

CAUSES AND ISSUES

The World's Greatest War

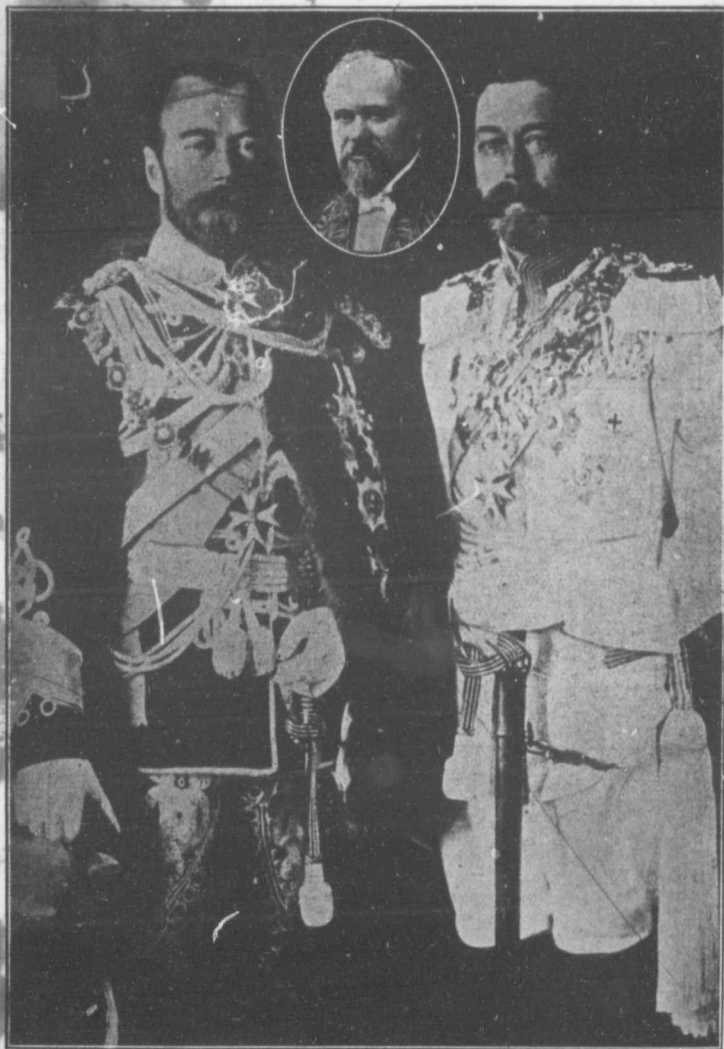
FACTS YOU SHOULD KNOW

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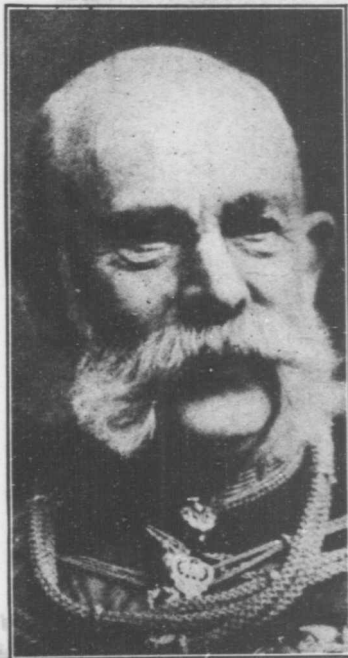
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Triple Entente

The Czar (left), George V. (right), President Poincaire (insert).

THE NOTE AND THE REPLY



Emperor Franz Josef of Austria.

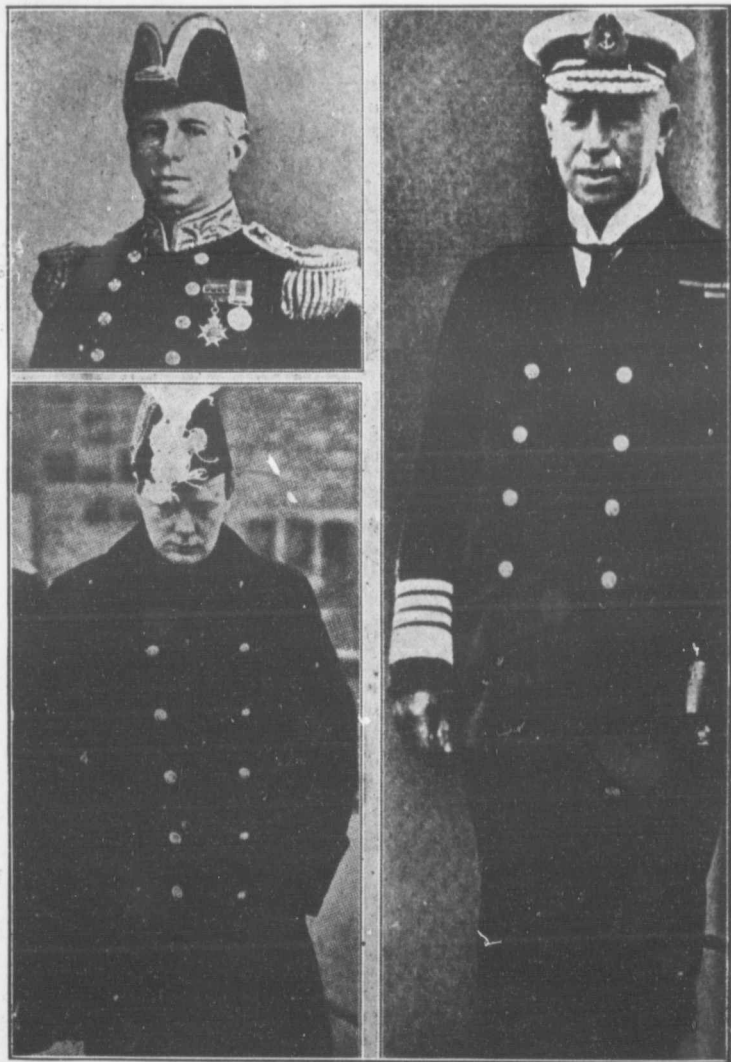
☞ Emperor Franz Josef of Austria to King Peter of Serbia—You must quell all Pan-Servian demonstrations in your kingdom, suppress all Pan-Servian publications and jail agitators who espouse their cause, and give the utmost assistance in your power to the Austrian army officers whom I shall send into your country to arrest, try and convict those of your subjects who were implicated in the assassination of the Archduke Ferdinand, heir to the thrones of Austria and Hungary.

King Peter of Serbia ☞ to Emperor Franz Josef of Austria—I promise to crush the Pan-Servian movement in my kingdom, to jail agitators who preach revolt against your empire and to suppress the publications that abet them in their aims. To permit Austrian army officers, however, to enter my kingdom, jail, try and condemn my subjects, amenable to the laws of my kingdom and who owe no allegiance to Austria, would be an insult to the national honor of Serbia to which I, as ruler, would never submit.

And so war was declared.



King Peter of Serbia.



The Men who Hold Britain's Destiny on the Sea

↳ Sir John Jellicoe (upper left), in command of all the Fleets; Sir Geo. Callaghan (right), commanding the North Sea Fleet; Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty (in front). © 1914

Reasons

The first reason is that the Government has failed to provide adequate housing for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them. The Government has failed to provide adequate housing for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them.

The second reason is that the Government has failed to provide adequate education for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them. The Government has failed to provide adequate education for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them.

The third reason is that the Government has failed to provide adequate employment for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them. The Government has failed to provide adequate employment for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them.

The fourth reason is that the Government has failed to provide adequate health care for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them. The Government has failed to provide adequate health care for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them.

The fifth reason is that the Government has failed to provide adequate social services for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them. The Government has failed to provide adequate social services for the people of our country. This is particularly true in the case of the slums of London, where the conditions are so squalid that it is almost impossible to live in them.

Reasons for the War

Austria's Reason :

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY is a Catholic nation, ruled by the Germans and Hungarians, but the country has millions of people of other races, Servians and cousins of Servians. When Austria assumed the protectorate of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1878, Serbia was extremely disappointed. She had looked longingly at these two provinces in the hopes of annexing them. When in 1908 Bosnia and Herzegovina were added to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Serbia became exceedingly bitter, and since that time has lost no opportunity to harass the dual monarchy on every occasion in her power. Secret emissaries were sent into Bosnia and Herzegovina to stir strife and dissension, and for years the Servians have done all they could to create internal revolution.

On June 28, 1914, Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and his wife, visited Sarajevo. While they were being driven to the town hall, a Servian student threw a bomb at the royal carriage, which, however, Francis Ferdinand warded off with his arm. It fell on the carriage of an aide, who was seriously wounded. The procession proceeded to the town hall, where Francis Ferdinand addressed the populace. He then returned to determine the extent of injuries of his aide, and while doing so both he and the Princess were assassinated by a Servian youth, Gavrilo Prinzip.

Austria began an investigation of this outrage, and its trail led to the very doors of the royal family of Serbia. Servian ministers were found to be implicated in the plot—in fact, the son of King Peter himself had lent aid in the conspiracy. Austria immediately delivered an ultimatum to Serbia, demanding that the offenders be brought to justice. (A copy of this ultimatum, together with Serbia's reply, will be found elsewhere in this book.) The reply of Serbia was equivocal, and Austria felt that any investigation which Serbia might make would be one in name only, since Austria would not be permitted to have any hand in the investigation. Thereupon Austria declared war upon Serbia, and from this petty strife has grown the terrible conflict between the European powers.

Servia's Reason :

Servia is a Greek-Catholic nation, and in its neighboring country, Austria-Hungary, there are millions of its co-religious and racial brethren. Servia has long awaited the day when the Austrian Empire would be dissolved by internal dissension. It is ambitious of establishing an empire in South-eastern Europe, and hopes to annex a large portion of what is now Austria-Hungary, thus attaining the ancient greatness and glory of their race. Servia resented Austria's demands as unbecoming her independence and standing, and it is barely possible that King Peter was, in this instance, a father rather than an exponent of justice.

Russia's Reason :

Russia has deemed itself the protector of all Greek-Catholic races. The bond of brotherhood has given silent sanction to the intrigues in the Balkan States against Austria-Hungary. Russia would be secretly pleased at the dissolution of the Austrian Empire and the consequent rise of a new power, the Servian-Balkan Empire, in South-eastern Europe, adjoining Russia. The western half of Europe, from the frozen Arctic to the Mediterranean Sea, would then be held by cousins in race, brothers in religion, and brothers in semi-civilization—the Russians and Servians—both ambitious of eventually conquering the balance of Europe and even the world. Upon the declaration of war by Austria against Servia, mighty Russia stepped in to protect her ally against Austria and immediately ordered the mobilization of her army.

Germany's Reason :

Germany is the ally of Austria-Hungary by the Triple Alliance. Its hatred against Russia has been of long standing, and its diplomats have noted Russia's ambition to advance its own interests through Austria-Hungary. Its hatred of France, too, is deep and of long standing. Accordingly, when war was imminent between Austria-Hungary and Russia, Germany's sympathies were with the former.

Czar Nicholas communicated with Kaiser Wilhelm, asking him to use his good offices to establish peace between himself and Austria. While messages were being interchanged between Russia and Germany, the startling news reached the Kaiser's ears that Nicholas was mobilizing his vast army of 5,500,000 troops. The German ambassador waited upon the Russian Minister of War, demanding the cessation of mobilization. This request was refused. Three times the German ambassador

repeated his request and three times received a positive refusal. Thereupon diplomatic connections were severed and Russia and Germany were at war.

Germany served a similar ultimatum on France, which France likewise refused, and before the expiration of the ultimatum, Germany had already begun her invasion of the French Republic.

In this conflict Germany is easily the strongest single nation; the spirit of militarism has been alive for years, and it has been in active preparation for just such a crisis as this. Its army is the best trained in the world, and might be victorious were it not for the overwhelming odds against it.

France's Reason:

France is a member of the Triple Entente between Russia, England and itself, as opposed to the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy. In this war she became the natural ally of Russia, but preferred to remain on the defensive rather than the aggressive. Upon delivery of the ultimatum by Germany, she could not do otherwise than refuse. Her ancient hatred of Germany, dating back to the Franco-Prussian war, was probably another reason for this decision.

England's Reason:

England finds herself involved in European warfare through her participation in the Triple Entente. This was construed by English statesmen to be a defensive rather than offensive alliance, and England's participation in the conflict was doubtful.

Germany's first steps against France consisted of an invasion of Belgium, hoping thereby to gain access to an unprotected part of the French Republic. Belgium protested on the grounds that she was a neutral nation. Germany declared that due indemnity would be paid at the end of the war. This was not satisfactory to Belgium, and she accordingly appealed to England to preserve her neutrality, which France had already agreed to respect. England thereupon demanded that Germany cease immediately its operations on Belgian soil. England had previously advised the concentration of the French fleet in the Mediterranean, which left the northern coast of France with little protection. It therefore ordered the German navy not to direct an attack upon the north French coast. Germany acceded to the latter request, provided England would remain neutral, but would give no satisfactory reply concerning Belgium. Thereupon England declared war against Germany and ordered her fleet to give battle to the German fleet concentrated in the North Sea, while at the same time she mobilized her army.

The British position is also based upon reasons other than these. Great Britain is the guarantor of Belgian neutrality. The defence of it has been the governing policy of British statecraft since Waterloo. Bismarck was made to respect it in 1870, and it was out of the question that Great Britain would permit, unprotected, a violation at this crisis.

Great Britain hesitated long before taking action, and that world-known diplomat, Sir Edward Grey, made every effort to keep peace.

Great Britain has always been acknowledged the ruler of the seas. This strong position is an absolute necessity to her existence and to the life of her colonies, and it is in the interest of world-wide peace that she maintained her supremacy on the seas.

She has eyed with apprehension and disgust the warlike preparations that Germany has been making for years.

The Honorable Winston Churchill, Britain's War Lord, proposed to the German Government a suspension of the warship building for a specified time, but Germany would not accede to it.

Belgium's Reason :

Tiny Belgium was aroused to combat upon the invasion of her soil by Germany. She loudly proclaimed her neutrality and demanded that it be respected. Germany, while offering compensation, would not consider this, and the Kaiser accordingly declared himself at war with Belgium. While tiny Belgium would be a ridiculous opponent of mighty Germany, the aid which Belgium can give to the army of France is by no means to be sneered at. Her available military force is estimated at 180,000 men, together with a large reserve. It should prove no mean addition to the military power of France.

Japan's Reason :

Japan has prepared her navy for war and thrown her influence of power to the defence of her staunch ally, Great Britain. Japan has already proved her allegiance to England by sending an ultimatum to Germany to withdraw from Kiauchiau and other fortified German possessions in the far East. Germany having refused to concede to this, Japan is backing up her demand by an armed attack on these forts.

Kiauchiau is an important strategical point in the Pacific Ocean, occupying a corresponding position to that of Gibraltar in the Mediterranean.

Century of Austrian History

Francis Joseph I, Emperor

ON May 30, 1814, the Treaty of Paris was signed between the allies and Louis XVIII of France. By this treaty Austria acquired Lombardy and Venetia. From September, 1814, to June, 1815, met the Congress of Vienna, one of the most important diplomatic gatherings in history. Here Austria consolidated her power in Southern and Central Europe by recovering her Polish possessions and a portion of Northern Italy; also provinces along the eastern coast of the Adriatic. She extended westward into Tyrol, planting herself firmly upon the Alps. Thus, after twenty years of continuous war, she emerged from the situation with a new strength, greater population and many important possessions. Austria's policy in this transaction was to establish its empire without any direct contact with France. At the same time, while Prussia became more straggling, Austria was achieving a compact empire. She was admirably situated for an important role in the policies of Europe.

Internally, however, Austria lacked unity—politically, racially or socially. It was composed of many nations. There were the Austrian Duchies, chiefly German; Bohemia, a kingdom acquired in 1526; Hungary, inhabited by the Magyars; while to the south was a province purely Italian. Even these four divisions were not unities, each having several nations and parties, which rendered government confused and unequal.

To rule so conglomerate a realm was a very difficult task. Francis I had the aid of Metternich, a statesman of great ability. Metternich's policy was against innovations. He was afraid of any new movement which might end beyond his control, consequently during this reign and that which followed Austrian progress was at a standstill. Gradually Metternich's influence spread over Prussia, and the Karlsbad conference gave Austria the leadership over this domain. As a result of the Congress of Vienna, Italy also was, for nearly fifty years, a dependent upon Austria. All of these causes gave the Austrian monarchy a commanding position after Napoleon.

In 1821 Austria was commissioned to send an army into the Kingdom of Naples, and Ferdinand I of Naples was established absolute monarch where constitutional government had formerly prevailed.



Emperor Francis Joseph and the murdered Archduke Francis Ferdinand.

In the same year a revolution against Austria broke out in Piedmont, which was easily routed, and Charles Felix made absolute king.

In 1831 a revolution against government by priests broke out in the Central States of Italy. Austrian troops were sent southward, and the Pope recovered his provinces.

In 1832 an insurrection in Italy again broke out, and Austria once more crossed the frontiers at the request of the Pope. This time France intervened, as she claimed the balance of power in Europe might be upset by the predominance of Austria in Italy. The two powers jealously watched each other in Italy until 1838, when both Austria and France retired, and absolutism was restored in the papal states.

From the years 1815 to 1848 there gradually developed a spirit of nationality among the varied several peoples of the Austrian Empire. This spirit was particularly pronounced in Bohemia and Hungary. Both of these races chafed under the predominance and the favors heaped upon the Germans, which created a public opinion that was hard to quell. Both races sought repeatedly to establish independent states, but were not sufficiently strong to do so. From this situation in Hungary arose Louis Kossuth, under whose leadership Hungary demanded some sweeping reforms and greater independence.

In 1831 the society of "Young Italy" was formed with the express intention of driving out Austria. This movement was later joined by Garibaldi. This movement gained further weight by the election of a new Pope, Pius IX. Pius IX was liberal and protested against Austria's occupation of Ferrara, to the alarm of Metternich. Austria seemed to be in the throes of dismemberment, and Italy took this supreme moment to strike. The year 1848 was one of revolution, which spread rapidly to the various countries.

Vienna was the storm centre, and here the empire began one of the most confused chapters in European history. Hungary arose under the leadership of Kossuth, and ten days later a riot broke out in Vienna itself, organized by students and workmen. People and soldiers fought hand in hand. "Down with Metternich!" was the cry. Metternich fled in disguise from Austria to England, to see his whole system crash completely before the spirit of the times.

Hungary seized this opportunity to establish for itself laws and reforms which made it practically an independent nation, the only connection being that one monarch ruled over Austria and Hungary. In its dire necessity Austria consented. The example of Hungary was speedily followed by Bohemia, and their demands for a more liberal form of government were conceded. A revolt now arose in the Austrian provinces for a constitution and greater local self-government, which, owing to the helplessness of the government, was also granted.

In Italy arose the most important revolt. The other provinces had merely demanded greater freedom; Italy was bent upon expelling the foreigners from its shores. Milan arose and expelled the Austrian troops, which were unprepared. Venice threw off the Austrian allegiance and declared itself a republic at once. Piedmont joined these states. The Austrian army was sent into Italy and was repulsed. Austria recovered Lombardy and by the summer of 1848 was again in power.

Hungary, while obtaining liberal laws for itself, was arrogant in its rule over the Serbs and Croats in their domains. These demanded of the Hungarian Parliament much the same privileges which the Hungarians had gained for themselves from Austria. To this the Hungarians would not consent. The Croats rose against the Hungarians. Austria seized this psychological moment and created a civil war between the Croats and Serbs against the Hungarians. Emperor Ferdinand was finally forced to abdicate and was succeeded in December, 1848, by his nephew, Francis Joseph I, a lad of eighteen, who is still Emperor of Austria during the present crisis.

Hungary declared Francis Joseph an usurper and refused to recognize him. In 1849 a war occurred between Austria and Hungary. At the beginning the Hungarian armies were unsuccessful, but later gained several victories and drove back the Austrians, declaring their independence on April 14, 1849. Francis Joseph made an appeal for aid to the Czar of Russia, who sent 200,000 troops into Hungary from the east and north, the Austrians advancing from the west, overwhelming the Hungarian army, which fought brilliantly but hopelessly, and Hungary was again conquered. Italy had also been re-conquered by the revised military power of Austria.

