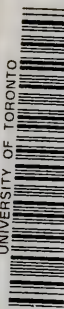


UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO



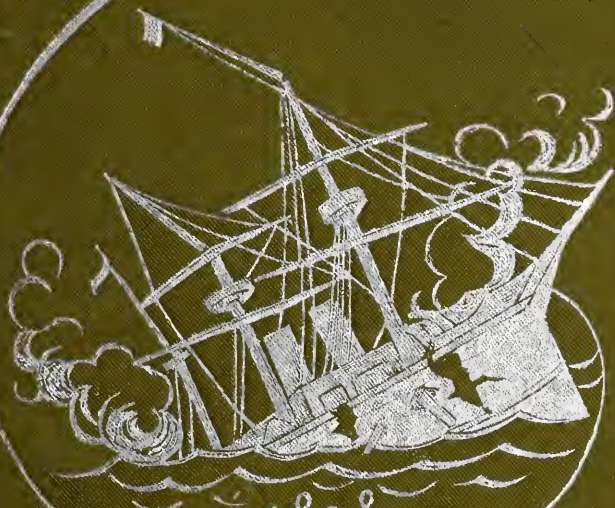
3 1761 01475009 5



1492



SPAIN IN AMERICA



1898



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2008 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation





**THE SPAIN
OF ALFONSO XIII
SHOWN IN BLACK.**

SPAIN IN AMERICA.
A HISTORY OF THE
CONQUESTS,
DOMINION
AND OVERTHROW
OF SPAIN IN THE NEW WORLD.
ENDING WITH THE
SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

BY C. M. STEVANS,
Author of numerous Historical and Educational Works.

Profusely illustrated with Portraits of Eminent American
Liberators, and Photographs of Historical Scenes
in the Spanish-American War.

CHICAGO:
DONOHUE, HENNEBERRY & Co.
407-429 DEARBORN ST.

412546
31.5.43

COPYRIGHT, 1898
DONOHUE, HENNEBERRY & CO.

Index.

THE SPANIARD.....	5
Origin of the Spaniards.....	7
Spanish Character.....	18
Spanish Colonial System.....	24
The Monroe Doctrine.....	31
Destiny and Duty of the United States.....	39
Spanish Politics.....	50
SPAIN IN NORTH AMERICA.....	55
→ Mexico.....	57
Texas.....	117
California.....	125
New Mexico.....	129
Louisiana.....	132
Florida.....	141
SPAIN IN SOUTH AMERICA.....	149
Argentine Republic.....	151
Uruguay.....	156
Paraguay.....	158
Chili.....	161
Bolivia.....	167
Peru.....	171
Ecuador.....	182
Colombia.....	184
Venezuela.....	187
Guiana.....	191
Brazil.....	192
SPAIN IN CENTRAL AMERICA.....	199
Guatemala.....	201
Salvador.....	209
Honduras.....	212
Costa Rica.....	218
Nicaragua.....	224
SPAIN IN THE WEST INDIES.....	237
Bermuda Islands.....	239
Bahamas.....	240
Jamaica.....	242
Hayti.....	247
Porto Rico.....	265
Cuba.....	269
SPAIN IN THE EAST INDIES.....	293
The Ladrões.....	295
The Carolines.....	297
The Philippines.....	298
SPAIN IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC.....	307
The Canaries.....	308
WAR WITH SPAIN.....	311
Spain at the Opening of War.....	313
The War of Liberation.....	319

The Spaniard.

Origin of the Spaniards.

HUMBOLDT derives the name Spain from the Basque word *espana*, which means border. The Romans called the great peninsula *Hispania*, and the Greeks gave the name *Iberia* to the indefinite territory of the West.

About 336 B. C., there was an embassy from the Iberians to Alexander the Great, and the learned Greeks began to study the geography of the border land of the world.

The first war between Rome and Carthage (264-241 B. C.) again brought Hispanians into notice. The Carthagenians sought to make friends with the tribes of the peninsula, and Hannibal married

NOTE: The aim of this book is to supply the general reader with a fair understanding of the Spaniard in his relation to conditions and events in the Western hemisphere. No attempt is made to follow the weary monotony of unvarying treachery, insurrection and revolution which the Spanish system of government entailed upon the turbulent factions and adventurous explorers and colonists of the new world. The confusing details of intrigue, avarice and oppression existing for four centuries, make one stupendous indictment against the Spanish nation, that for wretchedness is unique in the history of the world.

