XIII

THE SMALLER EUROPEAN STATES

(1848–1898)

Denmark. — Frederick VII ascended the throne on January 20, 1848. Soon after his accession he granted an autocratic Constitution. The Rigsdag, or Assembly, consisting of an upper and a lower Chamber, was to meet annually, and could not be prorogued till after it had sat two months. The upper Chamber, of sixty-six members, was appointed partly by the sovereign and partly by restricted ballot. The 102 members of the lower Chamber were elected by suffrage, each voter to be thirty years of age and of reputable character. The desire for uniformity led the king to apply the same constitution to Iceland, where the ancient Althing, or General Diet, after existing 870 years, had been abolished in 1800. The Icelanders fretted at the new system, refused to be made a mere royal province and stoutly insisted on maintaining their traditional local laws. After long discussion, most of the demands of the Icelanders were grudgingly granted in 1874.

With Frederick VII, who died in 1863, the Danish dynasty became extinct. Christian IX, of the house of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, became king. Like his predecessor, he was confronted on his accession by a war over Schleswig and Holstein, which were conquered and held by the allied Prussians and Austrians. The internal history of Denmark has been filled by the struggles of the conservatives and liberals. The former, supported by the privileged classes, are absolutist in tendency and care little for parliamentary government. The liberals, representing the vast majority of the people, wish to make their rights a fact. Its weakness has prevented Denmark from exercising political influence abroad. But the children of no other European sovereign have already occupied or expect to occupy so many thrones. Frederick, the prince royal, is heir to the crown of Denmark. Prince Wilhelm, under the title of George I, is king of Greece. Princess Alexandra is the wife of the Prince of Wales and in the course of nature will be queen of Great Britain. Princess Marie Dagmar, as the wife of Alexander III, was Tsarina of Russia, and is the mother of the present Tsar Nicholas II.

Sweden and Norway. — These two states, violently thrust together in 1814 after the overthrow of Napoleon, have their separate existence under one crown, each with its own Constitution, ministry, and two Chambers. For foreign affairs, however, there is but one minister, who is usually a Swede. The king resides at Stockholm, which outranks Christiania much as Sweden outranks Norway. In fact, the independence of Norway is nominal rather than real. This position of inferiority rankles in the less populous country, and furnishes the most prominent plank in the platform of the Norwegian radical party. In both countries the system of election is by restricted suffrage. The number of electors qualified to vote for members of even the lower house is in Norway about nine per cent. of the population, and in Sweden only about six per cent.

Oscar I, the son of Charles XIV, better known as Marshal Bernadotte of France, acceded in 1844 and reigned fifteen years. His son, Charles XV, reigned from 1859 to 1872, when he was succeeded by Oscar II, the present sovereign. He is distinguished as a man of learning and an accomplished orator in many languages. The two countries have taken small part in European politics during the last half century. In 1855 they joined the alliance against Russia, the hereditary enemy of Sweden. Instead of subsiding, the anti-Swedish feeling in Norway and partiality for Denmark have grown stronger in the last five years. Nothing but the tact of Oscar II has thus far prevented war between the Norwegians and Swedes.

Switzerland. — Despite diminutive size and small population, Switzerland, in political ideas and institutions, resembles the United States more than does any other foreign country. Its people have had long experience in self-government. Their freedom has been gained by their own heroic efforts and not bestowed by foreigners. Their area, small as it is, has reached its present extent by successive admissions or by annexations of adjacent territory.

The fact that the people are of three nationalities and

languages, and that these three are geographically separate, French in the southwest and west, Italian in the south and German in the rest of the country, is an obstacle to effective union. A further obstacle is found in the second fact of their nearly equal division between Protestantism and Roman Catholicism, fifty-nine per cent being adherents of the former communion and forty per cent of the latter. These two religions are also drawn up on geographical lines, the central, or most ancient, and the southern cantons being Catholic, while the western, northern and eastern cantons are Protestant. To these two facts are due most of their domestic troubles and civil wars. Since 1848 there has been no political disturbance of any importance, except a royalist attempt in Neuchâtel to overturn the government, and petty riots in the Italian canton of Ticino.

