

increased by irruptions from the north, so that in the 5th and 6th centuries, under the rule of the Franks, they formed the principal element of the population. For several centuries the history of the Franks is the history of the Netherlands. Afterwards the country was divided into a number of independent duchies, counties, and free cities. Among these may be mentioned the duchies of Brabant, Limbourg, and Luxembourg, the counties of Flanders, Hainault, and Namur, the bishopric of Liège, the lordship of Malines, &c. Of these the county of Flanders rose to be superior to all the others, and became distinguished for its industry and commercial activity. In 1385 the male line of the counts of Flanders became extinct, and their possessions passed into the hands of the dukes of Burgundy, who soon after, in various ways, came into possession of the whole of the Netherlands. In order to strengthen their power they sought to repress the spirit of liberty, and to do away with the free institutions that had sprung up in the country; but notwithstanding this the people continued to increase in wealth and prosperity, and industry and commerce flourished more and more among them. In 1477 Mary of Burgundy, only daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, married the Archduke Maximilian, son of the Emperor Frederick IV., and thus the Netherlands came into the possession of the House of Austria. Maximilian succeeded to the imperial throne in 1493, and the following year he resigned the government of the Netherlands to his son Philip, then a youth of seventeen years of age. The latter, in 1496, married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Castile, and died in 1506, leaving to succeed him a son who afterwards became Charles V. During the reign of this monarch the Protestant religion began to spread in the country, though its adherents were subjected to much persecution. His son and successor, Philip II. of Spain, by his cruel persecutions and his attempt to establish the Inquisition in the country, drove the people into open rebellion. The duke of Alva, who was sent at the head of a Spanish army to reduce them to subjection, perpetrated upon them the most horrid cruelties, devastating the country in every direction, and erecting scaffolds in every city. At length the northern portion of the Netherlands succeeded in establishing its independence, and became the republic of the Seven United Provinces, while the southern portion, or Belgium, continued under the rule of Spain. In 1598 Philip ceded Belgium to his daughter Isabella and her husband the Archduke Albert, under whom it formed a distinct and independent kingdom. Attempts were then made to restore the prosperity of the country and improve its internal condition; but, unfortunately, Albert died without leaving issue in 1621, and the country again fell into the hands of Spain.

For many years Belgium continued to share in the declining fortunes of Spain; and in the wars that broke out between that power and France and Holland, it was exposed to the first attack, and peace was usually purchased at the expense of some part of its territory. By the treaty of the Pyrenees (1659) the county of Artois, Thionville, and other districts were ceded to France. Subsequent French conquests, confirmed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668), took away Lille, Charleroi, Oudenarde, Courtray, and other places. These were, indeed, partly restored to Belgium by the peace of Nimeguen (1679); but, on the other hand, it lost Valenciennes, Nieuport, Cambrai, St Omer, Ypres, and Charlemont, which were only in part recovered by the peace of Ryswick (1697). After the conclusion of this last treaty the Spanish Government attempted to restore prosperity to Belgium by the introduction of new customs laws, and by other means, particularly by the construction of canals to counteract the injury done to