To make a readable volume, without plunging the reader into the hopeless labyrinth of Spanish-American politics, each sketch includes only those salient features of conquest, occupation and liberation, which serve to give a satisfactory understanding of Spain in America.

a Spanish woman. About 220 B. C. New Carthage was founded and soon after the whole of the peninsula was under the rule of Hannibal.

In 210 B. C. New Carthage was captured by the elder Africanus, son of Publius, and the whole country fell into the hands of the Romans.

Notwithstanding the countless rebellions of the native and northern tribes, which called for the utmost energy and ability of the most illustrious generals in Roman history, the whole country in the course of the next four or five hundred years became the most thoroughly Romanized people to be found anywhere outside of Italy.

In 428 A. D., the Vandals under Genseric overran the country from the north and defeated the allied armies of the Goths and Romans. Theodoric II, grandson of Alaric, took up the cause against the Vandals; and while their king Genseric was in Africa he drove the Vandals and their allies out of the country. The opportunity was not to be lost; and, instead of restoring the provinces to Rome, he prepared to extend the West-Gothic government over them.

Theodoric was assassinated by his brother Euric, who became king and completed the conquest of the peninsula. A code of government was drawn by a college of civil and ecclesiastical

offices in which Roman ideas, manners, customs, institutions, and laws prevailed.

In 589 A. D., the religion of the West Goths was changed from Arianism to Catholicism, and Recared became the first Catholic king of Spain. He used every means in his power to extirpate Arianism, and he was so successful that Pope Gregory acknowledged his services with a special gift of sacred relics.

Until this time, the Jews had found a safe home in Spain, but with the turn to Christianity came a persecution so savage that all were slain or driven from the country except about a hundred thousand who accepted baptism as a ransom for their lives.

Meanwhile the Saracens were conquering Northern Africa, and in 711 Tarik, with about five thousand Saracen soldiers, crossed the straits and defeated Roderick, the last of the Goths. The whole country was now under the control of the Mohammedan Arabs, whose government was mild. The privileged classes were overthrown, and a period of great prosperity for the common people ensued. Slavery was discouraged, and religious tolerance everywhere prevailed.

In time jealousies and disastrous quarrels arose among the Saracenic governors, persecutions

began, harsh measures were adopted, the Christians recovered from the enervation of Roman rule, and the conditions were approaching for the overthrow of Mohammedanism.

Pelayo, probably a Visigoth, gathered a band of Christians in the Asturias Mountains and began the attempt to found an independent Christian kingdom. His grandson, Alfonso I, succeeded in establishing a little independency on the North which formed the basis for the extension of Christian sovereignty and the final expulsion of the Moors from Spain.

Meanwhile, the Franks on the north of the Pyrenees, under Charles the Great, had been stemming the flood of Arabian invasion from the East and a great Christian kingdom had been formed extending to the Black Sea.

The Christian kingdoms of Aragon, Castile and Navarre came under the ecclesiastical authority of Pope Gregory VII, known as Hildebrand, about 1077, and thenceforth were faithful devotees of the Church of Rome. The story of the struggles between Christian and Moorish Spain which followed for more than four centuries, can find no parallel in heroism and savagery unless the relentless duel to the death between Carthage and Rome may be cited.

The Moors were far from Mother Country or reinforcements, and their doom needed only time for the powerful Christian nations North and East to become staple and united. The establishment of a strong government resulted from the union of Castile and Aragon by the marriage of Isabella of Castile and Ferdinand of Aragon in 1469 and the acknowledgment of a united sovereignty, 1474.

After a ten years' war against the Moors their stronghold, Grenada, fell in 1492; and, after the death of Isabella, Navarre was added to Ferdinand's dominions, thus making his rule over Spain absolute. At his death, the house of Hapsburg succeeded him and reigned uninterruptedly for nearly two centuries, Spain becoming mean-while the most powerful state in Europe.

Tremendous events followed swiftly upon the discovery of America, culminating in the rule of the most brilliant sovereigns that the world had ever known.

King Charles of Spain became, on the death of his grandfather, Maximilian, emperor of Germany; Francis I was the diplomatic king of France; Henry VIII, the powerful king of England; Leo X, the astute head of the Catholic

hierarchy, and Solyman, the magnificent, military chieftain of the Mohammedans.