In 1852 the efforts of Prussia to establish itself at the head of the Germanic kingdoms, to the exclusion of Austria, nearly precipitated a war between these two countries. In the Congress of Dresden, Austria proposed the inclusion of Hungary and Lombardo-Venetia in the Germanic Confederacy, but this proposal was not accepted.

In 1853 Russia, demanding a protectorate of the Greek Christians in Turkey, sent her troops into Moldavia and Wallachia. Austria, France and England condemned these proceedings in an endeavor to bring about peace. Austria, in 1854, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Prussia. In the same year Austria, by agreement with Turkey, occupied the Danubian principalities. This eventually brought about the Treaty of Peace of 1856. In 1857 the troops were recalled from the Danubian principalities.

In 1859 Austria became involved in a war with France and Sardinia, owing to her Italian policy. As a result of this war Austria gave up Lombardo-Venetia to Napoleon III. Italy was to be formed into a con-

federation under the presidency of the Pope, and Tuscany and Modena were to be restored to their respective princes.

In 1864 Prussia and Austria invaded Schleswig in an endeavor to wrest it from the Danish. They met with slight resistance, and the provinces of Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg were made over to the two powers.

The division of the spoils caused a war with Prussia. In 1866 Prussia entered into an alliance with Italy against Austria. Austria was defeated in the ensuing year, and by the Treaty of Prague, Austria gave up Venetia and four provinces to Italy and recognized the new formation of Germany, in which she was to have no part. She also ceded to Germany, Holstein and Schleswig and paid a war indemnity of twenty million dollars.

The suspension of the concordat with Rome in 1870 was a very beneficial change and served to bring some measure of friendship between Austria and the Kingdom of Italy.

In 1870 the Triple Alliance was entered into between Germany and Austria, the two powers to combine to resist an attack by Russia, but to remain neutral in complications with any other power. This alliance was joined in 1882 by Italy, and is still in force.

In 1878 Austria was invited to occupy and assume a protectorate over Bosnia and Herzegovina, in the interests of the peace of Europe. In 1908 she annexed these two principalities, to the great dismay of Servia. This created a smoldering volcano of hatred against Austria which resulted in the murder of two Servian monarchs because of their leaning towards Austrian rule, and the eventual assassination of Francis Ferdinand of Austria, which precipitated the present war.

Russia, owing to her war with Japan, was not in position to play her usual role of protector to the Balkan Slavs in 1908.

Universal suffrage was granted to Austria in 1907, all men over twenty-four being given the right to vote.

In 1912 it was seen that a great European war was inevitable. Austria feared Servian ambition, and mobilized her army. Russia did the same in aid of Servia. Germany declared herself with Austria. War was then averted by a thread.

The assassination of Francis Ferdinand and his wife and the investigation which followed, together with the Servian defiance, caused Austria to declare war upon Servia in 1914. Russia interfered, and Germany came to Austria's aid. When the war in Servia had been in progress for several weeks, Austria proclaimed war on Russia on August 6th, 1914.

The Triple Alliance is being respected by Germany and Austria, who united when the Czar threatened Austria in 1914. Italy chooses to play a neutral role at the present time. She may live up to the terms of the Triple Alliance, although it is just as probable that she will choose to disregard it. Italy's part in the Triple Alliance is secondary and her friendship for Austria is subject to doubt.

This is the standing of Austria and her allies in the European war of 1914.

Century of Servian History

Peter I, King

FOR upwards of four centuries the Serbs groaned under the Turkish yoke, until, in 1804, unable to endure the oppression of the Turkish dahis, they broke out into rebellion under George Petrovich, sur-named Tsrni, or "Black George." George was born at Topola in 1767; at first he merely aimed at conquering the dahis, but afterward attempted to drive the Turks out of Servia. This he succeeded in doing after many failures. In 1813, however, they re-conquered the country, and George with his adherents was compelled to fly to Austria. He returned in 1817, but was treacherously murdered by order of Milosh Obrenovich, who had now become the Servian leader. We have no space here to sketch the struggles of Milosh to secure the independence of Servia. He was himself of peasant origin and in his youth had been a swine-herd. The Turks had contrived to kill or drive out of the country all the Servian aristocracy, leaving only peasants to till the ground, feed swine (one of the great industries of the country) and pay the harach. Milosh was declared Prince by the National Assembly, and in 1830 secured the consent of the Porte to his enjoyment of the title, with succession reserved to his family. Turkey allowed Servia a quasi-independence, but held and garrisoned several fortresses. Milosh had so little forgotten his Turkish training that he had made himself obnoxious to his subjects by his despotic acts. He was a man of simple, even coarse habits, as many of the anecdotes told of him testify. He was compelled to abdicate in 1839 in favor of his son Milan, who, however, was of too feeble a constitution to direct the government, and, dying soon afterwards, was succeeded by his young brother Michael. He also abdicated in 1842, and the Serbs then elected Alexander, the son of Tsrni George. His rule lasted seventeen years. He was compelled to resign in 1859, and Milosh, now very old, was invited to come from Bucharest. He lived, however, only one year, dying in 1860, and left the throne to his son Michael, then aged forty, who was thus a second time elected Prince of Servia. Michael was a man of refinement, and had learned much during his exile. The condition of the country improved during his reign, and in 1862 he succeeded in getting the Turkish garrisons removed from Belgrade. The Moslem inhabitants have gradually withdrawn from the country, so that they are now represented by a few families. While walking in his park, called

Koshutniak, or Topshidere, near Belgrade, Michael was assassinated by the emissaries of Alexander on June 19, 1868. He was succeeded by his second cousin, Milan. Milan was born in 1854. He became Prince of Serbia in 1872. In 1875 he married a Russian lady, Natalie de Keczo. In 1878 the Serbs declared war against Turkey, but their arms were unsuccessful, and they were only saved by the intervention of Russia. By the treaty of Berlin, July, 1878, the country received a large accession of territory, and the Prince caused himself to be proclaimed King. Peace continued until the year 1885, and during this period the Serbs seemed to make considerable progress as a nation, in spite of the bitterness of political faction. In 1885, however, Serbia made an ill-judged and selfish attack upon Bulgaria, which was ignominiously beaten off. In seven years the national debt was increased from 7,000,000 francs to 312,000,000 francs.

King Milan was forced to abdicate in 1889. He was succeeded by his twelve-year-old son, Alexander I. In 1903 Alexander and his wife, Queen Draga, were brutally murdered in a midnight attack on the palace because of their supposed leaning toward Austria.

Peter I, the present King, was his successor. He is of the house of "Black George."

In October, 1912, Serbia, in conjunction with Bulgaria, Montenegro and Greece, demanded independence for Turkey's European provinces. The Powers tried to intervene in the interest of peace, but were unsuccessful. The Balkan war broke out on October 17, 1912, and the allied Balkan States were uniformly successful.

As a result of this war Serbia gained some 15,000 square miles of territory.

Serbia now ambitiously proclaimed her intention of extending the Servian Empire to the Adriatic. This increased Austria's irritation, and as early as 1912 Austria took steps toward the mobilization of her army. Russia, by way of reply, strengthened her forces in aid of Serbia. Germany declared her intention of supporting Austria in the conflict. In this way the Balkan war really paved the way for the European war of to-day, and a similar situation was imminent in 1912.

The assassination of Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, by a Servian and the just refusal of Serbia to permit Austria the right of participation in the trial of the conspirators, brought about the present conflict.

Century of Russian History

Nicholas II, Czar

IN the Congress of Vienna, Russia was the most powerful nation. Alexander I, emperor of Russia, demanded that the Grand Duchy of Warsaw be given to him. It was his desire to unite it with the part of Poland that had fallen to Russia, thus restoring the old Polish kingdom.

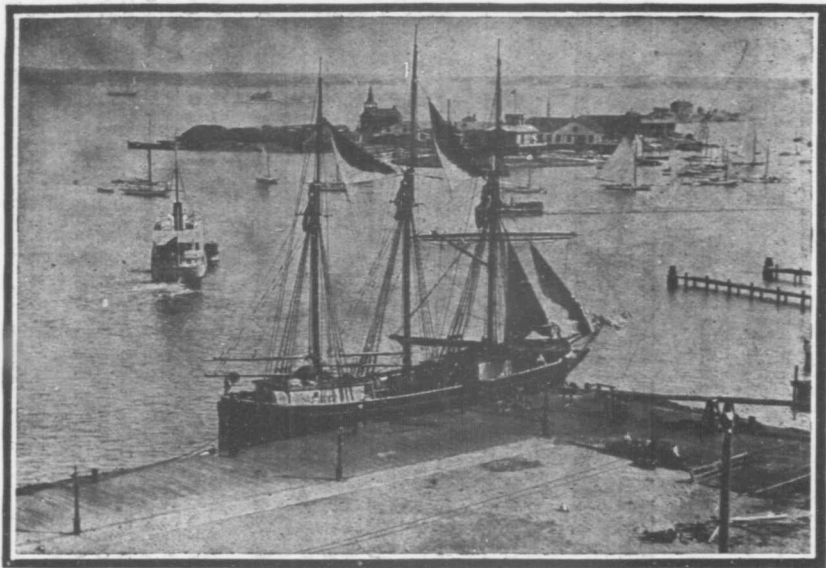
Russia emerged from the Congress with a goodly number of additions. She retained Finland, conquered from Sweden during the late war, and Bessarabia, snatched from the Turks; also Turkish territory in the southeast.

This, with the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, gave Russia much prestige in the affairs of Europe.

In 1814 Poland was re-established in a mutilated form, with a constitution which Alexander, who was crowned king, swore to observe. In 1825 the Emperor died suddenly at Taganrog, at the mouth of the Don, while visiting the Southern provinces of his Empire. He had added to the Russian dominions Finland, Poland, Bessarabia, and that part of the Causasus which includes Daghestan, Shirvan, Mingrelia, and Imeretia. Much was done in this reign to improve the condition of the serfs.

The heir to the throne was Constantine, but he had of his own free will secretly renounced his claim in 1822, having espoused a Roman Catholic, the Polish Princess Julia Grudinska. In consequence of this change the conspiracy of the Dekabrists broke out at the end of the year, their object being to take advantage of the confusion caused by the alteration of the succession to get constitutional government in Russia. Their efforts failed, but the rebellion was not put down without great bloodshed.

The new Emperor, Nicholas, the next in succession, showed throughout his reign, reactionary tendencies; all liberalism was sternly repressed. From 1826 to 1828, Nicholas was engaged in a war with Persia, in which the Russians were completely victorious. The war was terminated by the peace of Turkmantchai (February 22, 1828), by which Persia ceded to Russia the provinces of Erivan and Nakhitchevan, and paid twenty millions of roubles as an indemnity.



Sveaborg

"The Gibraltar of the Baltic." The railroad runs from here to St. Petersburg.

The next foreign enemy was Turkey. Nicholas had sympathized with the Greeks in their struggle for independence, in opposition to the policy of Alexander; he had also a part to play as protector of the Orthodox Christians, who formed a large number of the Sultan's subjects. In consequence of the sanguinary war which the Turks were carrying on against the Greeks and the utter collapse of the latter, England, France and Russia signed the treaty of London in 1827, by which they forced themselves upon the belligerents as mediators. From this union, resulted the battle of Navarino (October 20, 1827), in which the Turkish fleet was annihilated by that of the allies. Nicholas now pursued the war with Turkey on his own account; in Asia, Paskewitch defeated two Turkish armies, and conquered Erzeroum, and in Europe, Diebitsch defeated the grand vizier. The Russians crossed the Balkans and advanced to Adrianople, where a treaty was signed in 1829 very disadvantageous to Turkey.

In 1831 broke out the Polish insurrection. Paskewitch took Warsaw in 1831. Poland was now entirely at the mercy of Nicholas. The constitution which had been granted by Alexander was annulled.

By another treaty with Turkey, Russia acquired additional rights to meddle with the internal politics of that country. Soon after the revolution of 1848, the Emperor Nicholas, who became even more reactionary, in consequence of the disturbed state of Europe, answered the appeal of the Emperor Francis Joseph, and sent an army to suppress the Hungarian revolt.

In 1853 broke out the Crimean war. The Emperor was anxious to distribute the possessions of the "sick man," but found enemies instead of allies in England and France.

In 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died. He was succeeded by his son Alexander II (1855-1881), at the age of thirty-seven. One of the first objects of the new Czar was to put an end to the war, and the treaty of Paris was signed in 1856, by which Russia consented to keep no vessels of war in the Black Sea, and to give up her protectorate of the Eastern Christians. A portion of Bessarabia was also cut off and added to the Danubian principalities, which were shortly to be united under the name of Roumania. This was afterwards given back to Russia by the treaty of Berlin.

The next important measure was the emancipation of the serfs in 1861. (The Polish insurrection occurred in 1863, with fatal effects upon that part of Poland which had been incorporated with Russia. On the other hand Finland has seen her privileges confirmed.)

Among the important foreign events of this reign must be mentioned the capture of Schamyl in 1859 by Prince Bariatinski, and the pacification of the Caucasus; many of the Circassians, unable to endure the

peaceful life of cultivators of the soil under the new regime, migrated to Turkey, where they have formed one of the most turbulent elements of the population. Turkestan also has been gradually subjugated. In 1865 the city of Tashkend was taken, and in 1867 Alexander II created the government of Turkestan.

In 1858, General Muravieff signed a treaty with the Chinese, by which Russia acquired all the left bank of the river Amur. A new port has been created in Eastern Asia (Vladivostok), which promises to be a great centre of trade.

In 1877, Russia came to the assistance of the Slavonic Christians against the Turks. After the terrible siege of Plevna, nothing stood between them and the gates of Constantinople. In 1878 the treaty of San Stefano was signed, by which Roumania became independent, Servia



The famous Siberian Rifle Corps of the Russian Army

was enlarged, and a free Bulgaria, but under Turkish suzerainty, was created. But these arrangements were subsequently modified by the treaty of Berlin. Russia got back the portion of Bessarabia which she had lost, and advanced her Caucasian frontier.

The latter part of the reign of Alexander II was a period of great internal commotion, on account of the spread of Nihilism. Five attempts were made on the Emperor's life and a conspiracy in 1881 (March 13) was successful.

He died, leaving Russia exhausted by foreign wars and honeycombed by plots. He was succeeded by his second son, Alexander, born in 1845, whose reign has been characterized by conspiracies and constant deportations of suspected persons. It was long before he ventured to be crowned in his ancient capital of Moscow (1883), and the chief event of his day was the disturbed relations with England, which for a time threatened war.

In 1894, Nicholas II, the present Czar of Russia, succeeded to the throne. His government was more oppressive, rather than less. In 1899, he abrogated the constitution of Finland, which was thereafter ruled entirely by Russia. The Finns were greatly indignant, but with their small might of three millions they were powerless against Russia's mighty horde.

In the meantime, the advance of Russia into Eastern Asia alarmed Japan, which felt that the advance of Russian power in this direction was a menace to itself. Japan had successfully fought China and had retained some very valuable possessions as a result.

Russia induced France and Germany to join in forcing Japan to give up important rewards of her Chinese victories. Russia had practically seized Manchuria, and while promising eventual evacuation, her actions seemed to belie her promises.

Japan demanded the date on which Russia would withdraw from Manchuria. To this Russia gave an equivocal promise, but would give no definite reply. Japan finally broke off negotiations and the Russo-Japanese war was inaugurated.

This war lasted from February, 1904, to September, 1905. It was fought on land and sea. Japan was the victor in all engagements.

President Roosevelt offered his good offices as mediator in 1905, and invited both powers to send delegates to Portsmouth, N.H. This resulted in the treaty of Portsmouth. By this treaty, Russia recognized Japan's paramount interest in Korea, which country, however, was to remain independent. Both Russia and Japan were to evacuate Manchuria. Russia transferred to Japan Port Arthur and the Liaotung peninsula and ceded the southern half of the island of Saghalin.

Von Plehve had been Minister of the Interior since 1902. His was an iron rule, and he was hated and feared by all alike. He was killed by a bomb in 1904. After his death, Nicholas II adopted a more liberal policy, which eventually, in 1906, resulted in the formation of the Duma, a legislative body.

Russia has ever been a land of revolt and bloodshed. Strikes, assassination, massacres and outbreaks have been so frequent and numerous, especially from 1900 to 1910, that space will not permit their recountal.

After the Balkan-Turkish war, in 1912, Russia strengthened her army for the conflict which she knew was imminent with Austria. A situation in every way similar to the present one was narrowly averted. Two years later, in 1914, the storm broke and the great European war was on.

Military experts declare that Russia's participation in the Russo-Japanese war will stand her in good stead in the present crisis. She is, perhaps, the only one of the European nations which has engaged in a modern war.

Century of German History

William II, Emperor

THE Congress of Vienna, restored with several changes the boundaries of the German states. Prussia received more than half of Saxony, the Rhine province, with its old possessions in Westphalia, Posen and other small acquisitions, but lost its Slavonic population in the East. It was now a strictly German state.

The condition of the masses was improved, but they were beginning to aspire to something higher than submission to kingly decrees. The Prussian government refused to fulfil its pledges until compelled by the revolution of 1848. The French revolution of 1830 found echo in the Rhine provinces. In 1832, 30,000 men gathered at Hambach in the Palatine to consider means for the emancipation of Germany, but the Bavarian troops put an end to the demonstration. Disturbances in Frankfurt, Brunswick, Cassel and Saxony were quickly put down.

Frederick William III was succeeded in 1840 by his son, Frederick William IV. This sovereign had a sincere desire for progress, but the revolutionary party in Prussia was not satisfied with the concessions made by him, and the political agitation increased. In self-defence, he turned back to his kingly prerogative, and the result was an alienation from him of the affection of his people. The French revolution of 1848 rolled into and over Germany, with a force before which the thrones were powerless. In an endeavor to avert the ruin of their states, the various rulers made large concessions to the Liberal party, but without avail. Berlin and Vienna were captured by the populace, and it seemed as if the bloody scenes of 1803 in France were about to be repeated. Frederick William gave way to the demands of the Radical party, and in a proclamation pledged himself to maintain the freedom of the press and also to strive for a union of all Germany in a federal state. Disturbances were quelled in Berlin, and a constitution was given to the kingdom of Prussia. The National Parliament elected the Prussian king, Frederick William, Emperor of Germany, but he declined the imperial crown. In 1848 Schleswig and Holstein revolted, and with the assistance of Prussian troops expelled the Danes from the provinces and invaded Jutland. England and Russia threatened to interfere, and the war flagged. Prussia concluded a peace with Denmark, which the people of Holstein rejected and renewed the war.



Showing the Seat of War, Size of Armies and Navies and Location of Armies and Naval Forces at the Beginning of the War.

The prominent part taken by Austria in the Schleswig-Holstein matter added to the bitterness of feeling in Prussia against the former power. After the excitement caused by the outbreaks of 1848, the question of supremacy in Germanic affairs took definite form. Austrian troops invaded the principality to sustain its ruler. Prussian troops occupied Cassel, and war between the two principal powers of Germany



The Kaiser

The would-be Modern Conquerer

seemed imminent. An effort was made to enlist the Russian emperor on the side of Prussia, but the Czar not only refused to act, but made threatening declarations against the northern German power. In the negotiations, Austria was triumphant, but in the end she paid bitterly for her victory. As in Austria, the constitution of Prussia was regarded as a menace to the throne, and although it was not withdrawn, it was

so weakened and hampered as to be useless as a measure to reform. Encouraged by the example of Austria and Prussia, the smaller potentates withdrew their concessions to the people and the absolutism became the rule of government throughout Germany. The mind of Frederick William IV succumbed and in 1857, his brother, William I, assumed the government as regent, and, on the death of the king in 1861, he received the crown.

After William I came to the throne he began to prepare for the inevitable struggle with Austria. Dimly in the future was seen a unified Germany, whose destiny should be controlled by the leading German state. Prussia was determined to occupy this position, while Austria, although relegated to a second place by the conflict in Italy, aspired to her old-time leadership.

