century reverting to the dual Byzantine-Roman scheme

of things, yet this was calmly proposed by the man who had made himself, in Freeman's expressive phrase, 'the tyrant of Europe.' Gibbon, scarcely 10 years before, had declared it impossible for a military leader ever again to dictate the destiny of nations as had Alexander the Great, or Caesar, yet had he but lived a few years he would have seen this almost an accomplished fact. Napoleon admitted, when Alexander seemed favorable to the scheme, that there was but one bar-- England--but he felt that if the two emperors were loyal allies, even this obstacle could be made to disappear.

"The events which led up to this were the battle of Austerlitz (1805), after which Napoleon became Protector of the Federation of the Rhine; the victory at Jena over the Prussians (1806) followed by the appointment of Louis Napoleon as King of Holland and the victories of Eylau and Friedland (1807) over the Russians. After this came the conquest of Spain and Napoleon's attempt to make Joseph, his brother, its king, while Murat, one of his marshals, was made King of Naples. He received a setback in Spain, but won the battle of Wagram (1809) over the Austrians. The following year, divorcing the childless Josephine, he married Marie Louise, the daughter of the emperor of Austria, in the hope to found a dynasty, and the next year his son was crowned king of Rome. At the height of his power (1811) his empire reached from beyond Rome, through France, Holland and Belgium and all the

western German states up to Mecklenburg and the Baltic Sea; he was besides king of Italy, to which the Illyrain provinces were subject, protector of the Federation of the Rhine and mediator of Switzerland. Only in Spain where, with the help of the English, a successful stand was made against Napoleon's generals, did his prestige fail. His star had set with this, however, and though in 1812 he won the battles of Smolensko and Borodino, Moscow, after its capture, was burned by the Russians and Napoleon's grand army was destroyed by the Russian snow and the troops which hung on his rear and flanks. With a new army of fresh levies, most of them were mere boys, Napoleon won the battles of Lutz, Bautzen and Dresden but lost the battle of the nations at Leipzig. The German spirit, at last aroused, drove him to the Rhine with the loss of his whole army. He abdicated and was sent to the island of Elba but with the title of emperor (1814). Just a year after his abdication, March 1815, Napoleon returned to France. The restored Bourbons had been tactless beyond even their wont and Napoleon was welcomed by France. Marshal Ney, sent to arrest him, threw himself into the arms of his old commander, and in a few days Napoleon was again firmly seated on the throne. The allies moved against him, but Napoleon, hoping to crush their forces in detail, marched into Flanders where he defeated the Prussians, but was held by the English for the long day (18 June 1815) at Waterloo, until Blucher with a fresh force

of Prussians decided the battle. The Hundred Days, as they were called, were over. Napoleon surrendered to the English as the most magnanimous of his enemies, and was sent to St. Helena, where he died (1821).

"England was the supreme, constant factor against Napoleon. He realized this and was ready to make any sacrifice for 'six hours control of that wet ditch'--the Channel. He sold Louisiana to the United States to secure funds for an English invasion (1803) but Nelson's almost complete destruction of the combined French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar (1805) blocked this. Napoleon's one consolation was that he hoped by rounding out the territory of the United States 'to raise up a rival to England that would sooner or later humble her pride.' Meantime Robert Fulton had gone to him with his steamboat, but Napoleon failed to recognize the opportunity it would have given him. The one stain on English prestige was the bombardment of Copenhagen and the seizure of the Danish fleet in 1807. Fearful lest the Danes should join Napoleon and shut them out from the Baltic sea and the rich markets of central Europe, an English fleet in position before Copenhagen, without warning, demanded that the Danes surrender all their ships and naval stores. They were to be held as a deposit and given back at the end of the war. The Danes refused to violate their neutrality thus and did not yield until some 2,000 houses had been destroyed, when

their fleet was carried off by the English. The incident aroused the bitterest feelings against Britain and undoubtedly pushed the United States into the War of 1812. Madame de Stael, replying to Jefferson's explanation as to the United States practically helping Napoleon against England, that 'America has nothing to do with the continent of Europe,' pertinently asked, 'Can you be indifferent to the cause of free nations--you the most republican of all?' Jefferson replied that 'Bonaparte would die but a nation never dies,' and added 'the sword can never again be sheathed until the personal safety of Americans on the Ocean, among the most important and vital of the rights we possess, is completely provided for.' A century later, these expressions were, if possible, even more interesting than when originally written.

"Napoleon will be remembered better for what he did for law and social order than as a victorious commander. He strove to be a beneficent autocrat. Professor Sloane terms him 'One of the greatest social reformers in history.' He healed the wounds inflicted upon France by the Revolution. He invited the Royalist exiles to return. Realizing that a France without religion was a contradiction in terms, he entered into a concordat with the Pope, recognizing him as the head of the Church with full authority. Under his rule prosperity came back to France. Bridges, roads, canals and ports were restored and Napoleon directed construction of great highways

and military roads, triumphs of engineering, across the Alps. Public buildings were restored, sadly needing it since the Revolution, and many magnificent monuments erected, so that Paris and other French cities became the most beautiful in Europe. He reformed the laws of France and the Code Napoleon set his name beside that of Justinian as one of the great lawmakers of history. What the French Convention began was perfected by Napoleon and his code secured the benefits of the Revolution for the French people. It swept away the old, unequal, oppressive customs and regulations and decrees and laws that were an inheritance from the feudal ages. It recognized the equality of noble and peasant in the eyes of the law; it affected deeply the laws of other countries, and for it Napoleon's name will be honored much more than for his military glory as long as this stage of our civilization lasts" (91, pp. 351-352).

The American Revolution

"The American Revolution beginning apparently as a revolt on the part of scattered rather disconnected colonies with less than 3,000,000 of inhabitants and even those by no means strongly welded together, and with a very large party among them who remained loyal to England, so that success seemed almost impossible, ended with a triumph that gave genuine democracy almost its first great opportunity in the world's history. In a new land far from the disturbing political

conditions of European countries and with magnificent resources to develop, the American Republic proceeded to exemplify what government of the people, by the people and for the people may mean. De Tocqueville's American Democracy, written 50 years later, is the tribute of a young enthusiastic European republican to America's success. Undoubtedly the colonists owed their successful termination of the Revolution to the aid of the French, though the kingdom of France under Louis XVI was tottering to its fall and that fall was hastened by the very success of the spirit of democracy in America. From Lexington to Yorktown represented seven long years of the severest trials borne with magnificent courage and persistency by the colonists, hampered by a large royalist contingent among them, and these virtues had their own reward. The result was a solidarity of feeling owing to sympathy and union in suffering which more than all else served to bring the colonists together. The 13 colonies had been anything but homogeneous in race and character and they were almost infinitely dissimilar in attitude toward religion and life. The Puritan of New England and the Cavalier of the Virginias and Carolinas represented opposite poles of feeling in almost every way. It was hard enough indeed after the Revolution to bring them together or secure a working modus vivendi for their government, but it would have been quite impossible only for the long years of bloodshed and the severe vicissitudes

through which they had passed in the period of travail from which the New Republic of the West was eventually born. It has well been called the greatest fact in modern history" (90, p. 31).

George Washington

"The greatest man of the 18th century was beyond all doubt George Washington. It was the custom sometimes to speak of him as owing his reputation to a series of happy accidents rather than to innate genius. Having been chosen the general of the Colonial forces, it was said that he succeeded in holding out against the British whose mistakes were so great as to facilitate this until the alliance with France and then with Spain finally brought that combination of regular military strength and organization which made Yorktown possible and brought a happy ending to the Revolution. Any such view, however, is contradicted by definite knowledge of the man. When scarcely more than a youth he had saved Braddock from total defeat in spite of the general's utter errors. The campaign around Boston added further to his military reputation. The battles of Princeton and Trenton have been acknowledged by modern military experts as one of the greatest series of strategical combinations under the most discouraging circumstances that have ever been made. The official documents of Washington show clearly how large and noble was his mind. His advice is still the best policy of

the republic in spite of its broad extension beyond anything that he could ever have imagined in his wildest dreams. His declination of the presidency for the third time and the consequent tradition of but two presidential terms was a precious heritage for the nation, and the final proof of his magnanimity. Time instead of lessening his prestige has added to his reputation and made it clear that he was a great man raised up to fit a great occasion" (90, p. 31).

South American Revolutions

"In 1813, being commissioned by the Congress of New Granada to carry the war into Venezuela, Bolívar regained Caracas and became virtual dictator" (39, p. 812). Comprehending the geographical difficulties of a campaign in upper Peru, San Martín formulated a plan to organize an army in western Argentina, liberate Chile, and move by sea to attack Peru, the center of Spanish authority.

"In 1818, the independence of Chile was proclaimed.

"In 1820, the viceroy abandoned Lima, and San Martín, invited by the people, entered the capital" (39, p. 810).

"In 1822, San Martín, who had been advancing on Quito, and Bolívar met at Guayaquil to consider prosecution of plans for liberation. . . . San Martín withdrew in favor of Bolívar" (39, p. 812).

The Industrial Revolution

"The greatest heritage of the century to succeeding generations was what has come to be called the industrial revolution. Up to the latter half of the 18th century men had paid very little attention to mechanical inventions and their development. The people of western Europe did their farming, made their cloth and continued to do most of the domestic manufactures at least almost in the same way as the ancients had done. It has been said that 'if a peasant, a smith or a weaver of the age of Caesar Augustus had visited France or England 1800 years later he would have recognized the familiar flail, forge, distaff and hand loom of his own day.' (Robinson). All this was to be changed in the course of a single generation, however. A series of machines came to replace hand labor and accomplished ever so much more in vastly shorter time than before. The essential processes remained the same, only now by the aid of machinery they were accomplished more rapidly.

"In 1767 Hargreaves, an English spinner, invented what was called the spinning jenny. With this a single workman by the help of a wheel could spin 8 or 10 threads at once and thus do the work done formerly by as many spinners. In 1768 Arkwright invented a machine for rolling threads. Some 10 years later Crompton combined Hargreaves' spinning jenny and Arkwright's roller machine into what was called the spinning mule. With this as many as 200 threads could be spun at once,

and when the steam engine came and power was applied a few hands could do the work of hundreds. The gradual improvement of the steam engine by James Watt, who had been called in to repair a model of a steam engine made more than half a century before by an English mechanic named Newcomen, greatly facilitated the development of industry. In 1785 a steam engine was first employed to run spinning machinery, Arkwright adopted it in 1790, and after this such engines became extremely common and the factory system replaced the old domestic system of manufacture almost completely.

"This so called labor-saving machinery threw many out of employment, though it brought together a great many workmen in the employ of a new class that now developed in the population, the capitalist. John Stuart Mill about the middle of the 19th century, when he could see clearly the result of the industrial revolution, declared that all labor-saving machinery in spite of its name had never saved mankind an hour of drudgery, but on the contrary had made it possible for a large number of workmen to work for a few and usually to work long hours in unsanitary, ill-ventilated factories, compelling them to live in crowded slums not far from the factories because their long working day did not allow them time to go or come farther to their work. The industrial revolution worked an immense amount of social harm, led to the employment of women and children for such long hours and

under such unsuitable conditions as proved seriously detrimental to health, and it took more than a century before humanity wakened up to the necessity for regulating industry in such a way as to conserve the rights of man" (90, p. 35).

Science

"The greatest chapter in the 18th century's history is that of the discoveries in science. Father Piazzzi's discovery on the very first morning of the century, of Ceres, the first asteroid recognized, was a portent of the century's scientific advance. Treviranus' use of the word 'biology' for the first time the same year marks an epoch. Lamarck suggested not only a theory of evolution but its factors. Biology became dominant. Schleiden and Schwann demonstrated the existence of cells in all living things, plants and animals, showing a bond between them. Hunter and Bichat in England and France revolutionized methods and results in the sciences related to medicine. Jenner's discovery of vaccination marked the dawn of a new era in therapeutics. Priestly, Lavoisier and Scheele were doing work in chemistry. Laplace, Le Grange and others were adding to the magnificent work that Newton had accomplished at the beginning of the 18th century, recognizing very clearly the surpassing value of their predecessor's work" (90, p. 356).

"In the biological sciences Cuvier, Buffon, Geoffrey St. Hilaire and Lamarck, most of whose work was accomplished

before the century closed, did work that was destined to leave its impress deeply upon their sciences. It required much more than mere talent and application to make the first great steps in these sciences and only positive genius could have done what these men achieved" (91, p. 35).

Science Survey

"1766. Discovery of hydrogen by Henry Cavendish (1731-1810), making possible the development of the balloon.

"1769. James Watt (1736-1819) invented the modern steam engine and introduced revolutionary developments in the form of a separate condenser for steam economy, as well as the principle of double action. The non-condensing, high-pressure engine was the invention of Richard Trevithick (1771-1833) and Oliver Evans (1755-1819), an American.

"1783. Stephen and Joseph Montgolfier invented the balloon, a paper bag filled with hot air. They made the first ascent. The Robert brothers were responsible for the first hydrogen balloon, constructed later in the same year.

"1784. The Robert brothers developed the first airship, a melon-shaped hydrogen balloon of silk, having a long car suspended under it with six men using silken oars for propulsion" (39, p. 553).

"1785. The Theory of the Earth by James Hutton (1726-1797) laid the foundation of modern geology by positioning the uniformitarian hypothesis of geologic causation. Impetus

was given to the acceptance of the hypothesis by William Smith (1769-1839), who assigned relative ages to the rocks and pointed out their fossilized contents, and by Jean Baptiste de Lamarck (1744-1829), who classified and compared recent and fossil shells.

"1786. Luigi Galvani (1737-1798), having noticed the contraction of a frog's leg under influence of an electric discharge, attributed this to animal electricity. Count Alessandro Volta (1745-1827) showed that this was not so and invented the primitive primary battery" (39, p. 551).

"1794. The semaphore telegraph developed by Claude Chappe (1763-1805). The first line was from Lille to Paris and was so successful that the system rapidly spread to other countries.

"1797. Charles Newbold, an American, patented the iron plow.

"1798. The first printing press with an iron frame, constructed by the Earle of Stanhope.

"1802. The tug Charlotte Dundas, built by William Symington (1763-1831) was the first practical steamboat, equipped with stern paddle" (39, p. 553).

"1802. Cuneform writing first deciphered by Georg Friedrich Grotefend (1775-1853, opening up a new field of historical research" (39, p. 551).

"1803. The Fourdrinier brothers invented the paper-making machine.

"1804. Trevithick built a locomotive and was the first to use a steam carriage on a railway.

"1805. Robert Fulton built the first torpedo.

"1807. Robert Fulton (1765-1815) and Robert R. Livingston (1746-1813) steamed from New York to Albany in 32 hours in the Clermont, first successful steamboat.

"1807. Gas lights first introduced in London. By 1820 much of the city was lighted.

"1809. The arc lamp, invented by Sir Humphrey Davy (1778-1829)" (39, p. 553).

"1812. Friedrich Konig and Andreas Bauer, Saxons, and James Bensley, and Englishman, invented the first cylinder press, which was promptly adopted by the London Times.

"1814. George Stephenson (1781-1848) completed the adaptation of the steam engine to the railroad.

"1816. The celeripede of Nicephore Niepce (1765-1833), a primitive two-wheeled bicycle propelled by action of the feet on the ground.

"1818. Regular transatlantic service was initiated by the Black Ball Line, using fast sailing ships between New York and Liverpool.

"1818. Introduction of the use of iron in shipbuilding (the lighter Vulcan, built near Glasgow).

"1819. The steamer Savannah crossed to Liverpool, chiefly under steam" (39, p. 554).

"1819. Invention of the stethoscope by Rene Laennec (1781-1826), who introduced auscultation in medical practice.

"1821. Jean Francois Champollion (1790-1832) first deciphered hieroglyphics, making possible the modern science of Egyptology" (39, p. 551).

"1821-1831. Michael Faraday (1791-1867) developed the electric motor and generator. He was followed by Sir Charles Wheatstone and others.

"1822. William Church of Connecticut designed the first type-setting machine.

"1824. Henri J. Paixhans (1873-1854), a French artilleryman, introduced the shell gun, a revolutionary invention in the history of warfare.

"1825. Sept. 27. Opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railroad in England, the world's first railway line.

"1826. First all-steam crossing of the Atlantic, by the Dutch steamer Curacao.

"1827. Nicephore Niepce (above) secured the first camera image.

"1829. The first railroad opened in the United States (Carbondale to Honesdale, Pennsylvania). The first railroad opened in France (Lyon-St.-Etienne Line). Both used English locomotives" (39, p. 555).

Spanish Exploration in North America

"Under Galvez' direction Upper California was occupied. San Diego (1769), Monterey (1770), Los Angeles (1781), and San Francisco (1776), were founded and a system of presidios and missions, the latter under Franciscan order, was established.

"In 1774-1776, Juan Perez, Bruno de Heceta, Bodega y Quadra, and other Spanish explorers were sent north along the coast to counter British and Russian activity. They discovered the mouth of the Columbia River and advanced as far as 60° N. L.

"1789-1795. Attempts were made to colonize the region north of California. Settlements were made on Vancouver Island and at Cape Flattery, but without permanent results" (39, p. 493).

British and French Exploration

"James Cook, in searching for a passage from Hudson Bay to the Pacific discovered Christmas Island and (1778) Hawaii (Sandwich Islands), after which he passed through Bering Strait and explored the Arctic coasts of America and Asia.

"In 1788, the first shipload of British convicts was landed at Botany Bay, Australia east of 135° E. Long.

"Mutineers from the British ship Bounty settled on little Pitcairn Island in 1790, the first British settlers on a Pacific Island. Their descendants, by native women, still

occupy the island, which was annexed by England in 1836. In 1797, the first British mission was established on Tahiti, and soon afterward on the Marquesas and Friendly Islands. The English Protestants were soon followed by French Catholics, and, although at first the missions were rather unsuccessful, in the course of the 19th century the islands were for the most part converted.

"Matthew Flinders completed the exploration of the south coast of Australia (1803) and circumnavigated the continent.

"During the 19th century the development of European trade ran parallel with the expansion of missionary activity. Sandalwood, trepang, and coconut oil were the chief products. There was a ruthless treatment of the natives (Kanakan traffic to Australia, i.e. kidnaping and selling into slavery) and a phenomenal decline of the native population, due in part, no doubt, to practice of infanticide and to the ravages of disease brought in by the Europeans. The traders, and especially the whalers, completed the exploration of the ocean, while European expeditions extended scientific study.

"The Frenchman Freycinet explored the coasts of New Guinea, the Mariannes, and Hawaii in 1819" (39, p. 895).

Judicial Review

"The famous law case, Marbury v. Madison, the case in which John Marshall established the principle of judicial

review of Acts of Congress by declaring a section of the Judiciary Act of 1789 unconstitutional occurred in 1803" (39, p. 766).

The Louisiana Purchase

"In 1800 Spain had retroceded Louisiana to France. Napoleon was then interested in Louisiana because of his ambition to re-establish a French colonial empire in America. This alarmed Jefferson, who feared a strong power at the mouth of the Mississippi. To reassure the west, alarmed at the possible closing of the river to its trade, Jefferson instructed Livingston, the American minister to France, to open negotiation for the purchase of a sufficient area at the mouth of the river to guarantee freedom of navigation and transshipment of goods. Monroe was sent to assist Livingston. Meanwhile the failure of Napoleon's army to reconquer Santo Domingo, combined with the ominous turn of event in Europe, caused Napoleon to lose interest in a colonial empire. He therefore sold Louisiana to the United States for 80,000,000 francs, thereby doubling the size of the country. Louisiana included the area between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, plus the island on which New Orleans now stands. Uncertainty as to the southern boundary of Louisiana led to prolonged controversy with Spain as to whether it included Texas and West Florida, which was not finally settled until the Treaty of 1819" (39, pp. 766-768).

Northeastern Confederacy

"New England Federalists, believing the accession of Louisiana would so strengthen the agrarian states as to lead to a decline in New England influence, planned the formation of a northeastern confederacy, composed of New England and New York. To carry New York with them they approached Aaron Burr, vice-president, who was disgruntled with Jefferson, and proposed that he run for the governorship, with Federalist support. The opposition of Hamilton to this plan was followed by the duel between Burr and Hamilton (July, 1804), in which Hamilton was killed" (39, p. 768).

Lewis and Clark Expedition

"Meriwether Lewis and William Clark were selected by Jefferson to explore the trans-Mississippi country. Leaving St. Louis, they ascended the Missouri to its source, crossed to the head-waters of the Snake River, thence down the Columbia River to the Pacific. The mouth of the Columbia had first been entered in 1793 by Captain Robert Gray of Boston. Explorations of Lewis and Clark in 1804-1806 gave the United States another claim to the 'Oregon country'" (39, p. 768).

War With the Pirates

"The Tripolitan War, which had begun in 1801, was brought to a close by a treaty in 1805" (39, p. 768).

Slavery and Social Progress

"In 1808, African slave trade was prohibited after Jan. 1 by the United States" (39, p. 768), and the British Government abolished the slave trade in 1807.

"In 1818, France abolished the slave trade. Other countries (notably Spain and Portugal) followed suit, under British pressure" (39, p. 826).

Baseball

Contrary to popular opinion, the game of baseball was not invented and named by Abner Doubleday at Cooperstown, New York, in 1839.

The truth, as established by Frank G. Menke, editor of the New Encyclopedia of Sports, is that a game called "baseball" was played in England as early as 1744 and in America by 1778, and that a New Haven publisher brought out a book of rules in 1839 (43, p. 80).

Japan

"In 1793, Laxman, a Russian lieutenant, arrived at Hakodate in Hokkaido with Japanese castaways, but failed to establish friendly relations.

"In 1795, Broughton, a British explorer, visited Hokkaido, charting parts of the coast.

"During the period of 1797-1809, American ships traded with Japan nearly every year, on behalf of the Dutch.

"The Kojikiden, a commentary to the Kojiki, was completed after 35 years' labor by Motoori Norinaga (1730-1801), the greatest of the Shinto scholars. This achievement was an important event in the revival of Shinto and of the imperial cause. Influential in these movements were also Kamo Mabuchi (1697-1769) and Hirata Atsutane (1776-1843).

"In 1804, a Russian ambassador, Rezanov, representing the Russian-American company, reached Nagasaki, but after six months failed to obtain a treaty. In 1806-1807 his subordinates raided Sakhalin" (39, p. 887).

Summary: The Age of Independence

1765. Grenville pushed through Parliament the Stamp Act (39, p. 521).

1765. Hargreaves' spinning jenny constructed (59, p. 285).

1766. American Stamp Act repealed (90, p. 36).

1767. Arkwright's water frame (59, p. 285).

1769. Captain Cook's discoveries in the Pacific Ocean.

1772. First partition of Poland by Russia, Prussia and Austria. Revolution in Sweden.

1773. Captain Cook's voyage to the Antarctic, reaching 71° 10' south latitude (90, p. 36).

1773. Boston Tea Party (59, p. 335).

1774. Louis XVI of France begins his reign.

1775. The American Revolution begins, 19 April. Battle of Bunker Hill, 17 June.

1776. The American Declaration of Independence proclaimed, 4 July.

1777. The surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga, N. Y., 7 Oct.

1778. Alliance of the French and Americans, 30 Oct.

1779. Siege of Gibraltar. Captain Cook killed in Hawaii.

1780. American defeat at Camden, 16 Aug.

1781. The surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, 18 Oct.

1783. Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and the United States (90, p. 36).

1785. Arkwright's power loom (59, p. 285).

1786. Warren Hastings impeached for misrule in India. Shay's rebellion in Massachusetts.

1787-1788. United States Constitution drafted at Philadelphia and ratified.

1789. The States General meets in Paris. The French Revolution begins. The King accepts the declaration of the Rights of Man. France divided into 83 departments. Washington elected President of the United States.

1790. Titles of nobility suppressed in France.

1791. Coalition between Austria and Prussia, 27 Aug. The French constitution ratified, 3 Sept.

1792. Peace of Jassy, 9 Jan. Gustavus III of Sweden assassinated, 16 March. The September massacres in France. France declared a republic, 22 Sept.

1793. King Louis XVI beheaded, 21 Jan. Queen Marie Antoinette beheaded, 15 Oct. War declared by England against France, 1 Feb. Toulon captured by the English, 28 Aug. Reign of Terror in France (90, p. 36).

1793. Eli Whitney invented cotton gin (59, p. 285).

1794. Robespierre beheaded. English defeat the French fleet. Battle of Fleurus, 26 June.

1795. Holland invaded by the French. Belgium annexed to the French Republic. The remainder of Poland partitioned between Russia, Austria and Prussia. Jay's treaty between United States and Great Britain.

1796. Bonaparte's campaign in Italy.

1798. Irish Rebellion. Bonaparte's campaign in Egypt. The Battle of the Pyramids.

1799. The siege of Acre. Bonaparte made First Consul. Death of Washington.

1800. United States capital removed from Philadelphia to Washington. Union of Ireland with Great Britain ratified by Parliament (90, p. 36).

1801. Piazzi discovers the planetoid Ceres, Jan. 1. Napoleonic wars continue. Battle of Alexandria, Egypt, March 21. Battle of Copenhagen. British destroy the Danish fleet, April 2. Peace treaty between France and Great Britain, October 1. War between the United States and Tripoli.

1802. Napoleon re-establishes Christianity in France, March 2. Treaty of Amiens signed, March 27. Dr. Olbers

discovers planet Pallas, March 28. For the discovery of vaccination, British Parliament awards Dr. Jenner \$50,000. Treviranus enunciates the principles of biological development. Napoleon named consul for life, July. Prince of Orange abdicates, August.

1803. War renewed between England and France, May 16. War in India. Scindia defeated, August 10. The Great Mogul of Delhi deposed, September. Haiti, French negro colony achieves independence, November 19. France sells Louisiana to the United States.

1804. Napoleon proclaimed emperor, March 20. Code of Napoleon first promulgated. Francis II abandons title of emperor of Germany and assumes that of emperor of Austria. Lewis and Clark Expedition.

1805. War declared between England and Spain. Napoleon crowned king of Italy, May 26. British defeat French and Spanish fleets, July 22. Napoleon restores Gregorian calendar in France. Battle of Trafalgar and death of Nelson, October 21. Battle of Austerlitz, December 20. Peace between Tripoli and United States.

1806. Cape of Good Hope occupied by the British, January 8. Burr's conspiracy. Confederation of the Rhine, Saxon Barvaria and Wurtemberg become kingdoms.

1807. Peace of Tilsit. British again bombard Copenhagen, September 7. French occupy Portugal; the royal family

emigrates to Brazil, November 29. Fulton's first steamboat starts the great development of marine travel of the century. Slave trade abolished.

1808. Napoleon proclaims blockade of Great Britain. French occupy Rome. Murat made king of the Two Sicilies. Joseph Bonaparte king of Spain. Spain declares war against France, May 1. Finland surrenders to Russia, November 7.

1810. Rebellion in Mexico. Napoleon divorces Josephine and marries Maria Louisa of Austria. Peace between France and Austria. France annexes Holland. Bernadotte becomes Crown Prince of Sweden.

1811. Indian war in West. Mamelukes massacred at Cairo. British take Java.

1812. Napoleon's disastrous invasion of Russia. War between United States and England. Spanish Peninsular campaign.

1813. United States troops invade Canada. Perry's victory on Lake Erie. Russia, Prussia, and Bavaria confederate against France. Spain abolishes the Inquisition. Revolution in China. British victories in Spain. Napoleon defeated at Leipzig.

1814. British troops burn capital at Washington. British under Wellington invade France and capture Bordeaux. Allied sovereigns enter Paris. Napoleon abdicates and is exiled to Elba. General treaty of peace. England acquires Cape of

Good Hope, Malta, Mauritius, Tobago and Saint Lucia. Norway annexed to Sweden. Peace signed between England and America.

1815. Battle of New Orleans and British defeat. Napoleon escapes from Elba. The 100 days campaign ends with the battle of Waterloo. Napoleon exiled to Saint Helena. Holy Alliance established. Americans suppress Algerian piracy. Brazil made an empire. Lamarck propounds the theory of evolution.

1816. British fleet destroys Algiers.

1817. Bolivar becomes dictator of Venezuela.

1818. Chile achieves independence.

1819. Colombia proclaims a republic. Purchase of Florida. Steam navigation begins between Europe and America.

1820. Missouri Compromise. Rebellion in Spain. Death of George III of England. Austrians suppress Italian Carbonari. Meeting at Troppau of sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia. First king of Haiti commits suicide.

1821. Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela and Ecuador proclaim republics. Greek war of liberation. Napoleon dies at Saint Helena.

1822. Brazil separates from Portugal. Greece strikes for freedom. Constitutionalist triumph in Spain, but are condemned by the Congress of Verona. Liberia founded by American Colonization Society.

1823. The Monroe Doctrine formulated. French army invades Spain and suppresses the Constitutionalist.

1824. Argentina gains independence. Peru is made free by Bolivar. War between England and Burma. English acquire Singapore.

1825. Erie Canal completed. Gas used for lighting New York streets. Drummond invents the limelight. Bolivia becomes a republic. Steam railroad development begins with the opening of the Stockton and Darlington line in England September 27.

1826. War between Russia and Persia. Great Britain and United States arbitrate on damages for War of 1812.

1827. Treaty of London creates the kingdom of Greece. Turkish-Egyptian fleet destroyed at Navarino by the allied fleets.

1828. Greece gains independence. Uruguay becomes a republic. Russia effects peace with Persia, and declares war against Turkey.

1829. Peace treaty between Russia and Turkey. Spain attempts to recover Mexico. Venezuela separates from Colombia.

Section VII: International Growing Pains

The Holy Alliance

"The Napoleonic wars were followed by the formation of the Holy Alliance, under the inspiration of Tsar Alexander of Russia, its principal members being Russia, Austria, and Prussia. Its purpose was announced as the maintenance of peace and order in Europe, the principles of Christianity to

be the maxims of governments. All the rulers promised to use their authority 'to promote the welfare and secure the happiness of their subjects.' Undoubtedly the intentions were the best, and yet the Holy Alliance proved before long to be only a league for the maintenance of absolute government and the protection of the various states from the neutralizing tendencies which had been sown throughout Europe by the French Revolution. Metternich was the moving spirit in it. Entirely reactionary, he could not think that the people should have any share in the government. He was for the old order and his influence was greater than any other down to the middle of the century" (91, p. 352).

"Through rigid censorship, elaborate espionage, supervision of the universities, etc., Metternich opposed constitutional and national aspirations awakened during the Napoleonic wars. In the German states he made his will felt through the Germanic Confederation (called into being by the Congress of Vienna). It was composed of 38 sovereign powers; its object was to guarantee external and internal peace of Germany, and the independence of the member states (Austria brought only its German states into the confederation); its origin was a diet sitting at Frankfurt-on-the-Main, organized on a complicated basis into two 'assemblies,' over both of which the Austrian representative presided. The diet was a diplomatic congress, not a parliament; its members were

instructed delegates of the various governments. In Metternich's view, it was a loose confederation (Staatenbund) to protect German monarchs against their foreign foes (Russia and France) and their domestic enemy (liberalism).

"In 1815 Prussia had been the great hope of the Liberals, but with the decay of the influence of the king's principal minister, Hardenberg, reactionary influences came to the fore, capitalising the growing fear of radical activity and the fact of fundamental disunity (territorial and moral) in Prussia. The constitutional movement was a disappointment elsewhere, except in Bavaria, Baden, and Saxe-Weimar" (39, p. 667).

French Politics

"The Bourbons continued their tactless rule in France and Charles X was forced to flee in 1830, to be succeeded by Louis Philippe, no longer as king of France, but king of the French. Unfortunately, when his turn came to go (1848), while the French planned to have a republic and the temporary presidency of Lamartine raised high hopes, Louis Napoleon became the first actual president and the coup d'etat gave him control of France, making his election as emperor (1852) only a matter of form. A cycle had been completed and France was once more destined to imperial domination" (91, pp. 352-353).

