

The Poles in the provinces of Posen and eastern Prussia have always been a thorn in the side of the Prussian government. In 1871 the inhabitants of these provinces protested against being swallowed up in the German Empire, and demanded autonomy, but they were sternly silenced by Bismarck. Their race antipathy to the Germans was aggravated by the antagonism between the State and the Catholic church. The Polish priests united their efforts with the political agitation of the upper classes, and it became difficult to determine whether a Polish Deputy in the Parliament of Berlin had been elected to defend the cause of Poland or that of the Church of Rome. In 1885, in consequence of the disaffection of this Slavic people, brought about by the priests under the influence of Ledochowski, the Prussian Parliament passed a law for the expulsion of all Poles who were not Prussian subjects. Some of them took refuge in Austria and many in the United States. Another bill was approved granting one hundred million marks for the purchase by the State of mortgaged Polish districts, and for transferring to the State the supervision in such districts of popular education. The result of this legislation is yet to be seen.

The military organization of the empire was always a question of the first importance to William and his advisers. The constitution of the Northern Confederation had fixed the effective force and the military expenses for a period ending in 1871, and at the end of that period the Confederation itself had been absorbed by the new empire. It therefore became necessary in the first session of the Imperial Parliament to pass a new army bill. William would not be satisfied with anything else than the application to all Germany of the system prevalent in the North. He would not have an army depending for support on the votes of parliamentary majorities. As he had formerly expressed himself, "I desire a royal, not a parliamentary army." But as things were yet in a state of transition, the government contented itself with fixing the military budget for three years. In 1874 the question had again to be passed upon by the diet. The government demanded an effective force of 401,600 men, to be maintained as long as the law did not decree otherwise. But a law of the empire which could only be modified by the united consent of the Emperor, the Federal Council and the Parliament, was recognized by all as an infringement of the Parliament's control over the Budget. The Opposition were vainly appealed to by the leaders of the army, who pointed out that foreign powers were jealous and hostile, and that France in particular was only awaiting her opportunity for revenge. "If you wish for peace, be prepared for war," said Count Von Moltke. Finally it was agreed, by way of compromise, that the effective force of the army should remain invariable for a period of seven years. The septennial military grant was voted on the 14th of April. Some months later the organization of the army was completed by the creation of the "landsturm," comprising the men who had left the ranks and the reserve, who were required to undertake the defence of fortresses and of German territory. Through these various organizations the German army numbered on the 1st of January, 1878, in time of war, 1,283,791 men, to whom were added 900,000 of the "landsturm," making a total of over two million soldiers. But even this number did not appear sufficient to the Emperor and his ministers. The Septennial period ending on the 31st of December, 1881, the government proposed in the session of 1880 its prolongation until the 31st of March, 1888, and also demanded an increase of the effective force in time of peace to 427,270 men, and the calling out of the first class of reserve for the periodical manoeuvres. After violent debates, the new law was passed on the 15th of April, 1880. The result was highly gratifying to William. A few months afterwards, his grandson, the present Emperor William II, who had just been mar-

ried to the young Princess of Augustenburg, received his Colonelcy in the 1st Foot Guards, and the Emperor, in presenting him his commission, took occasion to review the military history of the empire.