One of the first momentous acts of Charles V, was to call the Diet of Worms, Jan. 6, 1521, for the trial of Martin Luther and in 1540 Pope Paul authorized Loyola to found the Society of Jesus, a missionary order compactly organized on autocratic military principles using diplomatic and social means against the spread of Protestantism. In contrast, as Protestantism became powerful among the Germanic people, the Jesuits arose in power among the Latin races.

The Holy Inquisition for the extermination of Protestantism was soon in full operation and from its intolerance sprang unconquerable liberty as the unquestionable birthright of mankind, while Spanish Catholicism was degraded by its union with the avarice of State.

Philip II had come to the throne of Spain in the height of imperial power in both church and state; but, at the same time, a shadowy figure appeared in the back ground of his religious oppression in the Netherlands, and grew bolder and stronger until Protestantism had a standard-bearer in William of Orange, who was destined to be the military hero of religious liberty.

Urged on by Pope Pius V, Phillip sent the Duke of Alva with ten thousand picked men in 1567 to Brussels. A reign of blood and terror followed which has made the name of Alva chief in the list of religious monsters. This cruelty in the North was matched by an act of barbarous bigotry in the South against the Moriscoes. In 1566, Phillip signed a decree that commanded the Moors to become at once Spaniards and Christians. Every Moorish custom, habit, amusement and religious ordinance should be at once abandoned, and the people in public and private must be in every particular Spanish. Even the veils for the women, believed by the Moors to be their badge of purity, was at once torn from their faces. Three years were given in which every man, woman and child must learn to speak Spanish; for, after that time, any Arabic word spoken or written would call down the penalty of confiscation, hundreds of lashes or the galley. Moorish songs and dances were made crimes, and even their family names and terms of endearment must be changed to Spanish.

There was unutterable anguish, then rebellion came, followed by crushing subjugation. Selim II of the Ottoman Empire was powerless to aid those of his people who had been left in Spain.

But, his resolve to wrest from Venice the isle of Cyprus caused the formation of the Holy League in 1571 of which Phillip was the chief personage next to Pope Pius V. The allied fleet carried 80,000 men and they met the Moslems in the Gulf of Lepanto, inflicting on them an overwhelming defeat. The fall of the Ottoman Empire dates from this time.

Meanwhile, the eighty years war for religious liberty had begun under William of Orange. The "Pacification of Ghent" concluded November 8, 1576, united Holland, Zealand and fifteen Catholic provinces in a league to abolish the inquisition and to drive the Spaniards out of the country. With consummate, political and military genius, William of Orange made combinations and constructed a government which was invincible against all the powers of Roman Catholicism, and which gave peace and liberty to his people. His enemies resorted to assassination, and, after numerous attempts by Italians, Scotchmen, Englishmen, Lorraines and Spaniards, a Burgundian succeeded and William of Orange died riddled with poisonous slugs.

Phillip II was a rejected suitor of Elizabeth the Protestant Queen of England, who had been a strong support to William of Orange. Burning

with hatred toward everything Protestant, he planned a supreme effort against Holland now that William of Orange was dead.

Elizabeth published a manifesto declaring her intention to support Holland and to the famous Earl of Leicester she entrusted 5,000 soldiers. He was accompanied by his no less famous nephew Sir Philip Sidney. In the skirmish at Lutphen in 1586 Sidney was killed. The Earl of Leicester was not a popular or successful commander, and in January, 1588, he resigned. Sir Francis Drake the great English navigator and freebooter, was more successful on the sea as in one year in the harbors of Cadiz and Lisbon, he destroyed two hundred Spanish vessels.

In 1588 Phillip endeavored to carry out his long cherished invasion of England. The invincible Armada so celebrated in poetry and history was prepared. It consisted of one hundred and forty war ships with thirty thousand men. Only once in history could such a spectacle be seen as this enormous fleet formed in a half-moon, seven miles in length, approaching the country it was to subjugate.