The Rise of Germany

"The most important series of political events in the century was the rise of Prussia to the rank of a great power

in Europe and of the German Empire under Prussian influence. Early in the century Prussia was prostrate at the feet of Napoleon, bitterly humiliated. This led to reaction and a strenuous military organization of the country, so that eventually Prussian troops were an important factor in the great battle of the nations at Leipzig and a Prussian army under Blucher came to the aid of the English at a critical moment at Waterloo, bringing about Napoleon's ultimate defeat. The king of Prussia had promised his people a constitution, but violated his promise, so Prussia appears in European history until the middle of the century only because of internal disturbances. The Revolution of 1848 sent many promising young Prussians into exile because of their patriotic efforts to secure a constitutional monarchy. Troublous times continued for 10 years, which kept Prussia from any advance in power, but when Wilhelm I became king (1861) he declared that Prussia ought not to be content with what she had, but should strengthen her army and extend her frontiers. As regent while his predecessor, Frederick Wilhelm IV, was ill he had insisted that the Prussian army ought to be 'the nation armed.' The new king found himself hopelessly in opposition to the Prussian Parliament which annulled all measures for the provision of funds for the army. In the crisis Wilhelm called on Bismarck (1762) and thereafter Bismarck's spirit ruled Prussia. Disheartened by Parliament's opposition, the

king seriously proposed abdication, but Bismarck appealed to his honor as a soldier for his country. The spirit of revolution among the people had brought some liberalization of the government, but Bismarck re-established autocracy and prosperity quieted the people. He steered a devious course as the ally of Russia, in spite of the unpopularity involved, in order to crush the Poles (1863). After defeating Austria's attempt to unify the German states under her leadership at the Frankfort Convention, the next year he formed an alliance with Austria to take Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark. Every consideration except the advancement of Prussia was disregarded. Through agents he led the Danes into thinking that England would surely come to their assistance in case of war, so that they attempted the unequal struggle with Prussian and Austrian armies to their defeat and humiliation (1864). Schleswig-Holstein was placed under the rulership of Prussia and Austria, and when Bismarck proceeded to establish the German naval station at Kiel, Austria was irritated, as he knew it would be, and war broke out (1866). It lasted seven weeks, the Austrians being badly defeated at Koeniggratz. The intervention of Napoleon III brought a truce. Prussia, now the leading state in Germany, absorbing some of the German principalities which had allied themselves with Austria, proceeded to strengthen her army. France was the next opponent. The opportunity came over the Spanish succession.

Queen Isabella was driven out in 1868 and the Spaniards offered the throne to Leopold of Hohenzollern, the head of the Catholic house of that name, related to the reigning house of Prussia. France was strongly opposed to the candidacy. The friction between the countries seemed passed, however, when Bismarck, after consulting with Miltke, the head of the Prussian army, as to preparedness, deliberately falsified a telegram making it so irritating to the French as to precipitate the war. Bismarck, in furnishing material for his memoirs, cynically boasted of this afterward, as of other utterly dishonorable diplomatic transactions. "Nothing was justified so long as it was done for his country" (91, p. 353).

Wars

"In spite of the Holy Alliance a series of minor wars occurred during the first half of the century, Russia and the sultan (1828), a quadruple alliance of England, France, Spain, and Portugal against Don Miguel and Don Carlos (1834), France and Mexico (1838), England and China--to compel the renewal of the opium trade (1840), France with Algiers (1848). There was a much more interesting series of revolutions for popular liberty, most of which failed. The Greek Revolution was followed by the massacre of Scio (1822), Belgium secured its independence from Holland (1830), and the Poles began a struggle for their liberty the same year, but failed and

thousands of families were sent to Siberia. The Polish Revolution was renewed (1848), but only to fasten the fetters tighter on the suffering people. In 1848 there were revolutions in France and Sardinia, in Bavaria, Prussia, Schleswig-Holstein, in Hungary, whence Kossuth escaped to the United States, and in various places throughout Italy, including Rome, where a republic was proclaimed 9 Feb., 1849, only to fall very shortly" (91, p. 352).

"For a generation after Napoleon's time, however, Europe, spent with wars, avoided them except for these unimportant conflicts. Immediately after the middle of the century, however, a series of costly wars were initiated. In 1851 when the World's Fair in London was held, the first of the modern universal expositions of which there were to be so many others before the end of the century, the keynote of the international addresses delivered was world peace which seemed to be surely impending. Nations were to make commerce with each other and not wars, and exchange art and industrial treasures and not bullets. Littré, the great Positivist philosopher, looked up to as one of the great thinkers of the time, was particularly emphatic in his prophecy of peace. Such hopes were destined to bitter and immediate disappointment. The next 20 years saw a series of great wars. In 1853 Russia went to war with Turkey; England, France and Sardinia allying themselves with the Turks. In 1857-1858 the Indian

Mutiny imperiled British interests in Asia. In 1859 Sardinia and Austria went to war, with the French as the allies of the Sardinians. Napoleon III won the battle of Solferino and confirmed the impression that the French were the greatest military nation in Europe, for which it was destined to pay so dearly 10 years later. In 1861 the Civil War broke out in America, each side thinking it would be over in three months, but it lasted four bitter years and cost some 600,000 lives and set back American development for a decade. In 1864 Denmark dared to go to war with Prussia and Austria and was, of course, badly defeated, having to give up Mecklinburg and Schwerin to her opponents. In 1866 Prussia and Austria went to war over these Danish provinces and Austria was beaten to her knees in six weeks" (91, p. 354).

The Civil War

"The Civil War in the United States was one of the pivotal events of the century and seemed for a time to many a demonstration that a democracy could not endure. It was the culmination of a century of differences of opinion. After the Revolution, the great preponderance of the population was in the South. Virginia, one of the most populous of the States, had more than double New York's number of inhabitants. North Carolina exceeded New York in population by the total census of New York City and Long Island. Maryland was as large as New York and Tennessee followed very closely. The North grew

rapidly, the South slowly. In 1810 New York was second in population and it surpassed Virginia by one-third in 1820. Of the first five presidents, four were from Virginia. Early in the century New England and the Middle States, except Delaware, prohibited slavery and the importation of slaves to the United States was forbidden. The spread of population to the West, especially after the discovery of gold in California, raised the question whether slavery should be permitted west of the Mississippi. Legislative compromises were made, but with the election of Lincoln on a 'free soil' platform, South Carolina withdrew from the Union, followed by Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas, and the Southern Confederacy was formed. Lincoln was inaugurated March 4, 1861, and the Confederates began the war by firing on Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor, April 12, 1861. Both sides were sure that the war would be over in a few months, as President Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers for 90 days and President Jefferson Davis' declarations demonstrated, but it lasted four years, costing some 600,000 lives and two billions of money, the most important war of history up to this time. The South, fighting on an interior line, was not only able to maintain the struggle, but to bring the North near to defeat. During the year from July 1862 to July 1863, the North won no victories. Then came the turning point at Gettysburg July 3 and Vicksburg July 4, 1863. Grant's forceful

thrusts gradually wore down the Southern armies. Sherman's march to the sea deprived them of reserves of men and means, but it was not until April 9, 1865, that Grant and Lee met at Appomattox to arrange the surrender of the Army of Virginia and bring the war to an end. Peace was sadly marred by the assassination of President Lincoln at Ford's Theatre on Good Friday night, April 14, 1865" (91, p. 355).

Unification of Italy

"The dream of the centuries was realized in the second half of the century in a united Italy under Victor Emmanuel II. The kings of Sardinia ruled over Savoy and Piedmont on the Continent and were ambitious to increase their territory and, above all, push the Austrians out of Italy. King Charles Albert was disastrously defeated at Novara (1849) and resigned his crown in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel, who, under the influence of Cavour, sent 15,000 Sardinians, as they were called, to help France and England against Russia in the Crimean War. The understanding was that France would in return help Italy against Austria. Cavour promised Savoy and Nice to Napoleon to round out his French territory, and in 1859 the war between Austria, Italy and France broke out. After the battle of Solferino, Napoleon made peace with the Austrian emperor at Villa Franca, disappointing Cavour's plans, but largely increasing Victor Emmanuel's kingdom, the capital of which now became Florence instead of Turin as before. The

most significant result of the battle of Solferino came from the presence there by chance of M. Durant of Geneva, who saw all the suffering of the wounded soldiers under the broiling sun. It gave him the idea of organizing an international non-combatant association for the relief of suffering on the battle-field. Out of this came the Red Cross organization which has meant so much not only for war but also for the emergencies of peace ever since. Napoleon refused to permit the Pope to be disturbed in the possession of Rome and maintained a French army there. With the fall of Napoleon, however, during the Franco-German War in 1870, Sardinian troops under Garibaldi entered Rome and this became the capital of a united Italy, which has been growing in solidarity ever since" (91, pp. 355-356).

Development of British Colonies

"Two extremely important features of the history of the century are the rise into prominence of the great British colonies, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. All of them have made wonderful strides, comparable to those made in the United States. At the end of our American Revolution, Canada had about 70,000 while the United States had some 3,000,000 inhabitants. By the end of the 19th century, Canada had multiplied over 100 times in population, the United States less than 35 times. Canada as a colony suffered

from colonial abuses and in 1837 there were two revolutions, one in Upper, the other in Lower Canada. They brought reforms. After the famine in Ireland, a great many Irish emigrants came to Canada, and with the increase of population the need of federation was felt. It was brought about 1 July 1867. The opening up of the Northwest Provinces and the discovery that the finest kind of wheat could be grown there attracted immense numbers of people and the thorough democracy of the government brought many new citizens. . . .

"Australia, discovered by Captain Cook in 1770, was proposed as a colony for American Royalists after the Revolution, but the plan fell through. It became a convict station, but in spite of this grew rapidly in population until at the mid-century there were some 350,000 free inhabitants, about 200,000 in New South Wales, and 75,000 each in Victoria and South Australia. In 1851 came the discovery of gold by a gold miner from California. The male population rushed to the gold fields, leaving only women and children in the cities. Immigrants came in swarms, and in 10 years Victoria grew from 70,000 to 600,000 inhabitants. Fortunately, gold was discovered in other parts of Australia, and this diverted population to them. For 50 years the annual gold output was some \$50,000,000. Six independent colonies came into existence, but the rise of Japan, Germany's entrance into the south Pacific, European spheres of influence in South Africa and

tariff troubles forced them into union. Their Constitution is an imitation of that of the United States and the site of the Federal capital, centrally located in the city (Camberra) to be built for it, repeats the history of Washington" (91, p. 352).

Hospitals

"The war in the Crimea had one very practical result which greatly benefited the next generation. The army medical department of the English troops broke down completely under the task of caring for the wounded in the bitter climate of the Crimea. Literally thousands of wounded English soldiers lay absolutely untouched for many days in the midst of their excretions, almost unfed. The wounded on the deck of a vessel carrying them to the base hospital at Soutari were so crowded that the officers could not go below for their instruments of navigation and had to proceed at hazard. The fetid odor from the wounds was so offensive that some of the officers could not eat. Miss Nightingale, who had some experience in nursing, was asked to organize the nursing care of the soldiers and proceeded to the Crimea to solve the awful problems which had developed. She succeeded, and on her return the organization of nursing generally was taken up and the trained nurse of the present time was the result. Nursing had sunk to the lowest possible ebb, and the women attendants in the hospitals were looked upon as little better than menial

servants, many of them actually recruited from the workhouse or the prisons; all that could be expected of them was to keep reasonably sober.

"For two centuries hospitals had been running down and reached the lowest depths about the middle of the 19th century. The coming of the trained nurse, an educated woman with definite authority, soon brought reform in hospital organization and construction and Lister's discoveries lifted up surgery, so sadly degenerated for several centuries, until with hospital improvement there came reform also in medical education, with the reintroduction of bedside teaching. As a result of these improvements, a great new epoch in hospital work developed which will be looked back upon by future generations as one of the most important landmarks in the history of the century" (91, pp. 354-355).

Oxford Movement

"The outstanding religious event of the century was the Oxford movement which Newman dated from a sermon of Pusey's in 1833. The younger generation at Oxford, hoping to bring the Church of England back to primitive Christianity, published a series of 'Tracts for the Times,' hence the term Tractarian Movement which drew wide attention. They continued from 1833 to 1841. It was felt, however, by the great majority of Anglican churchmen that the movement was out of

sympathy with the Anglican Church and in 1845 the chief figure among the leaders, John Henry Newman, became a convert to Catholicism. He took part in the foundation of a Catholic University at Dublin in the early fifties and later was made a cardinal" (91, pp. 357-358).

Art

"The art of the 19th century began under classic influences in France encouraged by Napoleon, but the romantic movement in literature affected art also and the latter half was dominated by the Barbizon school, whose work is recognized as of enduring value. Francois Millet is one of the great painters of all time, though he nearly starved while doing his work. He has left a magnificent monument in his pictures of peasant life which are at the same time human documents of great significance. Some of his colleagues did work of only less import" (91, p. 357).

"It is perhaps an adequate summary of the Impressionist movement to say that it held a prism up to nature. Beginning with Leonardo, a tradition has grown up in Europe whereby the plasticity of an object, its depth or tridimensionality, was rendered by gradations of shade, or, in plain words, by varying amounts of black paint. Painting became, not a copy of nature, but a trick whereby the general effect of nature was represented. The conventions of a Baroque artist like Caravaggio in the matter of light and shade are really every bit

as arbitrary as the conventions of a modern Cubist; the only difference is that Caravaggio wants to give us something more dynamic than reality, the Cubist something more static. The one intensifies, the other abstracts.

Impressionism was moving toward the static, though Manet himself would have hated to think so. But 'we murder to dissect,' and you cannot analyze without at the same time arresting. Manet himself was so human in his sympathies that he was never prepared to sacrifice the humanity of his subjects for the sake of a surface realism, much less for the sake of a scientific dogma. This prudence is not so obvious in the case of some of his followers. The extreme was reached in the pointillism of Georges Pierre Seurat and Paul Signac. These two painters studied the problem of light and colors in a thoroughly scientific manner. They reduced their palette to the primary colors of the spectrum, and secured the effect of light and shade, as well as their secondary colors, by the apposition of minute spots of the primary colors. Manet had shown what could be done by the use of pure color" (57, p. 140).

Music

"The first period of romanticism ended with the two great masters born in 1809 and 1810. Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy (1809-1847) was a romanticist in his inspiration and choice of topics. But in his musical language he was a strictly

classicistic master educated on the works of Bach (whose Passion According to Saint Matthew he rediscovered exactly a hundred years after Bach had written it in 1729) and thoroughly averse to exhibiting personal feelings and conflicts. But even with his adherence to strictest form, he delighted in the miniatures of his Songs Without Words for the piano. His unhappy friend, Robert Schumann (1810-1856), was in orchestral, chamber, piano music, and lieder much closer to Schubert and probably even more romantic (the word taken in its German sense) in the sudden change from overflowing enthusiasm to longing and sadness. But, unlike Schubert, he found his principal medium in the piano. Exclusively pianistic was his nearest contemporary, the Franco-Pole, Frederic Chopin (1810-1849), to whom the keyboard was the faithful beholder of his dreams and visions; and almost exclusive was his fondness of short character pieces, now sad, now chivalrous, now in the stricter forms of dances, now in the free improvisation of ballades.

"No greater contrast to these delicate masters could be found than Hector Berlioz (1803-1869), the arch-romantic of France who, disdainful of smaller, intimate forms, of chamber music and the piano, expressed himself, and only himself, with all his nightmares, in fantastic symphonies and choral works of huge dimensions and unprecedented orchestral colors.

"Romantic opera developed meanwhile along three principal roads. Paris produced in 1826 the novel grand operas,

of which Eugene Scribe (1791-1861) became the principal poet and Giacomo Meyerbeer (1791-1864) the chief composer. Brilliant and showy, with ballets and clattering marches, enormous ensembles and sensational deaths, it appealed to the eye as much as to the ears. In Germany, an expressly so-called romantic opera under Heinrich Marschner (1795-1861), with supernatural powers, cursed heroes, and final redemption, led straightway from Weber to Wagner. In Italy, where romantic trends in the French and German sense were weakest, the opera, with Gaetano Donizetti (1797-1841) and Vincenzo Bellini (1801-1835) in the lead, maintained the old Italian concept of being mainly a vehicle for sensuous, beautiful singing" (64, p. 633).

"Shortly before 1850, when the new generation of 1811 to 1813 had matured, romanticism was entering a second, naturalistic phase. This meant to music, not renunciation of magic potions, curses, gods, and redemption, but rather the illusion of actual life and feeling and the subordination of the 'absolutely musical' to extramusical ideas. In this sense, Richard Wagner (1813-1883), in the footsteps of Monteverdi, Lully, and Gluck, changed his style almost completely. After Lohengrin (1847), he abandoned the title opera and adopted the more ambitious word musical drama to cover his Gesamtkunstwerk, or work embracing all arts, which after a gap of seven years emerged with the creation of Das Rheingold in 1854. The new music drama was based on the concept of a poetically logical book without arias and other 'closed' episodes arresting the

breathless flow of action, and, instead, with 'unending', almost speechlike melody, supported by an eloquent orchestra to underline the words and to supplement their unspoken thoughts in ever recurring symbols or leitmotifs. Wagner's greatest competitor, Giuseppe Verdi (1813-1901), agreed with him only on dramatic action as the life blood of the musical stage. But as an Italian, Verdi did not sacrifice the sensuous beauty of singing and self-sufficient musical forms, nor could he accept the intellectual approach of the German master. When he was almost 80 years old, however, he converged with Wagner in his last opera Falstaff (1893) by abandoning the aria and adopting 'endless' melody.

*Somewhere between these three poles--grand opera, Wagner and Verdi--we find a number of French operas that all share the same fate, to be incredibly successful and yet to leave no after effects: Charles Gounod's Faust in 1859, the year of Tristan und Isolde; Ambroise Thomas' Mignon in 1866, the time of Wagner's Meistersinger von Nurnberg; George Bizet's Carmen in 1875; Camille Saint-Saens' Samson et Dalila in 1877; and Jules Massenet's Manon in 1884.

*Outside the stage, naturalism faced a stronger opposition. The two main opponents were Franz Liszt (1811-1886) and Johannes Brahms (1833-1897). Around 1850, while Wagner was conceiving his four-night drama, Der Ring des Nibelungen, Liszt replaced the stricter symphony by free symphonic poems

which, in a single movement, represented some extramusical idea, inspired by poetry or painting. Even his two symphonies Faust and Dante, are rather symphonic poems, although in several movements. In a similar vein, his B Minor Sonata for piano is a poem rather than a sonata in the older sense. Brahms, on the contrary, fought for absolute music without extraneous connotations and for the inalienable rights of classical form. Nothing could be more significant (though slightly over-simplified) than Hans von Bulow's enthusiastic welcome to the first of Brahms' four symphonies as the tenth (after Beethoven's nine); it gave Brahms the status of Beethoven's heir in direct line. Averse to showiness and license, Brahms insisted on classic restraint and strictness in all the fields of orchestral and chamber music as well as in his numerous lieder. No wonder that he never wrote for the stage.

"Two men, both organists, stood in age and style somewhere between the Liszt-Wagner group and Brahms: the Belgian, Cesar Franck (1822-1890), and the Austrian, Anton Bruckner (1824-1896). Bruckner, once more with nine long, majestic symphonies, was nearest to Wagner and farthest from Brahms; Franck, composer of one majestic oratorio (Les Beatitudes, 1869-1879), organ pieces, and one symphony (1886-1888), stood much closer to the Brahmsian ideology" (64, Vol. XI, p. 634).

Early Negro Music

"The music of the American Negro is at once readily recognized and the least understood of our national traditions. While the public is familiar with many of the well-known Spirituals, it is too often prone to regard these as all there is to Negro music; or else it regards Negro music in terms of a few clichés: 'blackface' songs, 'mammy' songs, 'plantation' songs, and so forth--most of which are not Negro music at all, but white composers' stereotypes of the black man's music.

"Negro art is rich and varied, perhaps one of the richest of our national traditions, and it has played a basic role in our musical culture. As early as Revolutionary times, no less a person than Thomas Jefferson noted the musical gifts of the slaves. In his Notes on Virginia (1781), he wrote: 'In music the blacks are more generally gifted than the whites, with accurate ears for tune and time, and they have been found capable of imagining a small catch. Whether they will be equal to the composition of a more extensive run of melody, or of complicated harmony, it is yet to be proved.'

"In the early nineteenth century, many Southern plantations had bands of Negro musicians, who accompanied their singing on the fiddle, banjo, and 'bones'. For understandable reasons, the early records of Negro music are few and far between. But in 1867 a remarkable book appeared, Slave Songs of the

United States, collected and published by three enthusiasts. Not only was it the first substantial collection of Negro spirituals, reels, dance tunes, etc., ever published, but it contained graphic descriptions of the various types of the black man's music, and an appreciation of the difficulties of setting it down in our musical notation" (69, p. 682).

Karl Marx and Communism

"In 1867 appeared: 'Karl Marx's Capital, the basic exposition of his theory. Marx held that the course of history has been determined primarily by economic factors: The mode of production in material life determines the general character of the social, political and spiritual processes of life.' History has been punctuated by a series of 'class struggles' (interpreted in terms of the Hegelian dialectic): The nobility has been overthrown by the bourgeoisie and the bourgeoisie is doomed to destruction by the proletariat, leading finally to a 'classless society.' The existing struggle of capital and labor was rationalized in terms of the theory of 'surplus value': profit-seeking capitalists pay labor subsistence wages and take for themselves the 'surplus value' which the workers have added to the product through their labor" (39, p. 550).

The Communist Manifesto had been written by Marx and Freidrich Engels in 1847 (39, p. 550).

Literature

Literary giants of the time included: Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Victor Hugo, Browning, Tennyson, and, in the United States, Melville, Whitman, Longfellow, Hawthorne, and Poe. "Though there was great theatrical development little that is expected to live was written in the field of drama" (91, p. 357).

Philosophy

"Auguste Comte (1798-1857) became the founder of Positivism, a type of social physics describing a society rigidly governed by natural laws, with reason playing a large role in societal evolution. Such evolution was described in three stages: a military-theological stage; a critical-metaphysical; and a scientific-industrial stage. These ideas were further developed by Herbert Spencer (1820-1903), who sought to interpret society in terms of principles derived from mechanics. In his First Principles he amassed an enormous amount of data, systematically arranged and accompanied by a more or less consistent body of theory. He was properly the founder of sociology and the chief exponent of the philosophy of evolution.

"John Stuart Mill's (1806-1873) Principles of Political Economy, was the most logical and brilliant exposition of the classical economics. But Mill was more sympathetic toward human suffering than his predecessors and favored a mild form of interventionism.

Ferdinand Lassalle (1825-1864), borrowed heavily from Louis Blanc and Rodbertus and attempted to start producers' associations with state capital. His importance lay chiefly in arousing and organizing the German workers and in his demonstration of the importance of political action.

"In 1864 was the formation of the first international Workingmen's Association (The First International) by Marx, with headquarters first in London and then in New York. It was devoted to the cause of Marxian socialism and aimed at the organization of workers in the various countries. The fall of the Paris Commune in 1871, which Marx had warmly supported, frightened many of the more moderate elements and generally discredited socialism. Michael Bakunin (1814-1876), one of Marx's supporters, was at bottom an anarchist who envisaged the abolition of all governments and the institution of an ultra-individualistic regime. But unlike earlier theorists like William Godwin (1756-1836) and Proudhon, Bakunin was ready to hasten the advent of anarchy by every form of 'direct action' including the bomb and the revolver. Marx and Bakunin broke with each other (1872) and the First International collapsed (1876). The anarchist doctrine of Bakunin was developed by Prince Peter Kropotkin (1842-1921), who laid more stress on the importance of the collectivist principle, which would harmonize anarchism with social realities (anarcho-communism). From its very nature anarchism

could not become an organized mass movement, but during the period 1880-1900 it gained many adherents in France, Italy, Spain, and the United States, where a long series of outrages were committed" (39, p. 550).

Science

"The rifling of fire arms, the machine gun, smokeless powder and high explosives seemed to promise to make war impossible and Alfred Nobel, the inventor of dynamite, under the impression established his peace prize. The steel bridge naturally suggested the steel building frames, the under water tunnel, the use of caissons for deep foundations for high buildings. Applications of steam and electricity made labor-saving machinery possible, though John Stuart Mill declared that instead of saving human labor machinery added to the drudgery of mankind. The discoveries of science were all made available for the convenience and comfort of mankind.

"The second half of the century was in scientific circles largely taken up with the discussion of the theory of evolution. Independently Charles Darwin and Alfred Wallace hit upon the theory of natural selection as affording an explanation for the evolution of human beings. Darwin's book Origin of Species (1859), which Darwin himself would have preferred to call by its secondary title, 'The Preservation of Favored Races in the Struggle for Life,' for it discusses not origins but preservations, at once became the storm center of discussion

for scientists and theologians. There was a tendency to exaggerate what was called Darwinism, so that the second decade after the publication of Darwin's book came subsequently to be known as the 'silly seventies'

"Abbot Mendel's discovery of a series of laws of heredity led biology from theory to observation once more, but preoccupied with evolution theories the significance of his work was not recognized until the end of a generation

"In 1846 a new planet, Neptune, was discovered by Leverrier at Paris and Charles Adams at Cambridge, through mathematics alone from the study of the variations of Uranus, which had been discovered by Herschel (1781). This was a great triumph for applied mathematics and with the development of astronomical spectroscopy which demonstrated that the universe was composed of materials with which we are familiar on earth gave a new confidence to students of science. The doctrine of the conservation of energy was demonstrated by Joule, Mayer and Helmholtz

"Electricity was developed by Davy, Fraday, Clark Maxwell and Lord Kelvin, who left imperishable monuments of successful research

"Chemistry made the waste material of factories the source of valuable by-products. Coal tar yielded up the dyes and drugs which had been stored in prehistoric plants, the original

discoveries in this field being made by the English and exploited by the Germans" (91, p. 357).

Science Summary

"1824. Leopold von Ranke (1795-1886), in his Zur Kritik neuerer Geschichtschreiber, completed the earlier critical work of men like B. G. Niebuhr (1776-1831) and laid the basis for modern historical criticism.

"1825. James Mill (1773-1836) published his Analysis of the Phenomena of the Human Mind, a basic work of modern psychology.

"1830-1833. The Principles of Geology of Sir Charles Lyell (1797-1875), the basis of modern geology. Lyell assembled all the known facts about fossils and all available evidence of changes in the earth. At about the same time Adam Sedgwick (1785-1873) first investigated and named the Cambrian rocks.

"1830. Opening of the Liverpool-Manchester railroad in England, the first to use locomotive power for traction exclusively and the first to be built for passenger traffic as well as freight. Railroads spread rapidly on both sides of the Atlantic, especially in the 1840's" (39, p. 554).

"1831. Michael Faraday (1791-1867) demonstrated the fact of electro-magnetic induction and laid the foundations for three great branches of practical electrical science:

electro-chemistry, electro-magnetic induction, and electro-magnetic waves" (39, p. 551).

"1832. Samuel F. B. Morse (1791-1872) developed the first practical electrical telegraph, after a large number of experiments in the preceding hundred years.

"1834. Cyrus McCormick patented the reaping machine.

"1836. The Prussian needle-gun, invented by Johann N. Dreyse (1787-1867), made practical the breech-loading principle.

"1836. Introduction of the screw propeller, developed by John Stevens (1749-1838) and later applied by John Ericsson (1803-1889) and Sir Francis Smith (1808-1874).

"1836. The Balloon of Nassau, the first large-scale balloon, which flew from London to Weilburg, nearly 500 miles.

"1836. Invention of the revolver by Samuel Colt, an American.

"1837. Introduction of the steel plow in America, an invention of John Deer" (39, p. 555).

"1838. Matthias Jakob Schleiden (1804-1881) formulated the cell theory in physiology" (39, p. 551).

"1839. The first real bicycle, an invention of Kirkpatrick MacMillan of Dumfries.

"1839. Accidental discovery of the process of vulcanizing rubber, by Charles Goodyear, an American.

"1839. Moritz Jacobi's rotary motor (invented 1834) was successfully applied to a boat carrying 14 passengers.

*1839. The Peninsula and Oriental Line (P. and O.) established regular steamship service from England to Alexandria, to meet the ships of the East India Company coming up the Red Sea.

*1840. Samuel Cunard (1787-1865) founded the first important transatlantic steamship line.

*1840. The first incandescent electric light, invented by Sir William R. Grove (1811-1896).

*1842. W. H. Phillips invented the first helicopter using steam power to leave the ground.

*1844. Morse transmitted the first telegraph message over a line between Baltimore and Washington. The telegraph was rapidly developed after this, especially by the railroads. During the 1850's most of the large cities in America and Europe were connected" (39, p. 555).

*1844. An American dentist, Dr. Horace Wells of Hartford, demonstrated that nitrous oxide might be used as an anesthetic,

*1846. Another American dentist, Dr. W. T. G. Morton of Boston, first used ether as an anesthetic" (39, p. 551).

*1846. Elias Howe, an American, patented the sewing machine" (39, p. 555).

*1847. H. L. F. von Helmholtz (1821-1894) first set forth the theory of the conservation of energy" (39, p. 551).

*1851. Introduction of the wet collodion process by Scott Archer. This revolutionized the photographic film.

*1851. The first successful submarine telegraph cable was laid between Dover and Calais. This was made possible by the introduction of gutta-percha as an insulator.

*1851. Charles Page's electric locomotive drew a train of cars from Washington to Bladensburg, Maryland, at 19 miles an hour. The cost of batteries delayed the further development of the electric railway.

*1852. The first practical dirigible balloon, driven by steam power, was built by Henry Giffard" (39, p. 555).

*1852. Paul Broca (1824-1880) first localized the speech center in the brain.

*1852. Count Joseph Arthur de Gobineau (1816-1882) in his Inequality of Human Races laid the basis for much later writing on race superiority" (39, p. 551).

*1855. Opening of the Soo Canal, between Lakes Superior and Huron, making possible sea transportation of iron ore.

*1855. The principle of rifling was applied to the manufacture of artillery and small arms by Sir Joseph Whitworth (1803-1887) and W. G. Armstrong (1810-1900). It increased both range and accuracy.

*1856. Henry Bessemer developed the Bessemer process of making steel 'without fuel,' by means of an oxidizing blast.

*1856-1857. Development of the dry collodion process in photography, making possible the extension of the art of amateurs.

"1859. Opening of Drake's oil well at Titusville, Pennsylvania, making the beginning of the commercial exploitation of petroleum.

"1859. The first ironclad frigate (La Glorie) built for Napoleon III by Stanislas Dupuy de Lome (1816-1885)" (39, p. 555).

"1859. The Origin of Species, by Charles Darwin (1809-1882), the most important work of modern biology. Darwin, inspired by Malthus' population hypothesis, spent 20 years in the collection of data to test his own hypothesis that species evolve through variation and natural selection of those individuals best suited to survive in given environmental conditions. Much the same theory was developed independently by Alfred R. Wallace (1823-1913). Thomas H. Huxley (1825-1895) was one of the most ardent defenders of the Darwinian theory against opponents drawn chiefly from the religiously orthodox. In Germany much the same mission was assumed by Ernst Heinrich Haeckel (1834-1919)" (39, p. 551).

"1860. Oliver F. Winchester (1810-1880) introduced the repeating rifle.

"1862. Richard J. Gatling (1818-1903) invented the machine gun.

"1862. The first engine (Beau de Rochas cycle) using commercial gas.

"1864. George Pullman built the first sleeping car, for use on railroads.

"1865. After two unsuccessful attempts, two trans-atlantic cables were laid, long-distance reception having been made possible by the invention of the mirror galvanometer by William Thomson, later Lord Kelvin (1824-1907).

"1865. William Bullock of Philadelphia invented the web press, using a web or roll of paper and adding speed (similar to the Walter press developed for the London Times).

1865. Using the regenerative gas furnace principle of Sir William Siemens (1823-1883), Pierre Martin (1824-1915) developed the open hearth process of making steel" (39, p. 555).

"1865. An obscure Austrian monk, Gregor Mendel (1822-1884), whose work was rediscovered much later, experimented on the cross-breeding of peas and revealed that in heredity certain characters are indivisible units. Mendel established the mechanics of heredity and introduced a 'quantum conception into biology.'