Fortunately for Prussia's ascendancy, William, in 1862, placed at the head of his ministry Count Otto Von Bismarck. With a firm belief in the great destiny of a united German people, he bent every energy of his powerful mind and iron will to the accomplishment of the task before him.

In 1863 the Schleswig-Holstein question became prominent by the death of Frederick VII of Denmark. The London Protocol provided that he should be succeeded by King Christian of Denmark. When the incorporation of Schleswig with Denmark was attempted in 1863, Prussia and Austria, having both signed the London Protocol, were in an embarrassed position. Prussia protested against the incorporation of Schleswig, and Bismarck declared that the first cannon-shot fired in the attempt to enforce it would destroy the obligation imposed on Prussia by the Protocol. At the same time, the English encouraged the Danes to resist. Prussia and Austria sent an army into the disputed country and drove out the Danes. In 1864 a peace was concluded, by which the King of Denmark ceded all his claims upon Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenberg to the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria.

Difficulties immediately sprang up between the two great German states over the duchies, which they were supposed to hold in trust. Early in 1866, the Austrian government called on all the states under its influence to prepare for war. Bismarck issued a circular letter to the German state setting out that to conserve German interest, a reorganization of the Confederation was necessary; that if Prussia's strength were broken, Germany would cease to be a power in Europe. He also called upon them to state specifically how far Prussia could rely on them for support if attacked by Austria.

With a hope of rescuing Venetia from Austrian domination, Italy concluded an alliance with Prussia. Bismarck declared Prussia's obligations at an end, and the Prussian troops drove the Austrians out of Holstein.

In the meantime, the opposition in the Prussian House of Deputies denounced the course of its own government, which continually violated the constitution, but Bismarck, relying on the loyalty of the people, went on with his preparations for war, proposing to strike down Austria with one blow. The war came at once. Oldenburg, Brunswick, Coburg-Gotha, Mecklenburg and other Northern principalities joined with Prussia, while Austria was allied with Hanover, Saxony, Hesse, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Darmstadt, and Baden. Hanover, Saxony and Hesse-Cassel were at once seized by Prussia. The Prussian forces entered



German Field Artillery

Bohemia and pressed rapidly forward. The Prussians were superior in numbers, and under the discipline and organization of Von Moltke had reached a high state of efficiency.

The two armies met at Koniggratz, July 3, 1866, and the day closed on the defeated and dispersed army of Austria, and Prussia occupied the proud position of the leader of Germany. Results of the most substantial kind were secured to Prussia by treaty. Hanover, Schleswig-Holstein, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau and Frankfort were annexed, uniting the hitherto geographically separated sections of Prussia.

The King, Bismarck and Von Moltke became objects almost of worship. Nor was the effect less in the direction of German unification. In conformity with a plan brought forward in 1867, all the states north of the Main were formed into a Confederation with Prussia at its head.

In this situation, nothing could more effectually silence internal discontent and forward the cause of unification than a victorious foreign war. The opportunity was soon presented. Louis Napoleon had looked for a long contest between Prussia and Austria, and was both surprised and alarmed by the Prussians' victory.

On the conclusion of the war, Napoleon demanded "Compensation for Sadowa" (Koniggratz) in the form of a cession to France of the territory on the west bank of the Rhine. This demand of Napoleon, made in 1867, threatened to precipitate a war between North Germany and France, but the danger was tided over.

During the next three years both powers were engaged in strengthening their army organizations and endeavoring to make alliances. On the German side, Moltke, in his cabinet, busied himself with the strategy and tactics of the coming war, while Bismarck peremptorily demanded and obtained the necessary legislation.

In 1870, the Spaniards, who had dethroned Queen Isabella in 1868, offered the crown of Spain to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a descendent of the house of which the King of Prussia was a member. Napoleon at once objected, announcing that France would never consent to such an extension of German power. Owing to the objection of France, Leopold declined the proffered crown. The French minister then demanded that the Prussian King record a pledge that he would never support the candidacy of a Hohenzollern Prince for the Spanish crown, and also that the king write a letter of apology to the French Emperor. Both propositions were received with a curt refusal.

As a direct result, the Franco-Prussian war was inaugurated.

In this great Franco-Prussian war, the German federation was entirely successful, being victorious in practically every engagement. A treaty of peace was negotiated at Frankfort on the 10th of May, 1871, by which France ceded to the victors the German part of Lorraine, including the fortress of Metz, and all of Alsace except Belfort. The French also agreed to pay to Germany a large war indemnity. A proposition to reconstitute the German Empire as a confederation by a union of all the states except Austria, with the King of Prussia as Emperor, was accepted generally throughout the nation. On the 3rd of December, 1870, Prince Leopold of Bavaria, in the name of the German governments, tendered the Imperial Crown to the Prussian monarch, and at Versailles, on the 18th of January, 1871, King William

of Prussia was proclaimed Emperor of Germany. The German army made a triumphal entry into Paris on the 1st of March, and retired after occupying the city thirty-six hours.

Peace being assured abroad, the Emperor set about consolidating the institutions of the new empire. They soon found that they had two antagonistic parties to deal with—the Ultramontane Catholics on one hand and the Socialists on the other—and for the next ten years the history of the empire is mainly concerned with the struggle between these two parties and the Imperial Government. Bismarck resolved to settle once for all the old quarrel between Pope and Emperor and to place the priest under the supremacy of the sovereign. William adopted entirely the views of his ministry. Soon afterward there was an open break between Germany and the Papacy.

In 1878, however, Prussia once more established friendly terms with the Pope.

In 1871, the Poles in the provinces of Posen and Eastern Prussia protested against being swallowed up in the German Empire, and demanded autonomy, but they were sternly silenced by Bismarck. Their race antipathy to the Germans was aggravated by the antagonism between the State and the Catholic Church. In 1885, the Prussian Parliament passed a law for the expulsion of all Poles who were not Prussian subjects.

The government of the conquered provinces of Alsace and Lorraine was a serious problem for the cabinet of Berlin. In 1874 the constitution of the empire was introduced in Alsace-Lorraine, and a deputy of the Emperor, surrounded by ministers and a parliament, ruled the country independently of the German administration.

The military organization of the empire was always a question of the first importance to William and his advisers. The leaders of the army pointed out that foreign powers were jealous and hostile, and that France in particular was only awaiting her opportunity for revenge. "If you wish for peace, be prepared for war," said Count Von Moltke. Emperors of Germany and Austria had several interviews, at which a plan of general policy was agreed upon. Germany was to assist Austria should she be attacked by Russia; and united opposition was to be made to the excesses of social democracy. Italy soon joined this alliance, which is in force at the present time.

In 1877, when Russia declared war against Turkey, Germany remained neutral in spite of the remonstrances of England. England and Austria joined in armed protest. The mediation of Germany was called for by Russia. With England the German Empire has always been on good terms, notwithstanding the fact that in 1872 William decided the San Juan question in favor of the United States and against Great Britain; and the same can be said of its relations with the United States.

In 1884 Bismarck turned his attention to colonial settlements. He encountered British diplomacy in this field and succeeded in obtaining recognition for German settlements on the Congo. As a further step in German colonization, a convention was concluded between Germany and the Transvaal republic. The German government now took its place among the colonial powers in West Africa.

The year of 1888 was a sad one for the imperial house of Germany. On the 9th of March, 1888, Frederick William I passed to his fathers.

The reign of Frederick III lasted only three months. He died on the 15th of June, 1888.

The eldest son of Frederick succeeded him, under the title of William II. His accession was contemplated with concern and apprehension throughout all Europe, because this young prince had shown, as yet, no indication of the liberal spirit of his father, but, on the other hand, had given proof of a strong leaning toward military rule. During the summer months of 1888 he visited the courts of Russia, Sweden, Denmark and Italy, and succeeded in confirming the friendly relations existing between them and Germany. During the year 1889 he still further strengthened the military and naval armament of Germany, and demonstrated his business and executive ability by settling dangerous strikes and discontent among the workmen.

Under William I, Bismarck had been the absolute head of the government. The young Emperor determined to change this system of things, and issued a cabinet order requiring all ministers, Bismarck included, to report to him direct. On the 18th of March, Bismarck tendered his resignation to the Emperor, alleging age and failing health as his reason. The resignation was accepted. In August, 1890, by virtue of a treaty with the English government, William took possession of the island of Heligoland, which has become an important station for the German navy. England obtained as compensation the consent of Germany to her protectorate of Zanzibar.

Germany played an important part, in connection with France and Russia, to curtail Japan's accessions acquired in the Chinese war. In 1897 Germany secured a ninety-nine year lease on the harbor of Kiauchau, thus establishing a sphere of German influence in China.

In 1911, Germany sent a warship to Morocco fearing the result of "French influence," but in reality to demand compensation in Morocco itself. In this affair France received the assistance of England.

True to early prophecies, William II, the present king, has fostered a spirit of militarism from the start. Ambitious for the future of Germany on land and sea, he has to-day the best trained and equipped army of the European powers. His navy is in the ascendancy, and it was this endeavor to wrest naval power from England that made the latter power more willing to enter into conflict than she would otherwise have been.

Century of French History

M. Raymond Poincare, President

NAPOLEON had held together the French army by flattering the national vanity and by raising a bulwark between the masses and classes. When the Bourbons came back to power, after Napoleon's downfall, the peasants suspected them of wishing to restore the ancient power of the throne. The whole country was garrisoned by the armies of Russia, England and Germany. Paris was treated as a conquered capital. This vexed the national feeling, especially since Louis XVIII, the Bourbon king, showed himself the instrument and dependent of the conquering powers.

The Congress of Vienna dictated its terms of peace of France. They compelled France to pay a huge indemnity and surrender much valuable territory, while the frontier of France was to be garrisoned by a foreign general to be paid by France.

Just at this time the extravagant conduct of the Bourbon princes of Spain and Italy had raised revolution and resistance everywhere. The people of Spain and Naples declared against arbitrary government and were at once attacked for doing so by the Emperors of Russia, Austria and Prussia. At their bidding, Louis XVIII also declared war against Spain. In the spring of 1823 the French army entered Spain. No resistance was met with and the French army was thus mercilessly used to crush Spanish liberty. France had become entirely reactionary.

Louis XVIII died in 1824 and was succeeded by Charles X. The new monarch was bigoted, stupid and ignorant. He was regarded as a mere tool of the Jesuits, and his reign was one long struggle against the more liberal instincts of the country.

In 1827 England, France and Russia joined to put a stop to the quarrel between the Turks and Greeks, and their combined fleet won the battle of Navarino and ruined the maritime power of Turkey.



General Joffre

In 1828 the French occupied Morea and the independence of Greece was established.

In 1829 Charles dismissed the ministry and assumed a provisional dictatorship. Insurrection broke out and the "revolution of the three days of July" began. Charles X, finding that his army had deserted his cause, abdicated in favor of his young grandson, who was then ten years old.

Louis Philippe, the Duke of Orleans, became lieutenant-general of the realm. The charter was revised in a liberal direction and the crown

was offered to the Duke and his male heirs with the title of "King of the French." On the 9th of August, 1830, the new constitutional monarch, ruling not by divine right, but by the will of the sovereign people, "King of the French," not "King of France," took the oath faithfully to observe the amended charter.

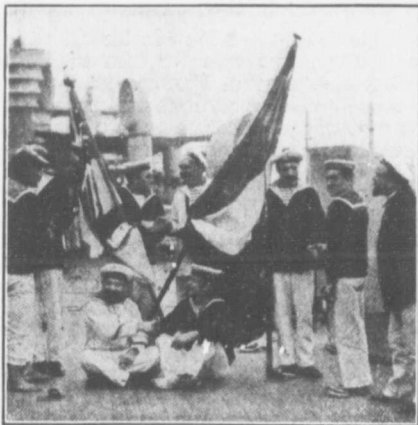
In a subsequent uprising between Holland and Belgium, France and England combined to help the latter. A strong French army soon forced the Dutch to evacuate.

At home the country was still uneasy. There were troubles in all parts of France which were eventually put down and the instigators punished.

Differences arose between France and England over Egyptian policy and, in 1840, England formed a quadruple alliance with Austria, Russia and Prussia without communicating at all with France until after the treaty had been actually signed. France was greatly shocked to see her diplomacy thus rudely foiled.

The fortification of Paris was begun in 1841. From then until 1848 dissensions were highest owing to the distrust of the French for the administration of Guizot. Interference against the public banquet in Paris led to the outbreak of the second revolution in 1848.

The National Guards took the part of the populace against the troops, and the soldiers, unwilling to attack them, proved useless.



French and English Sailors Fraternizing on a French Warship

Guizot now yielded and sent in his resignation. Louis Philippe abdicated in favor of his grandson and fled to England.

France was weary of such rule and wanted a republic. The presidency of the government was given to Dupont de l'Ure. Though the revolution had been localized in Paris, all France was ready to accept the new republic. Soon, however, new dissensions arose. A decree ordering a portion of the workingmen to be enrolled in the army led to a terrible revolt in eastern Paris.

The instincts of the nation turned toward one who bore the charmed name of Bonaparte, and Louis Bonaparte was formally proclaimed the new President, and took office in December, 1848.

His first act was the overthrow of the Republic of Rome and the military restoration of Pius IX. This act showed the President hostile to all the liberal movements of Europe, but won for him the firm gratitude and allegiance of the Catholic clergy of France.

Before Louis Bonaparte had been in office a year, it was seen that he was preparing to move in the direction of absolute power. At last, in 1851, he executed his master stroke and swept away the whole existing fabric of the constitution. It was clearly a reminiscence of the form of government which France so thoroughly hated. Outbreaks in Paris were quickly put down with brutal severity which struck terror into the capital, and the remaining step was easy. Under the iron hand, he was accepted as hereditary Emperor of the French under the name of Napoleon III.

His reign as Emperor lasted from 1852 to 1870. It was modeled on the rule of the first Napoleon, and Louis Bonaparte never forgot that he was his uncle's nephew.

His government was frequently, almost incessantly, involved in wars. The sovereigns of Europe recognized the new French Government with cordiality. It seemed to indicate that republics were forever banished from European soil. Louis Bonaparte noticed the unfriendly attitude of Prussia toward his new Government, and in looking around for a wife he tried to wed a Hohenzollern princess, but met with a refusal.

In 1854 the schemes of Nicholas of Russia against Turkey alarmed all Europe. France and England sent an army to the Crimea and repeatedly repulsed the Russian forces.

In 1856 a treaty of peace was signed in Paris, but this did little for the real good of France. It created a coolness between her and England, annoyed Prussia, and did not satisfy Austria. The war had not been very brilliant and the losses had been heavy.

The Emperor was not desirous of war with England, but soon disclosed his schemes against Austria and showed that Italy would be the scene of warfare. His plans would have left France in the centre of the world, compact and powerful, among weak and divided neighbors

on every hand. This was Bonaparte's policy. United Germany and United Italy destroyed the plans and brought the Emperor to the ground.

The French entered Italy, the Emperor himself taking command. He was largely successful and peace was declared in 1859. The result satisfied no one. Austria was humiliated by it, Italy disappointed, while Germany and England deemed both the war and the peace as high-handed proceedings. France itself was far from satisfied.

France had also been engaged in distant expeditions. A Chinese war in alliance with England occupied her from 1858 to 1860. France and Spain had acted together in Cochin-China. The Syrian expedition, undertaken with the other Christian powers, reduced the sultan to reason and established a French occupation until June, 1861.

Mexican affairs caused the Emperor to intervene on behalf of Archduke Maximilian of Austria. This last affair caused great loss and discredit to Napoleon III.

Now broke out the Danish war which saw the beginning of the consolidation of Germany. France looked with troubled eyes at this growth of German strength across the Rhine.

His operations in Italy displeased both that country and the Pope, in whose interest it was undertaken. His efforts to purchase the Duchy of Luxemburg from Holland were defeated by the intervention of Prussia.

In 1868 the Spanish insurrection had dislodged Queen Isabella. She took refuge in France. In search of an eligible king for Spain, the crown was offered to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern without first consulting the court of France. Prince Leopold was advised by the king of Prussia to accept the offer. When Prince Leopold, learning of the objection of France, withdrew his candidacy, the French Government, instead of accepting the act, sowed the seed for further strife. The King of Prussia was ordered to give assurance that he would never support Prince Leopold in any future candidacy for the Spanish throne and to apologize to Napoleon.

Accordingly the Franco-Prussian war was declared in 1870. France had no allies. She knew little of the fitness of her army for a great war. It was ill-organized and ill-supplied. No one knew anything of strategy; maps and plans were bad. The Franco-Prussian war was highly disastrous to the French and in September, 1870, the Emperor, with an army of more than eighty thousand men, was a prisoner of war of the King of Prussia.

When the news of the defeat reached Paris the third republic was proclaimed. Gradually the Germans closed in on Paris and, in 1871, the determined resistance of that city was brought to an end. The war elsewhere died out almost immediately, and Germans occupied all of the forts around Paris. By the treaty of Frankfort, in 1871, Alsace and

a large part of Lorraine were ceded back to Germany while Belfort was restored to France. A huge money indemnity was to be paid to Germany for the cost of the war.

The death of Napoleon III in 1873 created little feeling in France and showed that imperialism was highly unpopular. Louis Thiers was the first President of the new republic. His measures were unpopular and he resigned in 1873, being succeeded by Marshal McMahon. He was a reactionary and highly unsatisfactory to the people of France. McMahon resigned in 1879 and was succeeded in the presidency by Jules Grevy.

This was followed by a period of constructive activity, which did great credit to France.

From 1881 to 1885 the Republic embarked upon an aggressive foreign policy. She established a protectorate over Tunis, sent an expedition to Tonkin and Madagascar, and founded the French Congo.

This caused a great national debt and there was considerable opposition. There arose a great deal of discontent within the Republic. Ministers came and went with great rapidity.

Eventually Grevy was forced to resign and was succeeded by Carnot. It was now believed that France was ready to elect another dictator. The Republic, however, successfully weathered the storm.

In 1891 an alliance was made with Russia which ended the long period of diplomatic isolation and served as a counter weight to the alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy. This alliance satisfied the French and increased their sense of safety.

In 1894 President Carnot was assassinated. He was succeeded by Casimir Perier, who resigned after six months.

Felix Faure was chosen to succeed Perier. Under Faure, the alliance with Russia was still further strengthened and proclaimed.

In 1899, upon the death of Faure, Emile Loubet succeeded to the presidency. It was during the presidencies of Faure and Loubet that the famous Dreyfus case created a scandal throughout the world.

One result of the Dreyfus agitation was the ultimate separation of church and state. In 1905 the measure was passed which finally separated the church from the state.

A further law in 1907 further abrogated many of the privileges guaranteed the Roman Catholic Church by the law of 1905.

In 1906 M. Fallieres was elected President, and he, in turn, was succeeded by M. Raymond Poincare, the present incumbent.

A slight friction with Germany arose in the Morocco question, in which France was upheld by England.

The position of France in the Triple Entente makes its participation in the present war necessary, while the old spirit and hatred of Franco-Prussian days no doubt contributes largely to popular French opinion in the matter.

Century of Belgian History

Albert I, King

AFTER the fall of Napoleon in 1814, Belgium was for some months ruled by the Austrians, after which it was united with Holland under Prince William Frederick of Nassau, who thereupon became King of the Netherlands. The union, however, was not a particularly fortunate or happy one.

It was brought about by the allied powers without regard to the wishes of the people, their main object being to form here a strong kingdom to serve as a check upon the ambitious designs of France. The character, habits, and language of the Belgians were against such an alliance. Holland seemed to consider Belgium a conquered country, even though the latter was the stronger of the two. Notwithstanding this friction, both countries enjoyed a period of prosperity. In such a union, religious difficulties were bound to arise, and the Roman Catholics and French Liberals united their efforts to overthrow the government.

News of the successful revolt in Paris in 1830 reached Belgium. A play performed in a Brussels theatre was calculated by its theme to inflame the populace, and when the curtain fell they at once rushed out into the street, shouting "Let us imitate the Parisians." A mob was formed which did great violence and destroyed many public buildings, factories and private homes. The troops were called out, but they were too few in number and withdrew.