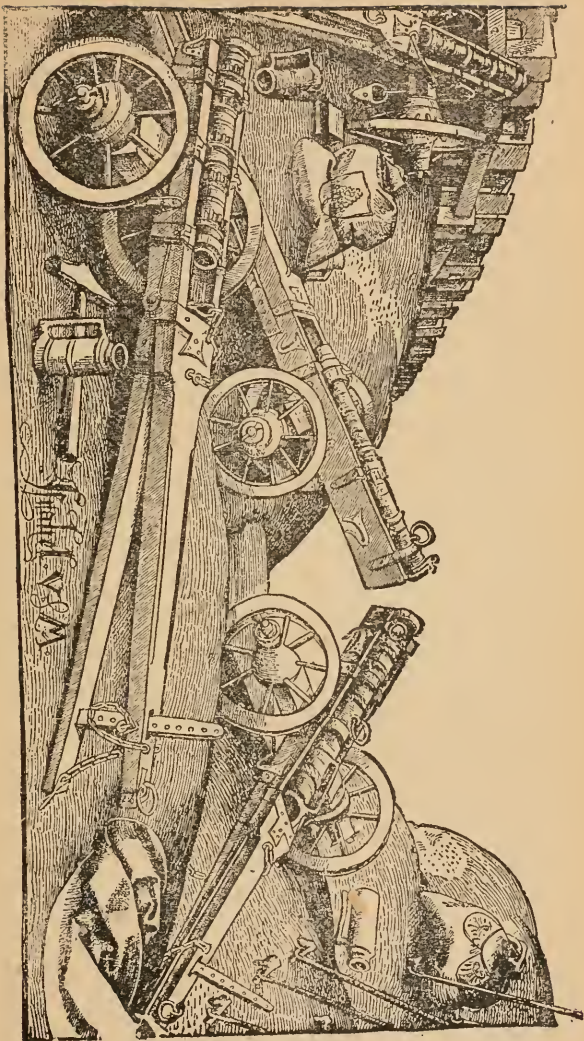
The English had sixty-seven light, swift ships under Drake, Frobisher, Howard and Hawkins. These attacked the cumbrous Spanish vessels like

hornets, and harrassed them till, assisted by heavy storms, eighty-one were destroyed or captured and two-thirds of the sailors slain.

A second Armada, fitted out in 1596, to liberate Catholic Ireland, went to the bottom in a storm with 5,000 men.

But Philip, who had been at once the glory and shame of Spain and Christendom, was nearing the end of his atrocious career. In the seventy-first year of his age and the forty-third of his reign he was seized with a loathsome disease, and he lingered for months in the most excruciating agony. No cruelty ever devised by the inquisition, he had lost so much in fostering, ever created more physical suffering. The knee-bones of saints were rubbed against his sores, and he provided for thirty thousand masses to be said for his soul, but nothing availed, and he died with more agony in a more miserable condition than the worst of the hundreds of thousands of victims his minions had tortured to death in the name of Christianity and God.

With his barbarous reign in both the old and the new world, the downfall of Spain began. He scourged the Jews and lost countless wealth, he destroyed the Moors and lost their sciences and arts, he throttled religious liberty wherever he



Cannon Used by Cortez.

These pieces had no trunnions, but were laid in a kind of trough. They were breech-loaders, in which were used a kind of movable cylinder for the powder.



had the power and paralyzed human progress wherever he touched. He inaugurated the system of conquest and despoliation in America, which has been the corruption of the Spanish government ever since, and the cause of her losing the magnificent empires of the Western hemisphere. His attempts to destroy the Protestants of Holland and England lost him his armies and his navies, and in self-defense made Protestantism great and strong. The Catholic church never had a more ruinous friend, the Latin race a more disastrous ruler, nor the welfare of man a more monstrous monarch.

Spanish Character.

The student of Spanish conquest, colonization, and dominion in America is confronted continually with the unmitigated, perfidy, cruelty and cupidity that characterized the equally remarkable courage, endurance, and energy of the Spaniards.

The son of Columbus Diego Colon was betrayed by Velazquez, Velazquez by Cortes, Cortes by Olid, and Olid by Briones, and, it may be said that they were all betrayed by the king. So the round of avaricious treachery went on to the present day.

In those situations, where it was most necessary to trust men, they were the least to be trusted. Some bright promises and a handful of gold would turn any man from the years of service that had been devoted to his master. The emissaries of a commander often became the guides of his enemy.

A priest accompanied every party and sanctified every crime. It was considered fair compensation to save a native's soul and destroy his body. Slavery and death for them could be no wrong

since they received the infinite boon of the cross. These perversions of religion to the greed of the Spaniard were clearly questions of character, since with other people of humane nature it always bore the holiest purposes and fruits.

Pedrarias, the immeasurably vicious governor of Panama and later of Nicaragua, once became so incensed against the native chiefs for not readily accepting his religion, that he built a great arena in which he placed an obdurate chieftain armed with a club, and turned loose two bloodhounds at a time upon him until the fangs of the dogs vindicated the unworthiness of such men to live. Seventeen Chiefs thus met their death before the Natives found the salvation in Spanish piety.