With the concentration of formidable military power in the hands of the Emperor, was combined a policy of resistance to parliamentary demands which were thought to encroach upon the imperial prerogative. William made a point of showing that he was the only initiator and promoter of all the acts of the government, and he boldly assumed the full responsibility of these measures, as we have seen in his correspondence with Pope Pius IX. In this respect his ideas had not been modified since his coronation as King of Prussia in 1861. On the contrary, his years and his brilliant triumphs only fortified his conception of Royal authority. In his opening speech at the autumn session of the Prussian Parliament in 1871, he drew a broad line of demarcation between the jurisdiction of the German Reichstag and that of the Prussian Parliament; while the maintenance of the national power and security belonged to the Empire, it was for the Prussian representatives to devote themselves to the healthy development of internal institutions. Some years afterwards, when the Reichstag protested against the expulsion of the Poles, he applied the same doctrine to them, and told them plainly they had nothing to do with measures which solely concerned the internal policy of Prussia. While keeping both Parliament and Reichstag in their proper place, he in 1872 administered a check to the power of the nobles. A bill to remodel the administration of the six provinces of East Prussia was introduced in the Prussian Chamber, which proposed to abolish the last remnant of feudal government in the Prussian Kingdom. Heretofore the magistrates and county assemblies of these provinces had been exclusively composed of landed proprietors. It was now proposed to admit a large number of townspeople and villagers to the county assemblies, and to bestow upon the villages the right of choosing their municipal officers. The bill passed the Lower House, but was thrown out by the Upper, although the Emperor had intimated to Count Bruhl, the President of the Upper Chamber, that he desired and expected it to pass. The feudal lords, whose arbitrary rights were struck at by the bill, of course declined to vote for the extinction of their own power and influence. A constitutional crisis was the result. To carry the measure, William was obliged, reluctantly, to create twenty-five new peers, and a letter which he wrote to a Conservative member of the Lower House had the effect of turning many votes, so that ultimately the bill was passed.

The just and humane solicitude shown by the Emperor and his first minister for the material welfare of the masses was injuriously misinterpreted by a new band of agitators, comprising members of the aristocracy and ministers of the Protestant church, who abused, in language as violent as the socialists had ever used, the "rapacious middle class," whose leaders they asserted to be of the Jewish persuasion. Thus began the "Judenhetze," or persecution of the German Jews, in 1880. Herr Stocker, the Emperor's court chaplain, was the leader of this disgraceful movement. He made himself temporarily notorious by his extreme activity in forming an anti-Semitic political party, in organizing meetings and inducing people to sign petitions. The Jews were referred to in these documents as a dangerous class, and it was pointed out that while the census of 1871 showed a Jewish population in France, Italy and Great Britain amounting altogether to only 40,000, there were in Germany 512,000. Riots broke out in Berlin, sometimes caused by the Jews themselves, but in most cases by their nominally Christian antagonists. The Emperor did not bestow serious attention on an agitation which, however much it may have alarmed the Jews and excited the multitude, he considered merely ephemeral, and which the

Feudalism abolished

Persecution of the Jews

Crown Prince had blamed in public in the severest terms. When the Prussian Chambers assembled in October, 1880 a petition was laid before them asking that the Jews should be placed under police supervision, and that restraints should be placed by the government on Jewish immigration. No action was taken, but the government announced its determination not to permit the civil rights of citizens of any religious denomination to be interfered with. The constituents of Herr Stocker showed their appreciation of his zeal by retiring him in the following year.

