

by purchase the duchy of Luxembourg¹ which Germany declared should never become part of France. This dispute came near bringing on a war between the two countries in 1866; but the conflict was postponed until 1870. That year the throne of Spain having become vacant, it was offered to Prince Leopold, an officer in the Prussian army and a relative of the Prussian king. He asked and received the king's permission to accept it; but finding that France was strongly opposed, withdrew his name in order not to excite hostilities. Not satisfied with this, Napoleon demanded that the king of Prussia should bind himself by an autograph letter never to support Prince Leopold as a candidate for the Spanish crown. Count Bismarck, the Prussian prime minister, declined to lay this demand before that monarch.

Not long after, the French ambassador chanced to meet the king in a public walk at Ems, and imperiously requested him to give the desired pledge. King William indignantly refused to consider the matter at such a time or in such a place, and later notified the French ambassador that he would not be admitted to an audience at the royal palace.

Napoleon considered, or affected to consider, this action of Prussia as an insult, and declared war (July 19, 1870). France was utterly unprepared to begin the contest; but such was the ignorance of the people respecting the real condition of the army, and such the infatuation of the war party, that all Paris echoed with mad cries of "On to Berlin!"

The emperor, at the head of a poorly equipped body of troops, marched northward and took up his headquarters at Metz, whence he purposed crossing the Rhine into Germany.

But instead of waiting to be thus invaded, Germany pushed her troops forward, and they, with faces set toward Paris, invaded France. The consternation and indignation at the

¹ The king of Holland, who was also Grand Duke of Luxembourg (a duchy northeast of France), thought it for his interest to sell the duchy to Napoleon.

capital were so great when it was learned that the Prussians were actually on French soil, that it was said that had the emperor returned then, he would have been torn to pieces before he reached the Tuileries.

After several engagements, the French marshal, MacMahon, fell back toward Châlons¹ with his army of one hundred and sixty thousand men, while his coadjutor, Marshal Bazaine, after a desperate struggle, was driven within the fortifications of Metz. The German forces at once laid siege to that place, and Bazaine found himself with the main part of the French army shut up where he was powerless to help either France or himself. Marshal MacMahon was now ordered by Napoleon to march to the relief of Bazaine; but he was so strongly pressed by the Germans that he could accomplish nothing. Eventually he reached the neighborhood of Sedan.² There, on September 1, a great battle was fought, which resulted in the decisive defeat of the French. The evening following, the emperor sent this letter to the king of Prussia:

Not being able to die at the head of my troops, I can only resign my sword into the hands of Your Majesty.

Thus ended the rule of Napoleon III; he, with MacMahon and eighty thousand prisoners of war, fell into the hands of the enemy.³ Three days later (September 4, 1870) Gambetta rose in the legislature and declared the emperor deposed and France a republic.

Bazaine held out in Metz until October 27, when he, with six thousand officers and upwards of one hundred and seventy thousand men, laid down their arms. Bazaine was afterward tried and sentenced to degradation and death for not having

¹ Châlons (shā-lōn').

² Sedan: in the northeast of France, department of Ardennes.

³ After Napoleon's release he went to England, where he died in 1873. His son, Prince Napoleon, was killed in the Zulu War in 1879. The Empress Eugénie still resides in England.

done his duty by France. The sentence, however, was commuted to twenty years' imprisonment, from which he effected his escape in 1874.

231. The Third Republic; the First Siege of Paris; the Treaty. — A provisional government for defense was organized, with Thiers and Gambetta as its chief men. An attempt was then made to put Paris into condition to hold out against the German army, which was soon to lay siege to it.

During the siege, which lasted nearly four and a half months (September 19, 1870, to January 30, 1871), food became so scarce that the inhabitants were forced to eat horses, dogs, cats, rats, and finally even the wild beasts of the Zoölogical Garden. The distress during the cold weather was terrible. People retreated to their cellars to keep warm, and also to escape the Prussian shells. Thousands of beautiful trees in the parks and boulevards were cut down for fuel, and the proud city was thus stripped of one of her chief ornaments.

Meanwhile the king of Prussia had established his headquarters at Versailles, in that magnificent palace¹ which Louis XVI was forced to leave at the outbreak of the Revolution of 1789. In the great "Hall of Mirrors" of that royal edifice, on January 18, 1871, the Prussian monarch was proclaimed Emperor of Germany, and France was obliged to submit to the humiliation of knowing that her victorious enemy had made the grandest of her historic palaces commemorate his assumption of supreme power.