Nero and Caligula combined never exhibited more diabolical depravity of character than animated most of the Spanish conquerors. The history that sickens both writer and reader is taken from the invader's own official reports, but the details given by eye witnesses are always too revolting for any but the special student whose historical labors require such gruesome dissections. It is not enough to say that those were barbarous days, and that the Spaniards were dealing with savages in the interest of religion and

European civilization. The Spanish religion was infused with Spanish cruelty and greed till it was a travesty on Catholicism and Christianity. Here and there the spirit of love gleamed with inspiring beauty, but the most of the Spaniard's piety was as brutal as his lust for blood and gold.

When there were no longer any Natives worthy of special oppression, the Spanish settlers were themselves compelled to support the policy that brought the colonies into existence, but the system of combined religious and military government made it almost impossible except under unbearable conditions, for the sentiment of independence to prevail. Besides, ignorance and lawlessness were the common lot of the colonies, thus clearly indicating the cause that made it take nearly three centuries for independence to be attained, and nearly another century for stability to be reached.

The superstitions of the people were preyed upon by marvelous accounts of miracles from heaven destroying all enemies of the King, the priests hurled curses upon all insurgents, indulgences were granted by the archbishops to those not engaging in revolutionary movement, and reports were spread grossly perverting the aims and motives of insurgent leaders. But even those benighted minds could not endure the eternal cruelty

and greed of autocratic governors, and independence was logically inevitable.

When Columbus landed in Cuba, in 1494, one of the chiefs, venerable from advanced age, presented him with a basket of fruit accompanying it with these remarkable words: "Whether you are divinities or mortal men, we know not. You have come into our country with a power against which our people cannot contend. We are all therefore at your mercy. But, if you are men subject to death like ourselves, you know that in the life to come the good and the bad are rewarded according to their deeds. If, therefore, you expect to die, and believe with us in a future judgment, you will do no hurt to those who do none to you."

An Indian, who had been with Columbus two years, interpreted the speech and the Chronicle states that Columbus was much affected by it, assuring the chief that his words were true and would be faithfully regarded.

How well this promise of Columbus was kept by the Spaniards in the New World can be estimated by the student of history. Bartholomew Las Casas, the hero-priest of Spanish-America, in his memorial to the tribunal of Spain on the atrocities of the colonists, says that fifteen mil-

lions of Indians were sacrificed to the lust of his countrymen for blood and gold. His enemies railed against his bitterness but they never accused him of exaggeration.

Through Spanish historians and the reports of colonial governors, we learn of the unspeakable cruelties that caused such monstrous destruction. Soldiers kept themselves in practice by using the unfortunate natives as targets, their blood-hounds were in constant training on trails of blood, while native children were the food that kept the vicious beasts ferocious. It was considered a brilliant idea to force a party of natives into the water for baptism and then kill them to prevent apostacy.

From such unmitigated cupidity, cruelty and blasphemy came the destruction of national as well as colonial integrity and morality. Fear was the only bond of loyalty or obedience, and every colonist or conqueror was a speculator and adventurer. The whole history of Spanish-America shows that kind of nature in the character of the people as measured in its manifestations by the surrounding conditions. Plunder was the whole aim of government from the kings, who, for a royal fifth, gave special charters to any man whose promises seemed plausible, down to

the petty placeman extorting the last penny of tribute. The code of plunder has never been changed and the gross ignorance and avarice of illiterate Spain make its government continue to be a plague spot in the midst of modern civilization.

The Spanish Colonial System.

MISSIONARY fervor and the love of gold were the incentives in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries that induced the most adventurous energy among men known in history, with the exception of the crusades.

Spain being the greatest of maritime powers produced the most daring and indomitable explorers and conquerors. Roman Catholicism had won its kingdoms in Spain against the torch and the sword, and the Spanish devotees believed the lash and the stake to be the most effective means of the cross in dealing with all heathen and unbelievers. The temporal adventurers, seeking profit through the most appalling privations and hardships, had no mercy or consideration that was not measured by profit. Every step taken in the new world was marked by spoliation and devastation.

The very name of Spaniard became synonymous with treachery, cruelty, corruption and greed over the whole Western world, in sharp contrast with the French who made allies and friends of the natives wherever they went. The

differences in character in a marked degree may be seen in the pioneer ecclesiastics of each country. The French Fathers were gentle and lovable, and their names linger yet in Canada, among the lakes and down the Mississippi as mementos of their sacrifice and heroism in the peaceful mission of their faith. The Spanish priests set their creed in the physical terror of the people.