"1865. Joseph Lister (1827-1912) initiated the practice of antiseptic surgery" (39, p. 551).

"1865. Pierre Lallement developed the two-wheeled velocipede, the first crank driven bicycle (the boneshaker).

"1866. The first efficient locomotive torpedo, invented by Robert Whitehead (1823-1905).

"1868. The Sholes typewriter was first put to commercial use.

*1869. The Westinghouse airbrake was patented.

*1869. Introduction of refrigeration in railway transportation.

*1869. First color photography, done by Ducos du Haroun.

*1869, Nov. 16. Official opening of the Suez Canal, under construction for 10 years under the direction of Ferdinand de Lesseps (1805-1894). This revolutionized communications between Europe and the Orient" (39, p. 555).

Exploration

"In the years 1826-1829, Dumont d'Urville, next to Cook the greatest explorer of the Pacific, investigated New Zealand, New Guinea, New Hebrides, Fiji, and the Mariannes.

"Captain Fitzroy, with Charles Darwin, made a famous scientific voyage in the 'Beagle' to Tahiti and New Zealand, 1833-1835.

"The French initiated a policy of annexation by taking the Marquesas and establishing a protectorate over Tahiti and the Society Islands. In 1844 they took over Cambier Island in the Tuamotus, claiming a protectorate over the entire group, which was formally annexed in 1881. In 1853 the French annexed New Caledonia" (39, p. 895).

Japan

"In 1846, the American Commodore Biddle visited Edo Bay, but trade was refused. Three years later, Commodore Glynn

succeeded in getting American castaways at Nagasaki, and in 1851, Commodore J. H. Aulick was commissioned to open relations with Japan, but was removed from his command; Commodore M. C. Perry was appointed as his successor, 1852; Holland warned Japan of the project. The Perry expedition was sent to improve treatment in Japan of American castaways from whalers, to open one or two ports for trade and supplies, especially coal for California--Shanghai steamship service; his instructions were pacific in nature.

"In 1853, Perry with four ships anchored off Uraga in Edo Bay and remained ten days, delivering the president's letter, which was referred to the emperor and to the daimyo, an unprecedented course which aroused the whole nation and elicited a largely anti-foreign response.

"The feudatories increasingly criticized the action of Edo, and the public became divided into two camps--(1) those in favor of the expulsion of the foreigners (joi), led by emperor-honoring Tokugawa Nariakira (1800-1860), ex-Lord of Mito, and (2) the realists who saw that concessions to the foreigners were necessary, led by Ii Naosuke (Kamon-no-kami) (1815-1860). The two groups also divided over proposed heirs for the childless Iesada. Naosuke favored Tokugawa Iemochi, Lord of Kii. Nariakira favored his own son, Hitosubashi (Keiki), and resorted to the unprecedented stratagem of seeking imperial backing for his candidate.

"In 1854, Perry returned to Edo Bay with more ships, hastened by fear of Russian and French efforts to get treaties, and secured the Treaty of Kanagawa (Mar. 31), which opened two ports, permitted trade under regulations, provided better treatment of American castaways, and included most-favored-nation clause, but omitted extra-territoriality. This was followed by treaties with England (Oct. 1854), Russia (Feb. 1855), and Holland (Nov. 1855, Jan. 1856), which gave further privileges. Japan was not yet really open to trade. All these treaties were signed by the shogun (called by foreigners tycoon (tai-kun), and wrongly regarded by them as the 'secular emperor').

"The Dutch aided the Japanese in laying the foundations for a future navy.

"In 1856, American Consul-General Townsend Harris arrived at Shimoda with instructions to procure a commercial treaty. The important commercial treaty previously arranged with Harris provided for unsupervised trade and permanent residence at five ports: residence at Edo and Osaka, an envoy at Edo, extra-territoriality, a conventional tariff, the prohibition of the import of opium, revision in 1872 or later. Treaties followed with Holland (Aug. 18), Russia (Aug. 19), England (Aug. 26), France (Oct. 7), all on the model of the Harris Treaty.

"In 1859, Kyoto informed Edo that foreigners were to be expelled as soon as possible. Foreign merchants continued to settle in Yokohama. A series of attacks upon foreigners followed and resulted in foreign pressure upon Edo for redress. Silver-gold exchange rate of 5 to 1 led to outflow of gold.

"In 1860, the first Japanese embassy to the United States exchanged treaty ratifications in Washington" (39, p. 888).

Japanese Art

"Katsushika Hokusai (1760-1849) and Ando (or Utagawa) Hiroshige (1797-1858), were two of the best known ukiyo-e woodblock artists" (39, p. 887).

Africa

"In 1825, Alexander G. Laing crossed the desert from Tripoli to Tuat and thence to Timbuktu, the first modern to visit the latter city.

"In 1827, Rene Caille reached Timbuktu from French Guinea and proceeded thence to Fez.

"In 1831-1833, David Livingston crossed the Kalahari Desert and advanced to Lake Ngami, returning (1850) to the upper Zambezi.

"During the years 1849-1853, Heinrich Barth and A. Overweg crossed from Tripoli to the Niger and Lake Chad, thoroughly studying the country for the first time.

"In 1853-1856, Livingston crossed the continent from the Zambezi to Loanda and returned, discovering the Victoria Falls" (39, p. 826).

Summary: International Growing Pains

1830. Revolt in Paris. Separation of Holland and Belgium. France conquers Algiers. Revolution in Poland.

1831. Polish rising defeated. Brazilian revolution. Reform bill introduced into British Parliament. The Abolition movement acquires importance in the United States.

1832. Black Hawk War. Nullification in South Carolina. Reform bill passed in England. Abdoel-Kader leads Arabs against French occupation in Algiers.

1833. Migrations of the Boers begin. Abolition of slavery in the British colonies. American Anti-Slavery Society founded. Civil War in Portugal. Treaty of peace and alliance between Turkey and Russia.

1834. Quadruple alliance of England, France, Spain and Portugal. Education in England receives its first parliamentary grant.

1835. The second Seminole War. Texans revolt against Mexican rule. Conference of Toplitz between the emperors of Russia and Austria and the king of Prussia. Halley's comet reappears.

1836. The Alamo massacre. Texas gains independence and proclaims Houston president. Revolts in Spain and Portugal.

1837. Financial crisis in the United States. Rebellion in Canada. Queen Victoria ascends the British throne.

1838. Peru proclaims independence. International Copyright Act passed. Great Western steamship makes her first transatlantic voyage. Daguerre introduces photography.

1839. Gold found in Australia. Central American confederacy dissolves. Egyptian forces defeat Turkish army and acquire its fleet. Russia wars successfully in Caucasia; disastrously against Khiva. Anglo-Indian force invades Afghanistan. Anti-Corn Law and Chartist agitations in England.

1840. Penny postage inaugurated in Great Britain. Revolt in Syria. Occupation of Acre and Beirut by British and Austrian expedition. Peace established by the Treaty of London. Opium war between England and China.

1841. Union of Upper and Lower Canada. Successful revolt of the Afghans against British rule.

1842. British disasters in Afghanistan. Khyber Pass massacre. Dorr Rebellion in Rhode Island. Seminole War ends. Maine boundary settled by Ashburton Treaty. British punitive expedition reoccupies Afghanistan and retires. Treaty of Nanking opens Chinese ports to British commerce. Boer Republic in Natal occupied by the British.

1843. Irish Home Rule and Repeal agitation under O'Connell. Free Church formed in Scotland. Thames tunnel opened. Botta discovers site of Nineveh.

1844. Electric telegraphy is practically developed. French subdue Algiers and Morocco. United States and France make treaties with China. Santo Domingo establishes a republic.

1845. Texas admitted to the Union. Mexico declares war with the United States. British war with the Sikhs in India.

1846. Defeat of Mexico. Occupation of California and New Mexico. Repeal of the English Corn Laws. New Zealand acquires constitutional charter. Great Irish famine and large emigration to the United States. Leverrier and Adams by applied mathematics discover the planet Neptune.

1847. War between Mexico and the United States. Mexican capital captured. Jesuits expelled from Switzerland. Salt Lake City founded by the Mormons.

1848. Gold discovered in California. Revolution in France; republic proclaimed; Louis Napoleon becomes President. Risings in Italy, Germany, Austria, Hungary, Denmark, Poland and Ireland. War between Italy and Austria. Second Sikh War in India. British occupy the Orange River State. Boers migrate and establish Transvaal Republic.

1849. Gold miners rush to California. Prussia defeats Danish attack on Schleswig-Holstein. Austrians suppress Hungarian revolt. Also the Italian revolt. French army restores the papal temporal power in Rome. British conquer Sikhs and annex Punjab. Livingston discovers Lake Ngami.

1850. Russia starts its career of conquest in Asia. German Confederation becomes effective. Clayton-Bulwer Treaty between the United States and Great Britain provides for transisthmian canal. Taiping Rebellion in China. McClure discovers Northwest Passage.

1851. Coup d'etat in France; Louis Napoleon elected president of the Republic for 10 years. The Great Exhibition in London.

1852. Empire restored in France. Napoleon III proclaimed emperor. British war with Burma and annex Pegu. Buenos Aires secedes from Argentina. Opening of Japan.

1853. Russo-Turkish War. Revolution in Mexico. The Taipings take several Chinese cities.

1854. The Crimean War. Commercial treaty between the United States and Canada. Commodore Perry effects a treaty between Japan and the United States. The Orange River Republic is established.

1855. Walker's filibustering expedition in Nicaragua. Fall of Sebastopol to the allies. Capitulation of Kars to the Russian forces. Bessemer steel process patented. Transisthmian Panama Railway opened. Zambezi Victoria Falls discovered by Livingston.

1856. Settlement conflicts in Kansas. Crimean War ends. British wars with Persia and China.

1857. The Indian Mutiny. France and England invade China. Business panic in the United States.

1858. Great Britain suppresses the mutiny and annexes India. China defeated, makes treaties with England, France and other powers, and cedes Amur to Russia. First Atlantic submarine cable laid. Revolutionary theory of Darwin and Wallace announced.

1859. The John Brown raid at Harper's Ferry. Franco-Italian War with Austria. Austrians defeated at Magenta and Solferino. Treaty of Zurich ends war and Italy acquires Lombardy. Livingston extends exploration in Africa.

1860. Oil wells machine-drilled in Pennsylvania. Abraham Lincoln elected President of the United States. South Carolina secedes. Anglo-French war with China and occupation of Peking. Garibaldi's campaigns in Italy. French occupy Syria after massacres of Christians.

1861. Civil War in the United States commences. Victor Emmanuel becomes king of Italy. Russian serfs freed. Austrian Empire receives new constitution. France, England and Spain send fleets to Mexico to enforce claims.

1862. Numerous battles fought between Northern and Southern forces. First battle of ironclads in Hampton Roads. France declares war against Mexico. France acquires Cochin-China. In expedition against Rome, Garibaldi is defeated, wounded and captured.

1863. Civil War in United States continues. Emancipation of slaves proclaimed. Poles' unsuccessful revolt against Russia. France conquers Mexico, proclaims an empire with Maximilian of Austria as emperor.

1864. Civil War in United States continues. Austro-Prussian War with Denmark ended by the Treaty of Vienna. Russia conquers Circassia. Spanish-Peruvian War. The Taiping Rebellion in China suppressed.

1865. Civil War ends in United States. Lincoln assassinated. Crank and peddle bicycle invented. Mendel's theory of heredity established. Fenian Rebellion in Ireland. War between Paraguay and Argentina. Alliance between Argentina, Brasil and Uruguay.

1866. Fenians from United States invade Canada. Prusso-Italian forces defeat Austria; treaties of Prague and Vienna effect peace. Venetia united in Italy. German Confederation dissolved. North German Confederation formed. Spain attacks Chile and Peru and bombards Valparaiso and Callao. Second and successful Atlantic cable laid.

1867. Purchase of Alaska by United States. Maximilian shot in Mexico. Abyssinian War with England. Suez Canal opened to navigation.

1868. Revolution in Spain, Royalists defeated. Insurrection in Cuba. Shogunate of Japan overthrown. Defeat of Paraguay.

1867. The Pacific Railway completed. General Grant becomes President of the United States (91, pp. 359-360).

1869. Opening of the Suez Canal (59, p. 321).

Section VIII: The Victorian Age

Germany

"The Franco-Prussian War was declared 19 July 1870. The French Minister of War boasted that the army was so perfectly equipped that it would not require even a gaiter button for a year. It had been looked upon as the model military organization of the world, studied by all the other nations, but now proved rotten to the core. The Prussian army, on the other hand, was as Moltke had declared ready to the minute. Scarcely two weeks had passed before the series of Prussian victories began. France had counted on the jealousy of the other German states to keep them neutral at least, or perhaps ready to join against Prussia. All sided with Prussia except Austria, which remained neutral. On 3 August the French lost the battle of Worth, and by 6 August when a rumor was current in Paris that the Prussians were defeated, French armies nearly everywhere were in disastrous retreat.

"On 18 August Marshal Bazaine lost the battle of Gravelotte and shortly afterward was isolated at Metz. MacMahon with the emperor was caught at Sedan between two Prussian armies and on 1 September compelled to surrender. This led to the fall of the empire. Paris was soon invested. Gambetta,

escaping in a balloon, organized the French Republic. The last hope of the French expired when on 27 October Metz, with 180,000 soldiers, was surrendered to Bazaine. He was tried for treason subsequently and condemned, but the verdict of history is that he was an overestimated man, outgeneraled by Moltke and hampered by confusion in the French military system. On 10 December the German Empire was voted by the Reichstag at Berlin and on 18 December, on the proposal of the king of Bavaria, the representatives of the German states meeting in the palace of Versailles chose King Wilhelm of Prussia as German Emperor, with the right of succession in his family. At the end of the war Bismarck insisted on the cession of Alsace and Lorraine, with their immense mineral wealth, to Germany and an indemnity of five milliards of francs (about (\$1,000,000,000)). This seemed such a huge sum, coming on the heels of the great losses inflicted by the war, that it was felt that it would cripple France forever. The sum was paid in five years, while France enjoyed unexampled prosperity. United Germany became the most powerful state in Europe. After he had made the Triple Alliance with Italy and Austria, which somehow was brought to sink its long traditions of enmity so as to secure German support against the growing power of Russia, Bismarck was looked up to as the greatest statesman of Europe. He was quite literally a mere statesman. Everything had been done for Prussia without any thought of the

rights of the people, still less of the rights of other peoples or other countries. The policy of 'blood and iron,' of which he was so proud, was the watchword of Prussians, continuing their influence even after Bismarck's dismissal by the young emperor, Wilhelm II, in 1890. It worked itself out to its legitimate conclusion and was recognized for the supreme injustice it represented, only with the great War of 1914-1918" (91, p. 354).

William Gladstone

"The contrast with Bismarck in the 19th century is his great English contemporary, Gladstone. He was the leader in more social reforms, correcting age-long abuses, than any statesman in history. The memorable session of the English Parliament during his first Premiership (1868-1874) accomplished an almost incredible amount of legislation for popular benefit. The British Parliament, elected in 1865, dissolved in 1868, on the question of the disestablishment and disendowment of the Irish Church. To the surprise of the Conservatives, who had appealed to the country, the Liberals were returned with an overwhelming majority. The Irish Church bill was at once brought forward, passed by the Commons and when it would probably have been rejected by the House of Lords, the queen wrote to the archbishop of Canterbury, reminding him that the bill had been carried by a very large majority in a House of Commons elected on this issue, so the Lords

yielded to the will of the people and the bill was passed. This was the prelude to far-reaching social reforms. In 1870 Gladstone secured the passage of a land act for Ireland and the beginning of justice for the Irish tenant farmers. This bill recognized that the Irish farmer had an estate in his holding and gave the sanction of law to the Ulster custom of tenant right. This session of 1870 was famous for its legislative achievements. Mr. Herbert Paul says that an example of activity so various and so successful can scarcely be found since the days of the Great Parliament (1640). 'Between 8 February and 10 August Parliament took the first step, the step which counts, in remodeling the agrarian law of Ireland, established a permanent system of education in England and Wales, introduced into the army the principle of a short enlistment and a reserve, formed a code of neutrality in time of war, erected a scientific theory of naturalization, provided for the extradition of criminals, and abolished the punishment of the innocent with the guilty by the forfeiture of the felon's estate.' The following year saw the abolition of the purchase of commissions in the army and the religious tests at the universities which had imposed a great injustice on all who were not prepared to sign the 39 Articles. Dissenters could not take degrees before this, unless prepared to sign the Articles. Gladstone's reforms made the universities national institutions. The Ballot Act reformed the

franchise and Gladstone's Irish University scheme was meant to remove another injustice in Ireland. The English people could not advance so fast as this and Gladstone was replaced as Premier by Disraeli. In contrast with the work of his great political opponent, Gladstone's achievements stand out in ever-increasing prominence as time goes on. Disraeli was a great politician; Gladstone a statesman in the best sense of the word, who realized that the statesman's highest privilege and duty was to provide opportunities whereby the people might secure all possible pursuit of happiness. Following this policy, Gladstone could even change opinions publicly expressed and adhered to for a long time. Toward the end of his life he became a convert to Home Rule for Ireland, in the hope to remove a stigma that had blotted the fair name of England for centuries, and though his purpose was not attained, what he accomplished brought the Irish question into such prominence that it could never again be at rest until properly settled" (91, p. 354).

Spanish American War

"Except for some Indian troubles due to flagrant abuses of the Indians by Indian agents and the whites who lived near them, the United States was at peace for a generation after the Civil War, until the war with Spain. This was brought on by Spanish misrule in Cuba, but was precipitated by the unfortunate blowing up of the Maine, a United States man-of-war,

in the harbor of Havana Feb. 15, 1898. Congress was rushed into war by popular sentiment. The events of the war were the capture of Manila by Dewey (May 1) and the battle of Santiago (July 3) in which the Spanish fleet was destroyed. By the treaty of peace Cuba became a free country under the protection of the United States and Porto Rico and the Philippines came under the United States dominion" (91, p. 355).

Social Conditions

"The outlook for humanity at the end of the century was not promising. There were so many abuses in the social order that it seemed almost certain that severe internal troubles in many countries in the form of an uprising of labor against capital must occur before there could be any assurance of the end of discontent. A great part of the laboring population was not receiving a living wage, that is, such wages as would enable them to live decently and support their families properly. Prosperity in the sense of the accumulation of national wealth in many countries was very great, but there was an extremely unequal distribution of the wealth, so that a few families rolled in luxury and the great majority of the people, some of them having to work very long hours in extremely unsuitable conditions, were so poorly paid that they had to live in circumstances unworthy of civilization. Investigations conducted by Booth in London in the early nineties, showed that about 1,000,000 of the people, nearly one in three

of the population, were unable to obtain the necessities for healthy living. In many districts more than half the population were in distress or on the verge of it. London was said to be exceptional because of its overcrowding and the hard times were blamed for unfortunate conditions, but when Rowntree made a careful survey of York in 1899 he found the people of that provincial town in nearly as bad a condition as that reported for the capital, though that year trade was unusually prosperous. More than one in four of the population was found to be living in poverty though the fixed standard of family wages below which the poverty line was drawn was only 21 shillings and 8 pence per week, just about \$5.25. Conditions were worse on the Continent. The United States Daily Consular Reports at the close of the century declared that of 2,000,000 of people in Berlin, 1,125,000 had an income, but nearly one-half of the incomes were exempt from taxation because they were below \$214. per year. Of the 600,000 taxed incomes, nearly 550,000 were less than \$700 a year, that is about \$2 a day. Conditions were better in America and yet many of our working people were compelled to live huddled together in slums under intolerable conditions, while a few enjoyed luxuries.

*Spahr in An Essay on the Present Distribution of Wealth in the United States, estimated (1896) that 125,000 families of the wealthy class in the United States held \$33,000,000,000

of the total wealth of the nation, while 5,500,000 families of the poorer class had altogether but \$800,000,000. Of every 100 families one possessed more than the remaining 99 put together. The industrial era culminated in the creation of monopolies and trusts in which men, sometimes by good luck, but oftener by illegal or unjust means, amassed vast fortunes, which when distributed by will served, as a rule, to do much more harm than good. Social unrest and threatening social revolution were impending at the beginning of the 20th century. The spirit of the French Revolution had made itself felt all during the century. Its main purpose, to quote Hilaire Belloc, was to gain back for the lower classes, so-called, the rights which they had enjoyed in the Middle Ages. The proletarians that is, in the original sense of the word, the child raisers of the race, struggled all during the century to secure the essential rights of humanity, the rights, to use Carlyle's expression, to have what is not denied the animals, proper nutrition and shelter for themselves and their offspring. At the end of the century better things seemed impending" (91, p. 358).

"There was a vast increase in education of all grades. Books were multiplied and professors became a caste as powerful over the mind as intellectuals used to be in age-long China" (94, p. 219).

Commerce

"During the opening tranquility (1900-1914) civilized nations were more fortunate than they realized at the time, and far more fortunate than ever before or since. They shared with each other what, in essentials, was the same opportunity of enjoying the general progress of mankind; what, in the United States, is known as 'the open door.' The world as a whole being at peace, there was unqualified freedom of the seas for all shipping. Equal tolls on tonnage, whatever its origin and destination, were levied in the Panama and Suez canals; and so neutral was the status of the latter that Russia sent a fleet by way of Suez to the Far East (about 1905) while Italy used the Suez Canal as a line of communication for her army in Ethiopia (1935). So with seaports like New York, London and Shanghai. On the international exchange, currencies, commodities, and raw materials, with securities of all nations and their industries were bought and sold without let or hindrance. A basic fact was Great Britain's adherence to free trade. She was an open market for the imports of all countries, including Germany; and to tariffs within her dependencies this principle of equal facilities for all commerce was generally applied. In the greatest of empires the old colonial system was fast becoming a memory. The wealth of the world, reflected in statistics of commerce, the yield of taxation, accumulating assets and expenditures on

display and comfort, were increasing; and in no country was the increase more rapid than in the German Reich, with its impressive commercial and scientific prestige" (94, p. 219).

"Activities of every kind were transformed. Management was assisted by cunning devices--the card index, adding machines--and offices were completely modernized by the employment of women well-equipped in arts of efficiency. Mass production, dramatized by Henry Ford, multiplied automobiles, refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, washing machines, and other amenities in the home. Illumination was adorned by neon light, and air conditioning was applied to many trains, public buildings and homes

"The century opened amid the South African conflict between British and Dutch, for which war, with fault on both sides, the mineowners of Kimberley and Johannesburg must accept their share of responsibility. In 1902, a British victory was admitted by the Peace of Vereeniging but the mineowners used it to force the importation of Chinese coolies into the country as servile labor which measure was a factor in the liberal revival that swept over Great Britain in 1905. Dominion status was granted at once to Dutch and British, and the Chinese coolies vanished from the scene, not however without leaving the problem of Negro labor in mines and on plantations throughout Africa still to be solved" (94, p. 220).

"The disturbance of the tribal village, with no alternative community to take its place, was serious, and in the so-called Congo Free State, King Leopold II of Belgium conducted a damnable system of exploitation known as 'red rubber.' Cocoa slavery was also exposed, and these test cases raised the broad question whether the Western World has a moral right to use raw materials from backward regions without securing a fair deal for natives affected. Credit is due to missionaries for their untiring advocacy of such racial justice, and the principles involved were recognized in due course by the League of Nations in its colonial mandates which forbade slave conditions. The native himself is not without blame. No slavery has been worse than the wrongs perpetrated by Liberia and Ethiopia.

"Mass production and mass distribution developed big business, and this tended to monopoly. Private firms of every kind--even family estates--have been reorganized as limited liability companies or corporations, often distributing their capital among the public. Mergers of such corporations by means of holding companies and other financial arrangements have been frequent, and vast monopolies or cartels, national and international, were organized, concentrating power and superprofits in a few hands. In the United States, the Sherman Anti-Trust Law (1890) was invoked to break up such aggregations of capital with what President Theodore Roosevelt called 'the big stick.' In 1909, the Standard Oil Company

was thus discovered. Outside the United States, trusts were held to be inevitable results of economic evolution--the view of orthodox socialism--and in Great Britain, followed by the United States, two correctives were adopted. The first was steeply graduated taxation on incomes and fortunes (see the 16th Amendment to the Constitution, 1913) which levies were necessitated in any case by the costs of war. Great fortunes, accumulated by the Astors and Vanderbilts, by Carnegie and the Morgans, by the Rockefellers and Mellons--to give examples--have been liquidated to some extent, not only by payments to the state but by voluntary gifts to public objects, at home and abroad. The prospect of less abundant benefactions in years to come has caused anxiety to religious, educational, and medical institutions. Great mansions have been abandoned, not only in Europe but along Fifth Avenue in New York City. Whatever their original cost, they are as unsalable as French chateaus when Robespierre presided over the guillotine.

"The new system of capitalization was not extended without abuses arising. A number of outstanding financiers suddenly acquired immense riches, only to find themselves on the wrong side of the law. Whitaker Wright, whose trouble was South African mines, committed suicide in London after conviction (1902). Another British casualty was Hatry, found guilty of fraudulent issue of securities" (94, p. 220).

Music

"The interest in folk song, with its particular flavor of health and vigor, is absent in most of the men whose names we have quoted. Still, such interest was a strong ingredient in the romantic naturalism of the second half of the century. It appeared in the Mighty Five of Russia, who included Modest Musorgski (1839-1881) with his opera Boris Godunov and Nikolai Rimski-Korsakov (1844-1908), but excluded Peter Ilich Tchaikovsky (1840-1893) for being too 'Western' in his symphonies and operas. It appeared in the Czechs, Bedrich Smetana (1824-1884), creator of the comic opera, The Bartered Bride, and the symphonic poems, My Fatherland, and Anton Dvorak (1841-1904), whose symphony From the New World (1893) has been particularly well known in the United States. A similar urge to write in regional idioms was at the bottom of the Norwegian Edvard Grieg's (1843-1907) piano pieces and songs and, somewhat belatedly, of the works of the American, Edward MacDonald (1861-1908) and the Finlander, Jean Sibelius (1865-). With some justification one might add to this list the German Engelbert Humperdinck (1854-1921), with his Wagnerian Children's fairy-tale opera Hansel and Gretel (1893).

"The leaders of the generation active in 1900 fought bitter battle around romanticism, either to lead it onward beyond its natural end and fulfillment, or else to stop its inevitable decay. There were still a few undiluted romanticists,

like Hugo Wolf (1860-1903), the Wagner of the Lied, Gustav Mahler (1860-1911), the ever-longing master of nine symphonies and many lieder, and Hans Pfitzner (1869-1849), composer of the opera Palestrina. And there were also a few undiluted naturalists. Nothing could be more significant than the name of 'verists' or truth-followers given to, and accepted by, the Italian opera school from the Cavalleria Rusticana (1890) of Pietro Mascagni (1863-1945), to Giacomo Puccini's (1858-1924) Girl of the Golden West (1910) and its followers in Germany (Eugene D'Albert, 1864-1932) and France (Gustave Charpentier (1860- ; Louise).

"In a curious last climax, Italians topped naturalism with futurismo or, as the French say, bruitisme, in an attempt to catch the spirit of the machine age with percussive and other noise makers and more or less without any melody instrument. Its father was Luigi Russolo (1885-) in 1914. Futurism has not died out, although the name has disappeared. Even Edgar Varese's Ionisation of 1931 for 13 players in two groups of percussion has been followed to this day by quite a number of noise pieces, including a broken glass pane to depict an automobile accident.

"Against romanticism and naturalism, and against the still dominating influence of Wagner, a new school, termed impressionism, arose in France in the 1890's under the leadership of Claude Debussy (1862-1918). Fascinated by fleeting

impressions, by the monetary, transitory images of our senses, by everything passing, vague, and subtle, this school moved away from musical architecture function, and logic. The laws of melody, harmony, counterpoint, and form, often challenged in the 50 years before Debussy, were dispensed with and replaced by 'the irridescent play of dreamy, unrelated chords and of shady, broken colors. If such play was not robust, it was dainty and delicate; if it lacked the backbone of vertebrates, it had at least the fragile beauty of butterflies' (Sachs). Most of Debussy's works were written in the 20 years from 1892 (the symphonic poem Prelude a l'Après-Midi d'un Faune) to 1911 (the mystery play, Le Martyre de Saint Sebastien), with a high peak in the middle (his only opera, Pelleas et Melisande, 1902). Thus, his work coincides approximately with the life span of the veristic opera.

"Debussy's influence was deep and wide, but hardly any of his followers were quite orthodox. This is particularly true of the greatest of them, Maurice Ravel (1875-1937); his most significant works, however (Pavane une Infante defunte (1899) for piano; the one-act opera, L'Heure Espagnole (1907); and the symphonic ballet-fragments, Daphnis et Chloe (1909-1911), are contemporary with those of Debussy. The same is true of such non-French impressionists as the Englishman, Frederick Delius (1862-1934), the Italian, Ottorino Respighi (1879-1936), the Spaniard, Manuel de Falla (1876-),

the American, Charles Martin Loeffler (1861-1935), and, in a way, the Russian, Alexander N. Scriabin (1872-1915). The most of these masters are indeed the closest contemporaries of Debussy, so that the expression 'followers' should be revised: impressionism belonged to one single generation.

"The reaction in France came with Erik Satie (1866-1925) and 'Les Six' of whom he was the center; cold honesty against romantic false emotions, and cold lucidity against impressionistic haze" (64, pp. 634-635).

Mention must be made of wonderfully light-hearted operettas by Sir Arthur Seymour Sullivan and Sir William Schwenck Gilbert, Gilbert writing the librettos and Sullivan the music. Their "series began with Trial by Jury in 1875, ended with The Gondoliers in 1889, and included The Pirates of Penzance, the Mikado, and The Yeomen of the Guard." Gilbert displays a whimsical humor that is often subtle, always healthy in tone, and his peculiar blend of humor with a genial cynicism earned for itself the title "Gilbertian".

Literature

The Victorians had enlarged their foreign horizon immeasurably beyond that of their predecessors. And after 1880 one can see the English letters of influence of the realism of the Frenchmen, Balzac, Stendhal, Flaubert, and de Maupassant; the naturalism of the Frenchman Zola; the symbolism of the Frenchmen Baudelaire and Verlaine or of the Belgian Maeterlinck;

the brilliant all-round achievements of the Russian novelists Tolstoi, Dostoevsky, Chekhov, and Turgenev; the German Nietzsche's idea of the super-man asserting his will to save mankind; the Frenchman Bergson's philosophy of creative evolution; the Austrian Freud's emphasis upon the subconscious mind; the hedonistic philosophy of the Persian Omar Khayyam; the American Mark Twain's pungent and often savage humor; the Norwegian Ibsen's or the Swedish Strindberg's severe indictments of conventional society. Moreover, in almost all of these influences there lie implicit and explicit revolts--revolts against authority and the established order of things. Even when it came to the fundamental facts of science, new discoveries such as the laws of relativity or the quantum theory might obtrude themselves and raise doubts whether two and two are four.

"Above and beyond all this, the Englishman after 1880 was in his literature more and more conscious of social problems, as he was also in his politics. He was, indeed, better educated, if by education we mean the cultivated awareness of his environment and his responsibilities. It seems clear now that the Victorian compromise began to break down in the eighties and nineties. Farar came to severe disillusionment and dissatisfaction not only with the older beliefs but also with the new religion of science. Some, of course, followed in the glad gospel of Huxley and faced ahead. Others took

refuge in a late romantic kind of aestheticism and revival of Greek and Roman paganism, which turned quickly into a jaded and artificial kind of decadence. Still others did as James Thomson and fell victims to a spiritual melancholia expressed in terms of absolute negation. All of these suffered from le mal du siècle, the disease of the century, or as the Germans put it, a Weltschmerz, a "world-suffering" (95, p. 846).