The victories of 1870 made William the arbiter of continental Europe. The excesses of the Commune in Paris drew the three emperors into a closer intimacy. In 1871 the Emperors of Germany and Austria had several interviews on Austrian territory, at Ischl, Salzburg, and Gastein, at which a plan of general policy was agreed upon. The principle of non-intervention was applied to Italy on the Roman question, and to France in her internal affairs; Germany was to assist Austria should she be attacked by Russia; and united opposition was to be made to the excesses of social democracy. A sponge was passed over the events of 1866. Next year there was a grand conference of the Emperors of Russia, Austria and Germany at Berlin, and while they were discussing affairs from their point of view, the three Chancellors, Bismarck, Gortschakoff, and Andrassy, were also holding consultations. The hopes of France for an alliance against Germany were shattered, and the Pope had to give up the prospect of an ally in the Austrian emperor, "the born defender of the church." The cabinet of Berlin obtained the recognition by Russia and Austria of the conquests of 1870, and the closer union of these two powers under the auspices of Emperor William. From that date the three emperors confirmed their amity by visits to the respective territories of each. In 1877, when Russia declared war against Turkey, Germany remained neutral in spite of the remonstrances of England. But when Russia had arrived at the gates of Constantinople, and imposed upon Turkey the treaty of San Stefano, which deprived the Sultan of nearly all his European possessions, England and Austria joined in armed protest; Austria mobilized her troops, and England sent a squadron into Turkish waters. The mediation of Germany was called for by Russia, and a congress met at Berlin during the regency of the Crown Prince Frederick. William would probably have intervened in favor of his nephew, the Czar, but England and Austria found powerful supporters in the Crown Prince and Bismarck. Turkey was condemned to pay the costs, and be shorn of much of her territory. Some provinces in Europe and Asia fell to the share of Russia; Cyprus to England; but what annoyed Russia the most was that Austria was installed in the possession of the western portion of the Balkan peninsula, comprising Bosnia and Herzegovina. Such a division of the spoils so disgusted Prince Gortschakoff that he exclaimed, "This Congress is the blackest part of my career." A coolness grew up between Russia and Germany in consequence, and on the 15th of October, 1879, a treaty was concluded between Germany and Austria ostensibly for defensive purposes, but plainly directed against Russia. The two powers agreed to maintain the state of things established in central Europe, and to assist each other to repel foreign aggression. The assassination of Alexander II in March, 1881, brought the courts of Berlin and St. Petersburg into more friendly relations. Gortschakoff resigned, and in 1883 a league of peace, or triple alliance, was formed by the three great empires, which has not since been disturbed. With England the German Empire has always been on good terms, notwithstanding the fact that in 1872 William decided the San Juan question in favor of the United States and against Great Britain; and the same can be said of its relations with the United States, the disagreement with regard to the

Russo-Turkish war.

importation of American animal products having been easily adjusted by diplomacy.

In 1884 Bismarck turned his attention to colonial settlements, with a view to providing new markets for the products of German industry, and opening a vent for the superfluous energy which was too often spent in mischievous agitation. Some German merchants, who had settled in Africa and Australia, solicited in 1876 the protection of the German flag for their enterprises, but the Parliament of Berlin gave no encouragement to this new idea, and it startled William himself. Not so with Bismarck. He encountered British diplomacy in this field, and succeeded in obtaining recognition for German settlements on the Congo. Great Britain welcomed Germany as a neighbor in the district of Cape Colony, and as a further step in German colonization, a convention was concluded between Germany and the Transvaal republic. The German government now took its place among the colonial powers in West Africa. Shortly afterwards a dispute arose with England about the Cameroons and a part of New Guinea, but on both questions England came to terms with Germany. The future of Bismarck's colonial policy is as yet unrealized. The military system of the empire excludes the use of German troops in distant countries, and though the Germans are ready, without any government incentive, to emigrate to America to improve their fortunes, war in a tropical climate has no charms for them.

The year 1888 was a sad one for the imperial house of Germany. William's health had for some time been breaking, and the end of his honored life was known to be near; but a cancerous malady which had attacked the Crown Prince caused all the loyal subjects of the empire still greater alarm. It was a question during some months whether the aged Kaiser or his son would be the first to die. The Crown Prince had been suffering from the effects of a cold, but was sufficiently recovered to be able to attend the ceremonies in honor of Queen Victoria's jubilee in 1886, and after that was over he took up his abode at the Villa Zirio, at San Remo, in Italy. His malady progressed so rapidly that in February, 1887, the doctors attending him decided to perform the operation of tracheotomy, and he then had to breathe through a tube inserted in his throat. The news of his son's condition greatly depressed the Emperor, and hastened his end. On the 9th of March, 1888, William I passed to his fathers. His son, Frederick III, arrived at Berlin on the night of the 11th, in the midst of a snow and sleet storm, which told seriously on his enfeebled constitution. King Humbert of Italy accompanied him as far as Genoa. Prince Bismarck and the other members of the imperial government met him at Leipsic, and escorted him to the capital. Frederick was unable to attend the funeral of his father, but watched the procession from a window of the palace, as it went past toward the mausoleum in the Garden of Charlottenburg, where Queen Louisa and Frederick William III lie side by side.