The main characteristics of Spanish conquests have continued to this day and the nation is dying, her continent of colonies and her ocean of islands are hers no more.

Spain's method of reward was one to incite the most effective energy in exploration but it made stable colonization impossible. It was a system of land piracy, one fifth of all that was found belonged to the crown and the remainder could be divided among the invaders. As a result despoliation was the only inspiration with cupidity and greed as the only monitors in the construction and government of colonial possessions.

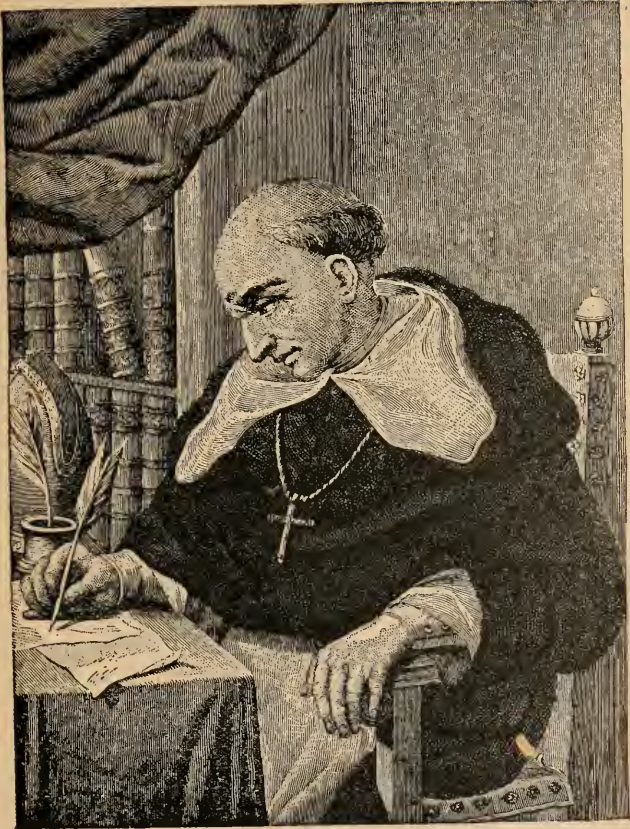
In the course of time as the colonists themselves became substitutes for the natives and shared in their oppressions by superiors, protests and insurrections began, ending at last in liberation for themselves and in the loss of the vast

American possessions by Spain. Under just and humane conditions, the greater portions of the two American continents would have remained loyal to Spain, that nation would have been the most powerful on earth, and the Western hemisphere would have been Spanish, Latin, and Roman Catholic.

The cupidity of the Spanish Crown extending to officers and men has received its reward in the compensations of nature, and all the prestige and power gained by greed is gone.

The energy, valor and heroism of the Spanish explorers were expended against the mild and humble Caribs of the West Indies whom they exterminated to the number of several millions, and against the hospitable inhabitants of Central and Southern America, whom they rewarded with an annihilating slavery. The Creeks and the Seminoles encountered by Ponce de Leon, were described as incarnate devils, and the Spaniard did not seek to encounter them. De Soto had been through the most daring campaigns with Francisco Pizarro, but neither fountains of youth nor galleons of gold could tempt other Spaniards to continue his unprofitable and disastrous explorations among the northern Indians.

The Atrocities of Spanish rule in the West



Las Casas.



Indies and in South America can be better appreciated when it is considered that the Nation which reveled in the inquisition, Auto de Fe, and the torture of Jew and Morisco, was horrified at the inhuman treatment of the Colonial Natives. The Spaniards were accustomed to see men, women and children burned to death and torn to pieces in the open market place, but the cruelties practiced in the Western Hemisphere were so surpassing as to call for protests and royal decrees. But they were unavailing and the unspeakable barbarities of demoniac indecency and horror continued.

In 1537 Pope Paul III denounced Spanish treatment of the natives, saying: "Such treatment is found only in an infernal cupidity and is founded on the most diabolical pretext." Yet, three years later Dr. De Lolorzano Pereyra wrote the official declaration of the Council of Castile on the Indian policy of Spain, in which was the following:

"Divine Providence has reserved America for the Spaniards; the Bible has promised this fact for the glory of the true faith, and the upholding of the power of Spain."