But until 1848, though there was a Switzerland, there was no Swiss nation. An individual's rights were cantonal and not national. Men were citizens of Berne or Zurich or Uri or some other canton, but not of a common country. The salvation of the state and the assurance of its permanence came with the overthrow of the Sonderbund or Separate League of Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Zug, Lucerne, Freiburg and Valais in 1847.

The radical, or national, party had triumphed. They bestowed upon Switzerland the most precious gift in its history, the Constitution of 1848. The men who framed it studied carefully the Constitution of the United States. In view of the difficulties with which they had to deal, there was no other political document which could be of aid. In fact, the fundamental proposition of the Swiss Constitution is a paraphrase of Article X in the Amendments to the American Constitution. The political life of the nation has since been summed up in the application and extension of its organic charter. The Federal Assembly, exercising legislative functions, has taken the place of the ancient powerless Diet. The executive power is centred in a Federal Council of seven members, elected by the Federal Assembly for three years. This Federal Assembly is modelled after the American Congress. It consists of a State Council, wherein two deputies from each canton represent cantonal sovereignty, and of a National Council of one deputy for every 20,000 inhabitants, representing popular sovereignty.

The Swiss president has a minimum of authority, holds office for only one year and cannot be reëlected.

This Constitution has been several times revised, always with a tendency to give more direct participation in affairs to the people. The most important modification is in the extension of the referendum, whereby the impulse to law-making is from below rather than from above, and where the decision as well as the initiative rests in the hands of the voters.

If appropriate laws, industry and material prosperity assure the welfare of a people, it is easy to credit the boast of the Swiss that they are the best governed and the happiest nation in the world.

Belgium. — The successful revolution of 1830 against Holland secured Belgian independence. By the treaty of London (November 15, 1831) Austria, France, Great Britain and Russia guaranteed the neutrality of the new state. The Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha had been already elected king of the Belgians by the National Assembly, and had ascended the throne as Leopold I. But the sovereign of Holland did not recognize accomplished facts until 1839. The constitution of 1831 declared Belgium "a constitutional, representative and hereditary monarchy." Leopold II, the present ruler, succeeded on the death of his father (December 10, 1865).

The foreign history of the country has been confined to apprehension that its integrity might be violated by France or Germany. On the separation of Holland and Belgium, the grand duchy of Luxemburg had been divided. One-third of the territory, the inhabitants of which were mostly Germans, continued to be the grand duchy and was united to Holland by a personal union, the sovereign of that country being acknowledged as the grand duke. It continued however to make part of the German confederation. The remaining two-thirds, inhabited by a French speaking people, were assigned to Belgium. When Louis Napoleon became emperor, the Belgians feared that he would secure the cession of this territory, and perhaps the annexation of their entire kingdom to France. But it was in reference to the grand duchy of Luxemburg that Napoleon carried on his calamitous negotiations with Bismarck after the Prusso-Austrian campaign of 1866. The proposal of Count Beust that the grand duchy should be annexed to Belgium, who,

in turn, should cede certain territory on the south to France, was indignantly rejected by Leopold II. The conference of London (May 11, 1867) decided on the neutrality of the duchy and on the withdrawal of the Prussian garrison which held its capital. The French diplomatists assert that Bismarck had previously proposed the incorporation of all Belgium with France. Though Belgium was strictly neutral in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870–1871, she and Holland were both alarmed at the possible rapacity of the conquerors. But there was no interference with either.

By an international conference in 1885, Leopold II was made sovereign of the Congo Free State, which possesses an area of 900,000 square miles and 30,000,000 inhabitants. On August 2, 1889, by a formal will, he bequeathed to Belgium all his sovereign rights over it. By convention the right is recognized to Belgium to annex the state at any time after the year 1900.