All attempts on the part of the French army of Paris to raise the siege proved fruitless. Finally, as it was evident that the city could not continue to hold out, a preliminary treaty of peace was made on February 26 (1871). By the terms of that treaty the provisional government acting for France agreed to give up all of German-speaking Lorraine, — about half of the province, — together with the important fortress

¹ See Paragraphs 149, 180.

of Metz, and the whole of Alsace. Furthermore, France bound herself to pay war damages to the amount of five billion of francs (\$1,000,000,000), and in addition a part of the German army was to hold possession of French soil until the debt was discharged.

On the 1st of March a body of the emperor's troops entered Paris under that grand triumphal arch which the first Napoleon erected to commemorate the glory of his victorious battles.¹

The next year, on an appointed day (September 30, 1872), the inhabitants of Alsace were compelled to choose between becoming German citizens or leaving the province. Nearly fifty thousand decided to pass over into France. It was a melancholy procession; those crowds of men, women, and children, forced to abandon their homes, their fields, the graves of their fathers, or else "lose the name of Frenchmen, and renounce their country and their flag."

To most of them it meant loss of nearly all that they possessed, and the suffering which resulted was so great that subscriptions were taken up in their behalf all over Europe, and in Mexico and the United States, New York alone sending forty thousand francs.

In the great square of the Place de la Concorde in Paris stand eight statues representing the chief provincial cities of France. On national holidays the statues, with one exception, are gayly decorated with the tricolor; the exception is Strasbourg, which stands for the lost province of Alsace: that marble figure is always draped in mourning.

232. The Commune; the Second Siege of Paris. — After the evacuation of Versailles by the Germans the provisional government under Thiers established itself there. Now was to begin the second siege of Paris; Frenchmen fighting against Frenchmen for the possession of the city. The Paris Commune, a revolutionary organization, united with the National

¹ The Arc de Triomphe, see Paragraph 199.

Guard. They believed that Thiers and his associates had betrayed their country in making peace with Germany. They closed the gates of Paris, and from that time for more than two months (March 18 to May 21, 1871) an armed force of two hundred thousand men had complete control of the metropolis, which they wished to make practically independent of the provisional government and of the rest of France.

Probably a majority of these men were socialists of the extreme type, believing in the abolition of private property in land and the possession of private capital. Many of them were simply anarchists and destructionists, of the same class which we have lately seen in this country. The Commune closed the churches, dispersed the nuns and sisters of charity from their houses, and pulled down the Vendôme Column commemorating the wars of Napoleon I.

From time to time they made sallies on Versailles. In one of these a number of their leaders were captured by the forces under Thiers. In reprisal, the Commune seized the venerable Archbishop Darboy, a man whose life had been spent in deeds of charity among the poor, also the President of the Court of Cassation,—“the highest judicial dignitary in France,”—and sixty-four priests, besides a number of other citizens. These they held as hostages; later they deliberately massacred them.

On the 21st of May (1871) the government forces under Marshal MacMahon succeeded in entering Paris. When the Commune found that they must succumb, they resolved to destroy the city. Barrels of gunpowder were placed in the cathedral of Notre Dame and other churches. Bands of men and women, carrying cans of petroleum to feed the flames, set fire to the palace of the Tuileries, the Hôtel de Ville, the Palais Royal, the Courts of Justice, and many other public buildings. MacMahon's troops by great efforts extinguished the conflagration; but the two edifices first mentioned, with many others of less note, were reduced to piles of blackened ruins.

The insurgents were gradually driven back by the troops. They made their last stand in the cemetery of Père La Chaise and vicinity. There hundreds of men, women, and children were mowed down with bullets and grapeshot, and their mutilated bodies fell dead and dying among the shattered tombs. Thus for the time ended the Commune.

It had destroyed property to the amount of five hundred million francs (\$100,000,000). The number of killed was estimated at twenty thousand. But though beaten with such terrible loss, it is still the boast of one of its leaders¹ that the dispersed ashes of the dead Communists will “sow the fields of revolution whose final triumph is certain.”