In proof of this assertion the highest authority of political and ecclesiastical Spain proclaimed

that, "In these islands and provinces of the Indies there are so many and so clear prodigies, presages, portents and sundry other revelations to the effect that God is calling the Spaniards to them. To these must be added the divine impulses, inspirations or revelations, and the previous dispositions with which God gradually prepared, disposed and moved our sovereigns to engage in these enterprises, and to Don Cristobal Colon so that he might struggle with so much endeavor and firmness in proposing and executing it; and the great good fortune and facility with which all this was accomplished, they being so few; also the many and evident miracles which were performed in many battles, St. Jago, St. Peter and Our Lady having appeared, and the performers of the former being persons whose lives did not seem to deserve such reward of all of which we have incontestable histories and accounts."

Following these pretentious claims, so graphically disproved by the records of history, every Spanish sovereign announced on every propitious occasion that he held and exercised "the greatest solicitude for the religious, political, social and economical welfare for his wards in America," and yet he continued to receive his royal fifth of

all that wrung from his dependencies through the most frightful abuses known in history.

Spanish records show that out of 500,000 Caribs in 1509, in 1590 only 25 remained. Las-Casas, the humane Dominican monk, celebrated for his efforts to save the natives, says that in the first part of the sixteenth century more than thirty islands were totally depopulated by Spanish cruelty.

Friar Mark de Xalicia, of the Order of St. Francis, who was general of all the monks of that order in Peru, wrote to his superior in Spain an account of the atrocious government there in which he said: "The Spaniards are in the habit of feeding their hounds upon the babies of the natives."

In simple justice, such diabolical inhumanity as was common in Spanish colonization, and which has, with various modifications, permeated the entire history of Spanish-America, cannot be charged against the Roman Catholic religion. The unspeakable crime must be laid where it belongs, and that is in the innate treachery and cruelty of the Spanish character, born in torture and blood, and continued through rapine and devastation.

Nor can these monstrosities of government be

charged against the common people of Spain, since they were then as now the most ignorant people in Europe and in turn through immigration to these colonies became the outraged and oppressed whose miseries drove them to revolt and secured them the sympathy of the civilized world.

There has never been any object in Spanish exploration and colonization but the enrichment of the politician and the royal crown. Nothing has been learned through the centuries of loss and greed and there can be no change in Spanish character while her present system of government endures. But the ability of Spain to inflict cruelty beyond her own shores is rapidly coming to an end in the extinction of such forms of government among men.

The Monroe Doctrine.

PRESIDENT MONROE, December 2, 1823, included the following in his message to congress:

“In the wars of the European Powers, in matters relating to themselves, we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy to do so. It is only when our rights are invaded, or seriously menaced, that we resent injuries, or make preparations for our defense. With the movements in this hemisphere, we are of necessity more immediately connected, and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. The political system of the Allied Powers is essentially different in this respect from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which is different in their respective governments. And to the defense of our own, which has been achieved with so much expense of blood and treasure, and matured by the wisdom of our most enlightened citizens, and under which we have enjoyed most unexampled felicity, the whole nation is devoted. We owe it therefore to candor, and to the amicable

relations subsisting between the United States and those powers, to declare that we shall consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European Power, we have not interfered, and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence, and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition, for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European Power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States. In the war between these governments and Spain, we declared our neutrality at the time of their recognition, and to this we have adhered, and shall continue to adhere, provided no change shall occur, which, in the judgment of the competent authorities of this government, shall make corresponding change on the part of the United States indispensable to their security."

Three distinct claims are seen in this message of vital consequence in American affairs.

1. The Americas ought not be considered as

subjects for any further colonization by any European power.

2. Any attempt by a European power to extend its territory in the Western hemisphere is dangerous to the welfare of the United States.

3. Any interposition by a European power, or attempt to oppress an American government or control in any way its destiny, is an unfriendly act toward the United States.

If the United States government had not taken this stand, Mexico would now be either French or Austrian and the map of South America and the West Indies would be covered with the territory of hostile nations. All the great powers would have coaling stations, bases of supplies and colonies in America that would be a constant menace to our welfare.

When the contents of President Monroe's message became known in Europe it aroused the greatest interest, Spanish American deputies were overjoyed, Spanish American securities rose in the markets, and the safety of the American governments was no longer a question.