Belgium is the most densely populated and, in proportion to its size, the wealthiest country in Europe. Nowhere are political parties more sharply defined and political contests more fierce. For sixty years there has been presented the spectacle of a determined and never intermittent wrestle between the nearly equal forces of the "Catholics" and liberals. The latter are strongest in the great industrial centres and the former in the other parts of the kingdom. By a peculiar compromise, or double victory, in 1893 the principal tenets of both parties were engrafted on the revised Constitution. The liberals secured the suffrage for every citizen twenty-five years of age. Hitherto less than 140,000 persons had been qualified to vote. The Catholics, unwilling to accept the principle of absolute political equality, secured the right of casting two or even three votes to whoever possessed certain educational or property qualifications. Before 1893 in a population of over 6,000,000 less than 140,000 persons were allowed the vote. In consequence of the constitutional revision 1,350,000 electors were authorized to cast 2,066,000 votes.

The new system resulted in an overwhelming victory for the Catholics in the elections of 1894. The effacement of the liberals gives fresh hope and strength to advancing socialism, and the old Catholic party itself is breaking up into two hostile factions.

Holland or the Netherlands. — William II died in 1849.

William III reigned until 1890. His two sons, William and Alexander, passed away some time before his death. In 1879, when sixty-two years old, he married, as his second wife, the Princess Emma of Waldeck and Pyrmont, who was only twenty. Their daughter, Wilhelmina, succeeded at the age of ten, her mother taking the oath as regent. On August 31, 1898, this last descendant of William the Silent, on the completion of her eighteenth year, became sovereign in reality as well as in name. The formal coronation took place a week later. Probably the Dutch had never greeted any event with such enthusiasm as the formal accession of their fair girl-queen.

The Constitution, granted the Netherlands in 1815, was revised in 1848 and 1887. The people, not being discontented with their government, were only slightly affected by the European commotions of 1848. In 1896 an Electoral Reform Act conferred the right to vote on all Dutchmen twenty-five years old. Legislative functions were vested conjointly in the sovereign and a Parliament consisting of an upper, or first, and lower, or second, Chambers. Party divisions in Holland have been mainly religious, and the burning question still is as to the introduction of religion in the schools. Of late years the Catholics, who constitute a little over a third of the population, have been inclined to unite with the conservatives, or orthodox Protestants, against the liberals, who oppose religious instruction in state institutions.

Holland still retains extensive colonial possessions, especially in the Pacific, with an area of 783,000 square miles and a population of 35,000,000. An insurrection of the people of Atjeh in Sumatra, which has gone on in intermittent fashion for twenty-five years, has been a heavy tax upon her resources. In 1862 she abolished slavery in the Dutch West Indies. Her East Indian possessions are in a far less satisfactory condition.

On the death of William III, Adolf, Duke of Nassau, succeeded as Grand Duke of Luxemburg.

The Five Smaller States and the Balkan States.—These five smaller states — Denmark, Sweden-Norway, Switzerland, Belgium and Holland — are superior in population and territory as well as in civilization and material prosperity, to the five Balkan states — Roumania, Montenegro, Servia, Bulgaria and Greece. But during the last fifty

years all of them, except Denmark, have mercifully been spared the experience of war. They have given rise to few problems of international importance. They have been permitted with little or no interference from outside to work out their individual destiny.

The Balkan states, on the other hand, although inhabited by peoples still more ancient, are only just born into political life. They have been of late the occasion and the theatre of many destructive wars. Their vicinage to Constantinople makes them still the battle-ground of European diplomacy. The uncertainties and complications of their future render them to-day of more vital interest than any other territory of equal extent within the limits of the continent.