233. Completion of the Organization of the Third Republic; General Boulanger.—When order was finally restored, the organization of the Third Republic was completed by the election of Thiers to the presidency² (August 31, 1871). The term of office, originally four, was later changed to seven years. Of the first seven presidents—Thiers, MacMahon,

¹ P. Vésinier, secretary of the Commune de Paris.

² The present constitution of France was framed by the National Assembly in 1875, and revised in 1879, 1884, 1885, and 1889. It vests the legislative power in two houses,—the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. The President of the Republic is elected by the Deputies and Senators. He holds his office for seven years. The Deputies or Representatives are elected by universal suffrage for a term of four years. Seventy-five of the Senators were originally chosen for life, but now all new Senators are chosen for nine years. The assembly meets annually in January. The President's salary is 1,200,000 francs (\$240,000). Senators receive 9000 francs (\$1800); and Deputies, 5000 francs (\$1000). Bills may originate with either house, but all financial measures must pass the Chamber of Deputies first. The President may declare war, but only with the previous assent of the two houses.

The area of France is 204,092 square miles. The population according to the census of 1896 was 38,517,975, or nearly 189 to the square mile. In the last ten years France shows no appreciable gain in population. Of the population about 30,000,000 are Catholics, 700,000 Protestants, 54,000 Jews, and 7,000,000 of no declared religion. All religions are placed on a legal equality; and all having 100,000 or more adherents are entitled to government aid, which reaches a total annual expenditure of 45,743,563 francs (\$9,148,710).

France has an excellent system of public schools, ranging from compulsory primary to high and collegiate, besides many technical, industrial, and other

Grévy¹ (elected twice), Carnot,² Casimir-Périer,³ and Faure,⁴ only the third completed a full term of office. It remains to be seen whether Loubet,⁵ the present chief magistrate of the Republic (1903), will be able to hold his place.

Under the administration of Carnot the famous Boulanger⁶ plot threatened to destroy the French commonwealth. General Boulanger had been minister of war (1886), but was forced to resign. Later he gained notoriety by his bold attacks on the government, his demands for a dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies and for a revision of the constitution.

In 1889 he was elected deputy by an immense majority. The radical Republicans who favored socialism,⁷ and who hoped to gain something by upsetting the government, joined hands with the Royalists in pledging him their enthusiastic support; some Royalists went further and contributed large sums of money for the use of their chosen representative.

Boulanger had a fine military bearing which made him popular with the masses; and for a time the Paris music halls rang with songs⁸ in praise of the "man on horseback" who boasted that he would "unseat Carnot" and reconstruct France. Many regarded this political adventurer as the true hero of the hour; they believed that he was sure of success, that he

special schools. All of these are supported either wholly, as in the case of the primary, or partially by the government, at an annual cost of 133,048,190 francs (\$26,609,638).

The total debt on January 1, 1902, was 31,035,252,522 francs (\$6,206,650,504).

The standing army consists of nearly 600,000 men, supported at a cost of 694,934,530 francs (\$138,986,906). The navy is, with the exception of that of Great Britain, the largest in the world.

¹ Grévy (grā-ve'). ² Carnot (kar-no').

³ Casimir-Périer (kā-ze-mēr'-pā-re-ā').

⁴ Faure (fōre): President Faure died suddenly, early in 1899, in consequence, it is supposed, of the strain imposed upon him by the Dreyfus case. He was succeeded by Émile Loubet. ⁵ Loubet (loo-bā'). ⁶ Boulanger (boo-lōn-zhā').

⁷ Socialism: that is, the state ownership of land, railroads, canals, telegraphs, and state provision of labor for all who apply for work.

⁸ C'est Boulanger, lange, lange,
C'est Boulanger qu'il nous faut.

would make himself dictator, restore the monarchy, and place the Count of Paris¹ on the throne.

The government became alarmed, accused Boulanger of conspiring to overthrow the Republic, and ordered his immediate arrest. The general fled by express train to Brussels, and thence to England. While he was a fugitive in London, the court in Paris proceeded to try him. He was found guilty, and, although he could not be reached, was sentenced to imprisonment for life.

Two years later (1891) he shot himself on the grave of a friend, and not long afterward the Count of Paris died, like the general, on English soil. Before these two actors in the revolutionary drama passed off the stage, France had recovered from its fright, the scheme for restoring the monarchy had apparently received its deathblow, and the Republic suffered no detriment.