its commerce by the closing of the navigation of the Scheldt by the Dutch. But these attempts were of little avail in consequence of the breaking out of the War of the Spanish Succession, which was only brought to an end by the peace of Utrecht in 1713. By this treaty Belgium was assigned to Austria, and took the name of the Austrian Netherlands. Yet such was the enfeebled state of the country that Holland retained the right, which had been conceded to her during the late war, of garrisoning the principal fortresses on the French frontier, and her right to close the navigation of the Scheldt was also recognised. In 1722 a commercial company was formed at Ostend by Charles VI., but this was sacrificed in 1731 to the jealousy of the Dutch. During the Austrian War of Succession almost the whole country fell into the hands of the French, but was restored to Austria by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). Belgium was undisturbed by the Seven Years' War (1756-63), and during the long peace which followed enjoyed considerable prosperity under the mild rule of Maria Theresa, whose representative here, Prince Charles of Lorraine, conducted affairs with great judgment and moderation. The empress did much for the advancement of education, founding, among other institutions, the Belgian Academy of Sciences, and opposed the undue power of the clergy. Her son and successor, Joseph II., got into difficulties with Holland, and compelled that power to withdraw her garrisons from the frontier towns, but was unsuccessful in his attempts to free the navigation of the Scheldt. It was, however, in his attempts to reform internal abuses that he failed most signally here as in other parts of his dominions. He excited the religious feelings of the people against him, by attempting to curb the power of the priests, and he offended the states by seeking to overturn the civil government. Numbers of the malcontents left the country, and organized themselves as a military force in Holland. As the discontent became more general the insurgents returned, took several forts, defeated the Austrians at Turnhout, and overran the country. On 11th December 1789, the people of Brussels rose against the Austrian garrison, and compelled it to capitulate, and on the 27th the states of Brabant declared their independence. The other provinces followed, and, on 11th January 1790, the whole formed themselves into an independent state under the name of United Belgium, with a congress to manage its affairs. After the death of Joseph II. his successor, Leopold II., issued a proclamation on 3d March 1790, wherein he promised the restoration of the former constitution if the people would return to their allegiance. This, however, they refused to do, and they also rejected the proposal of a congress to meet at the Hague for the settlement of their differences. In the end of November, therefore, a strong Austrian army was sent into Belgium, and the country was subdued without any great opposition. The constitution as it existed at the end of the reign of Maria Theresa was restored, an amnesty was proclaimed for past offences, and the opposition of the states was put down. The short period of peace which followed was terminated by the breaking out of the war with revolutionary France. The battle of Jemappes (7th Nov. 1792) made the French masters of the country to the south of Liège; and the battle of Fleurus (26th June 1794) put an end to the Austrian rule in Belgium. The treaty of Campo Formio (1797) and the subsequent treaty of Luneville (1801) confirmed the conquerors in the possession of the country, and Belgium became an integral part of France, being governed on the same footing, receiving the *Code Napoleon*, and sharing in the fortunes of the Republic and of the Empire. (See FRANCE.) After the fall of Napoleon and the conclusion of the first peace of Paris (30th May 1814), Belgium was for some months ruled by an Austrian governor-general, after which it was united with Holland under

Prince William Frederick of Nassau, who took the title of King of the Netherlands (23d March 1815). The Congress of Vienna (31st May 1815) determined the relations and fixed the boundaries of the new kingdom; and the new constitution was promulgated on the 24th of August following, the king taking the oath at Brussels, Sept. 27.

The union, however, was not a particularly fortunate or happy one. It was brought about by the allied powers with little regard to the wishes or inclinations 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, language, and religion of the Belgians were all against such an alliance. Through their connection and intercourse with France they had acquired much of the spirit, habits, and ideas of the people of that country; while the slow, staid, conservative habits and ideas of the Dutch were repugnant to them. The Belgians were chiefly engaged in agriculture and the manufactures, while the Dutch were mainly given to commerce and the fisheries. The French was the common language of Belgium, at least in the higher circles and in all public proceedings. But the principal difficulty arose from the difference in religion. The Roman Catholic clergy of Belgium were from the first opposed to a union with a Protestant country like Holland, and the great mass of the people were very ignorant, and much under the influence of the priests. Nevertheless, had a mild and conciliatory policy been adopted by the Dutch it would have done much to remove or lessen these difficulties. This, however, was not done. Belgium was regarded too much in the light of a conquered country, at whose expense they might lawfully enrich themselves. Though the population of Belgium was 3,400,000 and that of Holland only 2,000,000, the latter had as many representatives in the States-general as the former. This frequently rendered decision on important legislative questions a matter of extreme doubt and difficulty. In matters that affected, or were believed to affect, the two countries in different or opposite ways, the decision often depended on the accidental absence of a member on the one side or the other. The use of the French language was also attempted to be abolished in all Government and judicial proceedings. The great majority of the public offices were filled by Dutchmen, and the government was conducted principally in the interests of Holland. In 1830, of the seven Government ministers only one was a Belgian; in the ministry of the interior, of 117 officials only 11 were Belgians; in the ministry of war, of 102 officials only 3 were Belgians; and among 1967 officers of the army, only 288 were Belgians. The partisans of Holland attempt to explain away these facts, but with only very partial success; both sides, however, acquit the king of any intentional unfairness, and consider that he was led to act as he did by force of circumstances. The Belgians admit that he always manifested a sincere regard for their welfare, but accuse him of giving too ready an acquiescence to what they tauntingly called the schemes of their *Dutch cousins*.