Burgher guards made up of influential and middle class citizens were formed for the protection of life and property. What happened in Brussels was repeated elsewhere, and in other cities burgher guards were instituted. Concessions were demanded which the government refused, and a riot was thereby converted into complete revolution. The Belgians were highly incensed at the conduct of the Dutch deputies in council, and the King's army was sent against Brussels. Their mission was unsuccessful, and they retired. Other Belgian towns learned of the king's fiasco and declared in favor of separation. Belgium was declared an independent state, with Brussels as its capital. Antwerp was the only important town which remained in the hands of the Dutch.

The conference of London proclaimed the dissolution of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, dictating the conditions of the partitions. Baron de Chokier was elected king and duly installed. This, however, did not



Beautiful Brussels

The capital of Belgium, which the German Army recently entered and demanded an indemnity of \$40,000,000.

restore tranquility to the country, and in a subsequent election Prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg was proclaimed king. Soon thereafter it was learned that the Dutch were preparing to invade the country with a large army which far outnumbered Leopold's forces. The Belgians were outnumbered and beaten back. The French army came to the rescue of Belgium and the forces of Holland retired. By the terms of the conference of London and a subsequent treaty after the invasion of Holland, Luxemburg was divided between Holland and Belgium; the king of Holland also received a portion of Limborg.



Albert, King of "Belgium, the cockpit
of Europe."

The District of Maestricht was also partitioned, the fortress of that name remaining with Holland. The Scheldt was to remain open to the commerce of both countries and the national debt was apportioned. Continued negotiations from 1830 to 1839 eventually ended in the acceptance by Holland of the terms of the treaty.

During the revolution of 1848 the king offered to resign if his ministers thought that it would avert calamity or be conducive to the public

welfare. The ministers replied that a constitutional monarchy was most desirable for the people. In this way Leopold forestalled possible conflict. An attempt at revolution was made in Brussels, but met with little success.

A financial panic, in 1848, created considerable havoc, but public credit was soon restored. From 1848 to 1865 Belgium was at peace, and much progress was made. King Leopold died in 1865. He was greatly beloved by his people and respected by the other sovereigns of Europe. To him Belgium owes much. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Leopold II.

On the outbreak of hostilities between France and Germany in 1870, Belgium foresaw the danger and difficulty of her position and lost no time in providing for the arising of contingencies. A large war credit was voted, the strength of the army was raised, and large forces of troops moved to the frontier. The danger to Belgium caused England considerable excitement as she recognized the schemes of self-aggrandisement of France against Belgium. The British government declared its intentions to maintain the integrity of Belgium in accordance with the treaty of 1839, and it induced Germany and France to sign treaties to that effect.

In the course of the Franco-Prussian war, a portion of the French army took refuge in Belgium, but laid down their arms, according to the treaty. It is this treaty which England is bound to enforce at the present time and which has been the prime motive for her declaration of war against Germany in 1914.

Foreign complications arose through the offer of an obscure Belgian to assassinate Prince Bismarck. He was tried by the Belgian government, but it was found that no law was recorded which provided punishment for such offences which was satisfactory to Germany.

In 1893 the constitution of Belgium was revised and suffrage was allowed to every man over twenty-five years of age.

Leopold II died in 1909 and was succeeded by his nephew, Albert I, the present king.

Belgium is the most densely populated country in Europe, its population per square mile being 652 inhabitants, while its nearest competitor, Italy, has but 318. It possesses one colony, formerly the Congo Free State and transformed into a colony of Belgium in 1908.

The advance of the German troops into Belgium for the purpose of attacking France on a comparatively unprotected border is Belgium's reason for taking up arms against Germany in the present war.

Century of English History

George V, King

AFTER the Napoleonic wars great reform movements took place in England.

George IV became king on the death of his father in 1820. During the reign of George IV internal affairs engrossed the attention of England, many reforms being introduced through the growth of public opinion. On the death of George IV, William IV succeeded to the throne with a ministry under the leadership of Lord Grey. In this administration the abolition of slavery in all British colonies and the poor law were introduced.

The king dismissed his ministers and entrusted the formation of a new government to Sir Robert Peel. It was the last time that the king actively interfered in a change of the ministry. Peel could not command a majority in Parliament and resigned in favor of Lord Melbourne, who was still in power on the accession of Queen Victoria in 1837.

Little of international interest occurred during the ensuing years, until the attack upon Turkey by the Emperor of Russia was resisted by the allied forces of England and France. England was watchful of Russian advancement in the East and championed the cause of liberal progress against the absolutism of Russia. Peace was signed at Paris in 1856. England and her soldiers were distinguished by the valor displayed at Balaclava, Inkerman and Sebastopol. They were then fighting, as now, for the protection of the weaker nation.

The indirect results of the Crimean war may be found in the removal of the pressure with which Russia had weighed on the nations of the continent.



Lord Kitchener
Britain's Minister of War



Hong-Kong, Britain's stronghold in Asia
where her forces have mobilized to protect her possessions in the East.

Subsequently a vast military rebellion arose in India. This was followed by the assumption of direct authority over India by the Crown, and Queen Victoria was later declared Empress of India.

In 1875 Disraeli made his master stroke in the purchase of the Suez Canal.

Acts of political rather than of international importance, held the attention of England until in 1899, when the Boer war broke out in South Africa. The discovery of gold in the South African Republic was followed by a great influx of English miners and speculators.

Trouble quickly arose between the native Boers and the progressive Britons. These complained that they could not obtain naturalization, were given no share in the government, and yet bore a large share of the taxation and were forced to render military service. After a raid of the Transvaal by Dr. Jameson, which was unpunished by England, the Boers became more arbitrary than ever, although the foreign population outnumbered the natives two to one. England demanded the right of suffrage for her citizens; the Boers refused. War broke out in October, 1899, the Orange Free State joining her sister, the Boer Republic. This war lasted for three years. The English won in the end. Peace was concluded in 1902, the Transvaal and Orange Free State becoming colonies of the British Empire. The Boers since then have become the most loyal subjects of Britain. The leader of the Government was formerly one of the chief Boer generals, and South Africa is now flourishing under the great freedom enjoyed under British rule.

At this time Russia was occupying Manchuria. This was looked upon with disfavor by England and the United States, who urged the policy of the "open door."

Queen Victoria died in 1901 and was succeeded by King Edward VII. Japan in 1902 increased its European prestige by a treaty with Eng-

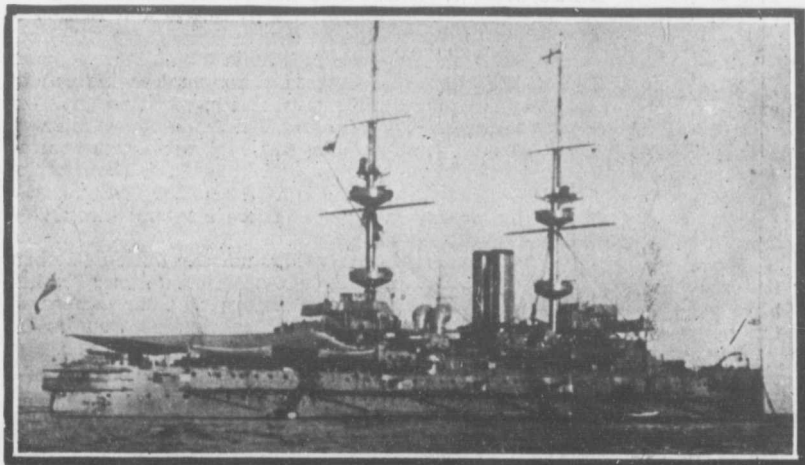


General Sir John French
Commanding the British Forces
on the Continent

land establishing a defensive alliance. A second treaty was signed in 1905. It is this alliance which Japan seizes as her reason for entering into the European situation of to-day.

King Edward died in 1910 and was succeeded by his son, George V, the present ruler.

The Home Rule Bill which Ireland has wished for years is of too recent date to demand further attention here.



British Battleship "Caesar"

One of the greatest ships with the North Sea Squadron

A little of what Canada and Canadians are doing towards upholding the honor of the British Empire.

The Federal Government is sending one million bags of flour. To get a little idea of what this means it would fill a train of cars extending from Oakville to Toronto, 19 miles.

Twenty-five thousand men have gone to Valcartier, ready to embark for the scene of action.

One hundred thousand men have volunteered, and Col. Hughes, the able Minister of Militia, says, "We can't keep them from volunteering."

The Province of Quebec has contributed tons of cheese and British Columbia trainloads of apples.

Alberta has contributed a million bushels of oats.

M. H. Gault, Esq., of Montreal, is equipping a regiment at his own expense. They are called the Princess Patricia Regiment.

J. C. Eaton, Esq., of Toronto, has contributed \$100,000 for a quick-firing Vickers' battery, also the use of his yacht, *Florence*, and his private wireless station.

The citizens of the city of Toronto and York County are raising a fund of \$882,000.00 to provide for the needs of the soldier's families from Toronto and York.

Every county, city, town and village throughout Canada is doing its share to help and protect the families of the noble fellows who have gone to the front to represent Canada and maintain and defend the honor of the great British Empire. "We can't forget them."

One hundred and sixty-two thousand dollars was raised by the women of Canada to equip a hospital ship.

Ontario's Contribution

The Ontario Government are furnishing a quarter of a million bags of flour to the Imperial Government.

Type of Guns in Use by Armies of Europe

- Austria-Hungary—Mannlicher magazine rifles and carbines.
 Belgium—Mauser rifles and Krupp guns.
 Bulgaria—Mannlicher carbine, Schneider and Krupp guns.
 France—Lebel rifle and carbine.
 Great Britain—Lee-Enfield rifles.
 Germany—Mauser rifles.
 Greece—Mannlicher Schonauer and Schneider Canet guns.
 Italy—Mannlicher Carcan rifle and Vetterli guns.
 Russia—"3 line" rifle and Q. F. Shielded gun.
 Servia—Mauser and Schneider Canet.
 Turkey—Mauser, Krupp and Schneider.

Percentage of Illiteracy in European Countries

Based on Inability to Write Their Own Language.

| | Per cent. |
|---------------------|-----------|
| Austria | 22.6 |
| Belgium | 12.7 |
| Bulgaria | 65.5 |
| France | 14.1 |
| Germany | 0.02 |
| Great Britain | 1.0 |
| Greece | 57.2 |
| Hungary | 40.9 |
| Italy | 48.2 |
| Russia | 70.9 |
| Servia | 78.9 |
| Spain | 58.7 |

Religious Belief and Predominance

- Austria-Hungary—Religious liberty and independence of Church from State. Seventy-five per cent. Greek and Roman Catholic.
 Belgium—Religious liberty; Roman Catholic majority.
 Bulgaria—Orthodox Greek Church.
 France—Religious freedom (no particular church recognized by state).
 Great Britain—Church of England.
 Germany—Religious freedom; Protestants, sixty-one per cent; Catholics, thirty-six per cent.
 Greece—Greek Orthodox.
 Italy—Roman Catholic, ninety-seven per cent.
 Russia—Graeco-Russian or Orthodox faith.
 Servia—Greek Orthodox.
 Turkey—Mohammedanism.

Approximate Effective Air-Crafts of the Powers

| | |
|-----------------------|-----|
| Austria-Hungary | 156 |
| France | 770 |
| Germany | 371 |
| Great Britain | 135 |
| Italy | 205 |
| Russia | 388 |

Great Wars' Cost in Men and Money

| Wars. | Duration in days. | Loss in life. | Cost in money. |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| England-France, 1793-1815 | 8,168 | 1,900,000 | \$6,250,000,000 |
| Crimean war, 1854-56 | 734 | 485,000 | 1,525,000,000 |
| United States civil war, 1861-65.... | 2,456 | 656,000 | 3,700,000,000 |
| Franco-German, 1870-71 | 405 | 280,000 | 1,580,000,000 |
| Russo-Turkish, 1877-78 | 334 | 180,000 | 950,000,000 |
| United States-Spanish war, 1898... | 101 | 2,910 | *165,000,000 |
| Boer war, 1899-1902 | 962 | 90,898 | 1,000,100,000 |
| Russo-Japanese war, 1904-5 | 576 | 555,900 | 2,259,000,000 |
| Balkan wars | 302 | 145,500 | 200,000,000 |

* United States only.

You See These Words Every Day in War Dispatches

MOBILIZATION—The act of assembling and in all respects preparing for active hostilities a body of troops or war vessels; the transfer of a military or naval force from a peace to a war footing.

PAN-SLAVIC—A common bond or union between persons speaking a Slavic language as his native tongue, meaning in this instance a union of Russians, Poles, Bohemians, Moravians, Bulgarians, Servians, Croatians and other smaller nations.

ENTENTE (pronounced an-tant, sounding the a in each syllable as in arm, with the accent on the second syllable)—A French word meaning "an understanding"; the English word "intent" is derived from it.

RESERVISTS—A French word meaning members of the reserve of an army organization; soldiers who, while remaining constantly subject to a call to colors, live at their homes, being summoned more or less frequently to report for instructions, drill or manoeuvres.

UKASE—In Russia, a published proclamation or imperial order having the force of law; hence, any official decree or publication.

MORATORIUM—A period of delay granted in an emergency; in law a period during which an obligor has a legal right to delay an obligation.

AREA AND POPULATION OF CONFLICTING POWERS OF EUROPE.

| Country. | Area in Square Miles. | Population. |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| Austria-Hungary | 241,491 | 49,882,331 |
| Belgium | 11,373 | 7,571,387 |
| Bulgaria | 43,305 | 4,752,997 |
| Denmark | 15,582 | 2,775,076 |
| France | 207,054 | 39,601,509 |
| Germany | 208,780 | 64,925,993 |
| Greece | 41,933 | 4,363,000 |
| Italy | 110,550 | 35,328,997 |
| Russia (European) | 1,862,524 | 122,550,700 |
| Servia | 33,891 | 4,547,992 |
| Portugal | 35,490 | 5,957,985 |
| Spain | 194,783 | 19,588,688 |
| Switzerland | 15,976 | 3,781,430 |
| Great Britain (European) | 121,633 | 45,370,530 |

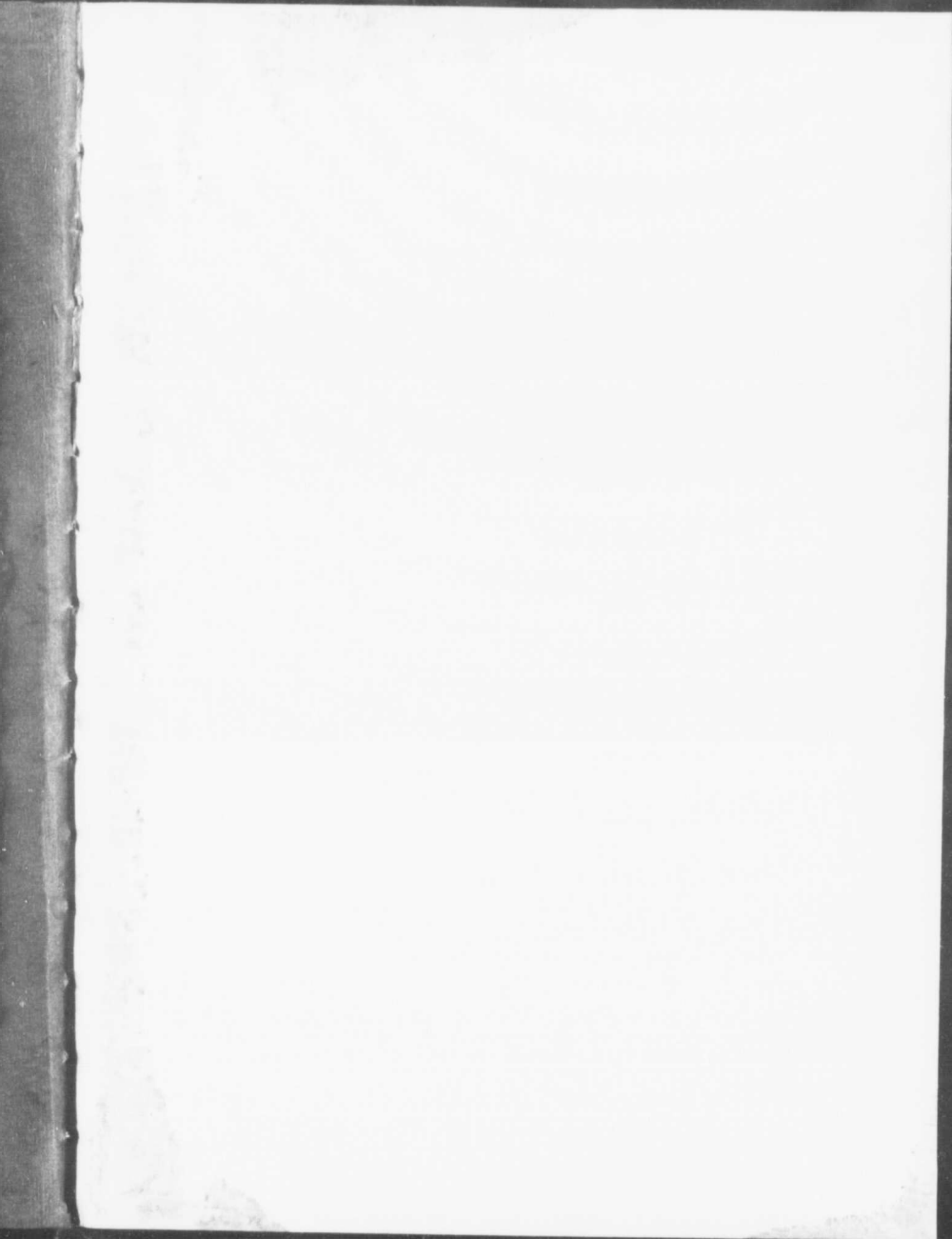
THE WORLD'S ARMIES.