234. Anarchist Murders; Assassination of President Carnot; the Panama Canal Scandal.—While these events were occurring, an epidemic of anarchist² violence and crime swept over

¹ The Count of Paris was grandson of Louis Philippe, "King of the French," 1830-1848 (see Appendix, Genealogical Table No. VIII). He was a claimant to the French crown, but was driven into exile by the Revolution of 1848 (see Paragraph 226). In 1861 he came to the United States and served a campaign under McClellan in the Civil War. Later he wrote an able history of that great struggle. In 1886 he, with other claimants to the throne, was driven from France by the Expulsion Act (see Paragraph 235). He formed a compact with General Boulanger with the object, as many now believe, of pushing forward a revolution which should in the end secure him the throne vacated by Louis Philippe. He died in London in 1894.

² Anarchists: originally the French anarchists were agitators following Proudhon's teachings. He declared that political and social order could and should be maintained without the existence of any supreme ruler or direct government.

The extreme members of the anarchists have no faith in peaceful reform. They believe that the only way to regenerate society is to overthrow all systems of government. They openly advocate the use of fire, dynamite, and assassination to accomplish their ends. They count—or profess to count—imprisonment and death "but as rewards." It is noticeable, however, that in France the guillotine has diminished their ardor, and in many cases they now appear to be willing to accept the protection and help of the very power which they profess to wish to destroy.

France (1893). One miscreant threw a dynamite bomb from the gallery of the Chamber of Deputies which exploded and wounded many members. Other bomb throwers wrecked restaurants crowded with people, killing or mutilating a great number of persons whose only offense was that they upheld law and order.

These insane attacks on society and government culminated in the summer of 1894, when an Italian anarchist fatally stabbed President Carnot as he was driving through the streets of Lyons.

Many feared that this sudden taking-off of the president would cause a revolution, but France had learned self-restraint and no outbreak followed. Casimir-Périer quietly succeeded (1894) to the office left vacant by the death of Carnot. He resigned the next year, and Félix Faure was elected (1895) to fill his place; he died in office (1899) and was succeeded by Émile Loubet.

The Boulanger plot and the assassination of the president put the stability of the French Republic to a severe test. Meanwhile it was tried by the strain of a financial crisis.

The brilliant success of Lesseps in the construction of the Suez Canal has already been narrated.¹ His great work was destined to have a melancholy sequel. Late in life, when he should have retired from active effort, he organized a company to cut a canal through the Isthmus of Panama.

Unfortunately, Lesseps underrated the difficulties of the undertaking; still worse, he allowed the financial management of the enterprise to fall into the hands of unscrupulous men or of those who had not strength to resist unscrupulous demands. Everything went wrong, and in the course of a few years (1881-1889) no less than thirteen hundred million francs or two hundred and sixty million dollars of the stockholders' money was hopelessly sunk. At least a third of this enormous sum was spent in France in bribing newspaper

¹ See Paragraph 230.

editors, buying up the political influence of legislators and cabinet ministers, and in filling the pockets of financiers and speculators.

The company, not being able to stand this drain upon its capital, was driven into bankruptcy, and thousands of humble shareholders were ruined.

The government took the matter up, prosecuted the guilty parties, and sentenced them to prison. Lesseps himself, though innocent of any wrong intent, was included, with his son, in the sentence; but in his case it was never carried out. The old man, verging on ninety, was lying paralyzed at his country seat near Paris. Broken in body and mind, he died the year following (1894). The great work of uniting the two oceans was resumed later; but in 1902 the French company, fearing that the United States would undertake to construct a rival canal, offered to sell the Panama cutting to us for forty million dollars, and Congress appropriated that sum for its purchase.

In her financial honor as in her political strength France has, on the whole, gained reputation instead of losing it, and to-day the Republic stands, to all appearance, stronger than ever.

235. The Anti-Semitic Feeling in France; the Dreyfus Case; the Press; Militarism. — Late in the nineteenth century the bitter anti-Semitic prejudice, which was so marked in mediæval times, again broke out in Europe. It did not spring directly, as of old, from religious antipathy to the Hebrew people, but rather from jealousy of their commercial success. The French socialists hated the capitalist wherever found, but most of all they hated the Jewish capitalist. They violently denounced him as an intriguer, a usurer, and an extortioner. He was, they declared, "a man without a country," who was moved by avarice, but never by patriotism.¹ In the midst of these attacks

¹ A series of abusive articles entitled "The Jews in the Army" appeared in the Paris *Libre Parole* in May, 1892. That paper said in its issue of May 23:

an event occurred which seemed to give new point to their accusations, and which was destined not only to convulse France, but even to imperil the existence of the Republic.