Notwithstanding these drawbacks Belgium enjoyed during her union with Holland a degree of prosperity that was quite remarkable. The mineral wealth of the country was largely developed, the iron manufactures of Liège rapidly advanced in prosperity, the woollen manufactures of Verviers received a similar impulse, and many large establishments were formed at Ghent and other places where cotton goods were fabricated which rivalled those of England and far surpassed those of France. The extensive colonial and foreign trade of the Dutch furnished them with new markets for their produce; while the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt raised Antwerp to a place of the first commercial importance. The Government also did much in the way of improving the internal communications

of the country, in repairing the roads and canals, and forming new ones, deepening and widening rivers, and the like. Nor was the social and intellectual improvement of the people by any means neglected. A new university was formed at Liège, normal schools for the instruction of teachers were instituted, and numerous elementary schools and schools for higher instruction were established over the country. That the Government should take upon itself the direction and regulation of the education of the people was particularly hateful to the priests, still more so were the attempts subsequently made to improve the education of the priests themselves. The king had determined that no priest should be inducted who had not passed two years in the study of the *literæ humaniores* before his ordination; and he appropriated a college at Louvain for that purpose, some of the professors in which were not priests, but laymen and Protestants. This gave great offence to the prelates and clergy, and some of the former, who had indulged in very intemperate language, were prosecuted. These proceedings were at the time applauded and encouraged by the active party of the Liberals, but afterwards these saw it their interest to join with the most bigoted of the Roman Catholics against the Government. With the view of terminating these differences the king in 1827 entered into a *concordat* with the Pope, settling the right of nomination to the bishoprics, and providing that the education of the priests should be under the control of the prelates, but that in the seminaries professors should be appointed to teach the sciences as well as what related to ecclesiastical matters. This, however, was far from satisfying the more violent of the clergy; and the two most opposite parties, the Catholic Ultramontanes and the French Liberals, united their efforts to effect the overthrow of the Government. The Liberals affected a zeal for the Catholic faith, and urged the clergy to make extravagant demands upon the Government, which they knew if granted would be hurtful to it, and if refused would increase the agitation then going on. Brussels was at this time, too, a city of refuge for the intriguing and discontented of almost every country of Europe, and the press teemed with libels not only against the Belgian Government, but also against almost every other, so that the people were constantly kept in a high state of political excitement. At length the Government took proceedings against some of the more notorious of the inflammatory writers, and several of them were banished from the kingdom.

Matters were in this state when the news of the success of the Paris revolution of 1830 reached Belgium. Numbers of the propagandists came to Brussels, where they paraded the streets and talked loudly in the public places of the glories of the Revolution and of the future destinies of France. The first outbreak occurred on the 25th of August, just a month after the commencement of that of Paris. A play, called *La Muette*, which abounds in passages well calculated to inflame the populace in their then excited state, was performed in the theatre, and when the curtain fell the audience rushed out into the street shouting, "Imitons les Parisiens." They were speedily joined by others, and the mob at once proceeded to deeds of violence, destroying or damaging a number of public buildings, manufactories, and private houses. The guards and posts in the centre of the city were overcome or quietly surrendered; the troops were drawn out, but they were too few in number to contend with the insurgents, and they either retreated to their barracks or were withdrawn to the upper part of the city, where they piled their arms in front of the king's palace, and renounced all attempts at suppressing the tumult. A number of the more influential and the middle-class citizens now enrolled themselves into a burgher guard for the protection of life and property, and to interpose in