System, Service, Numbers and Cost in Times of Peace.

| Country. | Military System. | Continuous Training in Camp. | Peace Estab-lishment of Active Army. | | Military Budget, 1913-1914. |
|-----------------|------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------|
| | | | Estimated War Strength. | | |
| Austria-Hungary | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 425,881 | 2,000,000 | \$110,966,020 |
| Belgium | Compulsory | 1 to 2 yrs. | 43,000 | 180,000 | 13,952,750 |
| Bulgaria | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 65,900 | 380,000 | 8,099,060 |
| Denmark | Compulsory | 165-240 dys. | 13,734 | 90,000 | 5,440,000 |
| France | Compulsory | 3 yrs. | 610,000 | 4,000,000 | 187,750,000 |
| Germany | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 672,000 | 5,200,000 | 300,000,000 |
| Greece | Compulsory | 2 yrs. | 29,000 | 120,000 | 4,306,190 |
| Italy | Compulsory | 2 yrs. | 305,300 | 1,200,000 | 84,127,705 |
| Japan | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 230,000 | 750,000 | 49,833,035 |
| Russia | Compulsory | 3-4½ yrs. | 1,500,000 | 5,500,000 | 336,000,105 |
| Servia | Compulsory | 1-1½ yrs. | 30,038 | 240,000 | 5,638,205 |
| Spain | Compulsory | 1 to 3 yrs. | 135,000 | 350,000 | 37,876,190 |
| Sweden | Compulsory | 150-281 dys. | 84,013 | 195,000 | 15,061,500 |
| Turkey | Compulsory | 3 to 4 yrs. | 220,000 | 360,000 | 40,000,000 |
| Gt. Britain | Voluntary | 7 yrs. | 413,446 | 730,000 | 141,100,000 |
| United States | Voluntary | 4 to 7 yrs. | 216,000 | 216,000 | 150,000,000 |

THE WORLD'S NAVIES.

| Class. | Great Britain | | France | | Russia | | Germany | | Austria-Hungary | | U.S. Japan | |
|--|---------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------------|--|------------|---|
| | Italy | Hung'y | | | | | | | | | | |
| Battleships— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 58 | 21 | 8 | 35 | 9 | 14 | 30 | 17 | | | | |
| Building | 14 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 6 | 2 | | | | |
| Coast Defense— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Vessels Armoured | | | | | | | | | | | 10 | |
| Battle Cruisers— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 9 | | | 4 | | | | | | | | 1 |
| Building | 1 | | 4 | 3 | | | | | | | | 3 |
| Cruisers Built | 47 | 24 | 12 | 9 | 9 | 2 | 17 | 15 | | | | |
| Light Cruisers— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 65 | 8 | 2 | 43 | 14 | 9 | 18 | 19 | | | | |
| Building | 20 | | 8 | 6 | 4 | 3 | | | | | | |
| Torpedo Vessels— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 25 | 3 | | | 3 | 11 | 2 | 3 | | | | |
| Building | 1 | | | | | | 2 | | | | | |
| Torpedo Boat Destroyers— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 201 | 80 | 95 | 132 | 30 | 15 | 52 | 51 | | | | |
| Building | 36 | 7 | 45 | 12 | 16 | 3 | 14 | 2 | | | | |
| Torpedo Boats— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 106 | 153 | 25 | 80 | 94 | 58 | 21 | 33 | | | | |
| Building | | | | | 1 | 27 | | | | | | |
| Submarines— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 69 | 50 | 25 | 24 | 18 | 6 | 29 | 13 | | | | |
| Building | 29 | 26 | 18 | ? | 2 | 5 | 21 | 2 | | | | |
| Total Number of Ships up to Jan. 1, 1914. | 681 | 382 | 249 | 354 | 205 | 155 | 222 | 161 | | | | |



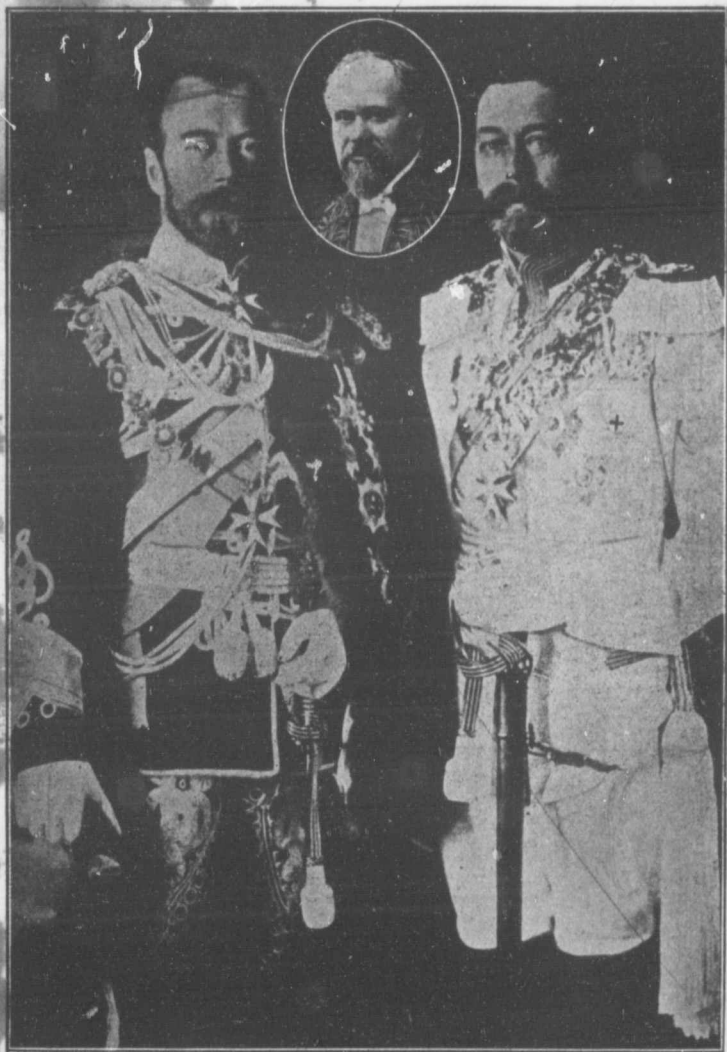
CAUSES AND ISSUES

The World's Greatest War

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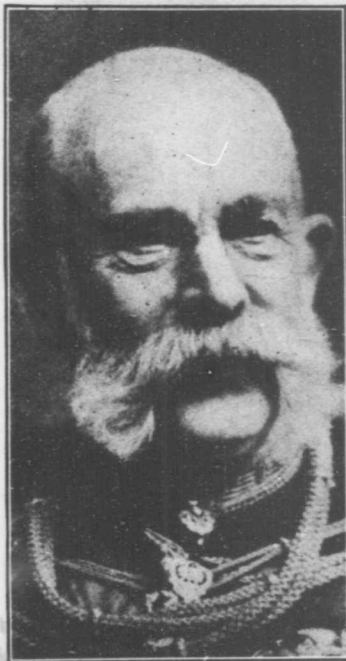
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Triple Entente

The Czar (left), George V. (right), President Poincaire (insert).

THE NOTE AND THE REPLY



Emperor Franz Josef of Austria.

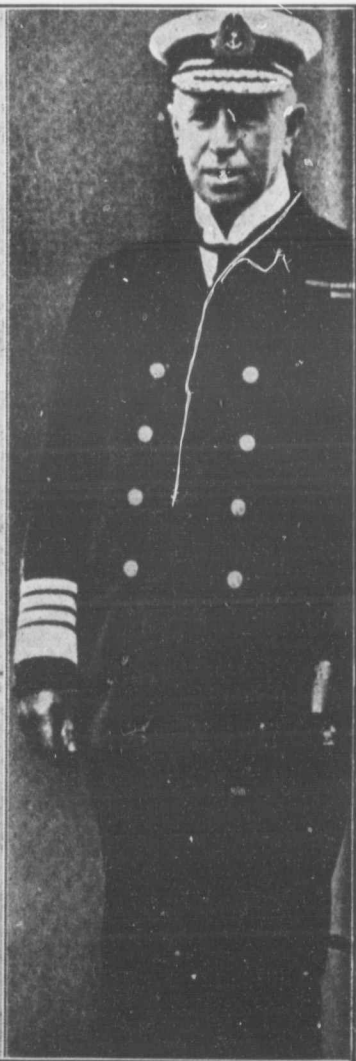
☞ Emperor Franz Josef of Austria to King Peter of Serbia—You must quell all Pan-Serbian demonstrations in your kingdom, suppress all Pan-Serbian publications and jail agitators who espouse their cause, and give the utmost assistance in your power to the Austrian army officers whom I shall send into your country to arrest, try and convict those of your subjects who were implicated in the assassination of the Archduke Ferdinand, heir to the thrones of Austria and Hungary.

King Peter of Serbia ☞ to Emperor Franz Josef of Austria—I promise to crush the Pan-Serbian movement in my kingdom, to jail agitators who preach revolt against your empire and to suppress the publications that abet them in their aims. To permit Austrian army officers, however, to enter my kingdom, jail, try and condemn my subjects, amenable to the laws of my kingdom and who owe no allegiance to Austria, would be an insult to the national honor of Serbia to which I, as ruler, would never submit.

And so war was declared.



King Peter of Serbia.



The Men who Hold Britain's Destiny on the Sea

L. Sir John Jellicoe (upper left), in command of all the Fleets; Sir Geo. Callaghan (right), commanding the North Sea Fleet; Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty (in front).

Reasons for the War

Austria's Reason :

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY is a Catholic nation, ruled by the Germans and Hungarians, but the country has millions of people of other races, Servians and cousins of Servians. When Austria assumed the protectorate of Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1878, Serbia was extremely disappointed. She had looked longingly at these two provinces in the hopes of annexing them. When in 1908 Bosnia and Herzegovina were added to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Serbia became exceedingly bitter, and since that time has lost no opportunity to harass the dual monarchy on every occasion in her power. Secret emissaries were sent into Bosnia and Herzegovina to stir strife and dissension, and for years the Servians have done all they could to create internal revolution.

On June 28, 1914, Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and his wife, visited Sarajevo. While they were being driven to the town hall, a Servian student threw a bomb at the royal carriage, which, however, Francis Ferdinand warded off with his arm. It fell on the carriage of an aide, who was seriously wounded. The procession proceeded to the town hall, where Francis Ferdinand addressed the populace. He then returned to determine the extent of injuries of his aide, and while doing so both he and the Princess were assassinated by a Servian youth, Gavrilo Prinzip.

Austria began an investigation of this outrage, and its trail led to the very doors of the royal family of Servia. Servian ministers were found to be implicated in the plot—in fact, the son of King Peter himself had lent aid in the conspiracy. Austria immediately delivered an ultimatum to Servia, demanding that the offenders be brought to justice. (A copy of this ultimatum, together with Servia's reply, will be found elsewhere in this book.) The reply of Servia was equivocal, and Austria felt that any investigation which Servia might make would be one in name only, since Austria would not be permitted to have any hand in the investigation. Thereupon Austria declared war upon Servia, and from this petty strife has grown the terrible conflict between the European powers.

Servia's Reason :

Servia is a Greek-Catholic nation, and in its neighboring country, Austria-Hungary, there are millions of its co-religious and racial brethren. Servia has long awaited the day when the Austrian Empire would be dissolved by internal dissension. It is ambitious of establishing an empire in South-eastern Europe, and hopes to annex a large portion of what is now Austria-Hungary, thus attaining the ancient greatness and glory of their race. Servia resented Austria's demands as unbecoming her independence and standing, and it is barely possible that King Peter was, in this instance, a father rather than an exponent of justice.

Russia's Reason :

Russia has deemed itself the protector of all Greek-Catholic races. The bond of brotherhood has given silent sanction to the intrigues in the Balkan States against Austria-Hungary. Russia would be secretly pleased at the dissolution of the Austrian Empire and the consequent rise of a new power, the Servian-Balkan Empire, in South-eastern Europe, adjoining Russia. The western half of Europe, from the frozen Arctic to the Mediterranean Sea, would then be held by cousins in race, brothers in religion, and brothers in semi-civilization—the Russians and Servians—both ambitious of eventually conquering the balance of Europe and even the world. Upon the declaration of war by Austria against Servia, mighty Russia stepped in to protect her ally against Austria and immediately ordered the mobilization of her army.

Germany's Reason :

Germany is the ally of Austria-Hungary by the Triple Alliance. Its hatred against Russia has been of long standing, and its diplomats have noted Russia's ambition to advance its own interests through Austria-Hungary. Its hatred of France, too, is deep and of long standing. Accordingly, when war was imminent between Austria-Hungary and Russia, Germany's sympathies were with the former.

Czar Nicholas communicated with Kaiser Wilhelm, asking him to use his good offices to establish peace between himself and Austria. While messages were being interchanged between Russia and Germany, the startling news reached the Kaiser's ears that Nicholas was mobilizing his vast army of 5,500,000 troops. The German ambassador waited upon the Russian Minister of War, demanding the cessation of mobilization. This request was refused. Three times the German ambassador

repeated his request and three times received a positive refusal. Thereupon diplomatic connections were severed and Russia and Germany were at war.

Germany served a similar ultimatum on France, which France likewise refused, and before the expiration of the ultimatum, Germany had already begun her invasion of the French Republic.

In this conflict Germany is easily the strongest single nation; the spirit of militarism has been alive for years, and it has been in active preparation for just such a crisis as this. Its army is the best trained in the world, and might be victorious were it not for the overwhelming odds against it.

France's Reason :

France is a member of the Triple Entente between Russia, England and itself, as opposed to the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy. In this war she became the natural ally of Russia, but preferred to remain on the defensive rather than the aggressive. Upon delivery of the ultimatum by Germany, she could not do otherwise than refuse. Her ancient hatred of Germany, dating back to the Franco-Prussian war, was probably another reason for this decision.

England's Reason :

England finds herself involved in European warfare through her participation in the Triple Entente. This was construed by English statesmen to be a defensive rather than offensive alliance, and England's participation in the conflict was doubtful.

Germany's first steps against France consisted of an invasion of Belgium, hoping thereby to gain access to an unprotected part of the French Republic. Belgium protested on the grounds that she was a neutral nation. Germany declared that due indemnity would be paid at the end of the war. This was not satisfactory to Belgium, and she accordingly appealed to England to preserve her neutrality, which France had already agreed to respect. England thereupon demanded that Germany cease immediately its operations on Belgian soil. England had previously advised the concentration of the French fleet in the Mediterranean, which left the northern coast of France with little protection. It therefore ordered the German navy not to direct an attack upon the north French coast. Germany acceded to the latter request, provided England would remain neutral, but would give no satisfactory reply concerning Belgium. Thereupon England declared war against Germany and ordered her fleet to give battle to the German fleet concentrated in the North Sea, while at the same time she mobilized her army.

The British position is also based upon reasons other than these. Great Britain is the guarantor of Belgian neutrality. The defence of it has been the governing policy of British statecraft since Waterloo. Bismarck was made to respect it in 1870, and it was out of the question that Great Britain would permit, unprotected, a violation at this crisis.

Great Britain hesitated long before taking action, and that world-known diplomat, Sir Edward Grey, made every effort to keep peace.

Great Britain has always been acknowledged the ruler of the seas. This strong position is an absolute necessity to her existence and to the life of her colonies, and it is in the interest of world-wide peace that she maintained her supremacy on the seas.

She has eyed with apprehension and disgust the warlike preparations that Germany has been making for years.

The Honorable Winston Churchill, Britain's War Lord, proposed to the German Government a suspension of the warship building for a specified time, but Germany would not accede to it.

Belgium's Reason:

Tiny Belgium was aroused to combat upon the invasion of her soil by Germany. She loudly proclaimed her neutrality and demanded that it be respected. Germany, while offering compensation, would not consider this, and the Kaiser accordingly declared himself at war with Belgium. While tiny Belgium would be a ridiculous opponent of mighty Germany, the aid which Belgium can give to the army of France is by no means to be sneered at. Her available military force is estimated at 180,000 men, together with a large reserve. It should prove no mean addition to the military power of France.

Japan's Reason:

Japan has prepared her navy for war and thrown her influence of power to the defence of her staunch ally, Great Britain. Japan has already proved her allegiance to England by sending an ultimatum to Germany to withdraw from Kiauchiau and other fortified German possessions in the far East. Germany having refused to concede to this, Japan is backing up her demand by an armed attack on these forts.

Kiauchiau is an important strategical point in the Pacific Ocean, occupying a corresponding position to that of Gibraltar in the Mediterranean.

Century of Austrian History

Francis Joseph I, Emperor

ON May 30, 1814, the Treaty of Paris was signed between the allies and Louis XVIII of France. By this treaty Austria acquired Lombardy and Venetia. From September, 1814, to June, 1815, met the Congress of Vienna, one of the most important diplomatic gatherings in history. Here Austria consolidated her power in Southern and Central Europe by recovering her Polish possessions and a portion of Northern Italy; also provinces along the eastern coast of the Adriatic. She extended westward into Tyrol, planting herself firmly upon the Alps. Thus, after twenty years of continuous war, she emerged from the situation with a new strength, greater population and many important possessions. Austria's policy in this transaction was to establish its empire without any direct contact with France. At the same time, while Prussia became more straggling, Austria was achieving a compact empire. She was admirably situated for an important role in the policies of Europe.

Internally, however, Austria lacked unity—politically, racially or socially. It was composed of many nations. There were the Austrian Duchies, chiefly German; Bohemia, a kingdom acquired in 1526; Hungary, inhabited by the Magyars; while to the south was a province purely Italian. Even these four divisions were not unities, each having several nations and parties, which rendered government confused and unequal.

To rule so conglomerate a realm was a very difficult task. Francis I had the aid of Metternich, a statesman of great ability. Metternich's policy was against innovations. He was afraid of any new movement which might end beyond his control, consequently during this reign and that which followed Austrian progress was at a standstill. Gradually Metternich's influence spread over Prussia, and the Karlsbad conference gave Austria the leadership over this domain. As a result of the Congress of Vienna, Italy also was, for nearly fifty years, a dependent upon Austria. All of these causes gave the Austrian monarchy a commanding position after Napoleon.

In 1821 Austria was commissioned to send an army into the Kingdom of Naples, and Ferdinand I of Naples was established absolute monarch where constitutional government had formerly prevailed.



Emperor Francis Joseph and the murdered Archduke Francis Ferdinand.

In the same year a revolution against Austria broke out in Piedmont, which was easily routed, and Charles Felix made absolute king.

In 1831 a revolution against government by priests broke out in the Central States of Italy. Austrian troops were sent southward, and the Pope recovered his provinces.

In 1832 an insurrection in Italy again broke out, and Austria once more crossed the frontiers at the request of the Pope. This time France intervened, as she claimed the balance of power in Europe might be upset by the predominance of Austria in Italy. The two powers jealously watched each other in Italy until 1838, when both Austria and France retired, and absolutism was restored in the papal states.

From the years 1815 to 1848 there gradually developed a spirit of nationality among the varied several peoples of the Austrian Empire. This spirit was particularly pronounced in Bohemia and Hungary. Both of these races chafed under the predominance and the favors heaped upon the Germans, which created a public opinion that was hard to quell. Both races sought repeatedly to establish independent states, but were not sufficiently strong to do so. From this situation in Hungary arose Louis Kossuth, under whose leadership Hungary demanded some sweeping reforms and greater independence.

In 1831 the society of "Young Italy" was formed with the express intention of driving out Austria. This movement was later joined by Garibaldi. This movement gained further weight by the election of a new Pope, Pius IX. Pius IX was liberal and protested against Austria's occupation of Ferrara, to the alarm of Metternich. Austria seemed to be in the throes of dismemberment, and Italy took this supreme moment to strike. The year 1848 was one of revolution, which spread rapidly to the various countries.

Vienna was the storm centre, and here the empire began one of the most confused chapters in European history. Hungary arose under the leadership of Kossuth, and ten days later a riot broke out in Vienna itself, organized by students and workmen. People and soldiers fought hand in hand. "Down with Metternich!" was the cry. Metternich fled in disguise from Austria to England, to see his whole system crash completely before the spirit of the times.

Hungary seized this opportunity to establish for itself laws and reforms which made it practically an independent nation, the only connection being that one monarch ruled over Austria and Hungary. In its dire necessity Austria consented. The example of Hungary was speedily followed by Bohemia, and their demands for a more liberal form of government were conceded. A revolt now arose in the Austrian provinces for a constitution and greater local self-government, which, owing to the helplessness of the government, was also granted.

In Italy arose the most important revolt. The other provinces had merely demanded greater freedom; Italy was bent upon expelling the foreigners from its shores. Milan arose and expelled the Austrian troops, which were unprepared. Venice threw off the Austrian allegiance and declared itself a republic at once. Piedmont joined these states. The Austrian army was sent into Italy and was repulsed. Austria recovered Lombardy and by the summer of 1848 was again in power.

Hungary, while obtaining liberal laws for itself, was arrogant in its rule over the Serbs and Croats in their domains. These demanded of the Hungarian Parliament much the same privileges which the Hungarians had gained for themselves from Austria. To this the Hungarians would not consent. The Croats rose against the Hungarians. Austria seized this psychological moment and created a civil war between the Croats and Serbs against the Hungarians. Emperor Ferdinand was finally forced to abdicate and was succeeded in December, 1848, by his nephew, Francis Joseph I, a lad of eighteen, who is still Emperor of Austria during the present crisis.

Hungary declared Francis Joseph an usurper and refused to recognize him. In 1849 a war occurred between Austria and Hungary. At the beginning the Hungarian armies were unsuccessful, but later gained several victories and drove back the Austrians, declaring their independence on April 14, 1849. Francis Joseph made an appeal for aid to the Czar of Russia, who sent 200,000 troops into Hungary from the east and north, the Austrians advancing from the west, overwhelming the Hungarian army, which fought brilliantly but hopelessly, and Hungary was again conquered. Italy had also been re-conquered by the revised military power of Austria.

In 1852 the efforts of Prussia to establish itself at the head of the Germanic kingdoms, to the exclusion of Austria, nearly precipitated a war between these two countries. In the Congress of Dresden, Austria proposed the inclusion of Hungary and Lombardo-Venetia in the Germanic Confederacy, but this proposal was not accepted.

In 1853 Russia, demanding a protectorate of the Greek Christians in Turkey, sent her troops into Moldavia and Wallachia. Austria, France and England condemned these proceedings in an endeavor to bring about peace. Austria, in 1854, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Prussia. In the same year Austria, by agreement with Turkey, occupied the Danubian principalities. This eventually brought about the Treaty of Peace of 1856. In 1857 the troops were recalled from the Danubian principalities.