For some time there had been a "leakage" in the military secret-service department. Suspicion fell upon Captain Alfred Dreyfus, a Jewish officer employed in that department. He was arrested (1894) charged with treasonable correspondence with a foreign power — presumably with Germany. The accusation was based on an unsigned, undated "bordereau" or memorandum found in the wastebasket of a member of the German embassy in Paris.

Dreyfus was tried by a court-martial sitting with closed doors. Certain experts testified that an examination of the prisoner's handwriting proved that he was the author of the treasonable memorandum. Other experts refused to coincide with that opinion. This unsatisfactory circumstantial evidence was all that was openly produced in court, but later it was reënforced by several secret documents incriminating Dreyfus, which the head of the War Department showed privately to the judges, but not to the accused or to his counsel.

The court found Dreyfus guilty. He was sentenced to be publicly degraded, to be expelled from the army, and to be imprisoned for life on Devil's Island, off the coast of French Guiana. Dreyfus protested his innocence, but the only person who believed him was his devoted young wife. She begged to share his captivity; and, when refused, resolved never to rest until she had secured a new trial for her husband.

After Captain Dreyfus had been transported to his island prison, a telegram was found (1896) which aroused suspicion

"Hardly had the Jews gained a footing in the army than they tried, by fair means or foul, to get the control of it into their hands. . . . Long ago they conquered our finance, our civil administration, and dictated the sentences imposed by our magistrates; they will become undisputed masters of France from the day when they get command of the army, and Rothschild gets possession of the scheme of mobilization — for what end we can guess at."

against Major Esterhazy, a French officer with a bad record and a worse character. He was court-martialed on charges of treasonable conduct, but was promptly acquitted. Later Esterhazy fled to London and there publicly confessed through the columns of the *London Chronicle* (1899) that he wrote the memorandum for which Dreyfus was suffering punishment.¹

Meanwhile the vice president of the French Senate had become convinced that Dreyfus was innocent; so too had Colonel Picquart,² head of the military secret-service department. Zola, the famous novelist, had come to the same conclusion. He forthwith addressed a remarkable letter to President Faure,³ in which he boldly accused the first court-martial of having illegally condemned Dreyfus on secret evidence. He next charged the second court-martial with having acquitted the notorious Esterhazy by order of the War Department.

The excitement caused by Zola's outspoken letter cannot be described. France was felt to be in a critical condition on account of the agitation of the Dreyfus case. There was danger of trouble with Germany and still greater danger of revolution at home. The anti-Semitic party and the advocates of militarism declared that the Jews were trying to clear Dreyfus, and that the honor of the country and of the French army was at stake. They denounced the proposed reopening of the case, and a Parisian mob gathered in the streets, shouting "Death to Zola!" and "Down with the Jews!" The novelist was tried for defamation of the military judges, and sentenced to a fine and imprisonment; he escaped the latter penalty by fleeing to England.

Some months later, Colonel Henry, who had succeeded Colonel Picquart as chief of the military secret-service department, confessed that he had forged one of the principal documents which had been privately used to convict Dreyfus. He

¹ The anti-Semitic press of Paris declared that the Jews had bribed Esterhazy to make a false confession. ² Picquart (peek-kar'). ³ See Paragraph 234.

did it, he said, "for the good of the country." A few days after he made this confession he was found dead in his cell with his throat cut. It was given out that he had committed suicide.

The pressure for the reopening of the Dreyfus case now became well-nigh irresistible. Several influential Parisian journals demanded it and would not be silenced. The Court of Appeals conceded that the case admitted of revision, and many leading men asked for it. On the other hand, the anti-Semitic press and the majority of the army officials did everything in their power to stop the movement. But the French government took a decided stand and resolved that, whatever might be the political risk, a new trial should be ordered.

Dreyfus was accordingly brought back to France (1896) and summoned to meet a new court-martial. Contrary to expectation that tribunal found him guilty of treason, but with extenuating circumstances, and sentenced him to five years' imprisonment. The anti-Jewish party and the army hailed the result with cheers, but great numbers of thoughtful Frenchmen, who held the honor of their country sacred, burned with indignation. Outside of France the leading journals generally declared that the final verdict of the military judges condemned only the army officials who pronounced it. The president of the Republic seems to have shared that belief, for he remitted the sentence and set the prisoner free.