XIV

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL

Spain. Reign of Isabella II (1833–1868). — Ferdinand VII died in 1833, leaving two daughters, Isabella and Maria Louisa. Isabella, the elder, a child of three, became queen, and her mother Christina was appointed regent. The Carlist war distracted the country for seven years, until 1840. That same year Marshal Espartero, Duke of Victory, seized the power, forced Christina into exile and, a military dictator, installed himself as regent. A coalition, headed by his bitter enemy, General Narvaez, afterwards Duke of Valencia, drove him from the country. The queen was declared of age (1843). Espartero had been devoted to the British. Narvaez was no less so to the French party, which now became dominant. Louis Philippe secured the hand of Maria Louisa for his son, the Duke of Montpensier, and brought about the marriage of Queen Isabella to her cousin, Francis d'Assisi, who was equally diseased in mind and body (1846). By this arrangement, if Isabella died childless, the throne would revert to her sister and to the son of Louis Philippe. No woman was ever more cruelly sacrificed than this young queen, married on her sixteenth birthday. Whatever the later follies and even crimes of Isabella II, they were largely due to the heartless craft of a cold-blooded king.

The revolutionary tidal wave of 1848 crossed the Pyrenees. But isolated republican movements were quickly repressed. The camarilla, or clique of royal favorites, crowded Narvaez from office (1851). In March the government signed a concordat with the Pope, prohibiting the exercise of any religion other than the Roman Catholic, placing all education under the control of the clergy and submitting all publications to their censorship. The government further proposed such amendments to the inoperative Constitution as would formally deprive the Cortes of its prerogatives and render the sovereign absolute. These

amendments were superfluous, but even any semblance of liberty was to be effaced. The army and the workmen of the large cities combined in successful revolution (July, 1854). For two years Espartero and Marshal O'Donnell, minister of war, directed affairs and followed a more liberal policy. Then came two years of clerical reaction. O'Donnell had founded the Liberal Union, recruited among the advocates of mild reform or opponents of absolute despotism. It carried him into power (1858) and sustained him as prime minister until 1863. He sought to divert attention from domestic troubles to foreign affairs. Thus he invaded Morocco (1860), joined Napoleon and Great Britain in the Mexican expedition (1861), attempted the overthrow of the Dominican Republic (1861–1865) and began a senseless war against Peru (1863–1866). Most of these enterprises ended in utter failure, unaccompanied by glory and enormously increasing the national debt.

O'Donnell was replaced by Narvaez. The queen surrendered herself entirely to priests and favorites. The darkest days of absolutism and bigotry returned. Spanish Protestants were condemned to the galleys for no other crime than their faith. All newspaper articles were to be submitted to the censor before publication. The Cortes passed a law that any person on suspicion could be arrested and imprisoned. Meanwhile discontent and indignation were seething all over Spain. Packing the prisons to overflowing could not drown the general complaint. Yet none were so blind and deaf as the queen and her counsellors. Narvaez was able to terrify the opposition, dissolve the Cortes and expel Marshal Serrano, the president of the Senate. Narvaez was merciless and strong, but he died (April 23, 1868) and his successor, Gonzales Bravo, though merciless was weak.

The Revolution (1868). — The three persecuted parties, the progressists, unionists and democrats, coalesced. The Marshals Serrano and Prim issued a pronunciamento against an intolerable government. Then came the crash in one mad, universal upheaval. Hardly an arm was raised in behalf of the queen, who fled to France (September 30, 1868).

Political Experiments (1868–1875). — During the succeeding eight years there were few political experiences which the unhappy country did not endure. During the trial of each experiment its opponents did their utmost, by noisy

demonstration or secret plot, to make it a failure. At first the dual dictators, Marshal Serrano and Marshal Prim, were the one, president of the council and commander of the army, and the other, minister of war. The Cortes met (February 12, 1869) and proclaimed a Constitution, the supposed panacea for every evil (June 5). A less number of deputies were opposed to a liberal monarchy than to any other system, so the Constitution was drawn up in that sense.