In 1859 Austria became involved in a war with France and Sardinia, owing to her Italian policy. As a result of this war Austria gave up Lombardo-Venetia to Napoleon III. Italy was to be formed into a con-

federation under the presidency of the Pope, and Tuscany and Modena were to be restored to their respective princes.

In 1864 Prussia and Austria invaded Schleswig in an endeavor to wrest it from the Danish. They met with slight resistance, and the provinces of Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg were made over to the two powers.

The division of the spoils caused a war with Prussia. In 1866 Prussia entered into an alliance with Italy against Austria. Austria was defeated in the ensuing year, and by the Treaty of Prague, Austria gave up Venetia and four provinces to Italy and recognized the new formation of Germany, in which she was to have no part. She also ceded to Germany, Holstein and Schleswig and paid a war indemnity of twenty million dollars.

The suspension of the concordat with Rome in 1870 was a very beneficial change and served to bring some measure of friendship between Austria and the Kingdom of Italy.

In 1870 the Triple Alliance was entered into between Germany and Austria, the two powers to combine to resist an attack by Russia, but to remain neutral in complications with any other power. This alliance was joined in 1882 by Italy, and is still in force.

In 1878 Austria was invited to occupy and assume a protectorate over Bosnia and Herzegovina, in the interests of the peace of Europe. In 1908 she annexed these two principalities, to the great dismay of Servia. This created a smoldering volcano of hatred against Austria which resulted in the murder of two Servian monarchs because of their leaning towards Austrian rule, and the eventual assassination of Francis Ferdinand of Austria, which precipitated the present war.

Russia, owing to her war with Japan, was not in position to play her usual role of protector to the Balkan Slavs in 1908.

Universal suffrage was granted to Austria in 1907, all men over twenty-four being given the right to vote.

In 1912 it was seen that a great European war was inevitable. Austria feared Servian ambition, and mobilized her army. Russia did the same in aid of Servia. Germany declared herself with Austria. War was then averted by a thread.

The assassination of Francis Ferdinand and his wife and the investigation which followed, together with the Servian defiance, caused Austria to declare war upon Servia in 1914. Russia interfered, and Germany came to Austria's aid. When the war in Servia had been in progress for several weeks, Austria proclaimed war on Russia on August 6th, 1914.

The Triple Alliance is being respected by Germany and Austria, who united when the Czar threatened Austria in 1914. Italy chooses to play a neutral role at the present time. She may live up to the terms of the Triple Alliance, although it is just as probable that she will choose to disregard it. Italy's part in the Triple Alliance is secondary and her friendship for Austria is subject to doubt.

This is the standing of Austria and her allies in the European war of 1914.

Century of Servian History

Peter I, King

FOR upwards of four centuries the Serbs groaned under the Turkish yoke, until, in 1804, unable to endure the oppression of the Turkish dahis, they broke out into rebellion under George Petrovich, surnamed Tsrni, or "Black George." George was born at Topola in 1767; at first he merely aimed at conquering the dahis, but afterward attempted to drive the Turks out of Servia. This he succeeded in doing after many failures. In 1813, however, they re-conquered the country, and George with his adherents was compelled to fly to Austria. He returned in 1817, but was treacherously murdered by order of Milosh Obrenovich, who had now become the Servian leader. We have no space here to sketch the struggles of Milosh to secure the independence of Servia. He was himself of peasant origin and in his youth had been a swineherd. The Turks had contrived to kill or drive out of the country all the Servian aristocracy, leaving only peasants to till the ground, feed swine (one of the great industries of the country) and pay the harach. Milosh was declared Prince by the National Assembly, and in 1830 secured the consent of the Porte to his enjoyment of the title, with succession reserved to his family. Turkey allowed Servia a quasi-independence, but held and garrisoned several fortresses. Milosh had so little forgotten his Turkish training that he had made himself obnoxious to his subjects by his despotic acts. He was a man of simple, even coarse habits, as many of the anecdotes told of him testify. He was compelled to abdicate in 1839 in favor of his son Milan, who, however, was of too feeble a constitution to direct the government, and, dying soon afterwards, was succeeded by his young brother Michael. He also abdicated in 1842, and the Serbs then elected Alexander, the son of Tsrni George. His rule lasted seventeen years. He was compelled to resign in 1859, and Milosh, now very old, was invited to come from Bucharest. He lived, however, only one year, dying in 1860, and left the throne to his son Michael, then aged forty, who was thus a second time elected Prince of Servia. Michael was a man of refinement, and had learned much during his exile. The condition of the country improved during his reign, and in 1862 he succeeded in getting the Turkish garrisons removed from Belgrade. The Moslem inhabitants have gradually withdrawn from the country, so that they are now represented by a few families. While walking in his park, called

Koshutniak, or Topshidere, near Belgrade, Michael was assassinated by the emissaries of Alexander on June 19, 1868. He was succeeded by his second cousin, Milan. Milan was born in 1854. He became Prince of Serbia in 1872. In 1875 he married a Russian lady, Natalie de Keczo. In 1878 the Serbs declared war against Turkey, but their arms were unsuccessful, and they were only saved by the intervention of Russia. By the treaty of Berlin, July, 1878, the country received a large accession of territory, and the Prince caused himself to be proclaimed King. Peace continued until the year 1885, and during this period the Serbs seemed to make considerable progress as a nation, in spite of the bitterness of political faction. In 1885, however, Serbia made an ill-judged and selfish attack upon Bulgaria, which was ignominiously beaten off. In seven years the national debt was increased from 7,000,000 francs to 312,000,000 francs.

King Milan was forced to abdicate in 1889. He was succeeded by his twelve-year-old son, Alexander I. In 1903 Alexander and his wife, Queen Draga, were brutally murdered in a midnight attack on the palace because of their supposed leaning toward Austria.

Peter I, the present King, was his successor. He is of the house of "Black George."

In October, 1912, Serbia, in conjunction with Bulgaria, Montenegro and Greece, demanded independence for Turkey's European provinces. The Powers tried to intervene in the interest of peace, but were unsuccessful. The Balkan war broke out on October 17, 1912, and the allied Balkan States were uniformly successful.

As a result of this war Serbia gained some 15,000 square miles of territory.

Servia now ambitiously proclaimed her intention of extending the Servian Empire to the Adriatic. This increased Austria's irritation, and as early as 1912 Austria took steps toward the mobilization of her army. Russia, by way of reply, strengthened her forces in aid of Servia. Germany declared her intention of supporting Austria in the conflict. In this way the Balkan war really paved the way for the European war of to-day, and a similar situation was imminent in 1912.

The assassination of Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, by a Servian and the just refusal of Servia to permit Austria the right of participation in the trial of the conspirators, brought about the present conflict.

Century of Russian History

Nicholas II, Czar

IN the Congress of Vienna, Russia was the most powerful nation. Alexander I, emperor of Russia, demanded that the Grand Duchy of Warsaw be given to him. It was his desire to unite it with the part of Poland that had fallen to Russia, thus restoring the old Polish kingdom.

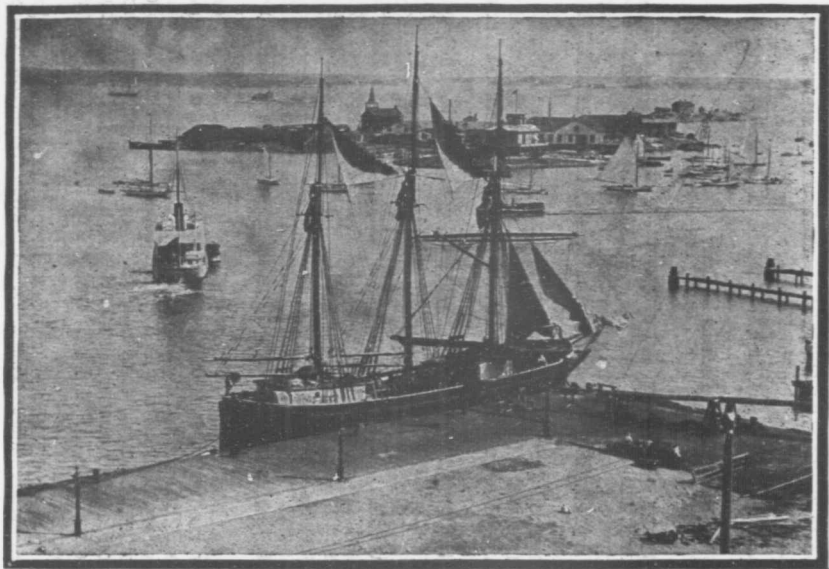
Russia emerged from the Congress with a goodly number of additions. She retained Finland, conquered from Sweden during the late war, and Bessarabia, snatched from the Turks; also Turkish territory in the southeast.

This, with the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, gave Russia much prestige in the affairs of Europe.

In 1814 Poland was re-established in a mutilated form, with a constitution which Alexander, who was crowned king, swore to observe. In 1825 the Emperor died suddenly at Taganrog, at the mouth of the Don, while visiting the Southern provinces of his Empire. He had added to the Russian dominions Finland, Poland, Bessarabia, and that part of the Causasus which includes Daghestan, Shirvan, Mingrelia, and Imeretia. Much was done in this reign to improve the condition of the serfs.

The heir to the throne was Constantine, but he had of his own free will secretly renounced his claim in 1822, having espoused a Roman Catholic, the Polish Princess Julia Grudinska. In consequence of this change the conspiracy of the Dekabrists broke out at the end of the year, their object being to take advantage of the confusion caused by the alteration of the succession to get constitutional government in Russia. Their efforts failed, but the rebellion was not put down without great bloodshed.

The new Emperor, Nicholas, the next in succession, showed throughout his reign, reactionary tendencies; all liberalism was sternly repressed. From 1826 to 1828, Nicholas was engaged in a war with Persia, in which the Russians were completely victorious. The war was terminated by the peace of Turkmantchai (February 22, 1828), by which Persia ceded to Russia the provinces of Erivan and Nakhitchevan, and paid twenty millions of roubles as an indemnity.



Sveaborg

"The Gibraltar of the Baltic." The railroad runs from here to St. Petersburg.

The next foreign enemy was Turkey. Nicholas had sympathized with the Greeks in their struggle for independence, in opposition to the policy of Alexander; he had also a part to play as protector of the Orthodox Christians, who formed a large number of the Sultan's subjects. In consequence of the sanguinary war which the Turks were carrying on against the Greeks and the utter collapse of the latter, England, France and Russia signed the treaty of London in 1827, by which they forced themselves upon the belligerents as mediators. From this union, resulted the battle of Navarino (October 20, 1827), in which the Turkish fleet was annihilated by that of the allies. Nicholas now pursued the war with Turkey on his own account; in Asia, Paskewitch defeated two Turkish armies, and conquered Erzeroum, and in Europe, Diebitsch defeated the grand vizier. The Russians crossed the Balkans and advanced to Adrianople, where a treaty was signed in 1829 very disadvantageous to Turkey.

In 1831 broke out the Polish insurrection. Paskewitch took Warsaw in 1831. Poland was now entirely at the mercy of Nicholas. The constitution which had been granted by Alexander was annulled.

By another treaty with Turkey, Russia acquired additional rights to meddle with the internal politics of that country. Soon after the revolution of 1848, the Emperor Nicholas, who became even more reactionary, in consequence of the disturbed state of Europe, answered the appeal of the Emperor Francis Joseph, and sent an army to suppress the Hungarian revolt.

In 1853 broke out the Crimean war. The Emperor was anxious to distribute the possessions of the "sick man," but found enemies instead of allies in England and France.

In 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died. He was succeeded by his son Alexander II (1855-1881), at the age of thirty-seven. One of the first objects of the new Czar was to put an end to the war, and the treaty of Paris was signed in 1856, by which Russia consented to keep no vessels of war in the Black Sea, and to give up her protectorate of the Eastern Christians. A portion of Bessarabia was also cut off and added to the Danubian principalities, which were shortly to be united under the name of Roumania. This was afterwards given back to Russia by the treaty of Berlin.

The next important measure was the emancipation of the serfs in 1861. The Polish insurrection occurred in 1863, with fatal effects upon that part of Poland which had been incorporated with Russia. On the other hand Finland has seen her privileges confirmed.

Among the important foreign events of this reign must be mentioned the capture of Schamyl in 1859 by Prince Bariatinski, and the pacification of the Caucasus; many of the Circassians, unable to endure the

peaceful life of cultivators of the soil under the new regime, migrated to Turkey, where they have formed one of the most turbulent elements of the population. Turkestan also has been gradually subjugated. In 1865 the city of Tashkend was taken, and in 1867 Alexander II created the government of Turkestan.

In 1858, General Muravieff signed a treaty with the Chinese, by which Russia acquired all the left bank of the river Amur. A new port has been created in Eastern Asia (Vladivostok), which promises to be a great centre of trade.

In 1877, Russia came to the assistance of the Slavonic Christians against the Turks. After the terrible siege of Plevna, nothing stood between them and the gates of Constantinople. In 1878 the treaty of San Stefano was signed, by which Roumania became independent, Servia



The famous Siberian Rifle Corps of the Russian Army

was enlarged, and a free Bulgaria, but under Turkish suzerainty, was created. But these arrangements were subsequently modified by the treaty of Berlin. Russia got back the portion of Bessarabia which she had lost, and advanced her Caucasian frontier.

The latter part of the reign of Alexander II was a period of great internal commotion, on account of the spread of Nihilism. Five attempts were made on the Emperor's life and a conspiracy in 1881 (March 13) was successful.

He died, leaving Russia exhausted by foreign wars and honeycombed by plots. He was succeeded by his second son, Alexander, born in 1845, whose reign has been characterized by conspiracies and constant deportations of suspected persons. It was long before he ventured to be crowned in his ancient capital of Moscow (1883), and the chief event of his day was the disturbed relations with England, which for a time threatened war.

In 1894, Nicholas II, the present Czar of Russia, succeeded to the throne. His government was more oppressive, rather than less. In 1899, he abrogated the constitution of Finland, which was thereafter ruled entirely by Russia. The Finns were greatly indignant, but with their small might of three millions they were powerless against Russia's mighty horde.

In the meantime, the advance of Russia into Eastern Asia alarmed Japan, which felt that the advance of Russian power in this direction was a menace to itself. Japan had successfully fought China and had retained some very valuable possessions as a result.

Russia induced France and Germany to join in forcing Japan to give up important rewards of her Chinese victories. Russia had practically seized Manchuria, and while promising eventual evacuation, her actions seemed to belie her promises.

Japan demanded the date on which Russia would withdraw from Manchuria. To this Russia gave an equivocal promise, but would give no definite reply. Japan finally broke off negotiations and the Russo-Japanese war was inaugurated.

This war lasted from February, 1904, to September, 1905. It was fought on land and sea. Japan was the victor in all engagements.

President Roosevelt offered his good offices as mediator in 1905, and invited both powers to send delegates to Portsmouth, N.H. This resulted in the treaty of Portsmouth. By this treaty, Russia recognized Japan's paramount interest in Korea, which country, however, was to remain independent. Both Russia and Japan were to evacuate Manchuria. Russia transferred to Japan Port Arthur and the Liaotung peninsula and ceded the southern half of the island of Saghalin.

Von Plehve had been Minister of the Interior since 1902. His was an iron rule, and he was hated and feared by all alike. He was killed by a bomb in 1904. After his death, Nicholas II adopted a more liberal policy, which eventually, in 1906, resulted in the formation of the Duma, a legislative body.

Russia has ever been a land of revolt and bloodshed. Strikes, assassination, massacres and outbreaks have been so frequent and numerous, especially from 1900 to 1910, that space will not permit their recountal.

After the Balkan-Turkish war, in 1912, Russia strengthened her army for the conflict which she knew was imminent with Austria. A situation in every way similar to the present one was narrowly averted. Two years later, in 1914, the storm broke and the great European war was on.

Military experts declare that Russia's participation in the Russo-Japanese war will stand her in good stead in the present crisis. She is, perhaps, the only one of the European nations which has engaged in a modern war.

Century of German History

William II, Emperor

THE Congress of Vienna, restored with several changes the boundaries of the German states. Prussia received more than half of Saxony, the Rhine province, with its old possessions in Westphalia, Posen and other small acquisitions, but lost its Slavonic population in the East. It was now a strictly German state.

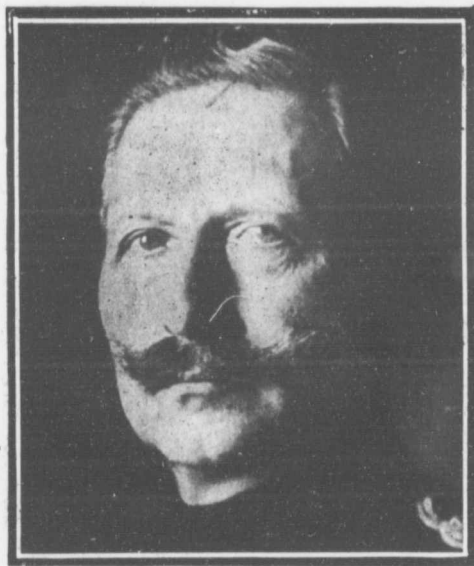
The condition of the masses was improved, but they were beginning to aspire to something higher than submission to kingly decrees. The Prussian government refused to fulfil its pledges until compelled by the revolution of 1848. The French revolution of 1830 found echo in the Rhine provinces. In 1832, 30,000 men gathered at Hambach in the Palatine to consider means for the emancipation of Germany, but the Bavarian troops put an end to the demonstration. Disturbances in Frankfurt, Brunswick, Cassel and Saxony were quickly put down.

Frederick William III was succeeded in 1840 by his son, Frederick William IV. This sovereign had a sincere desire for progress, but the revolutionary party in Prussia was not satisfied with the concessions made by him, and the political agitation increased. In self-defence, he turned back to his kingly prerogative, and the result was an alienation from him of the affection of his people. The French revolution of 1848 rolled into and over Germany, with a force before which the thrones were powerless. In an endeavor to avert the ruin of their states, the various rulers made large concessions to the Liberal party, but without avail. Berlin and Vienna were captured by the populace, and it seemed as if the bloody scenes of 1803 in France were about to be repeated. Frederick William gave way to the demands of the Radical party, and in a proclamation pledged himself to maintain the freedom of the press and also to strive for a union of all Germany in a federal state. Disturbances were quelled in Berlin, and a constitution was given to the kingdom of Prussia. The National Parliament elected the Prussian king, Frederick William, Emperor of Germany, but he declined the imperial crown. In 1848 Schleswig and Holstein revolted, and with the assistance of Prussian troops expelled the Danes from the provinces and invaded Jutland. England and Russia threatened to interfere, and the war flagged. Prussia concluded a peace with Denmark, which the people of Holstein rejected and renewed the war.



Showing the Seat of War, Size of Armies and Navies and Location of Armies and Naval Forces at the Beginning of the War.

The prominent part taken by Austria in the Schleswig-Holstein matter added to the bitterness of feeling in Prussia against the former power. After the excitement caused by the outbreaks of 1848, the question of supremacy in Germanic affairs took definite form. Austrian troops invaded the principality to sustain its ruler. Prussian troops occupied Cassel, and war between the two principal powers of Germany



The Kaiser

The would-be Modern Conquerer

seemed imminent. An effort was made to enlist the Russian emperor on the side of Prussia, but the Czar not only refused to act, but made threatening declarations against the northern German power. In the negotiations, Austria was triumphant, but in the end she paid bitterly for her victory. As in Austria, the constitution of Prussia was regarded as a menace to the throne, and although it was not withdrawn, it was

so weakened and hampered as to be useless as a measure to reform. Encouraged by the example of Austria and Prussia, the smaller potentates withdrew their concessions to the people and the absolutism became the rule of government throughout Germany. The mind of Frederick William IV succumbed and in 1857, his brother, William I, assumed the government as regent, and, on the death of the king in 1861, he received the crown.