a manner between the contending parties. The intelligence of these events in the capital soon spread throughout the provinces; and in most of the large towns similar scenes were enacted, commencing with plunderings and outrages by the mobs, followed by the institution of burgher guards for the maintenance of peace. The burgher guard of Brussels was most anxious to terminate the dispute without recourse being had to extreme measures. They demanded the dismissal of the minister, Van Maanen, who was obnoxious to the people, and a separate administration for Belgium without an entire separation of the two countries. The Government neither agreed to make these concessions nor did it resolve upon actual force, but adopted a sort of middle course which, by allowing things to go on, ended in converting a popular riot into a complete revolution. The heir-apparent, the prince of Orange, was sent on a peaceful mission to Brussels, but furnished with such limited powers as, in the circumstances, were utterly inadequate. On his arrival a conference was held, which extended over several days; and at the final meeting on 3d Sept., when a number of the members of the States-general were present, the prince had become so convinced that nothing but a separate administration of the two countries would restore tranquillity, that he promised to use his influence with his father to bring about that object—the persons present on their part assuring him that they would heartily unite in maintaining the dynasty of the House of Orange. The king summoned an extraordinary States-general, which met at the Hague, 13th Sept., and was opened by a speech from the throne, which was firm and temperate, but by no means definite. The proceedings of the body were dilatory, and the conduct of the Dutch deputies exasperated the people of Belgium beyond measure. The moderate party in the country gradually lost their influence, and those who were in favour of violent measures prevailed, while the warlike demonstrations made by the troops kindled a feeling of animosity and stimulated preparations for defence. Although the States were still sitting at the Hague, the king's army was gradually approaching Brussels. It consisted of 14,000 well-appointed troops under the command of Prince Frederick; but its movements were too tardy if force was to be employed, and it was entirely out of place if conciliatory measures were to prevail. On 20th September the council resolved to take possession of Brussels, believing that the inhabitants were eager to receive the troops, and that their presence there would tend to restore peace; and orders were sent to Prince Frederick to that effect. On the 23d the troops advanced towards the city, and, with little opposition, occupied the upper or court portion of it, which is situated on a hill, by which the rest of the town is commanded. The fighting continued for three days without any definite result, when the prince ordered a retreat. The news of this soon reached Ghent, Bruges, Ostend, and other towns, which at once declared in favour of separation. A Provisional Government was formed at Brussels, which declared Belgium to be an independent state, and summoned a national congress for the regulation of its affairs. The council of the king now consented to separate administrations for the two kingdoms, but it was too late to restore peace. Antwerp was the only important town which remained in the hands of the Dutch, and the army on leaving Brussels had fallen back on this town. In the end of October an insurgent army had arrived before the gates, which were opened by the populace to receive them, and the troops, under General Chassé, retired within the citadel. A truce was concluded between the parties, but the Belgian officers were unable to restrain the fury of the populace who, with such weapons as they had, attacked the citadel. The general ordered a cannonade and bombardment of the

town, which continued for two days, destroying a number of houses and large quantities of merchandise. A suspension of hostilities then took place, but the misrepresentations and exaggerations of the proceedings which spread did much to inflame the minds of the Belgians still farther against the Dutch.

A convention of representatives of the five great powers met in London, in the beginning of November, at the request of the king of the Netherlands, but its attention was mainly directed to bringing about peace, and through it both sides were brought to consent to a cessation of hostilities. On the 10th November the national congress assembled at Brussels, consisting of 200 deputies chosen from the different provinces. Three important questions were decided by that assembly:—(1.) The independence of the country,—carried unanimously; (2.) a constitutional hereditary monarchy,—by a majority of 174 against 13 in favour of a republic; and (3.) the perpetual exclusion of the Orange Nassau family,—by a majority of 161 against 28 in favour of delay. On 20th December the conference of London proclaimed the dissolution of the kingdom of the Netherlands, at the same time that it claimed for itself the right of interfering even against the will of both countries to regulate the conditions of partition. On the 28th of January 1831 the congress proceeded to the election of a king, and out of a number of candidates the choice fell on the duke of Nemours, second son of Louis Philippe, but he declined the office. The congress then resolved on the election of a regent as a temporary measure, and they selected Baron Surlet de Chokier, who was installed on the 25th of February. This, however, did little to restore tranquillity to the country, and the partisans of the prince of Orange were still actively intriguing in his favour. At length, in the month of April, a proposition was privately made to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, widower of the Princess Charlotte of England, with the view of ascertaining whether, if chosen, he would accept the crown. It is remarkable that though his name was mentioned he was not among the number of candidates brought forward on the previous occasion. He answered in the affirmative, but strictly abstained from giving any authority to exertion being made in his favour. After many stormy discussions the election at length took place on the 4th of June, when 152 votes out of 196, four only being absent, determined that Prince Leopold should be proclaimed king of the Belgians, under the express condition that he "would accept the constitution and swear to maintain the national independence and territorial integrity." Leopold at once accepted, and made his public entry into Brussels on the 21st, when he was received with great cordiality. He subsequently visited other parts of the kingdom, and was everywhere received with demonstrations of loyalty and respect. While this was going on news suddenly arrived that the Dutch were preparing to invade the country with a large army. This had been brought together so secretly that the Belgians were unaware of its existence till it was about to cross the frontier. It comprised 45,000 infantry and 6000 cavalry, with 72 pieces of artillery, while Leopold could scarcely bring forward 25,000 men to oppose it. On the 2d of August the whole of the Dutch army had crossed the frontier. Leopold collected his forces, such as they were, near Louvain in order to cover his capital. The Dutch army advanced to the attack (9th August), and though the king displayed great bravery and determination, he was unable to impart his spirit to his undisciplined troops, who were speedily routed, the king himself and his staff making a narrow escape from being taken prisoners. He, however, made good his retreat to the capital; and a French army, which was ready to enter the country, then advanced, and the Prince of Orange saw the necessity of

retreating. A convention was concluded between him and the French general, in consequence of which he returned to Holland and the French army repassed the frontier.