Marshal Serrano was made regent (June 16, 1869) and devoted himself to finding a king. Among other princes who declined the proffered crown was Leopold, a Hohenzollern prince, whose supposed candidacy furnished the occasion of the Franco-Prussian war. Prince Amadeo, Duke of Aosta, son of Victor Emmanuel, gave a favorable answer. He was elected by a majority of the Cortes (November 15, 1870). The very day he landed at Barcelona (December 28) Marshal Prim, the minister of war, was murdered at Madrid. The assassins lodged eight bullets in his body. Amadeo was crowned and remained in Spain for two years. He did his best to rule well, but the clergy, the nobles and the republicans opposed him at every step and offered him all possible insult. The Carlist war broke out again with fresh fury, under another Don Carlos, grandson of the old pretender (1872). Disheartened and disgusted, Amadeo abdicated (February 11, 1873). The next day the Cortes declared the republic. Months of wrangling among the republican factions resulted in the proclamation of Señor Castelar as president with dictatorial powers. He had been professor of philosophy at the University of Madrid. He was an orator, a patriot and a statesman, but he could not rule Spain. He resigned (January 2, 1874). At once General Pavia, at the head of the army, expelled the Cortes and made Marshal Serrano military dictator. Marshal Campos proclaimed the restoration of the Bourbon dynasty in the person of Alphonso, the son of the deposed queen (December 29, 1874). This measure was supported by the general sentiment. Marshal Serrano made no opposition and Alphonso XII returned from England, where he had been a student in the Royal Military Academy, and ascended the throne.

Reign of Alphonso XII (1875–1885). — The present Constitution was proclaimed on June 30, 1876. The political

liberties it secures are large in appearance. But ambiguous or qualifying phrases make it a liberal Constitution hardly more than in name, and place the reality of power in the hands of the sovereign, the executive. Legislative functions are exercised by the Cortes, which consists of a Senate and Congress of equal authority. The Senate is composed of senators "in their own right," — members of the royal family, grandees enjoying an annual income of over $12,000, captain-generals, admirals, archbishops and presidents of the supreme councils and courts — of senators named for life by the sovereign and of 180 senators elected by privileged bodies. The entire number at no time can exceed 360. The Congress of 431 deputies is elected by universal suffrage. By the law of June 26, 1890, all male Spaniards twenty-five years of age, except certain disqualified persons, are allowed to vote. The Cortes meets annually, and may at any time be suspended or dissolved. In the latter case a new Cortes must sit within three months. The Constitution declares Roman Catholicism the religion of the state, but no person can be molested for his private opinions or for the exercise of his own faith. At the same time no publicity of celebration or announcement, such as a notice upon the walls, is allowed to other communions.

The Carlist war was entirely suppressed. Estella, the headquarters of insurrection, surrendered (February 19, 1876) and Don Carlos fled to France. The Carlist party none the less exists to this day. His partisans were recruited among the mountains of the Basque and Navarrese provinces, which still retained their fueros, or special privileges, such as exemption from imposts and from military service. These fueros, which few preceding governments had dared to touch, were now formally abolished by vote of the Cortes (July 21). Another civil war was necessary to carry the vote into effect.

The disorder elsewhere began to diminish. The Carlists for a time were harmless. The republicans broke up into cliques or, under the lead of Castelar, rallied to the support of the throne. Two monarchist parties, the conservatives and the liberals, emerged from the political chaos. The former was led by Canovas del Castillo and the latter by Sagasta. One or the other of these two statesmen has been at the head of Spanish affairs since 1874, seven times succeeding each other as prime minister.

Reign of Alphonso XIII. Regency of Queen Christina (1885–). — Alphonso XII died in his twenty-eighth year (November 25, 1885). His daughter, Maria de las Mercedes, would have succeeded had not the birth of a posthumous brother, Alphonso XIII (May 17, 1886) deprived her of the crown. The queen dowager, Christina, an archduchess of Austria, had been declared regent. A devoted wife, her whole life since the death of her husband has been consecrated to her son. If the young prince ever sits upon the throne, it will be due to his mother's sagacity and devotion. Nor is it strange if, in the effort to make him king, dynastic interests have sometimes outweighed the interests of Spain.