The reign of Frederick III lasted only three months. The final crisis of his disease set in soon after his removal to the old chateau at Potsdam, where he was born, and to which he now gave the name of "Friedrichskron." Here, surrounded by his family, he died on the 15th of June. He had left behind him a rescript addressed to Prince Bismarck, setting forth his projects of government. It stated that the constitutional rights of all the federal governments must be recognised as much as those of the Imperial diet; urged the necessity of keeping up the army and the growing navy and commanded toleration of all religious sects. He expressed his desire to support "every movement toward furthering the economic prosperity of all classes of society, reconciling their conflicting interests, and mitigating if possible unavoidable differences, without encouraging the anticipation that every social

Death of Emperor William I.

Frederick III.

Illness and death of Frederick III.

evil can be remedied by state intervention." "I consider," he said, "as intimately connected with the social question the control of the education of youth while the higher education must be extended. We must beware of the danger of half education, awakening demands which the nation's economic development is unable to satisfy." The memory of Frederick III is regarded not only in Germany but throughout the world with respect and admiration. A great general, as he proved himself to be in the Austrian and French wars, he was also an enlightened statesman. He held his ground against papal aggression in 1878, and he opposed the persecution of the Jews in 1880. After the victory of Sedan, it was his duty to inspect the military forces of the south German states, and his personal popularity among them did much to inspire the changed order of things. To him and to his consort, the Princess Royal of England, several institutions for the encouragement of art owe their origin in Berlin; and to the princess, now known as Empress Frederick, civilization is indebted for such institutions as the Victoria lyceum, the school for the training of nurses, and the school for the higher education of women. During the wars with Austria and France, the Crown Princess had personally superintended the nursing of wounded soldiers in the hospitals. The institution for the training of nurses, which is still performing a beneficent work, was organized by her as the result of her experience during those campaigns.

William II.

The eldest son of Frederick succeeded him under the title of William II. His accession throughout all Europe, because this young prince had shown as yet no indication of the liberal spirit of his father, but on the other hand had given proof of a strong leaning toward military rule. Those fears have been greatly allayed, if not entirely overcome, by the conduct of William II, since he came to the throne. During the summer months of 1888 he visited the courts of Russia, Sweden, Denmark and Italy, and succeeded in confirming the friendly relations existing between them and Germany. During the year 1889 he still further strengthened the military and naval armament of Germany, and demonstrated his business and executive ability by settling dangerous strikes and discontent among the working men. A temporary misunderstanding between himself and the Empress Frederick relative to the disposal of some private papers of the late Emperor which she claimed as her own property, and which William thought should be deposited among the royal archives of Prussia, gave rise to some newspaper speculation as to a possible rupture of friendly relations between the governments of England and Germany; but this cloud also passed away, and in August, 1890, William made a friendly visit to his grandmother, the Queen, and his royal relatives in England. In March, 1890, an international labor conference was held at Berlin under William's auspices, presided over by Baron von Berlepsch, the Prussian minister of commerce.

International labor conference.

Under William I, Bismarck had been the absolute head of the government, and notwithstanding all his notions of kingly prerogative, the simple-hearted old soldier monarch was accustomed to lean entirely upon the advice of Bismarck. The young Emperor determined to

change this system of things, and issued a cabinet order revoking that of 1872 and requiring all Ministers, Bismarck included, to report to him direct instead of making the chancellor their mouthpiece as theretofore. The chancellor felt humbled and slighted by this order; he was now no more prime minister, but a mere head of a department; he who had made and unmade other ministers was now reduced to a level with them. On the 18th of March, three days after the assembling of the labor conference, Bismarck tendered his resignation to the Emperor, alleging age and failing health as his reason. The resignation was accepted, and General von Caprivi was appointed Chancellor of the Empire and president of the Prussian ministry. William publicly thanked Bismarck for his long services to the Imperial house, and conferred upon him the title of Duke of Lauenburg. The departure of Prince Bismarck for his country home at Friedrichsruhe was the occasion of the greatest public demonstration in Berlin since the return of the victorious troops in 1871. The station was literally heaped with flowers, the Emperor and Empress each sending a beautiful floral tribute to the retiring chancellor. The crowd was so great that the police were unable to keep order. As the train passed out of the station the crowd joined in singing "Die Wacht am Rhein." In August, 1890, in virtue of a treaty with the English government, William took possession of the island of Heligoland, which will now become an important station for the German navy. England obtained as compensation the consent of Germany to her protectorate of Zanzibar, which was also ratified by France. The Emperor on taking possession of Heligoland issued a proclamation in which he promised to protect the islanders in the observance of their old customs, in their freedom of religious worship and the education of their youth. The year 1890 closes with every prospect that Germany will be able to maintain and preserve the peace of Europe, of which she has been, ever since the Berlin Congress of 1878, the recognized arbiter.