Later, the fear arose that a revival of the Dreyfus case might alienate the army and endanger the stability of the Republic. To prevent further discussion and further appeals to courts, the legislature passed an amnesty bill (1900), making it impossible to bring criminal prosecution against any one connected with the affair.

Dreyfus and Zola both protested against that act as unjust, since it might prevent them from establishing their innocence. In an impassioned appeal to the president, the novelist declared

that a thing can never be finally settled until it is settled right. "If France wilfully rejects the truth," said he, "the emperor of Germany may throw it in our face when the hour of judgment strikes."

The full result of this strange and tragic case, with its tissue of falsehoods, forgeries, and suicide, if not assassination, ending with the attempted murder of the counsel for Dreyfus, belongs, as Zola said, to future history. But its present result is clear; for in the first place, the Dreyfus trial has brought into new light the power of the press—its power for evil when reckless of moral restraint, its power for good when moved by true patriotism and devotion to justice. Secondly, the Dreyfus case shows the peril to which France has exposed herself in exciting a bitter race prejudice, and in fostering a militarism which hesitates at nothing to make itself feared and to maintain its own selfish supremacy.

236. The Act of Associations.—Since the close of the Dreyfus case the most important event in France has been the passing of the Act of Associations (1901). The particular aim of the law is to bring the convents and conventual schools under the direct control of the state by compelling them to obtain authorization or license from the government, to which they are required to make full reports respecting their organization and work. Furthermore, the law limits the amount of property which they can hold or dispose of.

Out of a total of nearly seventeen thousand such associations in France, with a membership of about forty thousand monks and one hundred and thirty-five thousand nuns, over five thousand applied for authorization to remain and carry out their work; others preferred to remove from the country.

When the question of the enforcement of the law came up, forty-four of the eighty-six departments into which the Republic is divided, voted for it; twenty-two opposed it, and the remaining departments took no action.

The execution of the law in the summer of 1902 created great excitement in certain sections, more especially in Brittany and Normandy. Many free religious schools and conventual establishments were forcibly closed under conditions which bore with especial severity on the nuns and sisters of charity who were engaged in them.

In a number of instances the sympathy of the country people was roused to a point which led to very determined resistance and to serious riots. At one time the situation seemed indeed to threaten a general rising in the departments opposed to the law, and fears were expressed that the stability of the government might be threatened. It now seems probable that further resistance will prefer to make itself felt through legislative channels, rather than by the employment of actual force.

237. National Prosperity and Progress. — Napoleon III said, when he ascended the throne, that "the Empire means Peace"; yet he embroiled France in disastrous wars which ended in his own ruin. The Republic has shown by its deeds that it means peace, and under it France has prospered.

"Happy is that country," says the old maxim, "that has no history," — whose course is so uneventful and quiet that there is nothing to record. For more than a quarter of a century France has enjoyed a large measure of tranquillity. If we except the Dreyfus affair, no serious crisis has occurred to menace her well-being. It is true that there have been political agitations, political struggles, political scandals — what country, indeed, is free from them? The Jesuits and the Bourbon princes have been expelled,¹ — acts which, perhaps, had better not have been committed; but there have been no revolutions, no costly wars, no oppression of the people, no serious, systematic restriction of liberty of thought and expression. Progress has been the

¹ The Jesuits were expelled by President Grévy in 1880; the Bourbon princes and the Bonapartes in 1886.

rule, not the exception, and France ranks to-day the second great republic of the world.

That shrewd, practical philosopher, Benjamin Franklin, declared that he believed that the moral condition of men depends in no small degree on their pecuniary condition. "It is hard," said he, "for an empty bag to stand upright." France, certainly, has no need to learn this lesson, for her industry and thrift are remarkable. No people in Europe labor more diligently, none save a larger proportion of their earnings. Whatever sturdy independence the accumulation of property can give, they possess.

The evidences of the material prosperity of the country are unmistakable. Notwithstanding the loss of over nine thousand square miles of territory and over two millions of inhabitants by the forced surrender of Alsace and part of Lorraine,¹ France, in her crippled condition, paid off the Franco-German war debt of a thousand million dollars in about two and a half years! What other nation can show such a record as that? Since that debt was paid the country has gained enormously in general wealth and well-being. It has doubled the length of its railways and telegraph lines, increased its agricultural products, extended its manufactures, and multiplied its books, newspapers, and schools.