The queen confided the direction of affairs to Señor Sagasta, and indicated her preference for a liberal policy. The financial situation gave most concern. There was an ever-growing deficit, but any attempt to curtail always provoked fierce opposition. The socialists and anarchists redoubled their activity. At Xeres the latter tried to seize the town, and at Madrid to blow up the palace of the Cortes. The troubles at Barcelona could only be put down by martial law (1892). Meanwhile the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America was celebrated with enthusiasm all over the country, but riots at Madrid ended the festivals. The one need was money. One day the mayor of the capital was to pay 16,000,000 pesetas. There were only 769,000 in the treasury. At Barcelona during a review an anarchist bomb severely wounded Marshal Campos, the commander-in-chief, and killed some of his staff, and at the theatre another bomb killed twenty spectators and wounded many more (1893). An insult from the Moors suddenly engrossed attention. Morocco escaped war only by agreeing to pay an indemnity of 20,000,000 pesetas. Though smuggling was openly carried on, proposals to lower the tariff brought the country to the brink of revolution. Officers attacked the liberal newspapers and destroyed the presses. Catalonia rose in revolt. The republicans demanded the deposition of the dynasty. At the end of his resources, Sagasta resigned. Canovas formed a cabinet (March 22, 1895).

Cuba. — The chronic insurrection in Cuba had assumed alarming proportions. In the mind of the new prime minister, the Cuban question dwarfed all other problems with which he had to deal. He demanded an unlimited credit.

The army of General Gallega, commander of the Spanish troops in the island, though often reënforced, had been horribly decimated by yellow fever. Marshal Campos, considered the ablest soldier in Spain, was appointed to lead a new expedition. He selected with care 200 officers and 7000 men. General Valdez, director of the military school at Madrid, was his chief of staff. He sailed on April 2, 1895.

During the next two years and a half, though riots, rebellions and hideous anarchist outrages went on in Spain and the state of the finances grew constantly more appalling, Cuba filled the political horizon. Insurrection in the Philippines only diverted partial attention to the East. Had Cuba been, like Crete, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, Spain would have felt less concern. Its nearness to the United States rather than apprehension of the insurgents was the ground of her anxiety.

The hopes entertained of Marshal Campos were not realized. He was replaced (January 17, 1896) by Lieutenant-General Weyler, whose former cruelties in Cuba and Catalonia had given him a sinister reputation. This appointment roused outspoken indignation in the United States. Spain, however, regarded all expressions of American sympathy for the inhabitants of the island as insincere and prompted by selfish motives. While dreading intervention she took no efficient measures to remove the abuses on which intervention might be based. Nor was she likely to give a colony a much better administration than her own people enjoyed at home. The ministry however announced certain unsatisfactory reforms (February 6, 1897), of which the most prominent was the grant of a kind of autonomy to Cuba; but these reforms were to be applied only after the island was tranquil. The prime minister, Señor Canovas, was assassinated in broad daylight by an anarchist (August 8, 1897), and his lifelong rival, Señor Sagasta, took office.

General Weyler's policy of terrorism had proved even less effective than Marshal Campos' policy of pacification. Even the Spaniards denounced him. Formal communications from the American government (September 19 and October 5) increased the gravity of the situation. General Weyler was recalled and General Blanco appointed in his stead (October 9). A radical change in policy, with full autonomy for Cuba, was attempted. It was too late. Events had marched beyond the control of statesmanship

or diplomacy. An indiscreet letter of the Spanish minister at Washington, Señor de Lome, caused his resignation (February 8, 1898). The American battleship *Maine* was blown up in the harbor of Havana (February 15) with the loss of 250 seamen and two officers. Common opinion attributed the catastrophe to the Spanish officials. In the United States the growing sentiment in favor of intervention could no longer be repressed.