Leopold now proceeded with vigour to strengthen his position, and to restore order and confidence. French officers were selected for the training and disciplining of the army, the civil list was arranged with economy and order, and the other branches of the public service were reformed or rearranged. He kept on the best terms with the Roman Catholic clergy and the Roman Catholic nobility; and his subsequent marriage with a daughter of the French king (9th August 1832), and a contract that the children of the marriage should be educated in the Roman Catholic faith, did much to inspire confidence in his good intentions. While these things were going on the conference in London was engaged in determining the terms of peace, and a project of a treaty for the separation of the two states was drawn up and declared to be "final and irrevocable." The first basis of separation had determined that the grand-duchy of Luxembourg, which belonged to the king of Holland as grand-duke, should continue to belong to Holland. By the subsequent treaty of the eighteen articles, Belgium received the right to treat for the purchase or redemption of Luxembourg from Holland on fair terms. These articles were adopted by the Belgian congress in July 1831, but the king of Holland rejected them, and followed up his rejection, as we have seen, by the invasion of Belgium. The terms of the treaty which followed this invasion were much more favourable to Holland than those of the previous one; for the feeble resistance that Belgium had been able to make had affected very unfavourably the directing powers, who considered that, in the interests of the peace of Europe, their first duty was to strengthen the defensive power of Holland. The new proposals, therefore, caused great excitement in Belgium, and met with much opposition; but, eventually, they were adopted by a majority of 59 to 38 in the Chamber of Representatives, and 35 to 8 in the Senate.

The treaty was signed on 15th November, and its conditions were embraced in twenty-four articles. By these articles the grand-duchy of Luxembourg was to be divided, but the fortress of Luxembourg was to remain in the hands of the king of Holland as grand-duke, who was also to receive a portion of Limbourg for the part of Luxembourg ceded to Belgium. The district of Maestricht was also partitioned, the fortress of that name remaining with Holland; the Scheldt was to be open to the commerce of both countries; and the national debt was apportioned—to Belgium sixteen thirty-firsts, and the rest to Holland. It was also declared that Belgium "shall form an independent and perfectly neutral state." This agreement was ratified by the Belgian and French sovereigns on the 20th and 24th November, by the British, 6th December; but the Austrian and Prussian sovereigns did not accede to it till 18th April 1832, and the Russian not till 4th May. The Dutch still continued to protest against it, and maintained their possession of Antwerp. After fruitless efforts on the part of the great powers to obtain their acquiescence, France and England resolved to have recourse to force. On the 5th November, therefore, their combined fleets sailed for the coast of Holland, and on the 18th, a French army, under the command of Marshal Gérard, crossed the Belgian frontier to besiege Antwerp. The garrison consisted of only about 5000 men, while the besieging force numbered 60,000. Operations commenced 30th November, and the siege in a military point of view is a memorable one. The garrison surrendered to the

¹ See Parliamentary paper, Aug. 1870.—*Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg Treaties of 1831, 1839, and 1867.*

French on 23d December, on the 31st the fortress was handed over to the Belgians, and some days afterwards the French troops recrossed the frontier. Long and complicated diplomatic negotiations followed, but matters were at length adjusted, and on the 21st of May 1833 a convention was agreed to and signed by all the parties. The House of Orange still numbered many partisans in Belgium, whose proceedings embarrassed the Government; and in Brussels, and some of the other towns, the people rose up against them, pillaging the houses of some of the leaders, and were appeased with difficulty. The king now gave his attention to the improvement of the manufactures and commerce of Belgium; and on 1st May 1834 he sanctioned the law which was to create the first railroad on the continent of Europe.