"There was a definite and conscious movement known as the Irish Literary Renaissance, which engaged at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth the best genius of an unusual group of Irish writers. The founder and leader of the movement was William Butler Yeats. Associated with him was an earnest group of poets, dramatists, and essayists whose objective was to create unity of spirit and national consciousness among the Irish people by reviving their romantic past and interpreting their modern life and character. One of the most important phases of this renaissance was the so-called Irish Theater Movement, which resulted in the establishment of the Abbey Theater (1910) in Dublin and in the writing of numerous remarkable plays, which had a notable effect upon the development of the drama in both England and America. Among the miscellaneous writers who participated in the renaissance were--besides Yeats--G. W. Russell (AE) (1867-1935), Edwin Martyn (1859-1924), George Moore (1852-1933), Lady Augusta Gregory (1852-1932), and

John M. Synge (1871-1909). In most of these writers the romance and mysticism of the Celtic past and the realism of modern Ireland were intermingled. Some, however, leaned more to one phase of the movement than to the other.

"The most miscellaneous and, in some respects, the most Celtic of the group was Yeats himself. His writing was permeated with the characteristic melancholy and mysticism of the Celts, and to his native Romanticism was added the tendency toward impressionism that made him an ardent admirer of the French symbolists and of the English poet William Blake. In his later years Yeats turned in large measure to humanitarian and even proletarian considerations. He was a painter as well as a poet, and his scenes of the Donegal country have much of the haunting quality of his verse. Martyn wrote plays and reformed liturgical music; he is one of the central figures in George Moore's autobiographical Hail and Farewell. Lady Augusta Gregory published in 1902 a beautiful retelling of the Celtic legend of Cuchulain of Muirthemne; her one-act comedies, however, are playful but sympathetic interpretations of modern Irish life. Synge turned his pen while dying to the plaintive legend of Deirdre of the Sorrows, but most of his dramatic work is an interpretation of the bleak life of the Irish fisherman and peasant. With his mind disciplined and his spirit tempered by a prolonged study of Greek tragedy he could not write ignobly, and in The Shadow of the Glen

(1903) and Riders to the Sea, his peasants have the stature of classical figures" (95, p. 853).

"Of the romantic novelists, the most distinguished is Robert Louis Stevenson. His love of living, of travel, of action, of adventure on land and sea suffuses his stories" (95, p. 855).

The bitter realism and sharp satire in Samuel Butler's The Way of All Flesh had much influence as did the French leader of naturalism Emile Zola. The most sympathetic novelist of the naturalists was John Galsworthy. Thomas Hardy is the greatest of the English realists of the period. H. G. Wells leaned on fantasy and science fiction, while Joseph Conrad combined accuracy with romantic symbolism and insight. The exotic Indian tales of Rudyard Kipling established the short story as a major form in English literature (95, pp. 856-859).

In the United States, Sidney Lanier was the first of the outstanding poets of the South after the Civil War (8, p. 235). His work was chivalric musically tonal.

"During the two or three decades following the Civil War, our most popular form of literature was the regional short story. Bret Harte and Hamlin Garland in the West, George Washington Cable, Joel Chandler Harris, and Mary Noailles Murfree in the South, Sarah Orne Jewett and Mary E. Wilkins Freeman in New England--all portrayed with tender sympathy the lives of the inhabitants of their respective regions.

One effect of this body of literature was to reassure Southern readers that there was much natural goodness in the North" (8, p. 237).

"Lincoln liked to read the Southwestern Yarnspinners, for he was one of them; and from their writings runs a straight line of genealogical descent to the great works of Mark Twain: Roughing It, in which he told with gusto the tall tales of his sojourn in the Far West, and Life on the Mississippi, The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, and The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, in which he immortalized the Mississippi from Hannibal to New Orleans. Mark Twain did not omit the seamy side of the Mississippi River region in the 1850's--the squalor, the vulgarity, the lawlessness; but this aspect is almost forgotten by the reader because there was so much that was splendid and exhilarating. The splendor was symbolized for Mark Twain in the steamboat, and 'the boat was rather a handsome sight!' The exhilaration was owing to the unrestricted freedom of the frontier world, an abandon symbolized by Huck and Jim on the raft--Huck free, Jim on the road to liberty. As our civilization grew older and more complex--as he matured, in short--Mark Twain felt that its members were more and more restricted" (8, p. 252).

In contrast with Mark Twain as a Southern writer, William Dean Howells was drawn to the North and wrote of the grime and squalor of New York City (8, p. 246). Henry James

wrote novels with intense psychological insight. Emily Dickinson wrote her moral poems untouched by the new advances of scientific thinking (8, p. 261), while Theodore Dreiser believed men were creatures of force (8, p. 261), untouched by anything except chemical forces within and social forces from without (8, p. 262).

Local color had been dealt with by many of the yarn-spinners, but O. Henry was supreme in the handling of Mid-western, South American, Southern and New Yorker coloring and is probably the master of the unexpected twist at the end of a short story.

Drama

"After preliminary efforts chiefly in France, the modern drama took shape as a critical and analytical instrument of realism in Scandinavia, largely in the hands of Henrik Ibsen and August Strindberg. It was simultaneously and subsequently employed in France by a number of able practitioners of less stature--Henry Becque, Eugene Brieux, Francois de Curel, Georges de Porto-Riche, and Paul Hervieu; in Central Europe, by Gerhart Hauptmann, Frank Wedekind, and Arthur Schnitzler; in Russia, by Leo Tolstoy, Anton Chekhov, and Maxim Gorki; in Southern Europe, by Jacinto Benavente and other Spaniards and Italians; and, finally, in England, Ireland, and America. In each instance, moreover, the realistic style underwent some modification or augmentation as it spread across the

Western world. It acquired precision in France, humanisation in Russia, poetic intensification in Ireland, robustness in America, intellectual nimbleness in England. The possibility of variation was inherent in modern realism and was made apparent by writers so different in temperament and endowment as Becque, Chekhov, George Bernard Shaw, Sean O'Casey, and Eugene O'Neill. This cannot be said of Greek tragedy, which was only vulgarized and sterilized in Rome; of Elizabethan drama, which was not for export and lost vitality very quickly even in England; of seventeenth-century French tragedy, which shriveled when exposed to a different national climate.

"A similar capacity for dissemination and variation appeared in the second and, after 1890, parallel movement of dramatic modernism, which diverged from realism. The movement away from realism began in France with the Belgian symbolist Maurice Maeterlinck and the romanticist Edmond Rostand. It spread to Scandinavia, affecting the later work of Ibsen and Strindberg as well as their successors in the North. It drew Central European playwrights such as Hauptmann, Wedekind, and Molner" (24, p. 11).

The Boer War

"Canada seemed to be drifting toward absolute independence of the mother country until Canadian volunteers served in the Boer War, a forecast of the sacrifices to be made a little later in the Great War. . . .

"The Confederation of Australia made the great southern continent ready to play an important role in the 20th century. The Boer War showed its loyalty to the mother country and the Great War consecrated it in blood.

"The last year of the century saw a severe blow to English prestige in the Boer War. The Dutch South African settlers, known as Boers, trekked from the British dominions at the Cape of Good Hope into the Transvaal, or cross-river country. They were living in peace when the discovery of gold led to a great influx of Uitlanders (foreigners). The Boers refused to share the franchise except under rigid conditions, and Dr. Jameson (1895) led a raid to secure reform. President Kruger, instead of court-martialing the captured raiders, gave them up to the British, who treated them with leniency. Chamberlain, the English minister, seemed intent on forcing the Boers into war, thinking this the easiest way to end friction. Sir William Butler's warning of the danger of such a mistake was unheeded. A period of severe political tension ensued, and Britain found herself in a war which proved costly in life and treasure. The Zulu War and its disasters had not proved a lesson. A tactless English agent pushed Cetewayo, King of the Zulus, into a war (1878-1879) easily avoided but extremely costly in men and in prestige. The Zulus, brave to desperation, inflicted severe losses. The young French Prince Imperial lost his life in one of their incursions. The Boers

proved quite as brave and even more successful in fighting. The dogged courage of English troops, pushed to frontal attack, only sacrificed them to the bullets of an enemy, all sharpshooters, ready to take advantage of every mode of concealment and using smokeless powder, so that the English saw their comrades fall scarcely able to discover what to shoot at in return. The public feeling of the world ran strong against Britain. 'She was unjustly oppressing a small nation and coveting valuable territory which did not belong to her.' (Oscar Browning) All the resources of the empire had to be mobilized against this little people, after a series of severe preliminary losses. There was one compensation. Volunteers from Canada, New Zealand, and Australia served with the English troops, showing that the colonial attachment to the mother country was strong. The war continued in desultory fashion until May 1902. England's subsequent treatment of a brave enemy is the redeeming feature of the event" (94, p. 356).

Africa

"In 1871, Henry M. Stanley, searching for Livingstone, found him on Lake Tanganyika. Death of Livingstone was in 1873.

"In 1874, V. L. Cameron crossed the continent from Lake Tanganyika to Benguela, mapping large territories.

"Working from 1874-1877, Stanley circumnavigated Victoria Nyansa, proceeded thence to Lake Tanganyika, crossed to the Lualaba, which he descended to the Congo, ultimately reaching the Atlantic coast.

"Stanley, in the service of Leopold, from 1879-1884, ascended the Congo and established posts in the Basin.

"In 1882, the Italians, Matteucci and Massari, crossed the continent from Suakin on the Red Sea to the Niger River.

"Stanley made an expedition to relieve Emin Pasha (Eduard Schnitzer, Egyptian governor of Equatoria, 1877-1888). Stanley ascended the Congo, crossed to the great lakes, traced the Semliki River to Lake Edward, which he discovered. He found Emin on the upper Nile and induced him to leave for the east coast" (39, p. 828).

Monarchy

"In 1900 five-sixths of the world rendered allegiance to dynasties. Majesty was expressed, not as law, but as prerogative adorned by pageantry. The only republics of importance were the Americas, with France and Switzerland in Europe. Monarchies were described irreverently as 'the royal trade union,' and they formed the first of the 'internationals' -- what Metternich had called a Holy Alliance--against rebellion. This community of sovereigns was symbolized by Queen Victoria--'the grandmother of Europe'--whose descendants, whether as sovereigns or as consorts, were found on the thrones of Germany,

Russia, Sweden, Norway, Bulgaria, Romania, Serbia, Greece, and Spain. Within numerous and immense palaces, maintained at great expense, the nobility glittered with gems, rustled in silks and satins, flaunted fine feathers. With contemptuous imprudence, privileges of all kinds, landed, heredity, ecclesiastical, professional, royal, displayed treasures unshared by the people as a whole.

"It was to the envious interest of the monarchies to maintain the peace of the world. For amid the prosperity arising out of peace the expenditure on royalty was no burden and the people got their money's worth in entertainment. Certain monarchies made the fatal mistake of plunging into militarism and destroying one another.

"The nightmare of the 19th century had been a world war between East and West--see Kipling's well-known lines. It proved to be only a nightmare. East fought a civil war within herself; so did the West; and in both of these conflicts dynasties were among the fallen.

"In the Far East there were three ancient and sacred thrones: Japanese, Chinese, and Korean. In 1895, the Japanese organized a conspiracy in Korea, murdering the Empress in the Palace at Seoul and driving the Korean Emperor from his throne. The Yalu River on the frontier of conquered Korea flowed amid forests where Russia claimed interests. In 1904-1905 Japan fought and won a war against Russia with momentous results for that country.

"Another monarchy, the Czarism, was brought into peril, and revolution was attempted by Russia's growing proletariat in modern industry. The Czar initiated a Duma at St. Petersburg but unwisely dissolved it, and a sullen people, crowding into mines and factories for the first time, awaited their opportunity.

"Japan's aggression on Korea brought her into conflict with China (1894) and, once more, the sequel was disturbing. In 1900, China was swept by the Boxer Rebellion--meaning 'The Fist of Righteous Harmony'--and the redoubtable Empress, Yehonala, or Tzu Hsi, fled from Peking. The mandarins had been scholars in the Chinese classics and in their place arose an intelligentsia, largely influenced and educated by missionaries and by universities in Great Britain and the United States who followed Sun Yat-sen against the Manchu Dynasty. Its final collapse in 1911 left China a republic rent by dissensions between rival tuchuns or governors--the birthpangs of the united China to be.

"In Europe, as in the Far East, the monarchical system began to crumble. A coup d'etat in Belgrade obliterated Serbia's Obrenovitch dynasty by the brutal assassination of King Alexander and Queen Draga (1903) in their bedroom, the Kara-george kings succeeding to the throne. It was years before an indignant Edward VII could bring himself to condone the bloody deed. In 1908 Portugal was convulsed by the murder of

King Carlos I and the Crown Prince in the streets of Lisbon, and in 1910 King Manuel II, who had succeeded to the vacant throne, was driven into exile.

"During the 19th century the Ottoman Empire extending nominally from Morocco to Bagdad and from Egypt to what is now Rumania, had been the 'sick man of Europe.' With Morocco under France, Egypt under Great Britain, the Balkans liberated, and Arabia in open disaffection, the state of the Sultans was greatly reduced, and in 1909 the long and savage reign of Abdul-Hamid II, 'The Damned,' was ended by his escape from Constantinople (Istanbul)" (94, p. 221).

Prelude to War

"The fall of Abdul-Hamid in 1909 was the signal for seething conflict. First, there was the Germanic drang nach osten or drive to the East, stimulated by Berlin, which was projecting a railway to Bagdad, and advanced by the dual monarchy, Austria-Hungary, which immediately annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, provinces that included the ill-omened town of Serajevo. Italy leaped across the Mediterranean into Turkish Tripoli (1911) and organized this conquest as Libya, so becoming neighbor of the British in Egypt and the French in Tunis. The Balkan states--Bulgaria, Greece, Serbia, and Monte-negro--made common cause against Turkey, driving her back from Europe to the gates of Constantinople. Germanic diplomacy, however, fomented jealousies between the victors,

and a second Balkan War, internecine in ferocity, antagonized Bulgaria with grave results to follow. The aims of the Emperor William II were sufficiently indicated by his spectacular visit to Palestine in 1898 where he appeared as the protector of Islam, and to Tangier in 1905. The orations of the Kaiser anticipated the eloquence of Hitler and included phrases like 'I am lord of all'; 'I am leading you to days of glory'; 'On me, on me the spirit of God has descended; I am His weapon, His sword, His Vicegeneral. Woe to the disobedient'--language incompatible with a policy of peace, which, in propaganda was described as 'anemic.' Contempt for small nations was freely expressed and all that remained to be said by the later Nazis was reiteration of the theme developed in essentials under the Hohenzollerns" (94, p. 222).

Football

Football, developed as it now stands, was originally introduced into American colleges by Harvard, their team had visited Canada and played under the Canadian rules, and were impressed with the style of the English Rugby. In 1875, Harvard agreed to compromise between what was then known as American Football and English Rugby; in the next year, 1876, both teams adopted the Rugby Union rules as they stood at that time. In America the game has had four great epochs. The first was in the 1880's when the "block game" was

legislated out of existence; then in the early 1890's when "momentum mass" plays were excised; next, in 1906, when the 10-yard rule was adopted; and now with the pass (43, p. 411).

Basket-Ball

According to official records, basket-ball's history begins in 1891, when a lecturer in psychology at the Young Men's Christian Association Training School, in Springfield, Mass., suggested, as an exercise of inventiveness, a game that would comply with certain conditions. One of his pupils, James Naismith, taking note of the hypothetical conditions indoors-limited area, limited number of contestants, equally applicable to either sex, etc.--applied his mind to meet those conditions and invented "basket-ball" (43, p. 179).

Vaillant, however, provides proof that the basic concept of basket-ball is quite a bit more ancient than 1891; he mentions the fifteenth century Aztec game "tlachtli"; "played in a court shaped like the capital I, walls extended on either side of the I, and in the middle of each a stove or wooden ring was set vertically, in contrast to the horizontal position of a basket-ball hoop. The players tried to pass through this ring a hard rubber ball, which they could strike only with their elbows, hips or legs" (82, p. 196).

Exploration

"In 1901, Peary, discouraged with Greenland as a taking off place for the pole, tried a route from Ellesmere Land, but was again blocked by rough ice. Four years later Peary, with Captain Robert Bartlett, went by ship to northern Grant Land and thence westward by sledge to Cape Hecla. From there he claimed to have reached $87^{\circ} 6'$ early in 1906. The claim is questioned by some geographers, since Peary was the only white man in the final party and because the record is unsatisfactory in certain respects.

"Dr. F. A. Cook followed a route discovered by Sverdrup (from Cape Sabine across Ellesmere Land north along the coast to the northern tip of Axel Heiberg Island). In 1908 he claimed that he reached the pole on this date. Experts regard the claim as improbable, though not impossible. His observations were fuller than Peary's, but not very good. His chronological table of distances was entirely reasonable. The claim has not yet been accepted by authoritative opinion.

"In 1909, Peary claimed to have reached the pole on this date, from Cape Columbia, the northern most extremity of Grant Land. Though generally accepted, the claim is questioned by some experts because of the inadequacy of the observations and the incredible time-table submitted. Possibly neither Cook nor Peary actually reached the pole. No further progress in polar exploration was made until the aeroplane began to open up new possibilities" (39, p. 566).

"Beaten by Peary at the North Pole, Roald Amundsen hoped to anticipate Scott at the South Pole. He chose a base on the Bay of Whales and with four others made the trip with dog-sledges (1911, Oct. 19-Dec. 14). The Norwegian flag was hoisted at the pole on Dec. 16, 1911. On the trip Amundsen discovered the 15,000-foot Queen Mauds Range which bounds Ross Barrier. He ascended this range to the Polar Plateau by way of Axel Heigerg Glacier, and discovered the Devil's Glacier beyond.

"Scott, in his last expedition, aimed for the pole, but was interested mainly in scientific research. From a base at Cape Evans in McMurdo Sound, he and four others started (Nov. 3, 1911) and followed Shackleton's route up Beardmore Glacier. Failure of transport and deficient food resulted in even slower progress. The pole was reached Jan. 16, 1912, but the party was so exhausted that before getting back it was overtaken by bad weather. Halfway across Ross Barrier they all died in a blizzard (about March 29). The bodies were found by a relief party in Nov. 1912" (39, p. 575).

"Lieut. Shirase (Japanese), after an unsuccessful attempt to reach Ross Sea (1911), effected a landing on the Bay of Whales. Learning that Amundsen had already reached the pole, he contented himself with a short sledge journey across the Barrier.

"Dr. Wilhelm Filchner (German), in an attempt to find out whether Ross and Weddell Seas are connected by a strait,

discovered Leopold Land, delimited the southern boundary of Weddell Sea and discovered the Wilhelm Ice Barrier, which fills its head.

*In 1911-1913, Dr. Douglas Mawson (British) led a large-scale, well-equipped, expedition to explore the 2,000 miles of practically unknown coast between Cape Adare and the Gaussberg. He was the first Antarctic explorer to use wireless. The larger section of the expedition broke through the pack ice and discovered Mertz Glacier, stretching 60 miles out to sea, and beyond it D'Urville Sea. Here the party made its base on Commonwealth Bay and (Nov. 1911-Jan. 1912) Mawson, Mertz, and Ninnis sledged 280 miles over the great ice plateau into King George V Land, crossing the Mertz and the still larger Ninnis Glacier, but Mawson was the only one who got through alive. Another party explored the coast to the east for 275 miles, and a third contingent was taken 1200 miles westward in the Aurora past the great ice barrier which they named Shackleton's Ice Shelf, discovered Davis Sea, and named the land on its shores Queen Mary Land. The party camped on Shackleton Ice Shelf, on which Denman and Scott Glaciers were discovered. From here also a party made a 215-mile trip to Gaussberg in Kaiser Wilhelm Land and back.

Mawson discovered that the greater part of Antarctica is bordered by ice coasts. Altogether his expedition discovered and explored 1320 miles of land, mapped 800 miles of

coastline, and made more geographical and scientific discoveries than any previous expedition, although it worked under far worse weather conditions in the most desolate, blizzard-ridden part of the continent" (39, p. 575).

Art

"Etching with Haden, Whistler and Zorn, had a fine revival in the latter part of the century; the decorative arts came into their own once more and the arts and crafts derived a new stimulus from the more careful study of Renaissance and mediaeval models" (91, p. 357).

Science

"The cell doctrine became the foundation of physiology and pathology. Virchow's work in cellular pathology furnished the basis for a scientific study of the internal causes of disease while Pasteur demonstrated the existence of microbes as the extraneous etiology of infectious diseases. Pasteur's work made possible the development of sanitary science and an immense reduction in the death rate of cities. His discoveries furnished Lister with the principles of antiseptic surgery, with all that it meant for the saving of life and suffering. Before Lister, only a few emergency operations to save life were done, while now many serious operations could be performed for the relief of suffering and the prevention of complications. . . .

"Huxley in The Coming of Age of the Origin of Species (1880) reminded the world that so long as species were infertile with each other the missing link would continue to be a mystery.

"Weismann's demonstration that acquired characters are not inherited left the subject of evolution in the air at the end of the century.

"Sir William Crookes' studies of radiant matter stimulated research in radiation and led to the discovery of the X-rays (Roentgen 1895) and of radium and the radio-active substances. Madame Curie's discovery proved valuable for physics as well as for medicine and surgery. The study of radiation opened up a new and wonderful chapter in chemistry and led to developments in chemical physics which revolutionised ideas as to the constitution of matter.

". . . . Illuminating gas banished darkness and was succeeded by electricity which effected a revolution by which night was almost turned to day. Night life developed in the great cities and made great social changes" (91, p. 356).

"Beyond the confines of traditional religion, a new and untried science, called psychology, acted as a subtle solvent of many hitherto accepted assumptions. It affected the sense of moral responsibility, evangelism, the administration of criminal justice, the treatment of abnormal mentality, and even industrial management and military practice" (94, p. 219).

"An adventurous, uncertain, and often inexperienced brain, impatient of past wisdom and taking nothing for granted, was applied to research and discovery. Colossal telescopes scoured the sky, gathering and analyzing light from stars unseen by the eye. Apparatus in the laboratory reduced infinities to infinitesimals. Out of the astrophysical emerged two publicized results--the discovery of radium by Pierre and Marie Curie, which affected the treatment of cancer and the chronology of the universe; the Einstein theory of relativity which, incomprehensible save to the few, suggested fluidity in Euclid's geometry and the Newtonian laws of motion" (94, p. 219).

"A characteristic architecture, domestic, monumental and ecclesiastical, was applied to garden cities, the new Delhi in India, cathedrals and churches that revive the visible glories of the Middle Ages and skyscrapers of majestic aspect. Engineers spanned broad rivers and estuaries with great bridges, and huge dams back artificial lakes. The highways of the century far surpass the famed roads of ancient Rome, and water was siphoned through tunnels compared with which any earlier aqueduct was no more than a picturesque antiquity. So stimulated, cities have increased to far-flung urban provinces, and their complexities include hidden distribution of power, light, water, heat, telephones, to say nothing of subways and traffic lights, a network of vulnerables, dependent

on the loyalty and goodwill of the citizen for their continuance. Among raw materials, oil and rubber have become basic. But the scientist, by synthesis, supplies substitutes for rubber and extracts liquid fuel from coal. Rayon, nylon, and other fabrics rival silk. Cellophane wraps parcels and is spread as an umbrella on a rainy day. Glass is spun and woven into satin-like fabrics, and paper serves as a substitute for leather. Bakelite is ubiquitous and the British Regalia goes on tour as imitation but convincing jewelry. People still like to buy the real thing--say, wool--but alternatives are often satisfactory" (94, p. 220).

Science Survey

"1898. Pierre Curie (1859-1906) and Marie Curie (1867-1934) observed the phenomenon of radioactivity and isolated radium.

"1900. Walter Reed (1851-1902) proved that yellow fever was transmitted by the mosquito.

"1900. Max Planck (1858-1947) propounded the Quantum Theory.

"1901. Adrenalin was isolated by Jokichi Takamine (1854-1922)" (39, p. 552).

"1901. Professor Herson and Dr. Suring made an altitude record of 35,000 feet in a balloon. This was long unexceeded.

"1902. Invention of the arc transmitter by Valdemar Poulsen. This was of great value in the development of wireless telegraphy" (39, p. 557).

"1902. The disintegration theory to explain radio-activity was suggested by Ernest Rutherford (1871-1937) and Frederick Soddy (1877-)" (39, p. 552).

"1903, Dec. 7. First really successful Airplane Flight, by Wilbur Wright (1867-1912) and his brother, Orville (1871-1948). They studied gliders and developed a gasoline motor. Their motor-driven plane, carrying a man, made four sustained flights at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, the longest lasting 59 seconds at a speed of 30 miles per hour.

"1904. The first sound moving picture. The idea was Edison's, who had intended the kintoscope to be complimentary to his phonograph. The cameraphone synchronized projector and phonograph, but its popularity was short-lived" (39, p. 557).

"1905. Albert Einstein (1879-1955) offered his Special Theory of Relativity.

"1906. Vitamins were discovered by Sir Frederick G. Hopkins (1861-1947).

"1906. August von Wasserman (1866-1925) introduced the blood test for syphilis" (39, p. 552).

"1906. Launching of the British warship Dreadnought, the first all big-gun warship, which revolutionized the construction of capital ships.

"1906. G. A. Smith and Charles Urban developed the first process of motion-picture color photography (kinemacolor).

"1906. Eugen Luste invented the production of sound from photographed vibrations on a film, projected upon a selenium cell, an important step in the development of the sound motion picture.

"1907. Lee De Forest patented the three-electrode vacuum tube, later of great importance in the development of radio.

"1908. Louis Breguet and Charles Richet built a combined helicopter and biplane, which flew 64 feet.

"1909. Henry Ford announced that his automobile factory would thereafter manufacture only the model T chassis. This heralded the advent of the automobile as a universal method of individual transportation and brought it within reach of the average man.

"1909, July 25. Louis Bleriot (1872-1936) flew a monoplane across the English Channel from Calais to Dover in 37 minutes" (39, p. 557).

"1910. The hydrogenation of coal to produce liquid fuels was successfully achieved.

"1911. Ernest Rutherford bombarded the atom with particles discharged by radioactive substances.

"1912. Frederick Soddy demonstrated the existence of isotopes" (39, p. 552).

1913. An improved method of measuring the distance of stars through spectroscopic observations was developed by Harlow Shapley (1885-).

"1913. Typhus control was rendered possible by Charles Nicolle (1866-1936) who demonstrated that the disease is transmitted by lice" (39, p. 553).

"1890. Gabriel de Tarde (1843-1904) published his Laws of Imitation, a pioneer work in the field of social psychology. At the same time Pierre Janet (1859-1947) opened a new era in pathological psychology, and soon afterward Gustave Le Bon (1841-1931) published his Psychology of Crowds (1895).

"1892. The electron theory was formally announced by Hendrik Antoon Lorents (1853-1928)" (39, p. 552).

"1893. Walter Scott designed the first color press for the New York World.

"1894. Sir Hiram Maxim (1840-1916) carried on extensive experiments with heavier-than-air machines along lines marked out by Sir George Cayley (1773-1853), William S. Henson, and John Stringfellow (1799-1883). Maxim designed a mammoth machine which just failed to leave the ground.

"1894. The first gasoline automobile, a Panhard, incorporated many of the essential features of the modern car" (39, p. 556).

"1894. The germ of the bubonic plague was discovered by Shibasaburo Kitasato (1856-1931) and Alexander Yersin (1863-1943). Robert Koch (1843-1910) demonstrated in 1897 that the germ is transmitted by fleas and rats.

"1895. Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) launched his first work on psychoanalysis, a study of the subconscious. Different

aspects of the subject were developed by Carl Jung (1875-) and Alfred Adler (1870-1930).

"1895. Wilhelm Konrad Roentgen (1845-1923) detected X-rays" (39, p. 552).

"1895. Invention of the Diesel engine by Rudoff Diesel (1858-1913). It supplanted the earlier heavy oil engines of Priestman (1885) and Hornsby-Akroyd (1890). The Diesel engine has spontaneous ignition (no explosion) of the fuel spray under relatively constant pressure. It has been widely used, especially as a marine motor.

"1895. Guglielmo Marconi (1874-1937) invented wireless telegraphy, sending messages for miles (1895) and soon across the Atlantic (1901).

"1895. The cinematographs of Louis Auguste Lumiere and the vitascope of Thomas Armat, an American. These did much to solve the problem of projection of moving pictures.

"1896. Invention of the gyroscope by Ludwig Obry. This was first used to give direction to the torpedo.

"1896. Samuel P. Langley (1834-1906) flew a powered airplane model 3200 feet and built a plane powered by an ingenious gasoline engine by Charles M. Manly. This twice failed to fly (1903) but was successfully flown later (1914)" (39, p. 556.

"1896. Anti-typhoid inoculation was introduced by Sir Almroth E. Wright (1861-1947), after the germ had been identified (1880) by Karl Eberth (1835-1926).

"1896. Antoine Henri Becquerel (1852-1908) discovered that uranium gave off similar rays to those detected (1895) by Roentgen" (39, p. 552).

"1897. The Avion of Clement Ader (1841-1925), though it did not actually fly, was judged 'capable of flight.'

"1897. Introduction of the French 77 mm. gun, designed by Gustave Canet (1846-1908). This was based on the quick firing principle and revolutionized field artillery.

"1898. Alberto Santos-Dumont's (1873-1932) non-rigid airship. He built about 14 in all, with which he had amazing accidents and adventures. Experimentation with non-rigid types came to a close with the disaster to the Italian ship Roma in 1922.

"1898. Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin introduced the principle of the rigid airship. His first ship was 420 feet long, with two motors. The first practical one was completed in 1906. Passenger service was begun in 1910. Zeppelins were much used by the Germans in raiding England during the World War" (39, pp. 556-557).

"1882. Koch discovered the germ of tuberculosis.

"1883. The diphtheria germ was identified by Edwin Klebs (1834-1913). It was isolated by Friedrich Loeffler (1852-1915) and a serum developed (1894) by Emil Behring (1854-1917)" (39, p. 552).

"1883. John Carbutt of Philadelphia introduced the coated, cut, celluloid film for photography.

"1884. The compound steam turbine of Sir Charles Parsons (1854-1931) revolutionised steam engineering.

"1884. Boston and New York connected by telephone, the beginning of long-distance transmission" (39, p. 556).

"1884. Koch discovered the germ of cholera.

"1885. Pasteur developed inoculation against hydrophobia. He also succeeded in bringing under control the costly pebrine epidemic in silkworms and developed the process of 'pasteurisation' of milk" (39, p. 552).

"1885. Invention of the linotype by Ottmar Mergenthaler (1854-1899), a German-American. Invention of the monotype (casting single characters and assembling them in lines) by Tolbert Lanston (1844-1913), also an American.

"1885. The first motorcycles introduced in France and Germany.

"1885. Heinrich Hertz (1857-1894) verified James Clark Maxwell's prediction of the existence of radio waves. At the same time he discovered photoelectricity, fundamental to the development of television.

"1885 ff. The first naval submarines were built by Thorsten Nordenfeldt (1842-1920), Gustave Zede (1825-1891), and John P. Holland (1841-1914).

"1886. Gottlieb Daimler (1834-1900) invented the internal combustion engine, using gasoline. He applied it chiefly to boats.

"1886. Introduction of smokeless powder and high explosives by the French. They were developed chiefly by Eugene Turpin (1848-1927) and Paul Vieille (1854-1934).

"1887. Edison invented a motion-picture machine in which tiny pictures, mounted specially on a cylinder, in the pattern of a phonograph groove, were viewed in motion under a microscope.

"1887. Daimler's Automobile, the first successful one. The automobile was promptly developed by a host of engineers on both sides of the Atlantic.

"1889. Introduction of the pneumatic rubber tire by John Boyd Dunlop. This became basic for the development of the bicycle and automobile.

"1889. Panhard and Levassor began to manufacture Daimler engines in France and to develop the automobile.

"1889. The straight-line press, invented by Joseph L. Firm, an American. The last fundamental invention in printing.

"1889. Edison perfected the motion-picture, using the film on nitro-cellulose base manufactured by George Eastman. Edison's new 'kinetoscope' was the first successful motion picture. First showings in New York (1894)" (39, p. 556).