Better than all, however, is the progress that the people have made in self-government, in that individual enterprise which begins and carries through great works, and in those industrial associations and partnerships which aim permanently to reconcile the true interests of labor and capital.

The gravest offset to this encouraging outlook is the fact that France has come to a standstill in the growth of her population. She endeavors to console herself by repeating that the nation is growing in intellectual power if not in the figures of the census reports; but none the less the government is fully

¹ See Paragraph 231.

conscious of the danger which threatens any nation in the struggle of life when the death rate virtually catches up with the rate of birth.

238. **General Summary ; Conclusion.** — On the title-page of this book the following quotation from one of the foremost historians of the nineteenth century may be found : “ There is hardly any great idea, hardly any great principle of civilization, which has not had to pass through France in order to be disseminated.”

Perhaps in closing this brief history we cannot do better than ask how far the facts presented in this volume justify such a statement. Let us begin with the earliest times.

I. We know that Roman civilization had a most important influence on Europe. If we inquire how that influence was preserved, we must look to France as one of the chief agents in the work. It was in Gaul that the Latin language took root. There, Roman law and Roman culture were perpetuated,¹ so that we may say that whatever the world has gained from these sources it owes much of it to France.

II. After the fall of Rome, Feudalism organized society on a new basis, — the holding of land on terms of military service and the fidelity of man to man. However imperfect that system, it was evidently an advantage at the time : it secured a degree of order and prosperity that would otherwise have been impossible. It found its earliest and its most complete development in France,² and from France it was transplanted in a modified form to England.

III. Consider the Crusades. They brought Europe into direct and vital contact with the civilization of the East. They extended geographical knowledge. They brought in new products, new ideas, and finally were the means, directly or indirectly, of effecting great and salutary political and social changes. Well, the crusades, as we know, began in

¹ See Paragraph 9.

² See Paragraphs 34-36, 48.

France. Throughout their course until the last crusade, which ended with St. Louis, France took a very prominent, if not, indeed, the chief part.¹ Whatever advantage resulted from them, France must have the credit in large measure.

IV. Let us turn to Education. In this respect France undoubtedly led the nations of the Middle Ages. “ The University of Paris was the first great intellectual center of Europe.”² Scholars flocked to it by thousands from England and the countries of the continent. Through its influence knowledge was kept alive and disseminated, so that, in one sense, the French university has been the mother of all that have been subsequently founded throughout the world.

V. With respect to Religious Toleration we find that France was likewise a pioneer. The Edict of Nantes was, as we have seen, the first formal recognition, by any leading nation of Europe, of the principle of liberty of conscience.³ The edict was revoked in the next century ; but it had set the example, and such examples are never wholly lost.

VI. We come next to Political Liberty and Constitutional Monarchy. Here the preëminence belongs to England. Her charters of rights, her people’s parliaments had no parallel in France until the Revolution. But on the other hand, the principle that “ all men are created equal ” or entitled to equal rights and privileges before the law, — that principle which is the corner stone of the Constitution of the United States, — had its origin and earliest expression in France.⁴ To France Europe is indebted very largely for the progress of this salutary truth and for its embodiment in legal forms and safeguards.

VII. In Industrial Civilization and in the Physical Sciences it is the Anglo-Saxon race that again stands preëminent. France did not discover the law of gravitation, did not build the first railway, launch the first steamship, or send the first telegraphic

¹ See Paragraphs 51, 63-64.

³ See Paragraph 132.

² See Paragraph 62.

⁴ See Paragraph 174.

message; but she first tunneled the Alps, showed the world the first photograph, discovered in Europe the art of making porcelain, built the first interoceanic ship canal, and began the second;¹ while the labors of Pasteur practically laid the foundation of the science of bacteriology which makes known the effects of certain germs in health and disease, and the practical uses of other germs in agriculture and various occupations.² Again, in all forms of art work France still leads the world.

VIII. Finally, let us take up Literature. Here, in two important respects, — clearness of expression and range of influence,³ — France is acknowledged to stand at the head of the countries of Europe.