After William I came to the throne he began to prepare for the inevitable struggle with Austria. Dimly in the future was seen a unified Germany, whose destiny should be controlled by the leading German state. Prussia was determined to occupy this position, while Austria, although relegated to a second place by the conflict in Italy, aspired to her old-time leadership.

Fortunately for Prussia's ascendancy, William, in 1862, placed at the head of his ministry Count Otto Von Bismarck. With a firm belief in the great destiny of a united German people, he bent every energy of his powerful mind and iron will to the accomplishment of the task before him.

In 1863 the Schleswig-Holstein question became prominent by the death of Frederick VII of Denmark. The London Protocol provided that he should be succeeded by King Christian of Denmark. When the incorporation of Schleswig with Denmark was attempted in 1863, Prussia and Austria, having both signed the London Protocol, were in an embarrassed position. Prussia protested against the incorporation of Schleswig, and Bismarck declared that the first cannon-shot fired in the attempt to enforce it would destroy the obligation imposed on Prussia by the Protocol. At the same time, the English encouraged the Danes to resist. Prussia and Austria sent an army into the disputed country and drove out the Danes. In 1864 a peace was concluded, by which the King of Denmark ceded all his claims upon Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenberg to the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria.

Difficulties immediately sprang up between the two great German states over the duchies, which they were supposed to hold in trust. Early in 1866, the Austrian government called on all the states under its influence to prepare for war. Bismarck issued a circular letter to the German state setting out that to conserve German interest, a reorganization of the Confederation was necessary; that if Prussia's strength were broken, Germany would cease to be a power in Europe. He also called upon them to state specifically how far Prussia could rely on them for support if attacked by Austria.

With a hope of rescuing Venetia from Austrian domination, Italy concluded an alliance with Prussia. Bismarck declared Prussia's obligations at an end, and the Prussian troops drove the Austrians out of Holstein.

In the meantime, the opposition in the Prussian House of Deputies denounced the course of its own government, which continually violated the constitution, but Bismarck, relying on the loyalty of the people, went on with his preparations for war, proposing to strike down Austria with one blow. The war came at once. Oldenburg, Brunswick, Coburg-Gotha, Mecklenburg and other Northern principalities joined with Prussia, while Austria was allied with Hanover, Saxony, Hesse, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Darmstadt, and Baden. Hanover, Saxony and Hesse-Cassel were at once seized by Prussia. The Prussian forces entered



German Field Artillery

Bohemia and pressed rapidly forward. The Prussians were superior in numbers, and under the discipline and organization of Von Moltke had reached a high state of efficiency.

The two armies met at Koniggratz, July 3, 1866, and the day closed on the defeated and dispersed army of Austria, and Prussia occupied the proud position of the leader of Germany. Results of the most substantial kind were secured to Prussia by treaty. Hanover, Schleswig-Holstein, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau and Frankfort were annexed, uniting the hitherto geographically separated sections of Prussia.

The King, Bismarck and Von Moltke became objects almost of worship. Nor was the effect less in the direction of German unification. In conformity with a plan brought forward in 1867, all the states north of the Main were formed into a Confederation with Prussia at its head.

In this situation, nothing could more effectually silence internal discontent and forward the cause of unification than a victorious foreign war. The opportunity was soon presented. Louis Napoleon had looked for a long contest between Prussia and Austria, and was both surprised and alarmed by the Prussians' victory.

On the conclusion of the war, Napoleon demanded "Compensation for Sadowa" (Koniggratz) in the form of a cession to France of the territory on the west bank of the Rhine. This demand of Napoleon, made in 1867, threatened to precipitate a war between North Germany and France, but the danger was tided over.

During the next three years both powers were engaged in strengthening their army organizations and endeavoring to make alliances. On the German side, Moltke, in his cabinet, busied himself with the strategy and tactics of the coming war, while Bismarck peremptorily demanded and obtained the necessary legislation.

In 1870, the Spaniards, who had dethroned Queen Isabella in 1868, offered the crown of Spain to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a descendent of the house of which the King of Prussia was a member. Napoleon at once objected, announcing that France would never consent to such an extension of German power. Owing to the objection of France, Leopold declined the proffered crown. The French minister then demanded that the Prussian King record a pledge that he would never support the candidacy of a Hohenzollern Prince for the Spanish crown, and also that the king write a letter of apology to the French Emperor. Both propositions were received with a curt refusal.

As a direct result, the Franco-Prussian war was inaugurated.

In this great Franco-Prussian war, the German federation was entirely successful, being victorious in practically every engagement. A treaty of peace was negotiated at Frankfort on the 10th of May, 1871, by which France ceded to the victors the German part of Lorraine, including the fortress of Metz, and all of Alsace except Belfort. The French also agreed to pay to Germany a large war indemnity. A proposition to reconstitute the German Empire as a confederation by a union of all the states except Austria, with the King of Prussia as Emperor, was accepted generally throughout the nation. On the 3rd of December, 1870, Prince Leopold of Bavaria, in the name of the German governments, tendered the Imperial Crown to the Prussian monarch, and at Versailles, on the 18th of January, 1871, King William

of Prussia was proclaimed Emperor of Germany. The German army made a triumphal entry into Paris on the 1st of March, and retired after occupying the city thirty-six hours.

Peace being assured abroad, the Emperor set about consolidating the institutions of the new empire. They soon found that they had two antagonistic parties to deal with—the Ultramontane Catholics on one hand and the Socialists on the other—and for the next ten years the history of the empire is mainly concerned with the struggle between these two parties and the Imperial Government. Bismarck resolved to settle once for all the old quarrel between Pope and Emperor and to place the priest under the supremacy of the sovereign. William adopted entirely the views of his ministry. Soon afterward there was an open break between Germany and the Papacy.

In 1878, however, Prussia once more established friendly terms with the Pope.

In 1871, the Poles in the provinces of Posen and Eastern Prussia protested against being swallowed up in the German Empire, and demanded autonomy, but they were sternly silenced by Bismarck. Their race antipathy to the Germans was aggravated by the antagonism between the State and the Catholic Church. In 1885, the Prussian Parliament passed a law for the expulsion of all Poles who were not Prussian subjects.

The government of the conquered provinces of Alsace and Lorraine was a serious problem for the cabinet of Berlin. In 1874 the constitution of the empire was introduced in Alsace-Lorraine, and a deputy of the Emperor, surrounded by ministers and a parliament, ruled the country independently of the German administration.

The military organization of the empire was always a question of the first importance to William and his advisers. The leaders of the army pointed out that foreign powers were jealous and hostile, and that France in particular was only awaiting her opportunity for revenge. "If you wish for peace, be prepared for war," said Count Von Moltke. Emperors of Germany and Austria had several interviews, at which a plan of general policy was agreed upon. Germany was to assist Austria should she be attacked by Russia; and united opposition was to be made to the excesses of social democracy. Italy soon joined this alliance, which is in force at the present time.

In 1877, when Russia declared war against Turkey, Germany remained neutral in spite of the remonstrances of England. England and Austria joined in armed protest. The mediation of Germany was called for by Russia. With England the German Empire has always been on good terms, notwithstanding the fact that in 1872 William decided the San Juan question in favor of the United States and against Great Britain; and the same can be said of its relations with the United States.

In 1884 Bismarck turned his attention to colonial settlements. He encountered British diplomacy in this field and succeeded in obtaining recognition for German settlements on the Congo. As a further step in German colonization, a convention was concluded between Germany and the Transvaal republic. The German government now took its place among the colonial powers in West Africa.

The year of 1888 was a sad one for the imperial house of Germany. On the 9th of March, 1888, Frederick William I passed to his fathers.

The reign of Frederick III lasted only three months. He died on the 15th of June, 1888.

The eldest son of Frederick succeeded him, under the title of William II. His accession was contemplated with concern and apprehension throughout all Europe, because this young prince had shown, as yet, no indication of the liberal spirit of his father, but, on the other hand, had given proof of a strong leaning toward military rule. During the summer months of 1888 he visited the courts of Russia, Sweden, Denmark and Italy, and succeeded in confirming the friendly relations existing between them and Germany. During the year 1889 he still further strengthened the military and naval armament of Germany, and demonstrated his business and executive ability by settling dangerous strikes and discontent among the workmen.

Under William I, Bismarck had been the absolute head of the government. The young Emperor determined to change this system of things, and issued a cabinet order requiring all ministers, Bismarck included, to report to him direct. On the 18th of March, Bismarck tendered his resignation to the Emperor, alleging age and failing health as his reason. The resignation was accepted. In August, 1890, by virtue of a treaty with the English government, William took possession of the island of Heligoland, which has become an important station for the German navy. England obtained as compensation the consent of Germany to her protectorate of Zanzibar.

Germany played an important part, in connection with France and Russia, to curtail Japan's accessions acquired in the Chinese war. In 1897 Germany secured a ninety-nine year lease on the harbor of Kiauchau, thus establishing a sphere of German influence in China.

In 1911, Germany sent a warship to Morocco fearing the result of "French influence," but in reality to demand compensation in Morocco itself. In this affair France received the assistance of England.

True to early prophecies, William II, the present king, has fostered a spirit of militarism from the start. Ambitious for the future of Germany on land and sea, he has to-day the best trained and equipped army of the European powers. His navy is in the ascendancy, and it was this endeavor to wrest naval power from England that made the latter power more willing to enter into conflict than she would otherwise have been.

Century of French History

M. Raymond Poincare, President

NAPOLÉON had held together the French army by flattering the national vanity and by raising a bulwark between the masses and classes. When the Bourbons came back to power, after Napoleon's downfall, the peasants suspected them of wishing to restore the ancient power of the throne. The whole country was garrisoned by the armies of Russia, England and Germany. Paris was treated as a conquered capital. This vexed the national feeling, especially since Louis XVIII, the Bourbon king, showed himself the instrument and dependent of the conquering powers.

The Congress of Vienna dictated its terms of peace of France. They compelled France to pay a huge indemnity and surrender much valuable territory, while the frontier of France was to be garrisoned by a foreign general to be paid by France.

Just at this time the extravagant conduct of the Bourbon princes of Spain and Italy had raised revolution and resistance everywhere. The people of Spain and Naples declared against arbitrary government and were at once attacked for doing so by the Emperors of Russia, Austria and Prussia. At their bidding, Louis XVIII also declared war against Spain. In the spring of 1823 the French army entered Spain. No resistance was met with and the French army was thus mercilessly used to crush Spanish liberty. France had become entirely reactionary.

Louis XVIII died in 1824 and was succeeded by Charles X. The new monarch was bigoted, stupid and ignorant. He was regarded as a mere tool of the Jesuits, and his reign was one long struggle against the more liberal instincts of the country.

In 1827 England, France and Russia joined to put a stop to the quarrel between the Turks and Greeks, and their combined fleet won the battle of Navarino and ruined the maritime power of Turkey.



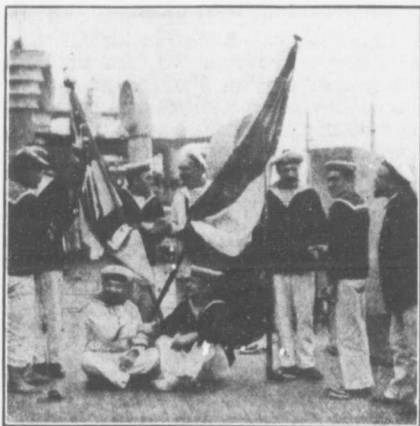
General Joffre

In 1828 the French occupied Morea and the independence of Greece was established.

In 1829 Charles dismissed the ministry and assumed a provisional dictatorship. Insurrection broke out and the "revolution of the three days of July" began. Charles X, finding that his army had deserted his cause, abdicated in favor of his young grandson, who was then ten years old.

Louis Philippe, the Duke of Orleans, became lieutenant-general of the realm. The charter was revised in a liberal direction and the crown

was offered to the Duke and his male heirs with the title of "King of the French." On the 9th of August, 1830, the new constitutional monarch, ruling not by divine right, but by the will of the sovereign people, "King of the French," not "King of France," took the oath faithfully to observe the amended charter.



French and English Sailors Fraternizing on a French Warship

In a subsequent uprising between Holland and Belgium, France and England combined to help the latter. A strong French army soon forced the Dutch to evacuate.

At home the country was still uneasy. There were troubles in all parts of France which were eventually put down and the instigators punished.

Differences arose between France and England over Egyptian policy and, in 1840, England formed a quadruple alliance with Austria, Russia and Prussia without communicating at all with France until after the treaty had been actually signed. France was greatly shocked to see her diplomacy thus rudely foiled.

The fortification of Paris was begun in 1841. From then until 1848 dissensions were highest owing to the distrust of the French for the administration of Guizot. Interference against the public banquet in Paris led to the outbreak of the second revolution in 1848.

The National Guards took the part of the populace against the troops, and the soldiers, unwilling to attack them, proved useless.

Guizot now yielded and sent in his resignation. Louis Philippe abdicated in favor of his grandson and fled to England.

France was weary of such rule and wanted a republic. The presidency of the government was given to Dupont de l'Ure. Though the revolution had been localized in Paris, all France was ready to accept the new republic. Soon, however, new dissensions arose. A decree ordering a portion of the workingmen to be enrolled in the army led to a terrible revolt in eastern Paris.

The instincts of the nation turned toward one who bore the charmed name of Bonaparte, and Louis Bonaparte was formally proclaimed the new President, and took office in December, 1848.

His first act was the overthrow of the Republic of Rome and the military restoration of Pius IX. This act showed the President hostile to all the liberal movements of Europe, but won for him the firm gratitude and allegiance of the Catholic clergy of France.

Before Louis Bonaparte had been in office a year, it was seen that he was preparing to move in the direction of absolute power. At last, in 1851, he executed his master stroke and swept away the whole existing fabric of the constitution. It was clearly a reminiscence of the form of government which France so thoroughly hated. Outbreaks in Paris were quickly put down with brutal severity which struck terror into the capital, and the remaining step was easy. Under the iron hand, he was accepted as hereditary Emperor of the French under the name of Napoleon III.

His reign as Emperor lasted from 1852 to 1870. It was modeled on the rule of the first Napoleon, and Louis Bonaparte never forgot that he was his uncle's nephew.

His government was frequently, almost incessantly, involved in wars. The sovereigns of Europe recognized the new French Government with cordiality. It seemed to indicate that republics were forever banished from European soil. Louis Bonaparte noticed the unfriendly attitude of Prussia toward his new Government, and in looking around for a wife he tried to wed a Hohenzollern princess, but met with a refusal.

In 1854 the schemes of Nicholas of Russia against Turkey alarmed all Europe. France and England sent an army to the Crimea and repeatedly repulsed the Russian forces.

In 1856 a treaty of peace was signed in Paris, but this did little for the real good of France. It created a coolness between her and England, annoyed Prussia, and did not satisfy Austria. The war had not been very brilliant and the losses had been heavy.

The Emperor was not desirous of war with England, but soon disclosed his schemes against Austria and showed that Italy would be the scene of warfare. His plans would have left France in the centre of the world, compact and powerful, among weak and divided neighbors

on every hand. This was Bonaparte's policy. United Germany and United Italy destroyed the plans and brought the Emperor to the ground.

The French entered Italy, the Emperor himself taking command. He was largely successful and peace was declared in 1859. The result satisfied no one. Austria was humiliated by it, Italy disappointed, while Germany and England deemed both the war and the peace as high-handed proceedings. France itself was far from satisfied.

France had also been engaged in distant expeditions. A Chinese war in alliance with England occupied her from 1858 to 1860. France and Spain had acted together in Cochin-China. The Syrian expedition, undertaken with the other Christian powers, reduced the sultan to reason and established a French occupation until June, 1861.

Mexican affairs caused the Emperor to intervene on behalf of Archduke Maximilian of Austria. This last affair caused great loss and discredit to Napoleon III.

Now broke out the Danish war which saw the beginning of the consolidation of Germany. France looked with troubled eyes at this growth of German strength across the Rhine.

His operations in Italy displeased both that country and the Pope, in whose interest it was undertaken. His efforts to purchase the Duchy of Luxemburg from Holland were defeated by the intervention of Prussia.

In 1868 the Spanish insurrection had dislodged Queen Isabella. She took refuge in France. In search of an eligible king for Spain, the crown was offered to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern without first consulting the court of France. Prince Leopold was advised by the king of Prussia to accept the offer. When Prince Leopold, learning of the objection of France, withdrew his candidacy, the French Government, instead of accepting the act, sowed the seed for further strife. The King of Prussia was ordered to give assurance that he would never support Prince Leopold in any future candidacy for the Spanish throne and to apologize to Napoleon.

Accordingly the Franco-Prussian war was declared in 1870. France had no allies. She knew little of the fitness of her army for a great war. It was ill-organized and ill-supplied. No one knew anything of strategy; maps and plans were bad. The Franco-Prussian war was highly disastrous to the French and in September, 1870, the Emperor, with an army of more than eighty thousand men, was a prisoner of war of the King of Prussia.

When the news of the defeat reached Paris the third republic was proclaimed. Gradually the Germans closed in on Paris and, in 1871, the determined resistance of that city was brought to an end. The war elsewhere died out almost immediately, and Germans occupied all of the forts around Paris. By the treaty of Frankfort, in 1871, Alsace and

a large part of Lorraine were ceded back to Germany while Belfort was restored to France. A huge money indemnity was to be paid to Germany for the cost of the war.

The death of Napoleon III in 1873 created little feeling in France and showed that imperialism was highly unpopular. Louis Thiers was the first President of the new republic. His measures were unpopular and he resigned in 1873, being succeeded by Marshal McMahon. He was a reactionary and highly unsatisfactory to the people of France. McMahon resigned in 1879 and was succeeded in the presidency by Jules Grevy.

This was followed by a period of constructive activity, which did great credit to France.

From 1881 to 1885 the Republic embarked upon an aggressive foreign policy. She established a protectorate over Tunis, sent an expedition to Tonkin and Madagascar, and founded the French Congo.

This caused a great national debt and there was considerable opposition. There arose a great deal of discontent within the Republic. Ministers came and went with great rapidity.

Eventually Grevy was forced to resign and was succeeded by Carnot. It was now believed that France was ready to elect another dictator. The Republic, however, successfully weathered the storm.

In 1891 an alliance was made with Russia which ended the long period of diplomatic isolation and served as a counter weight to the alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy. This alliance satisfied the French and increased their sense of safety.

In 1894 President Carnot was assassinated. He was succeeded by Casimir Perier, who resigned after six months.

Felix Faure was chosen to succeed Perier. Under Faure, the alliance with Russia was still further strengthened and proclaimed.

In 1899, upon the death of Faure, Emile Loubet succeeded to the presidency. It was during the presidencies of Faure and Loubet that the famous Dreyfus case created a scandal throughout the world.

One result of the Dreyfus agitation was the ultimate separation of church and state. In 1905 the measure was passed which finally separated the church from the state.

A further law in 1907 further abrogated many of the privileges guaranteed the Roman Catholic Church by the law of 1905.

In 1906 M. Fallieres was elected President, and he, in turn, was succeeded by M. Raymond Poincare, the present incumbent.

A slight friction with Germany arose in the Morocco question, in which France was upheld by England.

The position of France in the Triple Entente makes its participation in the present war necessary, while the old spirit and hatred of Franco-Prussian days no doubt contributes largely to popular French opinion in the matter.

Century of Belgian History

Albert I, King

AFTER the fall of Napoleon in 1814, Belgium was for some months ruled by the Austrians, after which it was united with Holland under Prince William Frederick of Nassau, who thereupon became King of the Netherlands. The union, however, was not a particularly fortunate or happy one.

It was brought about by the allied powers without regard to the wishes of the people, their main object being to form here a strong kingdom to serve as a check upon the ambitious designs of France. The character, habits, and language of the Belgians were against such an alliance. Holland seemed to consider Belgium a conquered country, even though the latter was the stronger of the two. Notwithstanding this friction, both countries enjoyed a period of prosperity. In such a union, religious difficulties were bound to arise, and the Roman Catholics and French Liberals united their efforts to overthrow the government.

News of the successful revolt in Paris in 1830 reached Belgium. A play performed in a Brussels theatre was calculated by its theme to inflame the populace, and when the curtain fell they at once rushed out into the street, shouting "Let us imitate the Parisians." A mob was formed which did great violence and destroyed many public buildings, factories and private homes. The troops were called out, but they were too few in number and withdrew.