"1869. Sir Francis Galton (1822-1911), a cousin of Darwin, applied the latter's ideas of heredity to man's mental inheritance, his statistical results pointing to the enormous importance of inheritance in relation to individual ability" (39, p. 552).

"1870-1875. The use of steel gradually replaced the use of iron in shipbuilding.

"1871. Introduction of the 'dry-plate' process in photography, invented by R. L. Maddox, who discovered the possibilities of an emulsion of isinglass, gelatine, and bromide of silver" (39, p. 555).

"1871. The Descent of Man and the Expression of Emotions in Man and Animals (1873), works in which Darwin raised the question of the evolution of mental powers and of morality.

"1872. The Principles of Physiological Psychology of Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) created modern experimental psychology and devised a method of analysis" (39, p. 552).

"1872. First application of the moving picture principle by Edward Muybridge, who recorded the progressive motion of race-horses through the use of series of co-ordinated cameras, for Senator Leland Stanford of California" (39, p. 555).

"1873. Walter Bagehot (1826-1877) in Physics and Politics made a significant contribution to social psychology, applying the principles of natural selection to the evolution of custom and institutions" (39, p. 552).

"1874. The triple expansion engine introduced by A. C. Kirk. It became the normal type of marine steam engine.

"1875. The rotary perfecting press (printing both sides of a sheet at once and delivering the cut and folded newspaper in one operation) was invented by a number of printers, notably Andrew Campbell and Stephen D. Tucker, both Americans.

"1876. The 'safety' (rear-wheel-driven) bicycle, invented by H. J. Lawson. This was substantially the model used thereafter.

"1876. Alexander Graham Bell (1847-1922) invented the telephone.

"1876. The Otto Silent Gas Engine of Nikolaus Otto (1832-1891) introduced the principle of the internal combustion engine" (39, p. 555).

"1876. Cesare Lombroso (1836-1909) founded the science of criminal psychology" (39, p. 552).

"1877. Hydroelectric power first developed at Niagra Falls. Nikola Tesla (1857-1943) discovered the rotating magnetic field, making possible the long-distance transmission of electric power.

"1877. Thomas A. Edison (1847-1931) invented the phonograph.

"1878. Edison developed the bipolar dynamo.

"1878. Sidney Gilchrist Thomas (1850-1885) and his cousin, Percy Gilchrist (1851-1935), developed the Thomas-Gilchrist or 'basic' process for removing phosphorus from iron ore, thus making phosphorus ore available for steel manufacture.

"1879. First automatic switching system for telephones" (39, p. 555).

"1879. Edison perfected the incandescent electric lamp.

"1879. Introduction of the electric street car, by Werner von Siemens. The first use in America was in Baltimore (1885)" (39, p. 556).

"1880. Charles Laveran (1845-1922) discovered the malaria germ. Sir Ronald Ross showed (1898) that malaria can be transmitted to birds by mosquitoes, and Giovanni Grassi proved (1900) that the disease is carried by the Anopheles mosquito.

"1881. Louis Pasteur (1822-1895) applied the principle of immunisation through vaccination to rabies. This followed years of experimentation by Pasteur and Robert Koch (1843-1910) on fermentation, which Pasteur showed to be caused by organisms, not by spontaneous generation. Koch, through his studies of anthrax, demonstrated that germs were the cause, not merely the concomitant of disease" (39, p. 552).

"1882. The Edison system of central station power production gave the first real commercial impetus to electric power production" (39, p. 556).

Summary: The Victorian Age

1870. Franco-Prussian War; German Empire formed. Napoleon III deposed; France becomes a republic. Italy annexes Papal States. Mont Genis tunnel completed.

1871. William I proclaimed emperor of Germany at Versailles. The war of the Commune in Paris. Emancipation of slaves in Brazil. Disastrous fire in Chicago. Dry plate photography introduced.

1872. Geneva Convention settles Alabama claims in favor of the United States. Germany expels the Jesuits. British Parliament passes the Ballot Act. Revolution in Spain.

1873. Spain forms a republic when King Amadeus abdicates. Egypt receives autonomy. Ruma occupies Khiva. British expedition subdues Ashantis.

1874. Coup d'etat in Spain and Alfonso XII proclaimed king. Great Britain annexes Fiji Islands.

1875. Great Britain acquires control of the Suez Canal. Carlist revolt in Spain suppressed. Egyptian-Abyssinian War.

1876. Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia. Sioux War. Custer massacre. Bell's telephone introduced. Ruma annexes Khokand. Turkish atrocities in Bulgaria. Queen Victoria proclaimed empress of India. Abyssinians defeat Egyptians. Kaffirs defeat Transvaal Boers.

1877. Diaz becomes president of Mexico. Japanese Samurai revolt suppressed. Russo-Turkish War. British annex Transvaal Republic. Stanley descends Kongo River and crosses Africa. Edison invents phonograph.

1878. Russians occupy Adrianople. British fleet steams through the Dardanelles to stem Russian advance, and British forces occupy Cyprus. European situation adjusted by Treaty of Berlin. Russian embassy received, British embassy rejected by Afghans, British troops enter Afghanistan and place Yakub Khan on the throne. Half-tone process revolutionizes engraving methods.

1879. British Ambassador and suit massacred at Kabul. British expedition avenges deaths and restores prestige. Specie payment resumed in United States. Chile wars against Bolivia and Peru. Zulu War in South Africa.

1880. Partition of Africa begins. France annexes Tahiti. Spain abolishes slavery in Cuba. Chinese coolie immigration restricted in the United States. Transvaal revolt against British suzerainty.

1881. French begin digging Panama Canal. Assassination of President Garfield. British defeated by Boers who win independence. French protectorate over Tunis. Revolt in Egypt under Arabi Pasha. Assassination of Alexander II of Russia.

1882. Murder of Lord Cavendish and secretary in Phoenix Park, Dublin. Europeans murdered in Egypt. Bombardment of Alexandria. Followed by British control of Egypt. French Tonquin expedition. Anti-polygamy bill enacted in the United States. Pasteur isolates hydrophobia bacillus. Koch isolates tuberculosis bacillus.

1883. Civil service bill passes Congress. Brooklyn Bridge opened. French protectorate established in Anam. French aggression in Madagascar. The Mahdi annihilates Egyptian army led by Hicks Pasha.

1884. Russia annexes Merv. War between France and China. Convention between Great Britain and the Transvaal Republic.

1885. The Mahdi captures Khartum and General Gordon is killed as British troops near the city. Revolt in Canada; Riel, the leader, captured and hanged. Russo-Afghan-Indian difficulties settled by British concessions. War between England and Burma. War between Serbia and Bulgaria. Kongo Free State established.

1886. Earthquake in Charleston. Anarchist riots at Chicago and Milwaukee. Great Britain annexes Burma. Greece threatens Turkey. Great powers blockade Greek ports. Talking machines perfected* (91, p. 360).

1886. American Federation of Labor organized* (59, p. 335).

1887. Centenary of United States Constitution celebrated. Queen Victoria's jubilee celebration. Neutrality of Sues Canal confirmed. Great Britain annexes East Zululand. Stanley's second expedition through Africa.

1888. William II becomes emperor of Germany. Boulangist agitation in France. Chinese Exclusion Act in United States. Canadian Fishers Treaty signed in Washington. Retaliatory measures against Canada advocated by President Cleveland creates stir. Abyssinians defeat Italians. Imperial British East Africa Company is chartered. Hertzian waves developed.

1889. Flood devastates Johnstown, Pa., with loss of over 2,250 lives. Japan inaugurates a new constitution. Brazil revolts, proclaims a republic and exiles Don Pedro.

British South Africa Company is chartered. Automobile improved and becomes of practical use (91, p. 360).

1889. First Pan-American Conference at Washington.

1890. Sherman Anti-Trust Law (59, p. 335).

1890. Heligoland transferred by Britain to Germany in return for African concessions. McKinley tariff bill becomes law. Linotype printing improved and adopted.

1891. Revolution in Chile. Australian federal convention at Sydney. Triple alliance renewed for six years.

1892. Bering Sea Treaty ratified. Saint John's Newfoundland devastated by fire. French forces occupy Dahomey. Panama scandal in France.

1893. Chicago's Columbian Exposition, World Fair, and Parliament of Religion. French ultimatum to Siam. South African War opens Matabeleland. Rio de Janeiro bombarded by Brazilian rebels. Business depression in the United States. Edison invents kinetoscope.

1894. Chino-Japanese War. British establish protectorate in Uganda. Dreyfus falsely convicted of treason against France. President Carnot of France assassinated. Great railway strike in Chicago.

1895. Treaty of Shimonoseki ends Chino-Japanese War. French campaign in Madagascar. Abyssinians defeat Italians. Cuba revolts against Spain. Jameson's abortive raid in the Transvaal. President Cleveland's Venezuelan message. Roentgen I-rays discovered.

1896. British forces occupy Ashanti. Anglo-French Siamese complications settled. General Weyler's suppression measures in Cuba increases revolt. Italy's disastrous defeat at Assua ends war with Abyssinia. France annexes Madagascar. Anglo-American agreement over Venezuelan difficulty. Wireless telegraphy practically developed by Marconi (91, p. 360).

1896. Klondike gold-rush (59, p. 335).

1897. Diamond jubilee of Queen Victoria. United States rejects Olney-Pauncefote Treaty. Gold rush to Yukon commences. Famine and pestilence in India. Greek action in Crete precipitates intervention, war with Turkey and defeat. Canada introduces differential tariff bill.

1898. United States battleship Maine blown up in Havana harbor. Spanish-American War. Annexation of Hawaii. Occupation of the Philippines, Cuba and Porto Rico. Treaty of Paris ends Spanish-American difficulties. The "Dreyfus affair" agitates France. Khalifa defeated at Omduram and Sudan re-occupied. Fashoda affair complicates Great Britain and France. Peace Conference at the Hague. China leases Port Arthur and Dalny to Russia. Chile and Argentina agree to perpetual peace and arbitration. The Curies discover radium.

1899. The Philippines revolt against United States rule. Hostilities in Samoa. Boers invade Natal and the South African War begins.

1900. The Hay-Pauncefote Treaty facilitates construction of the transisthmian canals. Great Britain annexes the

Transvaal and Orange River republics. Boxer Rebellion in China; siege and relief of the foreign legations. Russia occupies Manchuria. Australia becomes a commonwealth (91, p. 335).

1901. President William McKinley assassinated; vice-president Theodore Roosevelt inaugurated to fill vacancy.

1901. Queen Victoria dies; accession of Edward VII. Marconi signals by wireless telegraphy across Atlantic.

1902. Republic of Cuba established. First permanent Court of Arbitration established at The Hague. Peace of Vereeniging ends South African War, begun in 1899. First Anglo-Japanese Alliance formed. Prince Henry of Prussia visits the United States. Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy renewed.

1903. King Alexander I of Serbia (Obrenovitch) assassinated. Peter I (Karageorgevitch) succeeds him. United States recognizes Republic of Panama. Orville and Wilbur Wright achieve the first flight with a heavier-than-air machine at Kitty Hawk, N. C. Pope Leo XIII dies. Election of Pius X. Ford Motor Company organized.

1904. Russo-Japanese War begins. Theodore Roosevelt elected president. Entente Cordiale between Britain and France based on respective free lands in Egypt and Morocco. Baltimore fire, burns over 140 acres and causes loss of \$125,000,000.

1905. Treaty of Portsmouth, N. H., ends war between Russia and Japan. Czar issues manifesto authorizing creation of an imperial parliament or Duma. Franco-German crisis over Morocco. German pressure in Paris forces Foreign Minister Delcasse's resignation. Carnegie Foundation established. Irving Berlin's musical number Alexander's Ragtime Band, popularizes syncopation.

1906. Earthquake and fire destroy a large part of San Francisco. Britain launches first all big-gun battleship, the Dreadnaught.

1907. Anglo-Russian Agreement over Persia, Afghanistan, and Tibet, providing for Russia's inclusion in Anglo-French Entente. Jacob Epstein's modernist statues startle London.

1908. Young Turk Revolution. Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Hersegovina. Anglo-German competition in naval construction begins. Tzu Hsi, Empress Dowager of China dies; succeeded by boy Emperor Pu-yi. William Howard Taft elected President of the United States.

1909. Louis Bleriot flies the English Channel in a heavier-than-air machine. Rear Admiral Robert E. Peary reaches North Pole (6 April).

1910. Edward VII dies; accession of George V. Union of South Africa established.

1911. Italy seizes Tripoli (Libya). Germany sends gunboat Panther to Agadir on Atlantic seaboard of Morocco;

grave international crisis threatened. Roald Amundsen reaches South Pole (14 December).

1912. China declared a republic. S. S. Titanic sunk by an iceberg. First Balkan war against Turkey. Capt. Robert Scott reaches South Pole (18 January). Woodrow Wilson elected President of the United States.

1913. Woolworth Building completed. Second Balkan War by Rumania, Serbia, and Greece against Bulgaria. Rockefeller Foundation established. Peace Palace, gift of Andrew Carnegie, dedicated at The Hague. King George I of Greece assassinated. Crown Prince Constantine succeeds him.

1913. President Francisco Madero of Mexico assassinated. 16th (Income Tax) Amendment to United States Constitution adopted. 17th Amendment to Constitution, providing for popular election of senators, adopted.

1914. Assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria-Hungary (28 June at Serajevo) leads to First World War (94, p. 226).

1914. Pershing Expedition into Mexico (59, p. 335).

Section IX: The Sophisticated Age

World War I

"This challenge divided Europe: Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Bulgaria, and Turkey were drawn into one group of powers; France, Russia, Great Britain, and Belgium were driven into the defensive camp.

"The assassination of Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss of Austria (1934) by German orders was to disclose a new standard of criminal ferocity in human affairs, and it shed a retrospective light on another crime. On 28 June 1914 the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the aged Hapsburg Emperor, Francis Joseph I, attended military maneuvers at Serajevo. That he was shot at and killed by Balkan extremists is history. The interesting question is why, after warning from Belgrade, the Austrian police allowed known assassins to align themselves along narrow streets leaving the Archduke without the usual protection. An 'incident', exactly timed to der tag, was thus forthcoming, and the First World War began according to plan with a march through Belgium, Paris being the objective. The miscalculation at Berlin lay in supposing that Great Britain, tearing up that 'scrap of paper' which Prussia also had signed in 1830 guaranteeing Belgium, would stand aside from the struggle.

"The United States regarded the affair as another of Europe's wars and endeavored to maintain neutrality, protesting to Great Britain as well as Germany against encroachments on the freedom of the sea. The reason for America's ultimate participation in the war has been much debated. Was it because of the sinking of the Lusitania and other shipping? Was it a bankers' war to save Allied credit on Wall Street? Was it a 'war to make the world safe for democracy'--'a war

to end wars'? Out of the controversies emerges the simple conclusion that the United States could not afford to see Germany achieve a triumph for the military aggression that had become Germany's settled policy. In 1917 the United States decided to send an expeditionary force into Europe, and Germany's fate was sealed.

"In November, 1918, she collapsed, the Kaiser fled for protection to Holland, his army disbanded, his munitions destroyed, his navy sunk, his Reich a republic. The ancient empire of the Hapsburgs was shattered, and the dynasty exiled. Succession states, either created or enlarged, were Rumania, Austria, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Poland, and Czechoslovakia. France received back Alsace and Lorraine, but lost provinces of 1871. Along the Baltic, four states--Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, previously belonging to the Czarism, achieved a precarious independence" (94, pp. 222-223).

The Versailles Treaty and the League of Nations

"The settlement after the war is known as the Treaty of Versailles. It was negotiated in effect by three statesmen, Woodrow Wilson, Lloyd George, and George Clemenceau. It was followed by scores of international conferences--Geneva and the rest--and by 'Geneva,' otherwise the League of Nations. The peace treaties themselves were workable bases for developing a stable civilization. But they had one defect--an impossible exaction of reparations from Germany, with a

failure at once to clear up war debts; and they were not administered with reasonable wisdom.

"From the first, the League of Nations was mutilated. The United States declined to be a member. For different reasons, Russia and Germany did not enter the League at the outset of its activities. The four Central Powers--Germany, Austria, Hungary, and Turkey--were disarmed. But the undertaking by the victorious nations, that they also would reduce armaments to peace level, was only carried out within the English speaking world where conscription, adopted for the war, was brought to an end. Japan was lured within naval reductions by the Washington Conference of 1921-1922, but only as a 'holiday.' Germany was thus given the opportunity of protesting that the terms imposed on her at Paris were not carried out. The protest was technical rather than realist. No one, even in Germany, believed seriously that France, investing her francs in a Maginet Line which proved to be a delusive security, was meditating aggressive war on her neighbor" (94, p. 223-224).

Political Changes in the Near East

"To complete the survey of postwar landscape, the Near East was transformed. France took over Syria. Otherwise, British influence was extended to the entire region. For the first time since Queen Cleopatra, Egypt in 1922 became a

kingdom. In 1926 the Wahabi leader, Abdul Aziz, was accepted as King of the Hejaz and of Nejd and their Dependencies; in 1932 this realm was named Saudi Arabia, with two capitals, at Mecca and Riyadh. Mesopotamia with Bagdad became the Kingdom of Iraq. Persia (1925) dethroned her Shah, substituting a military officer, Risa Khan Pahlevi, in his place; in 1935 the country adopted the name Iran. In 1917, Gen. Edmund H. H. Allenby marched unarmed and on foot into Jerusalem, and Palestine became a British mandate under the League of Nations. The problem of reconciling Zionist aims with Arab susceptibilities proved to be difficult of solution" (94, p. 223).

Standard of Living

"Throughout the democracies there grew up a demand for a higher and more secure standard of life. Housing, old age pensions, insurance against sickness, maternity and unemployment, minimum wages, recognition of trade unions, co-operatives, as in Sweden and Great Britain, became general. Woman suffrage was adopted in many countries, and by the 20th Amendment (1933) the 'lame duck' session of Congress was abolished. The election of President Franklin D. Roosevelt for a third term (1940) broke a precedent dating from George Washington. It indicated a sense of emergency among the people, and a contributing factor was the New Deal which affected many millions of officials, insured persons and beneficiaries. The

political and economic centralisation to be observed in totalitarian countries was inevitably atmospheric in the United States, millions attending identical movies, driving the same types of cars, sitting at similar soda fountains, hearing the same broadcasts, and reading the same publications" (94, p. 221).

Reforms

"Still more sensational was the suicide of Ivar Kreuger (1932), known as the Swedish match-king; and in the same year a vast pyramid of American utilities controlled by the Insull interests, with paper assets amounting to \$2,500,000,000 went into receivership under discreditable circumstances. There has been a drastic housecleaning in Wall Street, and the Securities and Exchange Commission, set up by Congress in 1934, watches new issues and finance as a whole, restraining speculation and, to that extent, the former initiative.

". . . . Law enforcement in the United States became a national issue. Prohibition of liquor by the 18th Amendment (1920) was repealed by the 21st Amendment (1933) largely on the ground that the law had broken down. Crime waves, including hold-ups, kidnapping, and industrial terrorism surged into society from the underworld, but have been checked by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Washington's Scotland Yard, and other agencies. In 1920, immigration into the United States was restricted" (94, p. 220).

Art

Pablo Picasso has, "at all costs, avoided a manner. He is as Ingres, as massive as Michelangelo and as sentimental as Greuze; and he can be completely abstract and devoid of any value beyond the bare physical reaction to form. Yet Picasso himself has declared that he never changes; that we must seek the same principles of design in all his pictures; the same values, and the same objectivity.

"Picasso was born in Malaga in Spain in 1881. He therefore belongs to a younger generation than Matisse, who was born in 1869. I mention Matisse because some people might regard him as a still more significant painter, and certainly he does not give rise to the same feelings of doubt and unconfessed dismay. The reputation of Matisse is secure, even though the significance of his art is by no means fully recognized. But it carries with it a sense of achievement; it is a tradition, the tradition of Cezanne, carried to a deeper intensity, a complete realization of the painter's vision. Picasso, however, is the beginning of a new tradition, and half his fascination is his capacity for arousing our sense of wonder.

"Though Paris has absorbed him (he settled there in 1903), it has never assimilated him. He has preserved his native integrity, and this, as Mr. Uhde pointed out in his book (Picasso et la Tradition Francaise), is more Germanic than

French. 'Germanic' is perhaps a strange word to use, but Mr. Uhde sees an underlying similarity in the Greek, Spanish and German genius; their common tendency to express a longing for the infinite, for the transcendental. We can agree that in its superficial aspects, at any rate, the manner of Picasso is 'sombre in its coloring, essentially tormented in its inspiration, vertical in its tendency, romantic in its tonality, embodying in its totality the Gothic or Germanic spirit.' Picasso himself would scarcely approve such a generalization" (59, p. 155).

Classic Music

"Already Arnold Schonberg (1874-) was beginning to veer from the Wagnerian ideals of his early days (the Tristanic Verklarte Nacht or Transfigured Night, 1899, and the gigantic Currelieder, 1901) to expressionistic coasts where nature, reality, and impression on the outer senses disappear in favor of inner, often subconscious visions and experiences, which so often assume grotesque, distorted forms. Schonberg's expressionism was ready in 1908 with his Klavierstucke Opus 11 and had an early peak in his melodramatic cycle Pierrot Lunaire Opus 21 in 1912. Of those around the master, Alban Berg (1885-1935) was probably the greatest, and his opera Wozzeck (1921), obviously the most representative work.

"Richard Strauss (1864-1949) was at that time well past his greatest bloom. He had started out in the footsteps of

Mendelssohn and Brahms, had turned to Lisst's and Wagner's ideals, and found his personal language in the ten years in which he wrote his seven self-portraying symphonic poems (from Don Juan, 1889, to A Hero's Life, 1899) in an orchestral idiom of the last perfection and significance. After having taxed the eloquence of a nontheatrical orchestra to the utmost, he turned to opera and led the musical drama in 14 ever-different works to a similar exhaustion of all post-Wagnerian possibilities, not without having in Elektra (1909) moved into the realm of expressionism. In mentioning this fact, one should not leave unsaid that Eine Alpensinfonie (1915), Strauss' last symphonic attempt, comes greatly under the spell of impressionism.

"What an amazing generation, those born in the early 1860's! In 1860: Hugo Wolf, the romanticist; Gustave Charpentier, the verist; Gustav Mahler, the arch-romanticist; Isaac Albeniz, the half-impressionist; 1861: the two Americans, Charles Martin Loeffler and Edward MacDowell; 1862: the two impressionists, Claude Debussy and Frederick Delius; 1863: the verist, Pietro Mascagni; 1864: the ubiquitous Richard Strauss; 1866: the anti-romantic and anti-impressionist Eric Satie.

"While many a man mentioned in these last paragraphs may be classified under some iam, the masters, styles, and events after World War I cannot yet be properly filed away with suitable labels. Early in this latest period of music history, we face a stormy return to the elements, often cacophonous,

often noisy, often primitivistic, and seemingly anarchic. Folk rhythms that enter this picture are no longer sentimental or nationalistic but a shock treatment apt to revive the natural gift and need for rhythmic invention that the Western concentration on harmony and counterpoint had all but strangled. Such a shock was the appearance of American Jazz, which reached its climax in the Rhapsody in Blue (1924) and the folk opera, Porgy and Bess (1935), both by George Gershwin (1898-1937). Another shock came from Bela Bartok's Magyarism (1881-1945), another from Igor Stravinsky's early Russianism (1882-). No other time could have invented the title that Bartok gave one of his youthful piano pieces: Allegro barbaro (1910). No other time would have paid so much attention (at the cost of opera) to the ballet, where rhythmical movement reigns supreme and both the classicist and the romantic respect for dramatic action and convincing lifelikeness find themselves pushed back to a role of minor importance. There was an impressive number of unforgotten ballet scores created in the ten years (1910-1920): Stravinsky's L'Oiseau de Feu (Fire Bird), 1910), Petrouchka (1911), and Le Sacre du Printemps (The Rite of Spring, 1912-1913); Richard Strauss' Josefalegende (1914); Bartok's Wooden Prince (1914-1916); Eric Satie's Parade (1916); Darius Milhaud's Le Boeuf sur le Toit (Cow on the Roof, 1920); and Stravinsky's Fulcinella (1920).

"Early in the 1920's, music joined the sister arts in a movement which--not without opposition--has been called non-classicism. It strove for cool impersonality in strictest forms and put, as similar movements have done, an emphasis on solid craftsmanship at the cost of inspiration in a romantic sense. One facet of this turn was a sudden interest in the music of Baroque and earlier periods. Such archaism was not entirely new. Mozart and Beethoven had in their last years rediscovered the wonders of Bach's fugues; Haydn had written his two oratorios in admiration of Handel's; Mendelssohn had opposed Bach to contemporary romanticism; Brahms and Gabriel Faure (1845-1924) had fed on idioms of the past; and Max Reger (1873-1916) had tried to fight his romantic leanings with the inexorable polyphony of the ancestors. Early in the 1920's, the interest in older forms became more general. It affected organ building, the revival of harpsichords, clavichords, and gambas, historical concerts, the study of music history, and, in composition, a predilection for rigid patterns such as the passacaglia, the chaconna, and other so-called ostinato forms or even recurrent bass motives. The most amazing symbol of these trends is the fact that the greatest composer of Latin-America, Heitor Villa-Lobos (c. 1884-1959), grafted the style of Bach upon his native idiom in the Bachianas Brasileiras (1932 ff.).

"Diametrically opposite, though in the same direction, stands Arnold Schonberg's contribution to finding a way from

chaos to order. Turning his back on atonalism as on something negative, he devised, as a positive solution, a twelve-tone row; the theme is always some typical arrangement of all the twelve notes of the octave, not to be changed during a piece, but susceptible to inversion, to reversion, and to transposition. The earliest document is his Serenade Opus 24 of 1821-1823" (64, p. 635).

JAZZ

"What is Jazz? A music with many faces. The term has been used to describe more different types than almost any other musical term in the dictionary. There is 'hot' jazz, and 'sweet' jazz. There is the raucous, improvised variety played on broken-down honky-tonk pianos, and the elegant 'symphonic' variety, scored by conservatory-trained arrangers, performed by ninety-nine-piece radio orchestras. Almost every type of music has been turned into jazz: Negro spirituals, nursery rhymes (Itiskit Itaskit), mountain ballads (Careless Love), Yiddish folk songs (Bei mir bist achom)--and also Chopin's Fantaisie Impromptu, Ravel's Pavane, even a melody from Tchaikovsky's Fifth Symphony. Some assert that jazz is not the music played, but the manner of playing it, while others maintain that the only true jazz was that played by such-and-such a performer in New Orleans, St. Louis, or Chicago, fifteen years ago.

"But whatever it is, one thing is certain: jazz did not spring out of nowhere. It has its roots in our people, and its antecedents in the popular music of an earlier period. There is a line--perhaps an indistinct one, but a line nevertheless--starting possibly in the earliest minstrel songs, passing through the 'plantation melody' days, the vaudeville tunes of the '70s and '80s, to the era of the cake-walk in the '90s. The 1900s brought forth ragtime and the one-step. The 'pats,' 'jubas,' 'reeks,' 'stomps,' 'drags,' 'hoe-downs,' and the Creole dance tunes of New Orleans entered in between 1900 and the first World War, and finally the Blues came up from the canebrakes to the marts of Broadway. Between 1910 and 1925 various groups, notably the almost legendary Dixieland Band, made their appearance in metropolitan centers, and the new and lusty offshoot from the old branch was already in full bloom: Jazz. Its history is shrouded in anecdotes, memories, fantasies, and conjectures; but the fact remains that by about 1915, there it was.

"During the first World War and the troubled decade that followed, the vigorous newcomer spread infectiously through this country and abroad. In an amazingly short time, people were singing and dancing to jazz in Paris, London, Cairo, and Hongkong. The victrola took it to the Polar regions, and the radio to the remotest mountain communities. In a dozen countries internationally known composers, among them Ravel,

Stravinsky, Milhaud, and Hindesmith, recognized it as a fascinating style and wrote pieces in which they tried to catch the spirit of le Jazz Americain. There has probably never been any other type of music that spread with such rapidity, or was so widely sung in the four corners of the earth.

"Jazz has been hailed as the most truly representative American art, and condemned as a nervous expression of modern life. To the jitterbug it is an ecstatic ritual; to the intellectual 'expert', a rediscovery of the primitive roots of music. The sentimental adolescent finds in it a world of dreamy romance; the radio sponsor, a means of promoting his products. Millions who have no theories about it eat, work, ride, dance, go to sleep with the radio tuned to jazz. It has become so common a part of daily life that we are likely to forget how it started and why" (69, pp. 691-692).

Philosophy

Philosophy in the twentieth century centered around four outstanding figures. Henri Bugson, believing it the life force, was the first to try to give the term intuition a scientific basis, and thus he worked against mechanistic and static materialism (60, p. 37). John Dewey wrote on many fields, almost always with an abiding faith in democracy and the efficacy of human intelligence. Progressive education owes its impetus to his guidance. He is the chief exponent of instrumentalism, a branch of pragmatism (60, p. 78).

Bertrand A. W. Russell is noted for his work in deriving pure mathematics from logic and his concept of philosophical analysis of scientific empirical data. Alfred North Whitehead worked with Russell in his Principia Mathematica, further proposed the application of the law of relativity in physics as the key to the understanding of metaphysics (60, p. 335). Other men of note are Santayana, Sartre, and Tillich, the latter working entirely within the framework of protestanism.

Literature

W. Somerset Maugham, Aldous Huxley, D. H. Lawrence, and James Joyce, while dissimilar novelists, are all Wastelanders in the Eliot sense. Maugham is "subtle in his overtones, adventurous in his plots, and always dramatic" (95, pp. 1034-5). Huxley is a brilliant critic of modern science (95, p. 1035), and Lawrence seems to be the "great high priest of sex" in English literature (95, p. 1037). Joyce had an irrepressible love for the symbolic, loved the stream of consciousness technique and made it into a sort of fourth-dimension in his Finnegan's Wake (95, p. 1039). Marcel Proust also excelled in mentality reconstruction (95, p. 1040). Virginia Woolf wrote psychological novels, using an elastic and delicate style (95, p. 1040). Thomas Mann turned a keen mind toward the search for a way of dissecting a soul and produced his Magic Mountain.

"In poetry, it is obvious that the most important spokesman for the Wastelanders is T. S. Eliot (in his earlier phase), whose The Love-Song of J. Alfred Prufrock (1917), The Waste Land (1922), and other poems composed in the early 1920's, catch exactly the moods of vacillation, weakness, sordidness, and despair. Eliot, like Henry James, was born in the United States but lived abroad long enough to become first an internationalist and eventually a British citizen. Although he is generally claimed for American literature--and we so claim him here--he is too important a figure to pass over summarily in these pages. It is likely that the critics of the twenty-first century will consider him and William Butler Yeats as the most important English-speaking poets of the first half of the twentieth century. Like Yeats he has progressed remarkably from his earlier work--a sure sign of a significant writer--for his poetry in the 1930's and 1940's has taken on an increasingly religious tone, culminating in such noble utterances as the Choruses from the Rock (1934), Ash Wednesday (1930), and particularly Four Quartets (1943), which is powerful and moving through extremely difficult poetry" (95, p. 1032).

"The tragic effects of World War I are best epitomized perhaps in Ernest Hemingway's The Sun Also Rises and A Farewell to Arms" (8, p. 827).

A new criticism of America was launched by H. L. Menchen in his newspaper barbs, by Sinclair Lewis in his novels (8,

p. 828), by Carl Sandburg in his poetry, and Eugene O'Neill in drama (8, p. 829). William Faulkner's novels tell of violence and moral perversion, and John Steinbeck, though with more warmth and friendlier characters, also dealt with stark humanity in desolate circumstances. Thomas Wolf captured the romantic perceptiveness, and Robert Frost, in his poetry created awareness of beauty. People were beautiful to William Saroyan in his books and plays (8, p. 836), and Stephen Vincent Benet followed the optimistic concept, though with less naivete than Saroyan and with more dramatic power. The comedy of absurd characters was brought to new heights by P. G. Woodhouse. Edgar Lee Masters' Spoon River Anthology and Vachel Lindsay, with such work as his Congo, represented new trends in poetic expression, embracing myth-making qualities. John Dos Passos and Katherine Anne Porter experimented in development of characterization through psychological techniques, the first through use of animal psychology (8, p. 875), the second through the stream-of-consciousness technique (8, p. 876). The use of poetic symbolism, the reduction of the role of plot, and the intensification of characterization of these writers marked them as representative of the new fiction (8, pp. 864-873).