Sir James Stephen⁴ says, "The palm of habitually expressing the most profound thoughts in the most simple and intelligible forms of speech must be awarded not to England, but to France." Lord Macaulay,⁵ in speaking of England and France, says, "The literature of France has been to ours what Aaron was to Moses — the expositor of great truths, which would else have perished for want of a voice to utter them with distinctness. . . . Isolated in our situation, isolated by our manners, we found truth, but we did not impart it. France has been the interpreter between England and mankind."

Such is a brief summary of the influence of the people whose history we have been examining. It shows us that France has originated much and disseminated more. The Anglo-Saxons are colonizers of nations — the French, of ideas. For this reason, the movements which are now taking place in the great transatlantic republic will be watched with interest, since experience proves that what France is thinking and attempting to-day, Europe, and perhaps America as well, may be thinking and attempting to-morrow.

¹ See Paragraphs 225, 230. ² See Professor H. W. Conn's *Germ Life*, p. 14.

³ See Paragraph 151.

⁴ Stephen's *Lectures on the History of France* (Lecture XVIII, "Power of the Pen in France").

⁵ Macaulay's *Essays* ("Walpole's Letters to Sir Horace Mann").

SUMMARY OF THE PRINCIPAL DATES IN FRENCH HISTORY

[The * marks the most important dates.
The ? marks the dates that cannot be given with exactness.]

I. THE EARLIEST PERIOD

- Greek colony of Massalia (Marseilles) founded in Gaul, 597? B.C.
- Roman colony of Provence (Provence) founded in Gaul, 125 B.C.
- Battle of Aix, 102 B.C.

II. THE ROMAN PERIOD

- *Cæsar conquers and occupies Gaul, 58-51 B.C.
- Christianity introduced into Gaul, A.D. 160?
- Persecution of Christians begins, 170?
- *Constantine tolerates Christianity, 313.
- German invasion of Gaul begins, 350?
- Julian proclaimed Emperor at Paris, 360.
- *Battle of Châlons, 451.

III. THE MEROVINGIAN PERIOD

- *Clovis begins the Merovingian line of kings, 481.
- *Conversion and baptism of Clovis, 496.
- Conquers and consolidates the greater part of Gaul, 500-511.
- His kingdom divided among his sons, 511.
- Rise of Austrasia and Neustria, 558?
- Wars of Brunhilda and Fredegonda, 570-613?
- Mayors of the Palace become prominent, 600?
- Dagobert, 628-638.
- Mayorality of *Pepin* begins, 680.
- *Battle of Testry, 687.
- Mayorality of *Charles Martel* begins, 715.
- *Battle of Tours, 732.

IV. THE CAROLINGIAN PERIOD

- Pepin* begins the Carolingian line of kings, 752.
- *The "Donation of *Pepin*" establishes the temporal power of the pope, 755.
- Charlemagne, 768.

- Campaign in Lombardy, 773.
- Donation to the Church, 774.
- Battle of Roncesvalles, 778.
- Conquers the Saxons, 772-803.
- Establishes the schools of the palace, 788.
- *Is crowned Emperor of the West, 800.
- Struggle of the descendants of Charlemagne for the Empire, 841.
- *Oath of Strasburg (marks the beginning of the French language), 842.
- *Treaty of Verdun (marks the beginning of the kingdoms of France, Germany, and Italy), 843.
- Invasion of the Northmen and siege of Paris, 885.
- *Settlement of Northmen in western France (Normandy), 911.

V. HOUSE OF CAPET

- *Hugh Capet, first king of France proper, 987.
- The feudal system completely organized, 987?
- Robert, 996.
- Expectation of the end of the world, 999.
- Henry I, 1031.
- The Truce of God, 1033.
- Philip I, 1060.
- *William, Duke of Normandy, conquers England, 1066.
- *The First Crusade, 1095.
- Louis VI, 1108.
- *Beginning of the rise of free towns, 1112.
- War with England, 1110.
- Condemnation of the teachings of Abélard, 1122.
- Louis VII, 1137.
- Philip Augustus, 1180.
- *University of Paris established on a firm foundation, 1200.
- *Philip conquers Normandy, 1202-1205.
- *Crusade against the Albigenses begins, 1208.
- *Battle of Bouvines, 1214.
- Louis VIII, 1223.
- Louis IX (St. Louis), 1226.
- *He establishes the Parliament of Paris, 1258.