Burgher guards made up of influential and middle class citizens were formed for the protection of life and property. What happened in Brussels was repeated elsewhere, and in other cities burgher guards were instituted. Concessions were demanded which the government refused, and a riot was thereby converted into complete revolution. The Belgians were highly incensed at the conduct of the Dutch deputies in council, and the King's army was sent against Brussels. Their mission was unsuccessful, and they retired. Other Belgian towns learned of the king's fiasco and declared in favor of separation. Belgium was declared an independent state, with Brussels as its capital. Antwerp was the only important town which remained in the hands of the Dutch.

The conference of London proclaimed the dissolution of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, dictating the conditions of the partitions. Baron de Chokier was elected king and duly installed. This, however, did not



Beautiful Brussels

The capital of Belgium, which the German Army recently entered and demanded an indemnity of \$40,000,000.

restore tranquility to the country, and in a subsequent election Prince Leopold of Saxe-Cobourg was proclaimed king. Soon thereafter it was learned that the Dutch were preparing to invade the country with a large army which far outnumbered Leopold's forces. The Belgians were outnumbered and beaten back. The French army came to the rescue of Belgium and the forces of Holland retired. By the terms of the conference of London and a subsequent treaty after the invasion of Holland, Luxemburg was divided between Holland and Belgium; the king of Holland also received a portion of Limborg.



Albert, King of "Belgium, the cockpit
of Europe."

The District of Maestricht was also partitioned, the fortress of that name remaining with Holland. The Scheldt was to remain open to the commerce of both countries and the national debt was apportioned. Continued negotiations from 1830 to 1839 eventually ended in the acceptance by Holland of the terms of the treaty.

During the revolution of 1848 the king offered to resign if his ministers thought that it would avert calamity or be conducive to the public

welfare. The ministers replied that a constitutional monarchy was most desirable for the people. In this way Leopold forestalled possible conflict. An attempt at revolution was made in Brussels, but met with little success.

A financial panic, in 1848, created considerable havoc, but public credit was soon restored. From 1848 to 1865 Belgium was at peace, and much progress was made. King Leopold died in 1865. He was greatly beloved by his people and respected by the other sovereigns of Europe. To him Belgium owes much. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Leopold II.

On the outbreak of hostilities between France and Germany in 1870, Belgium foresaw the danger and difficulty of her position and lost no time in providing for the arising of contingencies. A large war credit was voted, the strength of the army was raised, and large forces of troops moved to the frontier. The danger to Belgium caused England considerable excitement as she recognized the schemes of self-aggrandisement of France against Belgium. The British government declared its intentions to maintain the integrity of Belgium in accordance with the treaty of 1839, and it induced Germany and France to sign treaties to that effect.

In the course of the Franco-Prussian war, a portion of the French army took refuge in Belgium, but laid down their arms, according to the treaty. It is this treaty which England is bound to enforce at the present time and which has been the prime motive for her declaration of war against Germany in 1914.

Foreign complications arose through the offer of an obscure Belgian to assassinate Prince Bismarck. He was tried by the Belgian government, but it was found that no law was recorded which provided punishment for such offences which was satisfactory to Germany.

In 1893 the constitution of Belgium was revised and suffrage was allowed to every man over twenty-five years of age.

Leopold II died in 1909 and was succeeded by his nephew, Albert I, the present king.

Belgium is the most densely populated country in Europe, its population per square mile being 652 inhabitants, while its nearest competitor, Italy, has but 318. It possesses one colony, formerly the Congo Free State and transformed into a colony of Belgium in 1908.

The advance of the German troops into Belgium for the purpose of attacking France on a comparatively unprotected border is Belgium's reason for taking up arms against Germany in the present war.

Century of English History

George V, King

AFTER the Napoleonic wars great reform movements took place in England.

George IV became king on the death of his father in 1820. During the reign of George IV internal affairs engrossed the attention of England, many reforms being introduced through the growth of public opinion. On the death of George IV, William IV succeeded to the throne with a ministry under the leadership of Lord Grey. In this administration the abolition of slavery in all British colonies and the poor law were introduced.

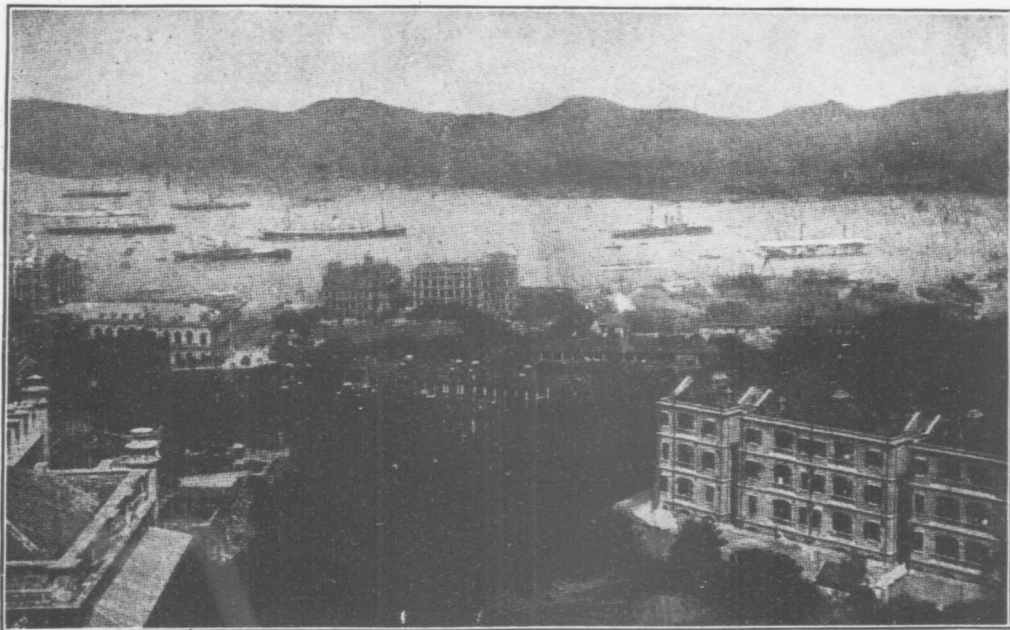
The king dismissed his ministers and entrusted the formation of a new government to Sir Robert Peel. It was the last time that the king actively interfered in a change of the ministry. Peel could not command a majority in Parliament and resigned in favor of Lord Melbourne, who was still in power on the accession of Queen Victoria in 1837.

Little of international interest occurred during the ensuing years, until the attack upon Turkey by the Emperor of Russia was resisted by the allied forces of England and France. England was watchful of Russian advancement in the East and championed the cause of liberal progress against the absolutism of Russia. Peace was signed at Paris in 1856. England and her soldiers were distinguished by the valor displayed at Bala-klava, Inkerman and Sebastopol. They were then fighting, as now, for the protection of the weaker nation.

The indirect results of the Crimean war may be found in the removal of the pressure with which Russia had weighed on the nations of the continent.



Lord Kitchener
Britain's Minister of War



Hong-Kong, Britain's stronghold in Asia
where her forces have mobilized to protect her possessions in the East.

Subsequently a vast military rebellion arose in India. This was followed by the assumption of direct authority over India by the Crown, and Queen Victoria was later declared Empress of India.

In 1875 Disraeli made his master stroke in the purchase of the Suez Canal.

Acts of political rather than of international importance, held the attention of England until in 1899, when the Boer war broke out in South Africa. The discovery of gold in the South African Republic was followed by a great influx of English miners and speculators.

Trouble quickly arose between the native Boers and the progressive Britons. These complained that they could not obtain naturalization, were given no share in the government, and yet bore a large share of the taxation and were forced to render military service. After a raid of the Transvaal by Dr. Jameson, which was unpunished by England, the Boers became more arbitrary than ever, although the foreign population outnumbered the natives two to one. England demanded the right of suffrage for her citizens; the Boers refused. War broke out in October, 1899, the Orange Free State joining her sister, the Boer Republic. This war lasted for three years. The English won in the end. Peace was concluded in 1902, the Transvaal and Orange Free State becoming colonies of the British Empire. The Boers since then have become the most loyal subjects of Britain. The leader of the Government was formerly one of the chief Boer generals, and South Africa is now flourishing under the great freedom enjoyed under British rule.

At this time Russia was occupying Manchuria. This was looked upon with disfavor by England and the United States, who urged the policy of the "open door."

Queen Victoria died in 1901 and was succeeded by King Edward VII. Japan in 1902 increased its European prestige by a treaty with Eng-

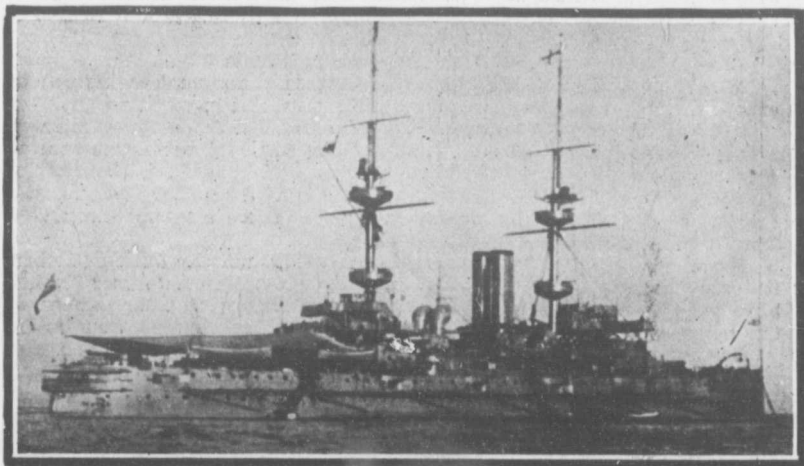


General Sir John French
Commanding the British Forces
on the Continent

land establishing a defensive alliance. A second treaty was signed in 1905. It is this alliance which Japan seizes as her reason for entering into the European situation of to-day.

King Edward died in 1910 and was succeeded by his son, George V, the present ruler.

The Home Rule Bill which Ireland has wished for years is of too recent date to demand further attention here.



British Battleship "Caesar"

One of the greatest ships with the North Sea Squadron

A little of what Canada and Canadians are doing towards upholding the honor of the British Empire.

The Federal Government is sending one million bags of flour. To get a little idea of what this means it would fill a train of cars extending from Oakville to Toronto, 19 miles.

Twenty-five thousand men have gone to Valcartier, ready to embark for the scene of action.

One hundred thousand men have volunteered, and Col. Hughes, the able Minister of Militia, says, "We can't keep them from volunteering."

The Province of Quebec has contributed tons of cheese and British Columbia trainloads of apples.

Alberta has contributed a million bushels of oats.

M. H. Gault, Esq., of Montreal, is equipping a regiment at his own expense. They are called the Princess Patricia Regiment.

J. C. Eaton, Esq., of Toronto, has contributed \$100,000 for a quick-firing Vickers' battery, also the use of his yacht, *Florence*, and his private wireless station.

The citizens of the city of Toronto and York County are raising a fund of \$882,000.00 to provide for the needs of the soldier's families from Toronto and York.

Every county, city, town and village throughout Canada is doing its share to help and protect the families of the noble fellows who have gone to the front to represent Canada and maintain and defend the honor of the great British Empire. "We can't forget them."

One hundred and sixty-two thousand dollars was raised by the women of Canada to equip a hospital ship.

Ontario's Contribution

The Ontario Government are furnishing a quarter of a million bags of flour to the Imperial Government.

Type of Guns in Use by Armies of Europe

- Austria-Hungary—Mannlicher magazine rifles and carbines.
 Belgium—Mauser rifles and Krupp guns.
 Bulgaria—Mannlicher carbine, Schneider and Krupp guns.
 France—Lebel rifle and carbine.
 Great Britain—Lee-Enfield rifles.
 Germany—Mauser rifles.
 Greece—Mannlicher Schonauer and Schneider Canet guns.
 Italy—Mannlicher Carcan rifle and Vetterli guns.
 Russia—"3 line" rifle and Q. F. Shielded gun.
 Servia—Mauser and Schneider Canet.
 Turkey—Mauser, Krupp and Schneider.

Percentage of Illiteracy in European Countries

Based on Inability to Write Their Own Language.

| | Per cent. |
|---------------------|-----------|
| Austria | 22.6 |
| Belgium | 12.7 |
| Bulgaria | 65.5 |
| France | 14.1 |
| Germany | 0.02 |
| Great Britain | 1.0 |
| Greece | 57.2 |
| Hungary | 40.9 |
| Italy | 48.2 |
| Russia | 70.9 |
| Servia | 78.9 |
| Spain | 58.7 |

Religious Belief and Predominance

- Austria-Hungary—Religious liberty and independence of Church from State. Seventy-five per cent. Greek and Roman Catholic.
 Belgium—Religious liberty; Roman Catholic majority.
 Bulgaria—Orthodox Greek Church.
 France—Religious freedom (no particular church recognized by state).
 Great Britain—Church of England.
 Germany—Religious freedom; Protestants, sixty-one per cent; Catholics, thirty-six per cent.
 Greece—Greek Orthodox.
 Italy—Roman Catholic, ninety-seven per cent.
 Russia—Graeco-Russian or Orthodox faith.
 Servia—Greek Orthodox.
 Turkey—Mohammedanism.

Approximate Effective Air-Crafts of the Powers

| | |
|-----------------------|-----|
| Austria-Hungary | 156 |
| France | 770 |
| Germany | 371 |
| Great Britain | 135 |
| Italy | 205 |
| Russia | 388 |

Great Wars' Cost in Men and Money

| Wars. | Duration in days. | Loss in life. | Cost in money. |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| England-France, 1793-1815 | 8,168 | 1,900,000 | \$6,250,000,000 |
| Crimean war, 1854-56 | 734 | 485,000 | 1,525,000,000 |
| United States civil war, 1861-65.... | 2,456 | 656,000 | 3,700,000,000 |
| Franco-German, 1870-71 | 405 | 280,000 | 1,580,000,000 |
| Russo-Turkish, 1877-78 | 334 | 180,000 | 950,000,000 |
| United States-Spanish war, 1898... | 101 | 2,910 | *165,000,000 |
| Boer war, 1899-1902 | 962 | 90,898 | 1,000,100,000 |
| Russo-Japanese war, 1904-5 | 576 | 555,900 | 2,259,000,000 |
| Balkan wars | 302 | 145,500 | 200,000,000 |

* United States only.

You See These Words Every Day in War Dispatches

MOBILIZATION—The act of assembling and in all respects preparing for active hostilities a body of troops or war vessels; the transfer of a military or naval force from a peace to a war footing.

PAN-SLAVIC—A common bond or union between persons speaking a Slavic language as his native tongue, meaning in this instance a union of Russians, Poles, Bohemians, Moravians, Bulgarians, Servians, Croats and other smaller nations.

ENTENTE (pronounced an-tant, sounding the a in each syllable as in arm, with the accent on the second syllable)—A French word meaning "an understanding"; the English word "intent" is derived from it.

RESERVISTS—A French word meaning members of the reserve of an army organization; soldiers who, while remaining constantly subject to a call to colors, live at their homes, being summoned more or less frequently to report for instructions, drill or manoeuvres.

UKASE—In Russia, a published proclamation or imperial order having the force of law; hence, any official decree or publication.

MORATORIUM—A period of delay granted in an emergency; in law a period during which an obligor has a legal right to delay an obligation.

AREA AND POPULATION OF CONFLICTING POWERS OF EUROPE.

| Country. | Area in Square Miles. | Population. |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|
| Austria-Hungary | 241,491 | 49,882,331 |
| Belgium | 11,373 | 7,571,387 |
| Bulgaria | 43,905 | 4,752,997 |
| Denmark | 15,582 | 2,775,076 |
| France | 207,054 | 39,601,509 |
| Germany | 208,780 | 64,925,993 |
| Greece | 41,933 | 4,363,000 |
| Italy | 110,550 | 35,328,997 |
| Russia (European) | 1,862,524 | 122,560,700 |
| Servia | 33,891 | 4,547,992 |
| Portugal | 35,490 | 5,957,985 |
| Spain | 194,783 | 19,588,688 |
| Switzerland | 15,976 | 3,781,430 |
| Great Britain (European) | 121,633 | 45,370,530 |

THE WORLD'S ARMIES.

System, Service, Numbers and Cost in Times of Peace.

| Country. | Military System. | Continuous Training in Camp. | Peace Estab-lishment | | Military Budget. |
|-----------------|------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|------------------|
| | | | of Active Army. | Estimated War Strength. | |
| Austria-Hungary | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 425,881 | 2,000,000 | \$110,966,020 |
| Belgium | Compulsory | 1 to 2 yrs. | 43,000 | 180,000 | 13,952,750 |
| Bulgaria | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 65,900 | 380,000 | 8,099,000 |
| Denmark | Compulsory | 165-240 dys. | 13,734 | 90,000 | 5,440,000 |
| France | Compulsory | 3 yrs. | 610,000 | 4,000,000 | 187,750,000 |
| Germany | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 672,000 | 5,200,000 | 300,000,000 |
| Greece | Compulsory | 2 yrs. | 29,000 | 120,000 | 4,306,190 |
| Italy | Compulsory | 2 yrs. | 306,300 | 1,200,000 | 84,127,705 |
| Japan | Compulsory | 2 to 3 yrs. | 230,000 | 750,000 | 49,833,035 |
| Russia | Compulsory | 3-4½ yrs. | 1,500,000 | 5,500,000 | 336,000,105 |
| Servia | Compulsory | 1-1½ yrs. | 30,038 | 240,000 | 5,638,205 |
| Spain | Compulsory | 1 to 3 yrs. | 135,000 | 350,000 | 37,876,190 |
| Sweden | Compulsory | 150-281 dys. | 84,013 | 195,000 | 15,061,500 |
| Turkey | Compulsory | 3 to 4 yrs. | 220,000 | 360,000 | 40,000,000 |
| Gt. Britain | Voluntary | 7 yrs. | 413,446 | 730,000 | 141,100,000 |
| United States | Voluntary | 4 to 7 yrs. | 216,000 | 216,000 | 150,000,000 |

THE WORLD'S NAVIES.

| Class. | Great Britain | | France | | Russia | | Germany | | Austria-Hungary | | U.S. Japan | |
|--|---------------|--------|--------|---------|--------|--------|---------|-------|-----------------|--|------------|--|
| | Britain | France | Russia | Germany | Italy | Hung'y | U.S. | Japan | | | | |
| Battleships— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 58 | 21 | 8 | 35 | 9 | 14 | 30 | 17 | | | | |
| Building | 14 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 6 | 2 | | | | |
| Coast Defense— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Vessels Armoured | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 10 | .. | | | | |
| Battle Cruisers— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 9 | .. | .. | 4 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | | | | |
| Building | 1 | .. | .. | 3 | .. | .. | .. | 3 | | | | |
| Cruisers Built | 47 | 24 | 12 | 9 | 9 | 2 | 17 | 15 | | | | |
| Light Cruisers— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 65 | 8 | 2 | 43 | 14 | 9 | 18 | 19 | | | | |
| Building | 20 | .. | 8 | 6 | 4 | 3 | .. | .. | | | | |
| Torpedo Vessels— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 25 | 3 | .. | .. | 3 | 11 | 2 | 3 | | | | |
| Building | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | | | | |
| Torpedo Boat Destroyers— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 201 | 80 | 95 | 132 | 30 | 15 | 52 | 51 | | | | |
| Building | 36 | 7 | 45 | 12 | 16 | 3 | 14 | 2 | | | | |
| Torpedo Boats— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 106 | 153 | 25 | 80 | 94 | 58 | 21 | 33 | | | | |
| Building | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 27 | .. | .. | | | | |
| Submarines— | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Built | 69 | 50 | 25 | 24 | 18 | 6 | 29 | 13 | | | | |
| Building | 29 | 26 | 18 | ? | 2 | 5 | 21 | 2 | | | | |
| Total Number of Ships up to Jan. 1, 1914. | 681 | 382 | 249 | 354 | 205 | 155 | 222 | 161 | | | | |