Drama

*Dramatic expression moved east toward Russia and south to Italy and Spain, where it found a memorable response from Luigi Pirandello and Federico Garcia Lorca. It advanced to

the Irish drama of William Butler Yeats, John Millington Synge, and O'Casey; to the English theatre of James M. Barrie; and to the American stage of O'Neill and Thornton Wilder. No Western nation, in fact, failed to respond to the possibilities of imaginative theatre. Although it remained poorer in poetic texture than the older major dramatic literatures, the modern drama acquired poetic overtones everywhere in its course. Realistic writing, too, became interpenetrated with poetry. And, as a result of imaginative techniques, a poetry of the theatre came into being.

"The varied interests of modern playwrights led to a vast exploration of dramatic forms and styles. By comparison with modern theatre's readiness to experiment, the older theatres had been conservative. Whoever wishes to call the state of the modern stage anarchic may do so, but we may also call it remarkably exploratory. We need point only to a few representative developments--the one-act play as an art form; the discussion piece; the naturalistic but also poetic 'slice-of-life' play, free from contrived plotting; the 'mass drama,' or group drama; the 'memory play'; the theatricalist form, which presents the staging of a play, or the 'play within a play'. To this list we must add the various other styles represented in this anthology, such as symbolism and expressionism. If the modern theatre did not actually invent any or all of these forms of the drama, it employed and developed them with freedom and skill.

"With these and other means, the modern drama swept into its orbit an extensive knowledge of man and his world, including the multiple advances of modern times in the fields of sociology and psychology. The creators of modern playwriting were men whose horizons were broad and not confined to the theatre. Many, indeed, received their training in other fields. (Ibsen had studied pharmacy; Hauptmann, science and astronomy; John Galsworthy, law; Chekhov, Schnitzler, and Somerset Maugham, medicine; Pirandello, Karel Capek, and Jean-Paul Sartre, philosophy and psychology. Shaw had cut his eyeteeth on music and economics.) Many were also intensely occupied at one time or another with politics. Playwrights brought into the theatre the intellectual seeds of Schopenhauer, Nietzsche, Kierkegaard, Darwin, Marx, the Webbs, Freud, and other leaders of Western thought. A cartoon intended by Max Beerbohm as a jest at Shaw's expense may stand as a summary of the dramatist's responsiveness to the busy world of modern ideas. Beerbohm shows Shaw presenting a parcel of clothes to the famous nineteenth-century critic Georg Brandes, who is called a marchand d'idees. The 'merchant of ideas' asks Shaw what he wants for the parcel. The latter sanguinely answers, 'Immortality.' Brandes protests, 'Come, I've handled these goods before! Coat, Mr. Schopenhauer's; waistcoat, Mr. Ibsen's; Mr. Nietzsche's trousers' Shaw's rejoinder is 'Ah, but look at the patches.' In the work of most playwrights,

perhaps even the patches had been taken from the thinkers of the age. Yet the combined effect was frequently interesting and exciting.

"There also entered into the drama some of the qualities and elements of the novel, the major literary medium of modern times. It was the nineteenth-century writers of fiction who taught the best lessons of naturalness, documentation, psychological probing, and clinical reporting. It was from the novel, and not from the weak eighteenth-century examples of bourgeois drama, that playwrights could discover the true possibilities of commonplace characters and environments" (24, p. 12).

Literary Criticism

The twentieth century has produced some outstanding literary critics, although the concept of literary criticism dates back to classic times. In our own time, however, the emphasis seems to be more intense than at any time since the Renaissance. C. M. Bowra has done some outstanding work on contemporary poetry, Malcolm Cowley on the novel, being largely responsible for bringing William Faulkner to the public eye. Roger Fry did some pioneer critical work using psychoanalytic techniques. Ellen Glasgow has done work on the thinking of a novelist. Ray B. West, M. D. Zabel and Stanley E. Hyman have attempted the history and summation of contemporary criticism, Hyman in his The Armed Vision. Jacques Maritain presents the

neohumanist viewpoint, F. O. Matthiessen has largely concentrated on the great New England writer and on James, Dreiser, and Eliot; T. S. Eliot himself being the most widely known critic as well as an author. Next to Eliot is probably I. A. Richards. George Saintsbury represents thought on impressionism, Allen Tate self-styles himself as a reactionary, and Lionel Trilling is a middle-of-the-road idealist.

Exploration

"During the years 1914-1917, Sir Ernest Shackleton, in the Endurance, proposed to cross Antarctica from Weddell to Ross Sea via the pole (1800 miles, half over unknown territory) to meet the complementary party under Macintosh in the Aurora. This aim was defeated, Shackleton's way south to the destined landing-place being barred by heavy pack ice in Weddell Sea, but he confirmed Bruce's discovery of Coats Land, between which and Leopold Land to the southwest, he discovered Caird Coast, which contains the Dawson Hampton Glacier--probably the world's largest. Feb. 22, 1915, the Endurance was fast beset and drifted 570 miles northwest with the pack until Nov. 21, 1915, when she was crushed and sunk by the pressure ice. The party drifted on the disintegrating floe until April 9, 1916, when they took to small boats. On April 14 they reached Elephant Island, where they were obliged to winter. Shackleton and five others made the 800-mile trip to South Georgia for help in a 20-foot open boat in 16 days, arriving

May 10, 1916. A fourth relief expedition to Elephant Island was finally successful in removing the marooned party on August 30, 1916.

"The Ross Sea party in the Aurora was left stranded with insufficient equipment at its base at Cape Evans when the ship was carried away by the pack in May, 1915" (39, p. 575).

"1925, May. Roald Amundsen (Lieut. Riiser-Larsen as pilot) and Lincoln Ellsworth, in two flying-boats, flew from King Bay, West Spitsbergen, to $87^{\circ} 43'$ N. L., where they landed. With great exertion and delay they finally got one of their craft into the air again and managed to return.

"A year later, Comm. Richard Byrd and Floyd Bennett flew from King Bay and reached the pole (May 9). Using the Fokker monoplane Josephine Ford, they covered the 750 miles and return in 15 hours.

"Roald Amundsen, Gen. Umberto Nobile, and Lincoln Ellsworth, forestalled by Byrd in their effort to reach the pole first, took off in the dirigible Norge to fly from King Bay across the pole to Alaska. They landed safely near Nome, having sighted no land in the Beaufort Sea area.

"1928, May. Nobile, in the dirigible Italia, made a number of flights from King Bay, one of which (from Cape North around the northern end of Franz Joseph Archipelago, southeast toward Severnaya Zemlya and back over the northern end of Novaya Zemlya and Northeast Land) covered almost 20,000 square

miles of unexplored regions. No new land was seen. The last flight was made (May 24) over northeastern Greenland to the pole. On the return flight the ship encountered a storm and crashed on the ice. Among many relief expeditions, Amundsen's ended disastrously in Barents Sea. Amundsen was lost" (39, p. 566).

Monarchy

"What confronted governments was an uprising of youth, in countries so diverse as Turkey, Russia, China, and Spain students made their voices heard. In the democracies these boys and girls were allowed at least some chance of making a success out of their lives. Autocracies regarded them as the inconvenient generation to be regimented by military conscription. The error was fatal to the thrones. For the ostensible reason for conscript armies had to be defended against a foreign foe--that is, a neighbor monarch--with war as the logical result. The monarchies were thus driven by their domestic precautions into mutual antagonisms, and ultimately the youth movements--Communist, Fascist, Nazi--swept forward as storm troopers with complete indifference to the divine right of kings.

". . . Japan's sabotage of Asiatic monarchy was only a beginning of her expansion. She enthroned (1934) the disposed Chinese 'boy Emperor,' Henry Pu-yi, as puppet ruler of

Manchuria, a Chinese province seized by Japan and now known as Manchukuo.

" . . . Spain was governed by the only monarch of his day who had been a king at birth (1836), Alfonso XIII. At the turn of the century he had lost Cuba and the Philippines to the United States. He was involved in no less serious trouble with Riff tribes in Spanish Morocco; and Catalonia, with the city of Barcelona, was Separatist and Republican in sympathy. During the depression Alfonso's long reign ended with flight (1931) and Spain, like Portugal, became a republic.

" . . . In 1940 only a quarter of the world retained this form of sovereignty, and that quarter included the British Empire where the throne is statutory, and the succession, as in the case of King Edward VIII, is based on parliamentary legislation. Many royal families have been driven into exile" (94, p. 222).

British Government

"In Great Britain the popular movement was expressed in the House of Commons which was thrown into conflict with the House of Lords as the fortress of traditional privilege. The difference was adjusted in 1911 by the Parliament act limiting the veto to the peers on legislation. The Liberal Party, rent later by dissensions, had to yield to labor which (1924) formed its first government under Ramsay MacDonald as

Prime Minister. Deep discontents, unallayed by this political success, were revealed (1926) in a general strike which lasted a week without costing a life--a triumph of good temper and whimsical humor. It was the nearest that Great Britain came to revolution and was followed by a sincere if near-mystical outburst of loyalty to King George V at his Jubilee (1935)--to be interpreted as a last wishful attempt to escape from the grim certainties of a darkening horizon.

"The far-flung empire was encouraged to follow its destiny. The self-governing dominions received full sovereignty by the Statute of Westminster (1931), and the British Commonwealth of Nations, as an alliance rather than an empire, became official. Ireland remained in dissension, the north still being more British than Britons themselves, and the south, as Eire, securing independence (1922). The bureaucracy of India, with the status of Indian Princes, has been profoundly modified by a nationalist movement of which, after the Armistice, Mahatma Gandhi became leader. The Indian Act of 1935 conferred a limited franchise for men and women. It is a peaceful advance, toward dominion status for an India now federated as a whole and for the first time in her long annals" (94, p. 221).

Russian Revolution and Development

"The government was completely discredited in the eyes of the public when Boris Sturmer, arch-conservative and

allegedly pro-German, replaced Goremeykin as chief of the cabinet. Sturmer took charge of the foreign office. Rumors of treason in high places undermined the morale of the army and of the population generally. To all this was added a grave economic problem: shortage of labor, due to repeated mobilisations; disorganization of railroad transport, failure of food and fuel supplies in the cities. In a turbulent session the leaders denounced the 'dark forces' in the government and warned the country of impending disaster unless there was an immediate change of policy.

"Alexander Trepov replaced Sturmer as president of the council of ministers and the government embarked upon a policy of repression of dissatisfaction. But opposition continued, and Rasputin was assassinated by Prince Felix Yussupov and other aristocrats. Even these drastic measures were barren of results, and in some political and military circles there was discussion of a palace revolution. Before any plans could materialize strikes and riots broke out (Mar. 8, 1917) in St. Petersburg (named Petrograd at the beginning of the war). These were followed by a general mutiny of the troops in the capital, which sealed the fate of the old regime. The Duma refused to obey an imperial decree ordering its dissolution, and established a provisional government, headed by Prince George Lvov (chairman of the Union of Zemstvos and Municipalities). The new government included Prof. Paul Miliukov,

leader of the Constitutional Democrats (as minister for foreign affairs); Alexander Guchkov, leader of the Octobrists (minister of war); and Alexander Kerensky, the only Socialist (minister of justice).

"Nicholas II abdicated for himself and his son in favor of his brother Michael, who in turn (Mar. 16) abdicated in favor of the provisional government pending election by a constituent assembly.

"At the very outset, the new regime proclaimed the civic liberties and recognized legal equality of all citizens without social, religious, or racial discrimination. Finland was recognized as independent within a Russian federation; Poland's complete independence was accepted; Estonia was granted autonomy. At the same time the government announced a program of far-reaching social reforms, including distribution of land among the peasants (confiscation of imperial and monastery lands). But the decision on these and other matters was reserved for the constituent assembly, which was being arranged for. From the very outset the provisional government, essentially liberal and bourgeois, found itself in conflict with the Petrograd Soviet (Council of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies), which had been organized by the Socialists.

"The government pledged itself to the continuation of the war against the Central Powers, in common with the Allies, until the attainment of a 'victorious end.' It attempted to

maintain and increase the efficiency of the army and proceeded but cautiously toward its democratization. The Soviet leaders, on the other hand, insisted on a radical revision of war aims, renunciation of secret diplomatic agreements concluded by the tsarist government (and promising Russia Constantinople), and the speedy conclusion of a 'general democratic peace,' without annexations or indemnities. Suspecting the generals of counter-revolutionary tendencies, the Soviet issued (Mar. 14) the famous Order No. I, which deprived the officers of all authority excepting for strategic operations, and entrusted the administration of the army to committees elected by both officers and men. The counter-order of the provisional government was virtually ignored and the committee system was subsequently introduced in all army detachments. The antagonism of the Soviet against the government became more outspoken when (Apr. 16) Valdimir Lenin, Zinoviev, Radek, Lunacharski, and other Bolshevik leaders arrived at Petrograd from Switzerland, j having been transported through Germany in a sealed carriage, the German high command having calculated that these extremists would soon undermine the pro-Allied provisional government. Lenin's program was: (1) Transfer of power from the 'bourgeois' provisional government to the Soviets; (2) immediate cessation of the war, if necessary by the acceptance of a separate peace with the Central Powers; (3) immediate seizure of land by the peasants, without awaiting the decision of the constituent

assembly; (4) control of industry by committees of workers. Lenin was ably supported by Leon Trotsky (Bronstein), who returned from the United States and England early in May, but his program was not accepted by the more moderate (Menshevik) wing of the Socialist Party, nor by the Social Revolutionaries. Consequently much difference of opinion and considerable friction was generated within the Soviet" (39, p. 1028).

"Guchkov and Miliukov were obliged to resign from the provisional government as a result of agitation over war aims and army organization. The government was remade, and now accepted a policy of no annexation and no indemnities, though still declaring against a separate peace. Several Socialists were included in the cabinet, and Kerensky became minister of war. He undertook to revive the war spirit and the fighting power of the army on the basis of the new 'revolutionary discipline.' After a spectacular visit to the front and a stirring appeal to the soldiers, he ordered the Russian offensive against the Austro-German forces.

"After a brief initial success the offensive collapsed and the disorganized Russian troops were completely defeated. The radicals now took the initiative.

"The Bolsheviks attempted to seize power in Petrograd, but the effort was clearly premature. The movement was suppressed by the government and many of the leaders (including Trotsky) were arrested. Lenin managed to escape and went into

hiding in Finland. This coup, as well as disagreement between ministers regarding the burning question of land reform and the status of national minorities (assumption of power in the Ukraine by the local Rada; establishment of Gen. Kaledin as hetman of the Don Cossacks; Finnish declaration of complete independence, resulted in the resignation of Prince Lvov, whose place was taken by Kerensky.

"The position of the government, however, remained very precarious, in view of the growing restlessness of the masses, who suffered from war-weariness and material privations, and were all too ready to listen to Bolshevik propaganda. On the other hand, the conservative elements opposed the government because of its alleged weakness in dealing with the Bolsheviks. The advocates of a strong line found a champion in Gen. Lvr Kornilov, recently appointed commander-in-chief. A rift between Kerensky and Kornilov finally led to the Kornilov attack upon the government.

*Kerensky had dismissed Kornilov, who refused to obey and ordered his troops to advance on Petrograd, his avowed aim being to destroy the Soviet and liberate the provisional government from Socialist domination. The movement broke down because of defection on the part of many soldiers and because of mobilization of the radical elements in the capital, to whom Kerensky appealed for support against the 'counter-revolution' (Trotsky and some other Bolshevik leaders were released

from prison). Kornilev was defeated, but Kerensky now found himself under the domination of his Bolshevik allies. The masses had come to suspect of counter-revolutionary designs not only the army command, but the provisional government also. Bolshevik influence made rapid headway among the factory workers and among the soldiers of the Petrograd garrison. In October the Bolsheviks secured a majority in the Soviet, Trotsky becoming its chairman. Thereupon Lenin decided to attempt a coup.

"The Bolshevik revolution, led by the military revolutionary committee, the soldiers of the Petrograd garrison, the sailors from Kronstadt, and the workers' Red Guards, captured most of the government offices, took the Winter Palace by storm, and arrested the members of the provisional government. Kerensky managed to escape, and, after a futile attempt to organize resistance, went into hiding and subsequently into exile abroad.

"The Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets, from which the moderate Socialists bolted, approved the coup and handed over power to the Bolsheviks" (39, p. 1029).

"The history of Russia (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) after November, 1917, may be conveniently divided into three periods: (1) The period of Militant Communism (1917-1921); (2) the Period of the New Economic Policy (1921-1927); (2) the Period of the New Socialist Offensive (1928-).

"The new government assumed the name Council of People's Commissars. It was headed by Lenin, and included Trotsky (commissar for foreign affairs), Joseph Stalin (commissar for national minorities).

". . . Independent governments were established all along the Russian frontiers (Lithuania, Dec. 11, 1917; Moldavia, Dec. 15; Republic of the Don, Jan. 10, 1918; Ukraine, Jan. 28; Transcaucasia, April 22, etc.). The revolt of the Don Cossacks, led by Gens. Kotnilov and Kaledin, Dec. 9, 1917, may be said to mark the beginning of the Great Civil War.

"During the years 1918-1920, the Bolshevik government was at first faced with the prospect of war without anything like an adequately trained force. During the first period of the war it suffered one reverse after another, but gradually a new Red Army of volunteers was organized. Under the leadership of Trotsky (who had become commissar of war) it developed into a regular army based on conscription and subject to strict discipline. The Bolsheviks had the advantage of fighting on the inside lines and they derived a certain measure of support from the fact that they were defending Russian territory. At the same time the lack of cohesion among the counter-revolutionary movements and the fitful attitude of the Allied Powers constantly hampered the operations of the Whites" (39, p. 1031).

"In 1918, the Soviet Constitution was adopted by the Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets. The main lines of the soviet

systems were these: (1) Local soviets elected representatives to the provincial congresses of soviets, which in turn sent delegates to the All-Russian (subsequently All-Union) congress of Soviets; (2) the latter elected the executive committee, a permanent body which acted in the intervals between sessions of the congress; the congress also elected the council of people's commissars; (3) elections were held on an occupational, and not on a territorial basis; the factory workers were more generously represented than the peasants, while the 'non-toiling' bourgeois classes (including the clergy) were disfranchised; (4) all elections were open, with no provision for secret ballot. In practice this system of 'soviet democracy' was dominated by a dictatorship of (or for) the proletariat, and this in turn was exercised by the Bolshevik Party (renamed the Communist Party in Mar. 1918). No other parties were permitted, and the press and other channels of expression were put under sweeping government control. The Communist Party was governed by a central committee, within which there was a smaller group called the political bureau. This latter was the real governing body of the country. Lenin's authority remained supreme in both party and government until his death.

"July 16. Murder of Nicholas II, Tsarina Alexandra, and their children were murdered in a cellar at Ekaterinburg, where they had been kept in captivity. On the outbreak of the revolution the imperial family had been confined first in

the palace Tsarkoe Selo. Thence it had been moved to Tobolsk and finally (Apr. 18) to Ekaterinburg. The murder was perpetrated by local Bolsheviks who feared the imminent capture of the city by the advancing Czechs and Whites" (39, p. 1032).

"An attempt was made by a social revolutionary to assassinate Lenin. Coming at the end of severe crisis, this move created a panic and inaugurated a systematic reign of terror by the Bolsheviks, in the course of which huge numbers of intellectuals and bourgeois of all types were wiped out.

"The Third International (Communist), was founded, 1919. It was an organization for the propagation of communist doctrine abroad with the purpose of bringing about the world revolution, on which Lenin and his associates reckoned with confidence in the stormy period following the end of the war.

"The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was organized in 1922, bringing together Russia, the Ukraine, White Russia, and Transcaucasia in one federation. The member states retained a large measure of cultural autonomy, but political control was exercised from Moscow through the All-Union Communist Party organization" (39, p. 1033).

"Lenin died in 1924, his death marking the beginning of a struggle for power within the inner councils of the party and the government. The chief contestants were Trotsky and Stalin. The latter at first allied himself with Leo Kamenev (Rosenfeld) and Gregory Zinoviev (Radomyslsky), but these two

soon quarreled with Stalin and adhered to the opposition bloc of Trotsky. Open conflict of the factions broke out in 1926.

"On Feb. 1, 1925, Great Britain recognized the Bolshevik regime, and was soon followed by most of the other European and some extra-European powers (Italy, Feb. 7; France, Oct. 28).

"Japan recognized the Soviet government and agreed to withdraw from northern Sakhalin (evacuation Apr. 4).

"The year 1926, saw the victory of Stalin over the Leftist opposition bloc led by Trotsky. This group insisted on discontinuation of the N E P policy, the speeding-up of 'socialist construction,' and the active resumption of work for the world revolution. Trotsky held that a communist regime in one country was an anomaly and that the proletarian revolution could be safe only when the whole world had been directed into the same channel. Trotsky, Zinoviev, Radek, and other leaders were now expelled from the political bureau of the party.

"And in 1927, May 26, Great Britain severed relations with Soviet Russia because of continued Bolshevik propaganda in contravention of treaty agreements" (39, p. 1034).

"Definitive victory of the Stalin faction over the Trotsky group assumed when the 15th All-Union Congress of the Communist Party condemned all 'deviation from the general party line' as interpreted by Stalin. Trotsky and his followers were banished to the provinces after expulsion from the party. In Jan. 1929 Trotsky was expelled from the Union and was obliged

to take refuge in Constantinople. Later he moved to Norway and ultimately to Mexico. The same party congress made several decisions which signified the end of the N.E.F. and the inauguration of a new Socialist Offensive.

"In 1928, a program of speedy industrialization was introduced in the form of several successive Five-Year Plans (beginning Oct. 1, 1928). In the realization of this program considerable success was achieved in the development of heavy industries (primarily for the purposes of national defense). But production of manufactured products still lagged far behind the needs of the population and the government was constantly faced with inefficiency, to say nothing of ill-will (1930- : a series of trials of technicians for mismanagement and sabotage). In the field of agriculture the government now returned to a policy of socialization by pooling individual peasant farms in large concerns, such as the collective farms (kolkhoz) and the state farms (sovkhoz). The collectivization campaign in the villages was carried out by means of both propaganda and coercion (drastic measures against the recalcitrant peasants and especially against the well-to-do farmers or kulaks, who were completely wiped out). The objectives of the government were substantially achieved, and within a few years the great majority of the peasants were collectivized, the government controlling the output of the new farms.

"By the year 1929, Bukharin and other members of the Rightest opposition had been expelled. This group had

advocated further concession to the peasants along the lines of the N E P. Stalin was now undisputed master of the situation and dictator of Russia.

"An agreement with China brought an end to a prolonged dispute and a period of acute tension over the conflicting claims to the Chinese Eastern Railway. In the period from 1924 to 1926 the Soviet government had actively supported the nationalist movement in China, but after a quarrel the Russian agents had been expelled and relations had rapidly degenerated" (39, p. 1034).

"In 1933, there was a purge of the Communist Party. About one-third of the members (1,000,000) were expelled for one reason or another. In April a number of British engineers were put on trial for sabotage. The British government protested and put an embargo on Russian goods. Though convicted, the engineers were permitted to leave the country, but Anglo-Russian relations continued to be distant.

"Recognition of the Soviet government by the United States brought to an end a long period of estrangement. Trade relations were opened and the Russian government promised to abstain from propaganda in the United States.

"In 1934, the non-aggression pacts with Poland and the Baltic states were extended into 10-year agreements. In view of the National Socialist victory in Germany and the openly expressed hostility of the new German regime to Communism,

the Soviet Union felt more than ever endangered. Trade relations with Germany continued and even developed for a few years, but the Moscow government at once embarked upon an extensive program of armament on land, sea, and air. Within a few years the Russians had a formidable air fleet and had made considerable progress toward the construction of a powerful navy (esp. submarines). In accord with the effort to secure support in Europe, Russia made Agreements with Czecho-slovakia and Rumania, at long last recognizing the loss of Bessarabia.

"The government joined the League of Nations, which before had been roundly denounced. Russia now took an active part in all work for the furtherance of collective security and supported France in the scheme for an eastern European pact along the lines of the Locarno agreement" (39, p. 1035).

The Russian Revolution and Development Summarized

"The folly of the Hohenzollerns in rejecting German liberalism and substituting German militarism, was thus apparent in the results. There was a revolution in Russia far transcending any of the sanguinary upheavals that had convulsed Paris. It was not political alone, not alone social, but economic, industrial, agrarian, an endeavor at any cost in life and liberty to speed up the modernization of Russia which had been gaining momentum under the Czarism. For the

time being, the age-long system of private enterprise, resulting in ownership of property, was swept aside in favor of communism where all the means of production, distribution, and exchange are owned and controlled by the totalitarian state. The Czar Nicholas II and his family were executed (1918) at Ekaterinburg (Sverdlovsk) and Lenin, disciple of Karl Marx, became the Little Father of the people whose escutcheon bore the Hammer and Sickle. He died in 1924, receiving a kind of godless canonization in a tomb outside the Kremlin, again the seat of government, and his colleague Leon Trotsky was exiled (1928), and assassinated in Mexico (1940). The revolution was harvested by Joseph Stalin as dictator who set up a czardom not entirely unlike others in Russia's history, including the earlier Romanoffs themselves, and 'liquidated' many of the pioneering and still ardent Communists from the steadying scene.

"Russia thus became less propagandist and more nationalist. But the dread of the Communist gospel continued to be worldwide. At resorts of the so-called 'Cliveden House Set' in England, led by the Astors, it recalled Burke's candid 'observations' on the French Revolution in the 18th century. The argument was that defeating Germany would mean Russians at the Rhine--which prophecy was not in accord with the sequel to Napoleon's retreat from Moscow. In the United States, communism was held to be against the Constitution, for its

essential principle was right of minority to seize the instruments of power and coerce the majority" (94, p. 223).

The German Axis

"Hitler used the communist issue for his own purposes. An Anti-Comintern Pact was concluded (1936) between Germany and Japan, and Italy joined it with zest. Later, it was imposed on all German-controlled countries. In Spain, the republic was shattered by civil war (1936-1939), Russia supporting the constitutional government, and General Franco receiving assistance from the Axis Powers which enabled him to subdue the country. This internecine struggle in Spain was apparently a part of Germany's plan for reaching the Atlantic by way of the Spanish Peninsula and West Africa. Manchuria, Ethiopia, and Spain were thus included in one framework of aggression" (94, p. 223).

Economics and the "New Deal"

"The long overdue liberation of small nations in Europe was criticized as 'Balkanization.' Even those who considered that 'self-determination' was a legitimate expression of nationality agreed with Woodrow Wilson and his liberal group that these rights should have been associated with the friendliest racial and economic comradeship. Repudiating this common sense within her continental commonwealth, Europe however, declined to be reasonable over minorities within her

numerous states and, what was even more mischievous, prevented the usual flow of trade by means of an incredible network of tariffs, quotas and embargos, reminiscent of those economics of Jean Baptiste Colbert in the France of Louis XIV which, it had been supposed, were exploded for all time by Adam Smith in his Wealth of Nations. The broad effect of the folly was that 'green', or agricultural Europe, was hampered in her commerce with the 'black' Europe of industry. In 1932 Great Britain, following higher tariffs in the United States, abandoned free trade and joined the general saue qui peut which saved nobody.

"The effect of this economic strangulation, foreseen by every responsible authority on finance, was catastrophic. The trade of the world was reduced to a fraction of what it had been and should have been. Civilization was self-blockaded. Unemployment rose, especially among youth. The concentration of gold in the United States upset the use of that precious metal as a standard of exchange.

"In the United States, Liberty Bonds sold during the First World War had familiarized the nation as a whole with the idea of investment. Securities had been distributed by sales pressure and bought at artificial values. Widespread defaults on foreign bonds added to the crisis. On Wall Street (1932) the inevitable slump fell with the staggering impetus of a tornado. For years numerous banks had been suspending

payments, and on the day of inauguration when President Franklin D. Roosevelt succeeded President Hoover (4 March 1933) every bank in the country was closing its doors. The income of the nation fell to a little over one-half what it had been, and real estate, with mortgages attached, was frozen. It was under these circumstances that the New Deal--a term of uncertain definition--was proposed to, and accepted by, the nation as an emergency measure. It brought the administration into repeated collisions with the Supreme Court and admittedly it contained needless industrial codes with other top-hamper. But certain main elements in the policy stand the test of experience: namely, a fair wage, insurance against financial vicissitudes in the home and, despite a later revulsion of sentiment, the trade union. The Magna Charta of labor was the Wagner Act (1935), establishing a National Labor Relations Board. Employees were assured of the right to select their agency of collective bargaining but no precautions were taken against misuse of authority by union officials. The grossest scandals gradually came to light--racketeering, blackmail, extortion--and in some cases the miscreants, already with criminal records, were convicted. But the nuisance of jurisdictional and other strikes continued even in defense industries, and in Congress (1941) an outburst of resentment arose with proposals to discipline unions and require an accounting of their funds" (94, p. 224).

Prelude to a Second World War

"The seizure of Manchuria by Japan in 1932 was protested by the then Secretary of State Stimson, but without British support. Hitler was thus emboldened to defy the Allies by reoccupying the Rhineland (1935) which had been demilitarized under the Treaty of Versailles. Italy's adventure in Ethiopia further weakened the authority of the League of Nations. In 1938, Hitler was thus able to absorb Austria into the Reich. This success was followed by designs on Czechoslovakia, and Europe was brought to the verge of a general war. Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain flew an airplane to Munich and, as appeasement, surrendered the threatened country to the invader. In 1939 a pretext against Poland was discovered by Hitler at Danzig, and this time Great Britain and France declared war" (94, p. 224).

Hitler's Rise

"Germany was still a constitutional republic, and the failure of commerce prepared the ground for Adolf Hitler. As a Socialist he could attack the capitalist countries. As a Nationalist he could denounce 'Versailles.' As a demagogue he could put all the blame for everything on Jews and Bolsheviks. He pushed aside the dying President von Hindenburg and, financed by millionaires who lived to regret it, blessed by churches which paid dearly for their benedictions, he seized the reins of absolute power, burning down the Reichstag

as a symbolic preliminary to dictatorship. Germany withdrew from the League of Nations (1933) including the Disarmament Conference, and was permitted to rearm for further war.

"The technique of the Fuhrer, or 'leader,' was simple. He associated other aggressor nations, Italy and Japan, with Germany as an 'axis.' These nations were to expand, if possible, by peaceful pressure on yielding territories. The pressure consisted of militarist terrorism, intensified by a 'fifth column' consisting of spies, 'tourists,' and agents of propaganda. If these methods were effective, well and good. Otherwise, force must be used to strike down, if possible, one victim at a time. By this strategy, relentlessly pursued, the program of the Hohenzollerns frustrated in 1914-1918, was to be put through" (94, p. 224).

World War II

"Since the days of Karl von Clausewitz (1780-1831) Germany had applied cold logic to military preparations. In 1940, Germany entered the fray, not too hurriedly, with 'panzer divisions,' reminiscent of the phalanxes with which Alexander the Great overwhelmed the armies of Persia. These divisions were complete with tanks, artillery, airplanes and infantry, moving as one advancing unit. They broke Poland, Holland, Belgium, Yugoslavia and Greece, while France herself, with 'the best army in Europe,' was defeated a second time on the field of Sedan. The sea itself did not hold back this

mechanized juggernaut. With the assistance of planes and parachutists, Germany overran Norway and Crete, even reaching North Africa. Britain's European expeditionary force barely eluded annihilation by a miraculous withdrawal from Dunkerque and, for a time, it looked as if attempts to invade the British Isles would succeed.