In 1835 the alien bill gave rise to considerable discussion, but it was at length carried. Its object was to give Government the power to send out of the kingdom, or to compel to reside in a particular place, any foreigner whose conduct was calculated to endanger the public peace. In 1836 an Act to regulate the municipal form of government in the towns and communes was passed. The election of the members of the municipal councils was continued in the citizens, but the appointment of the burgomaster and magistrates was vested in the king from among the members of the councils. The manufactures and commerce continued to flourish and extend, and the formation of railways was actively carried on. As Holland had not yet acceded to all the conditions of the twenty-four articles, Belgium still kept possession of the whole of Limbourg and Luxembourg except the fortress of the latter, with a small area round it, which was occupied by Prussian troops. These territories had been treated in every way as a part of Belgium, and had sent representatives to both chambers. Great indignation was therefore felt at the idea of their being separated, when Holland, on 14th of March 1838, signified its readiness to accept the conditions of the treaty. The chambers argued that Belgium had been induced to agree to the twenty-four articles in 1832 in the hope of thereby at once terminating all harassing disputes, but that as Holland did not then accept them, the conditions were no longer binding, and the circumstances were now quite changed. They urged that Luxembourg in effect formed an integral part of their territory, and that the people were totally opposed to a union with Holland. They offered to pay for the territory in dispute, but the treaty gave them no right of purchase, and the proposal was not entertained. The two chambers unanimously voted addresses to the king, expressing a hope that the integrity of Belgium would be maintained. Similar addresses were sent from all parts of the country, and the people were roused to a great state of excitement. The king was at one with his people, and every preparation was made for war. But the firmness of the allied powers, and their determination to uphold the conditions of the treaty, at last brought the king, though with extreme reluctance, to give in to their views. After violent discussions the Chamber of Representatives gave its adhesion on 19th March 1839, and some days later the Senate followed the example. The treaty was signed at London on the 19th of April. The annual payment by Belgium for its share of the national debt, which had been fixed at 8,400,000 florins, was reduced to 5,000,000 florins, or £416,666, with quitance of arrears prior to 1st January 1839. When this excitement was at its height the Bank of Brussels failed, and much misery and distress among the people was the result. This was immediately followed by the failure of the Brussels Savings-Bank, but the Government instantly came forward and guaranteed the claims thereupon, amounting to 1,500,000 florins.

The Belgian revolution owed its success to the union of the Roman Catholics and the Liberals; and the king had been very careful to maintain the alliance between these two parties. This continued to be the character of the Government up to 1840, but by degrees it had been becoming more and more conservative, and was giving rise to dissatisfaction. A ministry was formed on more liberal principles, but it clashed with the Catholic aristocracy, who had the majority in the Senate. Disputes arose which caused great excitement among the people, and the cabinet resigned. A new ministry was then formed, under M. Nothomb, of a unionist or mixed kind. In 1842 a new law for the organization of public primary instruction was passed, which, however, did not meet with the approval of the clergy. In 1844 a commercial treaty was concluded with the German Zollverein; and soon after similar treaties were formed with France and Holland. The Nothomb ministry retired in 1845, and for seven months M. Van de Weyer attempted to carry on affairs with a mixed ministry; but he found it impossible to maintain harmony among the different factions. A Catholic administration was then formed, which was attacked with the greatest fury by the Liberals. The latter summoned a Liberal congress to meet at Brussels (14th June 1846), composed of delegates from the different Liberal associations throughout the country. Three hundred delegates met and deliberated with the greatest calmness, drawing up an Act of Federation and a programme of Belgian Liberalism. The elections of 1847 gave a majority in favour of the Liberals; the cabinet resigned, and a Liberal administration took its place and formally announced a new policy. Hence it happened that when next year France was in revolution and her king a fugitive, Belgium remained calm and unshaken. When the news reached Brussels the king convoked a council of his ministers and offered to resign if they thought that it would avert calamity or conduce to the public welfare. The ministers replied that a constitutional monarchy was best fitted for the people, and that a republic was neither according to their wishes nor adapted to their character. The democratic societies of Brussels attempted a revolutionary movement, but met with little success. At this time a new electoral law was issued lowering the franchise to 20 florins' worth of property (33s. 4d.), by which the number of electors was at once doubled; and soon after another law reduced the qualification for municipal councils to 46 francs (36s.). These timely concessions gave general satisfaction, and completely disarmed the extreme democratic party; so that when an expedition was organized in Paris against the throne of Leopold, with the countenance and aid of certain members of the French Government, it met with no sympathy and totally failed in its object. On the night of the 24th March the conspirators, to the number of about 800 French and 100 Belgians, arrived at Quiévrain by train, but they were at once surrounded by the military and peasants and made prisoners. Alarmed at this attempt the Government strongly reinforced the frontier towns with troops, and was thus able to repulse a more formidable invasion that took place a few days later. Belgium, however, suffered severely from the shock given to commercial credit and general industry. The discounts at the bank, which in 1847 had been 160,200,000 francs, sank, in 1848, to 86,900,000 francs, and the current accounts fell from 183,000,000 francs to 96,000,000 francs. The panic soon rendered the payment of notes in cash impossible; and the Government, by a law passed 28th March 1848, suspended cash payments, and authorized the bank to issue inconvertible notes to a limited extent. By this reasonable measure public credit was restored, and industry speedily revived.