Pope Leo XIII offered to mediate between the Cuban insurgents and the mother country (April 4). The six European Powers presented a joint note to President McKinley in the interests of peace (April 7). On April 20 President McKinley signed a resolution of Congress recognizing the independence of Cuba. The same day he sent an ultimatum to Spain, but before it could be delivered the Spanish government notified the American minister, General Woodford, that diplomatic relations with the United States were at an end. War had begun.

After an unbroken series of defeats, M. Cambon, the French ambassador at Washington, in behalf of Spain, sued for peace (July 20). The peace protocol was signed at Washington (August 12). Spain relinquished all sovereignty over Cuba, ceded Porto Rico and all her possessions in the West Indies, and whatever island in the Ladrones the United States should select, assented to the occupation of Manila, — bay, harbor and city, — leaving to the treaty hereafter to be signed all matters relating to the Philippines, and agreed to immediately evacuate the West Indies. Both governments were to suspend hostilities as soon as the protocol was signed. Five commissioners from each nation, no later than October 1, were to conclude the definite treaty of peace.

Thus Spain departed from the hemisphere which she revealed to the world 406 years before. The news of peace was received with satisfaction by her exhausted people. She has now to concern herself with domestic affairs, but tranquillity is not the normal condition of the Iberian peninsula.

Portugal. — Doña Maria da Gloria II died in 1853. Her father, Pedro I of Brazil, had abdicated the Brazilian throne that he might devote his life to placing the Portuguese crown securely upon her head. Soon after expelling the usurper, Dom Miguel, Dom Pedro died (1834). The young

queen, a girl of fifteen, was left in a position of extreme difficulty. The country was in a condition hardly better than anarchy, and was threatened on one side by Great Britain and on the other by Spain. The great mass of the people were indifferent to politics, either domestic or foreign, but petty chiefs, who could seldom muster a thousand followers, kept the kingdom in continual turmoil. They veiled their pretensions under devotion to the liberal Constitution of 1812 or the democratic Constitution of 1822 or the absolutist Charter of 1826. But it is hard to discern in the machinations of progressists or septembrists or chartists anything higher than the eagerness of men out of power to dispossess those who held it and to obtain it for themselves.

Maria da Gloria was succeeded by her son, Pedro V. Since he was a minor his father, Ferdinand, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, acted as regent. Throughout this reign pestilence ravaged the kingdom. The young king, who had become of age in 1855, devoted himself to the welfare of his people, and refused to leave his plague-stricken capital. He died of cholera in 1861, as did also his brothers, Ferdinand and John. The throne was left to their brother Luiz. With him the shattered kingdom enjoyed at last a peaceful and prosperous reign. His death (October 9, 1889) caused profound grief all over the country. He had married Maria Pia, the daughter of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy. Their son, Carlos I, is the present king of Portugal.

No European dynasty is more deservedly esteemed and loved by its subjects than the Portuguese house of Braganza. Nowhere is the stiffness of royal etiquette more relaxed, and nowhere are the relations of sovereign and people more familiar.

At the same time the condition of the kingdom is unsatisfactory. A naturally rich country is impoverished and bankrupt. The expenditure exceeds the revenue. It has been necessary to repress the anarchists with a stern hand. The 800,000 square miles of colonies, some of them dating from the proud days of the nation, are a burden rather than a source of income, and have several times involved troubles with other states. The army weighs heavily on a population of less than 5,000,000. But yet Portugal is in a far less unhappy state than fifty years ago.

The constitutional Charter of 1826 is still the fundamental

law. It has been modified at various times, lastly in 1895. Careful not to confound administrative functions, it enumerates them distinctly as the legislative, executive and judicial, and places above them the moderative, or the royal, power. Its strength is found in the sagacity of the sovereign and in the attachment of the people to the dynasty.