"The Russian Campaign.--A factor in these developments was Russia, where Joseph Stalin sat in the Kremlin, silent and enigmatic. Reports from Russia suggested that he had purged his generals, undermined the efficiency of the Red Army, and shown airplanes of doubtful value when visitors like Col. Charles Lindbergh were around. A first class sensation arose, therefore, when Stalin and Hitler--sworn over communisim--were joined in unholy alliance by the ever-busy German Foreign Minister, von Rubbentrop. Russia then seized a part of the German-defeated Poland, conquered territory in Finland, and occupied Latvia, Estonia and Lithuania. These cynical proceedings, as they seemed to be, looked as if, after all, there was no difference between dictators. Nazi, Fascist or Communist, they were all alike.

"A somewhat different interpretation of the strange affair arose when, in 1940, Hitler turned on his comrade in the Kremlin and hurled his armies to the very gates of Moscow. On Stalin's behalf it was argued that he had never taken Hitler's friendship at face value, that he knew of Hitler's

determination to attack Russia, that he merely anticipated Germany's intention to use the Baltic states as bridgeheads, and that his bond with Berlin was no more than a Slav Munich. The facile assumption of Russian inefficiency, apparently believed in Berlin, was dispelled by a Homeric defense against Nazi hordes of invaders which, with the shadow of winter approaching day by day, failed to reach either Moscow or Leningrad and (December 1941) were hurled back from the Caucasian city of Rostov, the gateway of the oil country, and snow began to fall.

"The Battle of Britain.---The laws of war forbid bombardment of open towns and unrestrained sinkings of ships on the high seas. Germany set aside, and forced her opponents to set aside, these rules. After the surrender of Holland, she bombed a defenseless Amsterdam, merely as a warning of frightfulness, and there were no limits to submarine and other maritime operations.

"London, therefore, was bombed, including Buckingham Palace, the House of Commons, Westminster Abbey, and St. Paul's Cathedral. Among provincial cities, Coventry suffered severely. England showed that she could 'take it' and 'give it back' again, one of the surprises of the war being the brilliant exploits of the Royal Air Force. At sea, Germany was blockaded with substantial success but there was a question how her vigorous counterblockade of the British Isles

would work out. For a time the loss of tonnage was very serious but the peril was gradually diminished.

"The United States and the War.--Public opinion in the United States during the 20th century has been divided between traditional isolation and intervention in world affairs. President William McKinley's retention of the Philippines (1899) was disapproved by William Jennings Bryan when Secretary of State, and independence of the islands, it was hoped, would reduce the liabilities of Washington in the Far East. The Arbitration Treaties of President Taft, the Covenant of the League of Nations, membership of the World Court, and responsibility for an Armenian Republic were all opposed on the ground that the United States would be committed thereby to foreign entanglements. Participation in the First World War was held to be the best of all possible reasons for keeping out of the Second World War, and measures 'short of war'-- 'a shooting war'--were advocated.

"Gradually, as in 1917, the basic reality emerged: namely, that the United States could not be herself, either in economics or in culture, if the Axis Powers defeated a hardpressed Britain, even capturing her navy, and obtained control of the eastern seaboard of the Atlantic, the western seaboard of the Pacific, and the internal affairs of Latin America. The Lease-Lend Act was passed (11 March 1941), enabling President Roosevelt to finance any country assisting in 'defense' against

Germany; gradually the restrictions of neutrality legislation were lifted. The United States thus occupied Greenland, Iceland, and Dutch Guiana, co-operating closely with Great Britain in all theaters of war.

"For many years there had been prophets of inevitable war between the United States and Japan. There were close commercial ties, however, between these nations, Japan exporting silk and importing American products. It was, once more, militarism that, as in the case of Germany, destroyed a favorable situation. Not only in China but in French Indo-China and the Malay Peninsula, Japan challenged the A.B.C.D. Powers --that is, America, Britain, China, and the Dutch East Indies, bringing upon herself a blockade, politely camouflaged as sanctions or quarantine, that covered almost the whole of her commerce. By the cost of a four years' war, followed by this loss of trade, the internal economy of Japan was all but wrecked. Nevertheless, on 7 Dec. 1941, called by President Roosevelt the 'day that will live in infamy,' Japan, without warning, attacked the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, with airplanes and submarines, and the so-called Second World War became the Second World War in reality" (94, p. 225).

Religion

"Religions had never been at variance, Christian against non-Christian, Catholic against Protestant, Hindu against Moslem. There was a new and less divisive study of comparative

religion but ecclesiastical authority of every kind fell to a heavy discount. Attempts to secure the organic union of churches only succeeded where divergencies were outworn and artificial, for instance, among like-minded Presbyterians, Methodists, and so on. The real cleavage--Catholic and Protestant--continued, and was revealed within Anglicanism when a violent outburst in the British House of Commons (1928) accompanied the rejection of a Revised Prayerbook held to be unduly sacramental in its tendency. The Roman Catholic Church has been tested severely by events. The fall of faithful dynasties in Spain, Austria-Hungary, and Bavaria; the fate of Poland and the collapse of the separated yet apostolic Eastern Orthodox Church in Russia drove the Vatican to increased dependence on democratic countries, especially within the English-speaking world, where many converts, including intellectuals like G. K. Chesterton, adopted the Roman obedience. Since 1870, the Pope had been the 'prisoner of the Vatican' in declared opposition to the reigning House of Savoy. In 1929 peace was signed between the Papacy and Italy. Vatican City became a sovereign state, a microcosm of secular power wielded by spiritual authority, which was represented throughout the world by an elaborated diplomatic service. The ceremonial of St. Peter's included canonizations--for instance, Joan of Arc (1920) and Sir Thomas More (1935)--and provided notable material for screen and radio. The organisation of the Papal

Court with its elevators and telephones was curiously modern" (94, p. 219).

Science

"Science mobilized a world-wide war on disease, perfecting dentistry, reducing infant mortality, promoting hygiene, examining and feeding school children, and, with the help of the Rockefeller Foundation and other similar institutions, undertaking research. The century opened with Walter Reed's brilliant and heroic victory in Cuba over yellow fever, spread by mosquitoes. In 1922, the Canadian physician, Sir Frederick Grant Banting, applied insulin to diabetes, and mention should be made of sulfanilamide as a corrective of certain diseases. The birth of the Dionne Quintuplets in Ontario (1934) and their subsequent healthy development was a notable event in obstetrics, and a tribute to their physician, Dr. Allan Roy Dafee. The rise of a victim of infantile paralysis, Franklin D. Roosevelt, to the Presidency of the United States, directed attention to treatment of this disease. The effect of medical science on vital statistics cannot be summarized for a world in upheaval. A great decrease in child mortality was shown to be possible" (94, p. 219).

Science Survey

*1915. Anthony H. G. Fokker (1890-1939), a Dutchman whose services were declined by the Allies, built for the

Germans the first of his famous planes, with synchronization of machine-gun fire through a revolving propeller.

"1916. Igor Sikorsky (1889-) developed a twin-motored plane, laying the foundation for multi-motored planes, essential for bombing operations and later for the development of commercial transports.

"1918. Development of long-range artillery. The German gun, Big Bertha, bombarded Paris at a distance of 76 miles.

"1919, June 15. Capt. John Alcock and Lieut. Arthur W. Brown first crossed the Atlantic in an airplane, flying from Newfoundland to Ireland, 1936 miles, in 15 hours and 57 minutes.

"1920. Juan de la Cierva designed the autogiro (combination monoplane and helicopter). It was first flown in 1923.

"1920. First commercial radio broadcasting, by the Westinghouse station in East Pittsburgh" (39, p. 557).

"1920. Ernest Rutherford suggested a method for the artificial disintegration of the atom and discovered the proton.

"1921. Frederick G. Banting (1891-1941), Charles H. Best (1899-), James B. Collip (1892-) perfected a technique for extracting insulin from the pancreas and purifying it for use against diabetes" (39, p. 553).

"1924. First circumnavigation of the globe by four United States Army airplanes. Elapsed time, 175 days.

"1925. Talking pictures at last successfully introduced" (39, p. 557).

"1925. Collip obtained an extract of the parathyroid gland for the treatment of tetany.

"1926. Liver extract was utilized for the treatment of pernicious anemia.

"1927. Werner Heisenberg (1901-) propounded the principle of uncertainty to explain new phenomena observed in physics" (39, p. 553).

"1927, May 21. Charles A. Lindbergh made the second transatlantic flight and the first continuous flight from New York to Paris, in his monoplane Spirit of Saint Louis (3605 miles in 33 hours, 39 minutes).

"1927, June 29. Lieuts. Albert F. Hegenberger and Lester J. Maitland flew from Oakland, California, to Honolulu (2400 miles), to longest over-water flight to that date.

"1927, Oct. 15. Capt. Dieudonne Coste and Lieut. Commander Joseph Le Brix made the first east-west flight across the Atlantic, from Senegal to Rio de Janeiro.

"1927. First actual transmission of television signals (New York to Washington) by the American Telephone and Telegraph Company" (39, p. 557).

"1927. First transatlantic telephone service opened.

"1928. The first North Atlantic east-west flight accomplished by two Germans, Baron Gunther von Huhnefeld and Capt. Koehi, and Commandant James Fitzmaurice (Dublin to Greenley Island, near Newfoundland).

"1928. First transpacific flight by Capt. Charles Kingford-Smith (the over-water leg from Honolulu to Java, 3138 miles, was unprecedented).

"1929. The German dirigible Graf Zeppelin (commander, Hugo Eckener), circumnavigated the globe. It was then put into regular passenger service from Europe to South America. Zeppelin passenger service from Europe to the United States was opened in 1935, but was interrupted after the disastrous burning of the Hindenburg (1937).

"1930, Sept. 2. First non-stop Paris to New York flight, by Capt. Coste and Maurice Bellonte" (39, p. 558).

"1930. A ninth planet, Pluto, was located.

"1931. 'Heavy Hydrogen,' an isotope of hydrogen, was detected at the Bureau of Standards at Washington and isolated at Columbia University by Harold Clayton Urey (1893-) in 1933" (39, p. 553).

"1931, May. Prof. Auguste Picard ascended 52,000 feet in a balloon, the first venture into the stratosphere.

"June. Wiley Post and Harold Gatty, Americans, circled the globe by airplane in 8 days, 15 hours elapsed time" (39, p. 558).

"1932. Albert Einstein offered his Unitary Field Theory. Vitamin D was discovered" (39, p. 553).

"1933. Wiley Post alone circled the globe in 7 days, 18 hours.

"1933. World distance record for airplanes made by Maurice Rossi and Paul Codes (New York to Syria, 5657 miles, non-stop" (39, p. 558).

"1935. The therapeutic virtue of sulfanilimide was demonstrated by Gerhard Domagk (1888-)" (39, p. 553).

"1935. Capt. A. W. Stevens set an altitude record in a stratosphere balloon, rising to 72,395 feet.

"1935. Pan American Airways established transpacific service by airplane from California to Manila, with connection to Hongkong. Regular commercial lines had already been established to the East Indies (Royal Dutch Airlines), to Indo-China (Air France lines), to Hongkong and Australia (Imperial Airways), to Brasil (Deutsche Lufthansa), and from the United States to South America (Pan American Airways).

"1937, June. V. P. Chkalov, G. P. Baidukov, and A. V. Beliakov, three Russian fliers, flew non-stop from Moscow over the north pole to Vancouver (5288 miles).

"1937, July 14. Mikhail Gromov and two companions, all Russians, flew non-stop from Moscow over the pole to Riverside, California (6262 miles in 62 hours, 17 minutes), a non-stop distance record.

"1938, July 10-14. Howard Hughes, an American, with four companions flew around the world by way of Europe and Siberia, in 3 days, 19 hours, and 17 minutes, averaging between 225 and 250 miles per hour.

"1939, May 20. Pan American Airways inaugurated regular commercial flights between the United States and Europe, by way of the Azores" (39, p. 558).

"1940. The possibility of splitting the atom of U 235 was demonstrated. Otto Hahn, Fritz Strassman, and Liza Meitner produced nuclear fission" (39, p. 553).

Summary: The Sophisticated Age

1915. Germans release chlorine gas at Ypres. S. S. Lusitania torpedoed and sunk by Germans.

1916. David Lloyd George chosen wartime Prime Minister of Great Britain. President Woodrow Wilson re-elected. Emperor Francis Joseph I of Austria-Hungary dies. Charles VII succeeds him. British use tanks on Western Front.

1917. Outbreak of Russian Revolution. United States enters First World War (6 April). Gen. Edmund H. H. Allenby occupies Jerusalem.

1918. Armistice signed (11 November). Czar Nicholas II executed by Bolsheviks. Emperor Charles VII of Austria-Hungary renounces throne. Emperor William II of Germany flees to Holland.

1919. Peace Conference meets in Paris; attended by President Wilson. Treaty of Versailles adopted. Mahatma Gandhi declares for non-co-operation in India" (94, p. 226).

1919. United States Senate rejected Treaty of Versailles including League of Nations" (59, p. 371).

1919. Einstein announces his Theory of Relativity.

1920. 18th (Prohibition) Amendment to United States Constitution adopted. 19th (Woman suffrage) Amendment to Constitution, adopted. League of Nations established at Geneva. Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Austria, become independent states. Rumania and Yugoslavia greatly enlarged. Alsace-Lorraine restored to France. Turkish territory reduced approximately to Asia Minor. Popular interest in radio develops. Warren G. Harding elected President of the United States.

1921. Washington Conference on Naval Armaments and the Far East opens (11 November). Greco-Turkish War; rise of the victorious Mustapha Kemal. United States restricts immigration.

1922. Irish Free State (Eire) established. David Lloyd George succeeded by first Dominion-born Prime Minister of Great Britain, Andrew Boner Law, of Canada. Mussolini leads Fascist march on Rome. Pope Benedict XV dies; succeeded by Pius XI.

1923. President Harding dies; succeeded by Vice-President Calvin Coolidge.

1924. Theodore H. Somervell and Lt. Col. E. F. Norton reach altitude of 28,100 feet on Mount Everest. First Labor Prime Minister of Britain, Ramsay MacDonald succeeds Stanley Baldwin who later resumes office. Calvin Coolidge elected President of the United States.

1925. Pact of Locarno mutually guarantees Rhine frontier. British pound sterling brought back to gold standard.

1926. General strike in Britain; no bloodshed. Germany enters League of Nations.

1927. Charles A. Lindbergh makes first solo flight across Atlantic.

1928. British House of Commons rejects Revised Prayer Book. Manuscript of "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland" sells for \$77,260. President Alvaro Obregon of Mexico assassinated. Amelia Earhart flies the Atlantic. Herbert Hoover elected President of the United States.

1929. Pope Pius XI and Mussolini arrive at Concordat. Vatican City becomes Sovereign state. Last year of artificial prosperity; economic depression sets in. James Ramsay MacDonald again succeeds Stanley Baldwin as Prime Minister of England.

1931. King Alphonso XIII of Spain escapes into exile. British Parliament passes Statute of Westminster regularising the autonomy of Dominions. MacDonald joins with Baldwin in British Coalition government. British pound sterling goes off gold standard. Japan occupies Manchuria. Collapse of Creditanstalt in Vienna.

1932. Disarmament Conference meets in Geneva. Sir Malcolm Campbell drives automobile at 253.968 miles per hour. Militarist in Japan assassinate Prime Minister Inukai. Ottawa Conference to promote interimperial trade. Franklin D. Roosevelt elected President of the United States.

1933. 20th Amendment to United States Constitution, abolishing 'lame duck session' of Congress, adopted. 21st Amendment to Constitution, ending prohibition, adopted. Financial crisis; advent of the New Deal. World Economic Conference meets in London. Adolph Hitler becomes Chancellor of the German Reich. Wave of anti-Semitism in Germany. U.S.N. dirigible Akron wrecked in storm. Germany withdraws from the League of Nations and Disarmament Conference which fails. Japan withdraws from the League of Nations.

1934. Nazi assassinate Chancellor Dollfuss of Austria. King Alexander I of Yugoslavia assassinated in Marseilles. Succeeded by youth Peter II. King Albert I of Belgium killed while mountain climbing. Succeeded by Leopold III. United States Congress passes bill granting ultimate independence to the Philippine Islands, to become effective in 10 years.

1935. Britain grants constitution to India. Saar Valley votes to rejoin Germany. Italians invade Ethiopia.

1936. King George V dies. Succeeded by Edward VIII who abdicates and is followed by King George VI. Italians set up Empire of Italian East Africa. Franklin D. Roosevelt re-elected President of the United States.

1937. Undeclared war breaks out between Japan and China.

1938. Germany annexes Austria. At Munich, British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain and Premier Edouard Daladier of France surrender control of Czechoslovakia to Nazi.

1939. Italy withdraws from League of Nations. Germany makes pact with Russia. Germany invades Poland so starting Second World War. Russia attacks Finland. Italians occupy Albania.

1940. Germany conquers or occupies Denmark, Norway, Holland, Belgium, Luxemburg, and France. Winston Churchill succeeds Neville Chamberlain as Prime Minister. German attempts to invade Britain fail. Italy invades Greece. Roosevelt re-elected for third term as President of the United States.

1941. Germany advances into Balkans and takes Crete. Britain liberates Ethiopia and resists Axis attack on Egypt. Germany goes to aid of Italy and conquers Greece; also conquers Yugoslavia. Prime Minister Winston Churchill of Great Britain and President Roosevelt hold historic conference aboard a battleship 'somewhere in the Atlantic.' Prime Minister Churchill comes to Washington to discuss war matters with President Roosevelt. Japan bombs United States naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii (7 December). United States declares war on Japan (8 December). Germany and Italy declare war on the United States (11 December); United States declares war on Germany and Italy. Great Britain and all her dominions declare war on Japan (94, pp. 226-227).

Section X: The Hopeful Age

Literature

The greatest of the younger school of contemporary British poets is perhaps W. A. Auden, a satirist, given to opaqueness of prophecy (95, p. 1043). Stephen Spender is another of the younger poets believing that art must have social purpose (95, p. 1044).

A unique combination of orator and historian is Winston Churchill. His speeches during the Second World War rank with the finest of all orations, and his stature has been increased by his history of the war and, more recently, his History of the English Speaking Peoples.

Modern dramatists who have achieved outstanding results are Tennessee Williams, Arthur Miller, and Archibald MacLeish.

"As a movement, Surrealism, or Super-realism, is totally distinct from all other contemporary schools, and indeed makes a complete break with all the accepted traditions of artistic expression. Inevitably, therefore, it arouses the bitterest opposition, not only in academic circles (generally content to dismiss it as an absurdity), but even from those painters and critics who are normally accepted as modernists. But such blind opposition has so often proved wrong in the past that we should at least make an attempt to understand what these determined artists are driving at, and for this purpose we might take Max Ernst and Salvador Dali as representatives.

"Max Ernst was born in Bruhl, near Cologne in 1891. From the beginning his art betrayed a tendency toward symbolism and toward what might be called a disintegration of the intellect or reason, which is one aspect of symbolism. The artist, whether poet or mystic or painter, does not seek a symbol for what is clear to the understanding and capable of discursive exposition; he realizes that life, especially the mental life, exists on two planes, one definite and visible in outline and detail, the other--perhaps the greater part of life--submerged, vague, indeterminate. A human being drifts through time like an iceberg, only partly floating above the level of the consciousness. It is the aim of the Surrealists, whether as painter or as poet, to try to realize some of the dimensions and characteristics of his submerged being" (57, pp. 170-171).

Music

While it is difficult to survey modern music, it seems sound to pronounce merit on certain contemporaries:

"Ralph Vaughn Williams (1872-), best known from two works of 1914--London Symphony and the opera, Hugh the Brewer--both 'folksy,' and the latter in the vein of the Beggar's Opera; and Ernest Block (1880-), with works of Jewish inspiration from the same time--Trois Poemes Juifs for orchestra (1913), and a Shelomo Rhapsody for cello and orchestra (1915).

"There are men born in the 1890's: the Russian, Serge Prokofiev (1891-), with a Classical Symphony (1916-1917), and opera, Love for Three Oranges (1919), and a lovable fairy-tale for children, Peter and the Wolf (1936); the Swiss, Arthur Honegger (1892-), best known from a dramatic psalm, Le Roi David (1921), and the railroad apotheosis, Pacific 231, a 'symphonic movement' (1923); the Frenchman, Darius Milhaud (1892-), composer of the ballets Le Boeuf sur le Toit (1919) and Le Train Bleu (1924), and of the opera Christophe Colomb (1928); the German-born Paul Hindemith (1895-), whose versatility appears in works as opposite in style as the song-cycle Das Marienleben (1924), the three operas Sancta Susanna (1921), Cardillac (1926), and Mathis der Maler (1934), and his children's play Let's Build a Town (1931); the American Virgil Thomson (1896-), with the two operas on texts of Gertrude Stein, Four Saints in Three Acts (1934) and The Mother of Us All (1947).

"Among the sons of this century are the American, Aaron Copland (1900) with a Dance Symphony (1925), El Salon Mexico for orchestra (1936), and the high school opera, The Second Hurricane (1937); the Russian, Dmitri Shostakovich (1906-), who gained world renown with his First Symphony (1919), the operas, The Nose (1929) and Lady MacBeth of the District of Mzensk (1935), and the Leningrad Symphony (1942); the Frenchman, Olivier Messiaen (1908-), with a symphonic poem,

Les Offrandes Publiques, and other works in a spirit of Catholic mysticism.

"The youngest of the outstanding masters in our time is the Englishman, Benjamin Britten (1913-), creator of the opera Peter Grimes (1945). Not only their quality but also their diversity gives a hopeful ending to this brief survey" (64, p. 636).

In 1958, Igor Stravinsky produced his atonal Threni and once more demonstrated that classical music is still being written.

Science

Some of the most remarkable achievements of science were made during the past few years. Enrico Fermi and others had built the first atomic pile in 1942, and the release of atomic energy for explosive purposes was demonstrated by the use of an atomic bomb dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima August 8, 1945. Edward Teller and others produced the hydrogen bomb in 1950 (39, p. 553). In 1943, the United States Army adopted the new formula known as DDT as its standard insecticide. Penicillin was successfully applied to the treatment of a number of diseases. The total synthesis of quinine was achieved in 1944, and the synthesis of Vitamin A was patented the following year (39, p. 553). A nuclear powered submarine was built in the last decade, and the 1950's saw the first voyage under the North Pole; space satellites around

the earth and the sun; a rocket impact on the moon, and a rocket sent around the moon; electric power from atomic reactors; supersonic aircraft flight; jet powered air transports; the discovery of radio emission from hydrogen in space; the discovery of the Van Allen radiation belts around the earth; the overthrow of the parity principle in basic physics; the development of the bevatron; the transistor; the discovery and use of the tranquilisers and the Salk polio vaccine; and the discovery of the family of acrylic and polyester synthetic fibers.

Engineering and basic science worked together under war and cold war pressures, but the progress made was, as shown, by no means limited to the fields of destruction. Even more progress was made in utilisation of radioactive isotopes in medicine and industry than was made in use of atoms for destruction. The exploration of the solar system will have its effect on the general outlook and philosophy of man, and developments in technology will have even more influence than before in changing our way of life. Four major changes will probably be: in control and use of thermo-nuclear fusion, in development of manned space vehicles for ranges beyond present limits, in automation of assembly lines, and in further design of electronic computers to more nearly stimulate and therefore further aid the thinking process. The technical aspects of the present time are one of the hallmarks of the total era.

The advances in the technological field only serve to point up the need for the working together of those in different fields. With greater leisure and with greater power, there is an even greater need for a fusion and understanding among those in art, in science, and in philosophy.

The End of World War II

"After the collapse of Germany in May, 1945, the Japanese were left without allies, and the British and American resources in men and material were redirected toward the Pacific theater of war. Japanese strength was already half-broken, and Japanese morale was beginning to disintegrate when two terrible strokes within one week hastened the conclusion of the war.

"On Aug. 6, 1945, an atomic bomb, secretly prepared by British and American scientists, was dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima with obliterating effect. The city was more than half destroyed.

"On August 8, Soviet Russia declared war on Japan and commenced a powerful invasion of Manchuria.

"On Aug. 10, the Japanese cabinet decided to make an offer of surrender. The Allied terms of capitulation were communicated to Tokyo and accepted four days later (Aug. 14). United States forces of occupation landed in Japan on Aug. 26.

"On Sept. 2, the formal terms of surrender were signed by the Japanese officials and military leaders on board the S. S. Missouri in Tokyo Bay. Capitulation terms for Japanese

forces in China, estimated at 1,000,000 men, were signed in Nanking, Sept. 9, by Japanese commanders and representatives of Generalissimo Chiang K'ai-shek" (39, pp. 1169-1170).

"The Japanese home islands were placed under the rule of a United States army of occupation, but the Emperor remained at the head of the state and the Japanese political and police officials continued to fulfill their functions. The high command and the military organizations were progressively disbanded. American forces also occupied island possessions regained or nearly captured in the Pacific Ocean.

"Korea was placed under Soviet and United States occupation, pending establishment of a Korean democratic government. The Kurile Islands and the southern part of Sakhalin were ceded to Russia, Outer Mongolia was recognized as part of the Soviet sphere of control, and Russia shared with China the facilities and supervision of Port Arthur and the Manchurian railroads. China regained sovereignty over Inner Mongolia and Manchuria, as well as the islands of Formosa and Hainan. Hongkong was reoccupied by the British, who likewise accepted the formal surrender at Singapore (Sept. 12) of all Japanese forces (585,000 men) in Southeast Asia and the East Indies" (39, p. 1171).

The Organization of Peace

"The League of Nations formed at Versailles in 1919, failed to curb powerful aggressors or to protect its weaker

members from attack. It was never a well-balanced, truly Supra-national league, and proved itself unfitted to deal with economic problems or to enforce its decisions. When the Second World War opened in 1939, the League of Nations had lost almost all its prestige and influence.

"The international anarchy, repudiation of treaties, acts of aggression, and final outbreak of a general war, which marked the 1930's, brought home to peaceful nations the need for an organization better adapted to adjust to international tensions and disputes.

"Three projects for international federation took form in the war years (1939-1945). In Europe, Germany, Italy, and their satellite states forged an anti-Comintern, anti-democratic bloc which Adolf Hitler called his 'New Order.' In Asia and the East Indies the Japanese extended their power over a widening area, which they termed a 'Co-prosperity Sphere' and in which they promulgated the doctrine of Asia for Asiatics. Both the German and the Japanese hegemony had contracted and finally collapsed in defeat by the summer of 1945.

"The third international federation formed in the war years came to be known as the United Nations Organization. It was based ideologically upon the foundations of the Atlantic Charter, structurally upon the wartime solidarity of the 'Big Three,' Britain, Russia and the United States, and financially upon the credits (43 billion dollars) made available to nations

which opposed the Axis by the Lend-Lease policy of the United States government. The victory of the United Nations, achieved in large measure through the effective mobilization of world resources, left their leaders in a position to write the peace treaties.

"In 1943, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration held its first session at Atlantic City. This international body, organized by the representatives of 44 nations, was created to aid countries which had been subjugated by the Axis powers. Its staff was intended to form in effect 'an international civil service.'

"In 1944, a United Nations Organization for Educational and Cultural Reconstruction was proposed by the ministers of education from the Allied countries, meeting in London.

"The following July, a United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference (Bretton Woods Conference) met for three weeks of discussion. To improve world economic conditions, the delegates of the United Nations proposed to create an International Monetary Fund and an International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the first with a credit of \$8,000,000,000, the second with a capital of \$10,000,000,000. The major purpose was to avert currency disorders and stabilize exchange rates, and the plans, worked out by the financial experts of 44 nations, were referred to the governments concerned for approval.

"The Council of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration held its second session in September at Montreal. The allotment of \$50,000,000 to Italy, partly for medical supplies, marked the first extension of aid by the United Nations to a former enemy country. Plans were laid to provide for a budget of \$11,500,000 for 1945, by assessing member states. Whether UNRRA supplies and administrators would be admitted to the countries liberated by the Russian armies remained undecided" (39, p. 1170).

"A month later, Dumbarton Oaks Conference was held. Delegates representing the United States, the British Commonwealth, and the Soviet Union, after meeting from August 21 to September 27, published proposals for a permanent international organization to be known as the United Nations. The aim of the new society of nations was the preservation of world peace and security" (39, p. 1170).

"Delegates of 50 nations met at San Francisco to complete a Charter for the United Nations Organization. A preliminary draft was submitted to the Conference on June 22, 1945, by the United States Secretary of State Edward R. Stettinius. It provided for four organs in the new body: (1) a General Assembly as the major policy shaping forum; (2) a Security Council to supervise military and political problems; (3) an Economic and Social Council to deal with problems of economic and social conflict; and (4) an International Court of Justice

for the adjustment of international disputes. The administrative work of the United Nations Organisation was to be handled by the general Secretariat directed by a Secretary General.

"The Potsdam Conference came a month later. President Harry S. Truman for the United States, Prime Minister Winston Churchill for Great Britain, and Generalissimo J. V. Stalin for the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics met in Berlin to confer on plans for re-establishing peace. After July 28, Mr. Clement R. Atlee, head of the new British Labor Cabinet, replaced Mr. Churchill at the Conference. An agreement was reached that a Council of Foreign Ministers, representing the United States, Great Britain, Russia, France, and China, should be established to continue the task of drafting peace settlements. The Council held its first session in London (Sept. 11).

"For Germany the decisions reached at the Potsdam Conference implied: (1) disarmament and demilitarisation; (2) dissolution of National Socialist institutions; (3) trial of war criminals; (4) encouragement of democratic ideals; (5) restoration of local self-government and democratic political parties; (6) freedom of speech, press and religion, subject to the requirements of military security.

"Economic restrictions drafted by the Conference for Germany included: (1) prohibition of the manufacture of war materials and implements of war; (2) controlled production of metals, chemicals, and machinery essential to war; (3)

decentralization of German cartels, syndicates, and trusts;
(4) emphasis upon agriculture and peaceful domestic industries;
(5) control of exports, imports, and scientific research. The
methods whereby the victors would enforce these conditions
were to be worked out in detail later.

"The Conference further ordained 'that Germany be compelled
to compensate to the greatest possible extent for the loss
and suffering that she had caused to the United Nations. . .'
The members of the Conference agreed in principle on the dis-
posal of the German navy and merchant marine, but in this matter
likewise the details were not worked out.

"Peace treaties with Finland, Bulgaria, Hungary, Rumania,
and Italy were to be drawn up as promptly as possible" (39,
p. 1171).

The United Nations

"On October 24, 1945, the United Nations came into formal
existence with the ratification of its Charter by 29 nations.
The seat of the United Nations Organisation was to be located
in the United States.

"On January 10, 1946, the first session of the U. N.
General Assembly opened in London, 51 nations attending.
Paul H. Spask of Belgium was elected its first president. The
membership of the Security Council was completed with the
election of the six non-permanent members (Brazil, Poland,
Australia, Mexico, the Netherlands, and Egypt) to join the

five permanent members (China, France, the United States, Great Britain, and Russia).

"The next month, Trygve Lie of Norway was elected Secretary General of the United Nations. In April the Assembly of the League of Nations dissolved itself after a last meeting at Geneva and transferred its assets to the United Nations.

"Dec. 11: The General Assembly decided to bar Franco Spain from all U. N. activities and recommended that members break off diplomatic relations with Madrid.

"Dec. 30: The Atomic Energy Commission, with Russia and Poland abstaining, approved the United States plan for far-reaching atomic control and inspection.

"1947, Feb. 18: Soviet amendments to this plan opposed the degree of international control recommended in the first report of the Atomic Energy Commission. Subsequent efforts of the Security Council to find a plan for atomic control failed because of Soviet veto.

"Apr. 2: The Security Council approved the appointment of the United States as trustee for the Pacific Islands formerly under Japanese mandate.

"Aug. 1: The Security Council called for a cease-fire in Indonesia and formed a Committee of Good Offices to help settle the dispute between the Dutch and Indonesians.

"Sept. 30: Pakistan and Yemen were admitted to membership.

"Oct. 21: The General Assembly adopted a resolution calling on Greece and her northern neighbors (Yugoslavia,

Albania, Bulgaria) to settle their disputes by peaceful means. A Balkan Committee was set up to observe the compliance of the four governments.