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PART III.—LANGUAGE.

In its ordinary sense the name German Language or *Deutsche Sprache* is now generally used to denote, in all their stages from the earliest time to the present day, the different languages and dialects of Teutonic origin spoken in the German and Austrian empires and in Switzerland, not including, however, the Frisian language, which once was spoken, and still in a few remnants survives, on the shores and islands of the German Ocean, nor the dialects of

the Danish population of northern Schleswig. Flemish and Dutch, although very closely connected with German, are likewise excluded. But the word *Deutsch* has also been, and still continues to be, used in a wider sense. Jacob Grimm introduced it, in his famous *Deutsche Grammatik*, as a comprehensive name for that family of the so-called Indo-European or Aryan languages, for which English writers generally use the name of "Teutonic," and of which

the principal branches are represented by Gothic, the Scandinavian languages, English, Frisian, and German. In this Grimm has had many followers, but scarcely anywhere out of Germany; and even there the fact that the name, in this application, besides being incorrect from an historical point of view (as the word has never been used thus by any one of the people to whom it has been applied by Grimm), is also liable to be misunderstood, has caused a growing tendency towards confining it again to its original meaning described above, and using *Germanisch*, or *Germanic*, in the collective sense of the English "Teutonic." But even in the stricter sense the designation *Deutsch* is not of very long standing, nor has the word always been a real proper name for a distinct people or tribe. In Bishop Ulfilas's Gothic version of the Bible we find the adverb *thiudisko* (*thiudiskos*), Gal. ii. 14, which is clearly a derivative from *thiuda* (*thiuvos*), meaning primarily "after the manner of the people." German writers of the earlier centuries were therefore as fully justified in calling their own language *diutisc*, or, in a Latinized form, *theudiscus*, *theotiscus*, that is, their popular or vernacular language, as were those mediæval Latin writers of all nations who distinguished their national languages by the name of *lingua vulgaris* from Latin, the only literary language fully acknowledged in their time. It was not until the 10th century that another Latinized form frequently used in later times, viz., *teutonicus*, began to be used instead of the older *theotiscus*, of which the only rivals in former times had been such local names as *franciscus* (*frankisch*) or *saxoniscus*, which were no doubt derived from the names of single tribes, but were often also used in the same comprehensive sense as *theotiscus*, without necessarily implying any allusion to dialectal differences between the languages of the tribes they properly belonged to. The last name we have to mention here is the Latin *Germanus*, with its different derivatives in the modern languages, including the English form *German*. Many attempts have been made to elucidate the origin of this word, but as yet nothing can be taken for certain beyond the fact that it is neither of Latin nor of German origin. Most probably it was a Celtic word, and, according to what Tacitus says in his *Germania* (ch. ii.), it was originally the name of a Celtic tribe, from which, by some strange error of the Roman and Greek historians, it has been transferred to the non-Celtic inhabitants of Germany. Accordingly the name has never been used by the Germans themselves except in imitation of its use in the works of Latin writers.