The attention of the Government was now largely

directed to the stimulating of private industry and the carrying out of public works of great practical utility, as the extension of railways and the opening up of other internal means of communication. Commercial treaties were also entered into with various countries with the view of providing additional outlets for industrial products. The king also sought as much as possible to remove from the domain of politics every irritating question, believing that a union of the different parties was most for the advantage of the state. In 1850 the question of middle class education was settled. In August of that year the whole country between Brussels and the French frontier suffered greatly from excessive rains; the country for many leagues was flooded, many lives were lost, and the destruction of property was very great. On 25th September the king laid the foundation stone of a monument in Brussels to commemorate the national congress which in 1831 had fashioned the new destinies of the country, and on 11th October the queen died. In 1852 the Liberal cabinet was overthrown, and a ministry of conciliation was formed. A bill was passed authorizing the army to be raised to 100,000 men including reserve. The elections of 1854 modified the parliamentary situation by increasing the strength of the Conservatives; the ministry resigned and a new one was formed under M. de Decker, of moderate Catholics and Progressives. At the Paris conference of 1856, which settled the peace with Russia, the French minister, Count Walewski, complained of Belgium permitting to issue from its press publications the most hostile and insulting to France and her government, in which revolt and assassination were openly advocated. The remarks caused great indignation in Belgium. In 1857 violent discussions took place between the Liberal party and the Roman Catholics on the question of the administration of charities throughout the kingdom. Since 1830 the administration of these had been vested in the secular power, and the Catholic party had long sought to get this power into their own hands. When, therefore, M. de Decker, who supported their views, became head of the ministry, the priests made every exertion, even by bribery, to influence the elections so as to obtain a majority in their favour. In April the ministry of M. de Decker brought in a bill practically abolishing the existing law on the subject. The bill met with the most violent opposition; the discussions, which extended over 27 sittings and were characterized by great animosity, revealed a growing spirit of exaction and intolerance on the part of the clergy; but eventually it was carried by a majority of 60 to 41. The result caused great excitement among the people, the Liberal deputies were cheered, and the principal Catholic speakers hooted and insulted. The agitation extended to the provinces, and the military had to be called out to restore peace. Eventually the bill was withdrawn, and the ministers gave in their resignations. The elections for the communal councils gave a great majority in all the important towns in favour of the Liberals. A new Liberal ministry was formed under M. Rogier. In 1860 the communal *octrois*, or the taxes on articles of food brought into the towns, were abolished; and in 1863 the navigation of the Scheldt was made free. This last year, also, a treaty of commerce and navigation was concluded with England. The elections of July 1864 gave a majority to the Liberals in the Chamber of Representatives, and the ministry of M. Rogier continued in office.

On the 10th December 1835 King Leopold died, after a reign of 34 years. He was greatly beloved by his people, and much respected by the other sovereigns of Europe. He was repeatedly chosen to decide in international disputes; and the grievances of hostile Governments were not unfrequently submitted to him. His well-known

honesty and integrity of purpose, his reflective and well-balanced intellect, his habit of close and accurate reasoning, his grave and serious deportment, all eminently fitted him for the office of arbiter. To him Belgium owed much. In difficult circumstances and critical times he managed its affairs with great tact and judgment; by conciliatory measures he reconciled and kept at peace opposing factions; and by his well-known devotion to the best interests of the country he secured the confidence and esteem of all classes of the people. He was succeeded by his eldest son Leopold II., who was immediately proclaimed king, and took the oath to the constitution on 17th December. In 1866 a body of English volunteers, to the number of 1100, visited Belgium by invitation, and met with a most cordial reception from the king and all classes of the people, and took part in the Tir National. The following year a body of Belgian volunteers, numbering about 2400, came over to England, where they were warmly welcomed, and engaged in the shooting contests at Wimbledon. In 1868 serious riots took place in the mining districts, which were not put down till the military had been called out; the effective army was raised from 80,000 to 100,000 men, and the yearly contingent from 10,000 to 12,000. Attempts were also made to obtain a revision of the elementary education law of 1842.