"Nov. 14: The General Assembly recognized Korea's claim to independence and laid plans for the establishment of a national government and the withdrawal of occupation forces.

"Nov. 29: Following the majority report of its Special Committee on Palestine, the General Assembly adopted a plan for the partition of Palestine into independent Arab and Jewish states. Jerusalem was to be placed under U. N. trusteeship.

"1948, Jan. 20: The Security Council set up a Commission to settle the conflict between India and Pakistan over Jammu and Kashmir. Extended negotiations finally led to an arrangement for a plebiscite and a cease-fire (Dec. 23-25)* (39, p. 1172).

"Apr. 19: Burma was admitted to membership.

"May 20: Count Folke Bernadotte, President of the Swedish Red Cross, was appointed United Nations Mediator in Palestine. He was assassinated by Jewish terrorists on Sept. 17.

"July 15: The Security Council ordered a truce in Palestine. While this did not entirely end hostilities, it helped prevent full-fledged and prolonged warfare.

"Aug. 12: The Commission for Conventional Armaments decided that existing conditions prevented a program for

the reduction and control of traditional armaments" (39, p. 1172).

"Oct. 25: The Soviet Union vetoed a proposal made by the non-permanent members of the Assembly's Security Council for the settlement of the Berlin blockade.

"Dec. 9-10: The General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of Genocide and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Dec. 12: The Assembly endorsed the government of South Korea as the only lawfully elected one and set up a Commission to aid in the unification of the country.

"1949, Jan. 28: Continued warfare in Indonesia brought forth renewed attempts by the Security Council to halt hostilities and achieve a final settlement of the Indonesian question. Such a settlement was reached between the Netherlands and the Republic of Indonesia on Nov. 2.

"Apr. 9: The International Court of Justice, in its first decision, held Albania responsible for the explosions in the Corfu Channel (p. 1189) and awarded damages to Great Britain.

"May 11: Israel was admitted to membership in the United Nations.

"May 14: The Assembly invited India, Pakistan, and the Union of South Africa to discuss the question of alleged discrimination against nationals of Indian origin in South Africa.

"July 29: The Atomic Energy Commission voted to end its deliberations until a basis for agreement among the major powers could be found.

"Dec. 5: The Assembly approved proposals by the Commission for Conventional Armaments that member states submit full information on their armaments and armed forces.

"Dec. 8: The General Assembly, to promote international stability in the Far East, called upon all states to respect the political independence of China and the right of the Chinese people to choose their own political institutions" (39, p. 1173).

"Dec. 9: The General Assembly restated its proposal to place Jerusalem under a permanent United Nations regime.

"1950, Jan. 3: The Soviet Union, after vainly trying to have Nationalist China excluded from the United Nations, withdrew from all U. N. bodies in which Nationalist China was represented.

"June 25: Upon outbreak of the Korean War, the Security Council called for immediate cessation of hostilities and withdrawal of North Korean forces. When the North Korean government failed to comply (July 7) the Security Council set up a unified United Nations Command under the United States, to render aid to South Korea. This action was subsequently endorsed by 53 member nations, many of which contributed military or economic aid to the United Nations cause.

Sept. 28: Indonesia became the 60th member of the United Nations. Fourteen additional applicants (Austria, Ceylon, Finland, Italy, Jordan, Republic of Korea, Portugal, Nepal, Mongolian People's Republic, Rumania) failed to gain the unanimous support of the Security Council, prerequisite for membership.

"Oct. 7: The Assembly adopted a resolution calling for a unified, independent, and democratic Korea, and set up a U. N. Commission for the Unification and Rehabilitation of Korea.

"Nov. 2: In a far-reaching resolution, the General Assembly provided for immediate emergency action, in case the Security Council, for lack of unanimity, should fail to function. In such a case the Assembly was to be summoned on 24 hours' notice, to decide on collective measures, including the use of armed forces.

"Nov. 4: The U. N. Assembly rescinded its anti-Franco resolution of Dec. 11, 1946, thus facilitating Spain's admission into the Western, anti-Communist camp" (39, p. 1173).

Importance of the United Nations

"More and more in recent years, the United Nations has shown capacity for action to preserve and promote peace, and its authority has won increasing international recognition. The United States has continued to give full support to the United Nations as the best present-day agency for active

international cooperation. The success of the United Nations as an instrument for the establishment of law and order throughout the world may come only through slow steps. But by such slow steps have men advanced from the brutality of primitive existence to the achievements of civilization. The record of the past would seem to justify hope in the future" (59, p. 412).

United States Political Policies

"Mar. 12, 1947: President Truman, in a message to Congress, outlined the Truman Doctrine of economic and military aid to nations threatened by Communism. He specifically requested urgently needed aid for Greece and Turkey. The Greek-Turkish Aid Bill went into effect on May 22.

"June 5: Secretary Marshall, in a speech at Harvard University, called for a European Recovery Program, initiated by the European powers and supported by American aid (Marshall Plan).

"June 23: Congress, over the President's veto, passed the Taft-Hartley Act, which prohibited the use of union funds for political purposes, introduced a 60-day notice before a strike or lockout, outlawed the closed shop, and empowered the government to serve injunctions against strikes likely to cripple the nation's economy.

"July 26: Congress approved the unification of the armed services under a Secretary of Defense (James V. Forrestal).

Sept. 2: The United States signed the Treaty of Rio de Janeiro, calling for mutual assistance between the American Republics.

"1948, Mar. 14-31: Congress passed the Foreign Assistance Act (Marshall Plan) and authorized an initial \$5.3 billion for European recovery. Paul G. Hoffman was appointed Chief of Economic Co-operation Administration (E. C. A.) on Apr. 6" (39, p. 1196).

"June 19: Congress passed a peace-time Selective Service Bill for men between 19 and 25.

"Aug. 25: The Soviet Union broke off all consular relations with the United States when the latter refused to surrender a Soviet citizen against her will" (39, p. 1197).

Developments in Europe

"In the years after the Second World War there had been some evidence of the desire of the Western European nations to work toward some form of European unity.

"In 1955, Germany's sovereignty was established in West Germany, though East Germany continued to be under Soviet control. Austria gained full independence in 1955 by agreement of the four occupying powers.

"Most of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe had become satellites of the Soviet Union, with little or no means of expressing their natural will in a democratic way. The

first such nation to separate itself from Russian domination was Yugoslavia under Marshal Tito in the late 1940's.

"The death of Stalin in 1953 did not produce any evident change in the ambitions of the Soviet Union. But when the leadership of Russia was assumed by Bulganin and Khrushchev, there appeared to be a possibility of lessening the cold war between West and East. In an attempt to ease international tensions, President Eisenhower met with Prime Minister Eden of Britain, Premier Faure of France, and Marshal Bulganin in July, 1955, at the Summit Conference at Geneva, Switzerland. This important effort stressed the universal recognition of the unthinkable destructiveness which the development of the hydrogen bombs had made possible and the consequent inescapable need for prevention of war. Nevertheless, the cold war between East and West continued.

"In the Fall of 1956, signs of unrest among some of the satellite countries appeared. Poland began to assert its right to greater separation from Moscow's control. And a most powerful drive for freedom appeared in Hungary, where a popular uprising against Soviet domination was put down by intervention of Russian troops. The resistance to Soviet control in Hungary reasserted itself early in 1957 and began to be seen in other satellite countries as well" (59, pp. 411-412).

The Middle East and North Africa

"With the Far East less actively in a state of disturbance, a new area of increasing uneasiness and conflict was the

Middle East. Egypt had long sought complete removal of British installations, and in 1954 Britain agreed to withdraw its troops within twenty months. It was not long after the actual British withdrawal in June, 1956, that it became apparent that Egypt, under the leadership of Colonel Nasser, was the scene of intense rivalry between the Western Allies and the Soviet Union; in other Arab states, the Russian drive for power in the Middle East was evident. Suddenly, Nasser seized the vital Suez Canal, passing through Egypt, which had long been under international regulation. Further contributing to the unstable situation in the Middle East was the inability of Israel and the Arab states to achieve peace treaties settling their differences. Years of border unrest--economic and strategic blockades, armed raids by Arabs into Israel and by Israelis into Arab territory--reached a crisis when in the late fall, 1956, Israelis troops crossed the frontier and overran Egypt's Sinai peninsula. Within two days the British and French attacked the Suez Canal area, seeking to regain the authority there which Nasser had taken from them. The United Nations, strongly supported by the United States, immediately insisted upon the stopping of hostilities and the removal of all troops by the three nations which had attacked Egyptian territory. The use of force as a means of settling disputes was firmly condemned. Both sides submitted to United Nations

intervention and withdraw their troops as United Nations forces arrived to police the disturbed areas.

"Not wholly unrelated to the developments in the Middle East was the rise of Arab nationalism in North Africa, which resulted in independence from France for Morocco and Tunisia in 1956 and intensified demands upon the French by Algeria for self-government" (59, p. 411).

Palestine (Israel)

"The immigration of Jews into Palestine had risen sharply during the war. In May, 1942, a conference of American Zionists had adopted the Biltmore Program, which repudiated the British Plan of 1939 for the Independent Palestine and instead demanded a Jewish state and a Jewish army. As the war ended, both Jews and Arabs maintained military organizations in the Holy Land, in a state of uneasy truce.

"In 1945, the World Zionist Congress demanded that Palestine be opened to 1,000,000 Jews. President Truman (Aug, 31) requested the immediate admission of 100,000 Jewish displaced persons from Europe. Egypt, Iraq, Syria, and Lebanon warned the United States that creation of a Jewish state in Palestine would lead to war.

"In 1946, an Anglo-American Committee of Inquiry advised against the partition of Palestine and instead recommended an independent state with local and provincial autonomy. This solution satisfied neither side.

"Illegal Zionist activities reached a climax as British headquarters in the King David Hotel in Jerusalem were blown up, causing the death of 91 persons.

"At a London Conference on Palestine, boycotted by the Zionists, the Arab states proposed an Arab-dominated Palestinian state. The Zionist Congress at Basel, on the other hand, called for a Jewish state. Both Jews and Arabs favored the withdrawal of Britain from the Palestine mandate.

"In 1947, a final British proposal for the division of Palestine into Arab and Jewish zones and its administration as a trusteeship was rejected by Arabs and Jews. The British government referred the Palestine problem to the United Nations.

"Following the majority recommendation of its Committee on Palestine, the U. N. General Assembly voted the partition of the country into Jewish and Arab states. This was approved by the Jews, but rejected by the Arabs. The Arab League Council announced it would stop the proposed division of the Holy Land by use of force.

"The year 1948 saw terrorist activities, especially by the Jewish Irgun, 'Stern Gang,' and (to a lesser extent) Haganah, took on warlike proportions and thousands of Arabs fled the country. The British government, unable to solve the Palestine problem, decided to withdraw its forces.

"On May 14, 1948, the British Mandate came to an end. The same day, a Jewish provisional government under David Ben

Gurion proclaimed the State of Israel, with Chaim Weizmann as President. Within two days it was recognized by the United States and the Soviet Union.

"From May, 1948 to July, 1949, war continued between Israel and the Arab League. Starting out on the defensive, Israeli forces soon gained the upper hand, due to superior equipment and fighting ability. United Nations efforts at mediation led to an uneasy truce (June-Oct.), during which time the U. N. mediator, Count Folke Bernadotte, was assassinated by Zionist terrorists (Sept, 17). Continued U. N. efforts finally led to a series of armistices between Israel and the Arab League nations.

"On Dec. 1, 1948, a Palestine Arab Congress at Jericho proclaimed King Abdullah of Transjordan as King of Palestine.

"Israel's first elections brought victory to the Mapai Party of Premier Ben Gurion, Jan. 25, 1949. On May 11, Israel joined the United Nations.

"Ignoring a resolution of the U. N. General Assembly for the internationalization of Jerusalem, the Israeli government moved to the city from Tel Aviv. As a result of the war and the continued immigration of unlimited numbers of Jews, Israel was faced with grave economic difficulties. These were increased by constant friction between the new state and its Arab neighbors. Efforts of the U. N. Palestine Conciliation Commission to reach a final peace settlement, remained unsuccessful" (39, p. 1207).

Indo-China

"As early as 1946 guerrilla fighting had broken out in the region of Southeast Asia long known as Indo-China and long under French rule. The principal area of conflict was in Vietnam, the largest Indo-Chinese state. The Vietminh forces, which were Communists, fought local battles for seven and a half years against the French and democratic Vietnamese. Finally, France's position was so jeopardised that an international conference of 19 European and Asian nations, including France, Britain, and Communist China, was held at Geneva, from April 23 to July 21, 1954. Under the agreement reached there, France withdrew from Indo-China; Vietnam was divided (like Korea) into communist North Vietnam and democratic South Vietnam. Full independence of the other two Indo-Chinese states--Laos and Cambodia--was recognised" (59, p. 410).

Other Far Eastern Matters

"When Dwight D. Eisenhower commenced his administration as President of the United States in January, 1953, the problems of the Far East dominated the world dangers.

"In September, 1951, at San Francisco, Japan and forty-eight United Nations members had signed a treaty of peace. In April, 1952, Japan regained sovereignty, and to a considerable degree affiliated itself with the Western powers.

"Communist China was in control of the entire Chinese mainland. The large island of Formosa (Taiwan), however,

remained under the leadership of Chiang Kai-shek and the Chinese Nationalists, who hoped some day to return to the mainland. During the early 1950's there was almost continual danger of open conflict in the Formosa area, threatening to involve the United States which had given much support to the Nationalists. Gradually, a condition resembling a cease-fire evolved, but no recognition was given to Communist China by the United Nations.

"Throughout this period, the role of India became increasingly important in Asiatic matters and also made itself felt in other parts of the world. India manifested a disposition to remain 'uncommitted' to either the Western powers or the Soviet Union and Communist China, and thus to a degree could command attention of both groups" (59, p. 410).

India

"On Sept. 19, 1945, the new British Labor government proposed to discuss with Indian representatives the offer for Indian autonomy made by Sir Stafford Cripps in 1942. The All-India Congress under Mahandas K. Gandhi and Pandit Jawarharlal Nehru, meeting in Bombay, declared this plan to be unsatisfactory and called on Great Britain to 'quit India.'

"Elections to the Central Legislative Assembly gave the largest number of seats to the Congress Party and the Moslem League.

"During the year 1946, Hindu-Moslem differences over the future of India, combined with a serious food shortage, led to frequent riots, causing thousands of deaths.

"In Mar., 1946, the British government offered full independence to India. Negotiations between British and Indian leaders failed to draw up a plan which satisfied both the Congress Party and the Moslem League. The latter, under Mohammed Ali Jinnah insisted on a separate Moslem state of Pakistan and decided on 'direct action' to achieve its goal. A new Executive Council (boycotted by the Moslem League) was formed as an interim government, including seven Congress members and five non-League Moslems. The Moslem League finally decided to join on Oct. 25.

"At the close of 1946, the Constituent Assembly, elected earlier, began its deliberations on the future of India. The Moslem League refused to participate. To hasten developments, the British government declared its intention to transfer power into Indian hands not later than June, 1948.

"Following negotiations with Hindu and Moslem leaders, the British government announced the new constitutional plan which called for partition between India and Pakistan. This plan was endorsed by the Moslem League on June 9 and the All-Indian Congress on June 16.

"The Indian Independence Bill was introduced into Parliament. It called for two Dominions, India and Pakistan, and

the termination of British authority over the remaining Indian states. The Bill became law on July 18.

"On Aug. 15, 1948, the Independence of India went into effect. The process of partition was accompanied by terrible acts of violence, notably in the Punjab region, between Moslems and Hindus. By the end of September, close to two million refugees had been exchanged between India and Pakistan.

"The Dominion of India was inaugurated in Delhi, with Pandit Nehru as Prime Minister and Lord Mountbatten as Governor General. Most of the Princely States, except Hyderabad, Kashmir, and Junagadh, joined the Indian Union. The Princes retained their titles, fortunes, and received a fixed civil list" (39, p. 1209).

Formation of NATO

"A new step in American foreign policy was taken early in April, 1949, when the North Atlantic Security Treaty embracing twelve countries of Western Europe and North America was signed by their foreign ministers in Washington. The scarcely disguised aggressiveness of Russian policy made it necessary for the European states outside the Iron Curtain to unite their strength against the possibility of open Russian aggression. Emphasis was placed upon the fact that the Pact was defensive in purpose and was within the framework of the United Nations. During 1950, 1951, and 1952, the defensive preparations of the Atlantic Pact Nations (NATO),

North Atlantic Treaty Organization) were credited with preventing a Russian attack upon Western Europe" (59, p. 408).

The Korean War

"After 1945, the Soviet Union, in addition to consolidating its control of territories occupied by its troops, had efficiently conducted Communist penetration in China which ultimately brought about the expulsion of Chiang Kai-shek and his Nationalist followers from the vast Chinese mainland. In September, 1949, the Chinese Communists proclaimed the existence of the People's Republic of China under the leadership of Mao Tse-tung, with Chou En-lai as premier and foreign minister.

"Suddenly, in June, 1950, the North Korean Army invaded South Korea. The United States promptly brought the crisis to the attention of the United Nations' Security Council. The Russians had previously 'walked out' of the Council meeting, and a majority of the members present voted in favor of military aid to the South Koreans. The United States immediately sent arms and men to Korea, and other members sent smaller forces--sixteen nations being represented in the United Nations force, which succeeded in repelling the invaders and in moving victoriously far into North Korea.

"In November, 1950, however, 200,000 Chinese Communist 'volunteers' intervened on the side of the North Koreans, and compelled the United Nations armies to retreat into South

Korea. During 1951, United Nations counter-offensives drove the invaders north again. Negotiations ensued for a cease-fire which was delayed many months in 1951 and 1952 as representatives of both sides argued about precise terms of an armistice. Finally, in July, 1953, at Panmunjon, near the border between North and South, the Korean armistice was signed between the Communists (North Korea and China) and the United Nations forces. The fighting ceased, but the political separation of North Korea and South Korea continued" (59, pp. 409-410).

Brasilia

One of the notable architectural triumphs of our time is the construction of a new capitol city of Brazil, a city called Brasilia and located 600 miles from the coast in what was an empty plateau until 1957. The completion of the city in the essentials is scheduled for April 21, 1960, some 20,000 people being presently employed in construction and design. "Its architectural supervisor is the iconoclastic Oscar Niemeyer, and its airplane-shaped urban plan is the work of the equally revolutionary Lucio Costa The outline of Costa's plan is becoming discernible: a five-mile long, 820-foot wide monumental axis crossed at right angles by a curved six-lane Residential Axis seven and a half miles long and giving access to a series of superblocks that will

be inclosed within belts of trees. Within the outline some of Niemeyer's white buildings are taking shape . . . Parks, gardens, a university, a diplomatic quarter, and various cultural and sports facilities are all neatly fitted in, but no industry; the business of Brasilia's half million people will be government" (93, pp. 3-8).

Summary: The Hopeful Age

1941: June 22, German armies invade Russia. Aug. 14, Atlantic Charter drawn up by President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill. Dec. 7, Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, Malays, and Hong Kong. Dec. 8, United States and Britain declare war on Japan.

1942: Feb. 15, Singapore surrendered to Japanese. April 9, Japanese captured Bataan. April 18, American planes bombed Japanese mainland, including Tokyo. November 7, American forces landed in North Africa.

1943: Russians defeated Germans at Stalingrad, and began counteroffensive; Allies invaded Italian mainland; Roosevelt, Churchill, Stalin met in Teheran, Iran. In science penicillin used for treatment of disease.

1944: June 6, Allies landed in Normandy to begin invasion of Europe; Nov. 7, Roosevelt re-elected for fourth term.

1945: Feb. 12, Roosevelt, Churchill, Stalin conferred at Yalta. April 12, President Roosevelt died; Harry S.

Truman sworn in as President. April 25, United Nations Security Conference opened in San Francisco to draft charter of United Nations organization. May 7, Germany surrendered unconditionally. July 17, Truman, Churchill, Stalin conferred at Potsdam. July 26, British Labor Party won general election and Clement R. Attlee succeeded Winston Churchill as Prime Minister. Aug. 5, American planes dropped first atomic bomb in history on Hiroshima. August 14, Japan surrendered, bringing World War II to an end.

1946: Jan. 10, United Nations General Assembly met for first time, in London. July 4, Philippine Islands granted independence by United States. Oct. 1, twelve Nazi leaders sentenced to death by Nuremberg Tribunal.

1947: March 2, President Truman enunciated 'Truman Doctrine' to 'contain' Communism. June 5, Secretary of State Marshall announced Marshall Plan for European recovery. June 3, India became independent of British rule. Dominions of India and Pakistan set up.

1948: May 14, Jewish state of Israel proclaimed in Palestine. Berlin blockaded. Independence of Ireland.

1949: Triumph of Communist in China. Establishment of a West German Republic.

1950: Outbreak of Korean War. Schumann Plan for European steel and coal production. Development of hydrogen bomb.

1952: Election of Dwight D. Eisenhower as President of the United States. Japan regained sovereignty.

1953: Korean Armistice; North Korean Communist controlled. Death of Stalin; Bulganin and Khrushchev Russian rulers.

1954: South Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia given independence.

1955: Germany enters NATO; West Germany given sovereignty.

1956: Suez Canal nationalised by Egypt; abortive invasion by England, France and Israel.

1957: First earth satellite ("Sputnik") launched.

Salk polio vaccine developed. Construction of Brasilia begun.

1958: French Army revolts in Algiers.

1959: First voyage under the North Pole. Rocket sent around the moon and to the moon. Alaska admitted as a state to the United States.

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APPENDIX

SUGGESTED AUDIO-VISUAL STUDIES AND ITEMS OF LITERATURE FOR EACH TIME ZONE

In summary, each section as defined in this chapter should consist of the following suggested parts for teaching purposes.

Class Activity Followed by Assignment

- | | |
|--|--|
| A. Lecture | Read Section of Compendium or other reference work
Study Special Readings |
| B. Audio-Visual Work | |
| C. Discussion of Special Readings | Prepare Individual Reports |
| D. Individual Reports | Review for test or review Section if no test is scheduled |
| E. Test (may be omitted for one Section, may cover one or more Sections) | No Assignment |

In the following pages, only the audio-visual work and the special readings for each Section will be listed, and it is understood that they fit into the Section Syllabus as stated above.

Studies for Section I

The Beginning of the Renaissance, 1200-1400

Audio-Visual Aids:

Pictures of Gothic Cathedrals, Chartres, Amiens, Notre Dame

Pictures of Stained Glass in Chartres, Notre Dame, Sainte Chapelle

Pictures of Zapotec Structures at Monte Alban, Mexico

Painting by Giotto: "Betrayal of Christ"

Picture of Temple of Angkor Vat, Cambodia

Recordings of Gregorian Chants

Picture of Statue of Great Buddha, Kamakura, Japan.

Special Readings:

Dante's Divina Comedia, "Inferno," Cantos XXXIII-XXXIV (1, pp. 156-166).

Marco Polo's Book of Various Experiences (alternately titled Travels of Marco Polo, The Venetian), any chapter at teacher's discretion (10).

Boccaccio's Decameron, any tale of teacher's choice (3).

Studies for Section II

The Age of Columbus, 1400-1540

Audio-Visual Aids:

Picture of Laurenziana Library, Florence, Italy

Picture of Page from Gutenberg Bible

Picture of Ghiberti Door, San Giovanni Church, Florence, Italy

Picture of Aztec Calendar Stone in Mexico City

Picture of Suleimaniye Mosque, Constantinople

Picture of Detail or Whole of Ceiling of Sistine Chapel Painted by Michelangelo

Picture of Green Celadon Chinese Vase, Ming Dynasty

Painting by Masaccio: "Expulsion of Adam and Eve"

Painting by Fra Angelico: "The Annunciation"

Painting by Philippino Lippi: "The Holy Family with
Saint Margaret and Saint John"

Painting by Piero della Francesca: "The Resurrection"

Painting by Jan van Eyck: "Wedding Portrait of Giovanni
Arnolfini"

Painting by Rogier van der Weyden: "Virgin and Saint John"

Painting by Hieronymus Bosch: "The Deadly Sins"

Painting by Albrecht Durer: "Self Portrait"

Painting by Lucas Cranach: "The Judgement of Paris"

Painting by Giovanni Bellini: "Leonardo Loredano, Doge
of Venice"

Painting by Giorgione: "Pastoral Symphony"

Painting by Sandro Botticelli: "Birth of Venus"

Painting by Titian: "Saint Margaret"

Painting by Leonardo da Vinci: "Mona Lisa"

Painting by Raphael: "St. George and the Dragon"

Any landscape by Sesshu Toyo.

Special Readings:

Francois Villon's "Ballade of Dead Ladies" (18, Vol. II,
p. 792).

Thomas a Kempis' Imitation of Christ, "Love," Book 3
Chapter V (13, pp. 107-111)

Niccolo Machiavelli's The Prince, "In What Way Princes
Must Keep Faith," Chapter XVIII (8, pp. 63-66).

Studies for Section III

The Elizabethan Age, 1540-1620

Audio-Visual Aids:

Recording of Palestrina's "Le Virgine," "Flumen Babylonis"

Painting of Jacobo Tintoretto: "Susanna and the Elders"

Painting of Paolo Veronese: "Calvary"

Painting of El Greco: "Burial of the Count of Orgaz"

Painting of Pieter Bruegel Elder: "The Wedding Dance"

Painting of Peter Paul Rubens: "Diana's Nymphs Surprised by Satyrs"

Pictures of Shrine and Landscaping at Nikko, Japan.

Special Readings:

William Shakespeare: Two Soliloquys: Hamlet, Act III, Scene 1, and Richard III, Act I, Scene I (12, pp. 906, 226-227)

Francis Bacon: Essay Number 50, "Of Studies" (18, Vol. I, pp. 558-559).

Studies for Section IV

The Puritan Age, 1620-1690

Audio-Visual Aids:

Painting of Velasquez: "The Surrender of Breda"

Painting of Franz Hals: "Malle Babbe"

Painting of Rembrandt: "Self Portrait" (The artist as a middle-aged man; the original in the National Gallery of Art in Washington)

Painting of Jan Vermeer: "A Woman Weighing Gold"

Painting by Anthony van Dyke: "Portrait of Charles I of England"

Painting by Nicolas Poussin: "Orpheus and Eurydice"

Picture of Saint Peter's Cathedral, Rome: Saint Paul's,
London

Picture of Versailles and Its Gardens, Paris

Picture of Taj Mahal, Agra, India.

Special Readings:

John Milton: Paradise Lost, Satan's speech, Book I,
lines 241-330 (9, pp. 164-66)

Basho: Any of the Haiku (3 or 5 line poems) translated
from the Japanese by Donald Keene or Harold G.
Henderson (7, pp. 384-86).

Studies for Section V

The Age of Dependence, 1690-1765

Audio-Visual Aids:

Recording of Bach's "Jesu, Joy of Man's Desiring"

Recording of Handel's "Hallelujah Chorus" from The Messiah

Painting by Giovanni Tiepolo: "Apollo Pursuing Daphne"

Painting by Jean Watteau: "Embarkation for Cythera"

Painting by Gainsborough: "The Blue Boy"

Picture of Mount Vernon, George Washington's Home

Picture of Chippendale Furniture.

Special Readings:

Jonathan Swift: "A Modest Proposal" (18, Vol. I, pp.
961-966)

Alexander Pope: "An Essay on Man," Epistle II (18, Vol. I,
pp. 999-1003)

Cotton Mather: The Wonders of the Invisible World, "The
Trial of Bridget Bishop" (2, Vol. I, pp. 146-149).

Studies for Section VI

The Age of Independence, 1765-1829

Audio-Visual Aids:

Painting by Constable: "The Leaping Horse"

Painting by Goya: "The Witches' Sabbath"

Recording of Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, first movement

Picture of the Rosetta Stone

Special Readings:

Washington Irving: "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow" (2, Vol. I, pp. 569-583)

Thomas Jefferson: Declaration of Independence (2, Vol. I, pp. 359-362)

Robert Burns: "To a Louse" (18, Vol. II, pp. 101-102)

Percy Shelley: "To a Skylark" (18, Vol. II, pp. 258-260).

Studies for Section VII

International Growing Pains, 1829-1870

Audio-Visual Aids:

Painting by Delacroix: "The Capture of Weislingen"

Painting by Ingres: "La Grande Odalisque"

Wood Block Print by Hokusai: "Great Wave of Kanagawa"

Wood Block Print by Hiroshige: Any of his prints from "Fifty-three Stages of the Tokaido"

Recording of "Battle Hymn of the Republic"

Recording of Wagner's "Magic Fire Music" or the whole final scene from Die Walkure

Picture of Suez Canal.

Special Readings:

Edgar Allan Poe: "The Cask of Amontillado" (2, Vol. I, pp. 695-698)

Robert Browning: "My Last Duchess" (18, Vol. II, pp. 659-660)

Alfred Tennyson: "Crossing the Bar" (18, Vol. II, p. 654).

Studies for Section VIII**The Victorian Age, 1870-1914****Audio-Visual Aids:**

Picture of the Statue of Liberty

Painting by Edmond Manet: "Le Dejeuner sur l'Herbe"

Painting by Claude Monet: "Rouen Cathedral"

Painting by Hilaire Degas: "The Millinery Shop"

Painting by Pierre Renoir: "Dance at Bougival"

Painting by Paul Cezanne: "Les Grandes Baigneuses"

Painting by Vincent van Gogh: "Church at Auvers"

Painting by Paul Gauguin: "The Yellow Christ"

Painting by Georges Seurat: "Sunday Afternoon on the Island of Grande-Jatte"

Painting by Henri Toulouse-Lautrec: "At the Cirque Fernando--The Ring Master"

Picture of Parliament House, Westminster, in London

Picture of Rodin's Sculpture: "The Thinker"

Recording of Dvorak's Fifth Symphony, Second Movement

Picture of Wright Brothers' First Successful Airplane.

Special Readings:

Edward Fitzgerald: "The Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam" (18, Vol. II, pp. 776-783)

Mark Twain: The Adventures of Tom Sawyer, Chapter II
(15, pp. 26-34).

Studies for Section IX

The Sophisticated Age, 1914-1941

Audio-Visual Aids:

Painting by Pablo Picasso: "Three Musicians"

Painting by Henri Matisse: "The Magnolia Branch"

Painting by Paul Klee: "Nearly Hit"

Painting by Diego Rivera: "Peasant Carrying Load"

Picture of Empire State Building, New York

Recording of some of Gershwin's songs from "Porgy and Bess"

Special Readings:

Yachel Lindsey: "The Congo," Part I, Part II (2, Vol. II,
pp. 946-948)

Robert Frost: "Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening"
(2, Vol. II, p. 940); "Mending Wall" (2, Vol. II,
pp. 934-935)

T. S. Eliot: "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock"
(2, Vol. II, pp. 976-978)

Ernest Hemingway: "The Killers" (2, Vol. II, pp. 989-93)

Winston Churchill's Speech of June 4, 1940, on the Defeat
at Dunkirk (18, Vol. II, pp. 1136-41); recording
might also be utilised.

Studies for Section X

The Hopeful Age, 1941 to the Present

Audio-Visual Aids:

Picture of Library, University of Mexico City, Mexico

Picture of United States Embassy, New Delhi, India

Picture of Republic National Bank Building, Dallas, Texas

Recording of Khachaturian's Violin Concerto, Last Movement

Recording of Number One Item among "Top Ten" Listings of Popular Songs

Painting by Georges Roualt: "Christ Mocked by Soldiers"

Painting by Amadeo Modigliani: "Portrait of a Girl"

Painting by Georges Braque: "The Billiard Table"

Painting by Piet Mondrian: "Composition in White, Black and Red"

Picture of Atomic Bomb Explosion at Bikini

Picture of Sputnik I.

Special Readings and Studies:

Bertrand Russell: "Came the Revolution" (11, pp. 9-10, 36-37)

Ray Bradbury: "There Will Come Soft Rains" (4, pp.183-90)

Isak Dinesen: "The Heroine" (6, pp. 69-88)

A Ninety-Minute Television Drama of the Students' Choice.

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