As to its geographical extension the German language has undergone very great changes in the course of the last two thousand years. At the dawn of history no Germans were to be found to the left of the Rhine, and even to the right of it Celtic tribes occur in the earliest times. There were Celts also in the south of the present Germany as far north at least as the Danube and the Main; Bohemia, too, derives its name from an early Celtic population, the Boii. Only the midland and north were inhabited by Germanic nations or tribes, stretching as far east as Poland, and perhaps covering even parts of the adjoining territories of Russia, where Slavonic and Finnish tribes were their neighbours. But of these Germanic tribes and their languages some have left no equivalents in our modern German tribes and dialects. We have mentioned the Frisian language as not belonging to German in its proper sense, although the Frisians have kept their original residence up to the present day, and have always been in constant connexion and frequent intercourse with their "German" neighbours. Many other tribes have wandered from their seats and colonized other countries. It was as late as the middle of the 5th century that the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons began their voyages of conquest to England, where they founded a new people and a new

language,¹ leaving their native soil open to Danish invasions. Much earlier the midland tribes had already been slowly pushing on to the west and south, and expelling or subduing and assimilating the Celtic owners of the territories they invaded. But what was gained in these parts was counterbalanced by great losses in the north and east. The territories about the lower and middle Elbe, Oder, and Vistula, abandoned by the Lombards, the Burgundians, the Goths, and some other Germanic tribes, as well as Bohemia, which for some short time had been in the possession of the German Marcomans, were soon filled up by the immigration of numerous tribes of the great Slavonic family. Without going into details of the facts which are well known to the student of history,² we may simply state that, since about 500 A.D., when the great migration of the nations had come to an end so far as Germany was concerned, no further change of any great importance has taken place in the western and southern parts. In the east the German population at this time did not go beyond a line that may be drawn from about Kiel to the Böhmerwald, passing near Hamburg, Magdeburg, Naumburg, Coburg, and Baireuth. As is well known, it is in later centuries that almost all the eastern districts have been recovered for the German language.³

In the 6th century the remains of the numerous smaller Germanic tribes, mentioned before and during the migration of the nations, had consolidated into seven larger bodies or aggregations of tribes. The Frisians still held the extreme north of Holland and Germany. Their midland and eastern neighbours were then called by the new name of Saxons, borrowed from the Saxons who had left the Continent for England. In the main parts of the Netherlands and Belgium, along both sides of the Rhine, and across Germany to the Thuringian and Bohemian Forests, the powerful Frankish confederation had established itself, and it soon incorporated the smaller and less vigorous tribes of the Hessians and Thuringians, which were surrounded by the midland or eastern Franks, the Saxons, and the Slavs. Alsatia, Switzerland, and South Germany eastward to the river Lech were occupied by the Alemannians, while the inhabitants of the remaining districts of the present Bavaria and Austria bore the collective name of Bavarians.

The history of the German language cannot be severed from the history of these tribes, for Frisian, Saxon, Fränkisch (Hessian, Thuringian), Alemannian, and Bavarian are the leading dialects of the Continental branch of the Teutonic family. What Dr J. A. H. Murray has pointed out about the origin of the principal English dialects⁴ may equally well be said of these Continental idioms. Having no specimens of the languages of the Continental tribes for nearly three centuries after their final settlement, we cannot tell to what extent they originally agreed with or differed from each other, although there must have been some dialectal differences to begin with, which were afterwards increased and multiplied, partly by phonetic changes (most probably resulting from scarcely discernible phonetic peculiarities, which, even in the earliest times, must have prevailed in those idioms), and partly by such alterations of the inflexional systems as are known to occur frequently in all languages whose character is not merely literary. But, however scanty our means of illustrating the earliest history of these idioms may be, there is no doubt that they were not all of them related to each other in the same

¹ See the article ENGLISH LANGUAGE, vol. viii. p. 390 sqq.² For fuller particulars see C. Zeuss, *Die Deutschen und die Nachbarstämme*, Munich, 1837.³ See G. Wendt, *Die Nationalität der Bevölkerung der Deutschen Ostmarken vor dem Beginne der Germanisierung*, Göttingen, 1878.⁴ See ENGLISH LANGUAGE, as above, p. 391.