On the outbreak of the war between France and Germany in 1870, Belgium saw the difficulty and danger of her position, and lost no time in providing for contingencies. A large war credit was voted, the strength of the army was raised, and large detachments were moved to the frontier. The feeling of danger to Belgium also caused great excitement in England, particularly after the contents of the secret treaty—which revealed the aggrandising schemes of France against Belgium—became known. The British Government declared its intention to maintain the integrity of Belgium in accordance with the treaty of 1839, and it induced the two belligerent powers to sign treaties to that effect. In the event of either power violating the neutrality of Belgium, England was to co-operate with the other in such manner as might be mutually agreed upon to secure the integrity of the country. It was at first feared that Belgian territory might be violated by the necessities of one or other of the belligerents, but this was not the case. A considerable portion of the French army routed at Sedan did, indeed, take refuge in Belgian territory; but they laid down their arms according to convention, and were "interned" in the king's dominions.

In 1870 the Liberal party, who had been in power for thirteen years, was overthrown by a union of the Catholics with the Radicals or Progressionists, joined by not a few Liberals, to whom the opposition of the Government to certain reforms had given offence. A ministerial crisis followed, which was terminated by the advent to office of a Catholic cabinet, at the head of which was Baron d'Anethan. A new election took place in August 1870, which gave them a majority in both houses,—a result brought about in no small degree by the excitement consequent on the breaking out of the Franco-German war. The Baron

BELGRADE (in Servian, *Bielgorod*, or White Town), the capital of the Servian principality, situated at the confluence of the Save and the Danube, on the right bank of the latter stream, opposite the Austrian town and fortress of Semlin. Lat. 44° 47' N., long. 20° 28' E. It is built both on, and at the side of, a northern spur of the Avala heights, the rocky summit being crowned by its once famous citadel, which still remains very much as it

d'Anethan steered his course prudently, and increased the power of the Ultramontanes considerably by carrying a reform bill, which widened the basis of representation as regarded the provincial and communal councils, by introducing large masses of the Catholic lower orders to the privilege of the franchise. It added nearly one-half to the number of electors for the provincial councils, and more than a fourth to those for the communal councils. The Liberals were very much dissatisfied; and towards the end of the year the mob in Brussels took up the question, and tumults broke out which the police and civic guard had to put down by force. They demanded the dismissal of the ministers, to which the king at length consented; and a new ministry was formed under M. de Theux. The communal elections of 1872 were the occasion of a sharp struggle throughout the kingdom between the church party and the Liberals, but success remained chiefly with the latter. The elections of June 1874 resulted in a considerable reduction of the Ultramontane majority within the Senate and the Chamber of Representatives, without actually converting it into a minority. In July of that year a conference of representatives of the leading powers of Europe was held in Brussels, with the view of introducing certain changes in the usages of war, but no definite result was arrived at. In May and June 1875, religious disturbances broke out in various parts, which were attended with serious consequences. At Brussels, Ghent, and other places, religious processions, which partook of the character of party demonstrations, were attacked by mobs of the populace, and many persons were injured. These disturbances were only put a stop to by energetic measures on the part of those in authority, and the infliction of severe punishments on the delinquents.

The attention of foreign states has of late been particularly directed to Belgium, in consequence of certain remonstrances addressed to it by Germany on the subject of its international relations and its duties towards foreign powers. This arose from an obscure Belgian, named Duchesne, having written to a French archbishop, offering to assassinate Prince Bismarck for a consideration. He was taken and tried by the Belgian Government, but it was found that the law had provided no punishment for the offence which he had committed. This led to a remonstrance on the part of the German Government, which was couched in such terms as to afford ground for the gravest fears, on the part of Belgium and of foreign states, as to what might be the result. The correspondence, however, was carried on in a friendly spirit on both sides, satisfactory explanations followed, and the Belgian Government passed a measure making such offences as that of Duchesne criminal.

See Alison's *History of Europe*; *The Belgic Revolution of 1830*, by C. White, 2 vols., 1835; *Belgium and the Twenty-four Articles*, by C. White, 1838; *Histoire de la Belgique*, by Theodore Juste, 2 vols. 4to, 1853; *La Révolution Belge de 1830*, by Th. Juste, 2 vols., 1872; *Memoirs of Leopold I.*, by Th. Juste, 2 vols., London, 1868; *Napoleon III et la Belgique*, by Th. Juste, 1870; *Memoirs of Van de Weyer*, by Th. Juste, 2 vols., 1871; *The Annual Register for various years*; *Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique*, 1874; *Almanach Royal de Belgique*, 1875. (D. K.)

was left by Prince Eugene, except that on the E., S., and W. the glacis has been changed into a promenade. The town was formerly divided into three parts, namely, the Old Town, the Russian Town (*Sava mahala* or *Save-district*), and the Turkish town (*Dorcol*, or Cross-road). A great change has, however, taken place in the course of the present century, and the old divisions are only partially applicable, while there has to be added the