Sir James Mackintosh speaking in the House of Commons, June 15, 1824, said:

“I heartily rejoice in the perfect agreement of that message with the principle professed by us

to the French minister, and afterwards to all the great powers of Europe, whether military or maritime, and to the great English state beyond the Atlantic. That wise government, in grave, determined language, and with that reasonable and deliberate tone which becomes true courage, proclaims the principles of her policy, and makes known the cases in which the care of her own safety will compel her to take up arms for the defense of other states. I have already observed the coincidence with the declarations of England; which indeed is perfect, if allowance be made for the deeper, or, at least, more immediate interest in the independence of South America, which near neighborhood gives to the United States. This coincidence of the two great English commonwealths (for so I delight to call them, and I heartily pray that they may be forever united in the cause of justice and liberty) can not be contemplated without the utmost pleasure by every enlightened citizen of either."

Daniel Webster in his great speech before congress on the Panama mission, April 11, 1826, spoke of the approbation of England as follows:

"While the leading minister (Lord Canning) expressed his entire concurrence in the sentiments and opinions of the American President, his dis-

tinguished competitor (Lord Brougham) in that popular body, less restrained by official decorum, and more at liberty to give utterance to all the feelings of the occasion, declared that no occasion had ever created greater joy, exultation, and gratitude among all the free men in Europe; that he felt a pride in being connected by blood and language with the people of the United States; that the feeling disclosed by the message became a great, free, and independent nation; and that he hoped his own country would be prevented by no mean pride, or paltry jealousy, from following so noble and glorious an example."

Thomas Jefferson in a letter to President Monroe dated Oct. 24, 1823, says:

"The question presented by the letters you have sent me is the most momentous which has been offered to my contemplation since that of independence. That made us a nation, this sets our compass, and points the course which we are to steer through the ocean of time. Our first and fundamental maxim should be, never to entangle ourselves in the broils of Europe. Our second, never to suffer Europe to intermeddle with cis-Atlantic affairs. Europe is laboring to become the domicile of despotism. Our endeavors should surely be to make our hemisphere that of freedom."

The Holy Alliance, formed to resubjugate Spanish America for Spain, went to pieces at once, and the experience of Maximilian in Mexico was such as to insure America from the further touch of European government.

At the first gun-shot of civil war in the United States, Spain grasped the eastern provinces of St. Domingo, France prepared to put an Austrian on the throne of a Mexican empire, and the nations prepared to reap a harvest of American territory. But with the first evidence of a reunited government, and undiminished national power, Spain got out of Haiti, and the French left Maximilian to his fate.

The Holy Alliance was formed soon after the overthrow of Napoleon, the avowed object of which was, through a perpetual league of the most powerful Christian nations of Europe, to promulgate acknowledged Christian principles among governments. But its real object was a league to sustain existing dynasties as they are. If it had succeeded there could never have been another successful revolution, no matter what the tyranny. The Holy Alliance was first composed of Russia, Prussia and Austria, but it was then encouraged by England and France. In October, 1822, it held a conference at Verona and the be-

lief became strong in America that it contemplated the re-conquest of Spanish-America. A little later it was learned that a re-conquest of Spanish-America was not alone contemplated, but that the colonies were to be parcelled out among the powers.

From this menace arose the counteracting Monroe Doctrine, distinctly pledging the United States to three principles of American liberty:

1. No more European colonies in America.
2. No extension of the European political system in the Western hemisphere.
3. No European interposition in the destiny of American republics recognized by the United States.

England has claimed for Prime Minister Canning the honor of originating the Monroe Doctrine. A proposal did come from Mr. Canning for a form of union against the Holy Alliance, but since England refused to acknowledge the independence of the Spanish-American republics, it is clear that the proposal meant only to deter the other European powers from acquiring territory in which England was not to share

That this was true would appear from an official communication of Mr. Canning, Dec. 21, 1823, in which he wrote to Dr. William Court, British

Minister at Madrid, as follows: "Monarchy in Mexico and Brazil would cure the evils of universal democracy and prevent the drawing of a demarcation which I most dread; namely, America versus Europe."

His biographer says: "Mr. Canning held distinctly that the United States had no right to take umbrage at the establishment of new colonists from Europe on any such unoccupied parts of the American continent."

Although no legislative enactment has given the Monroe Doctrine definition and legal status, yet every president since Monroe has had occasion to refer to it and the Doctrine has become an unwritten law as binding as constitutional provision, not alone from its recognized moral character, but from the welfare of the United States requiring that no further intrenchments of foreign powers be allowed.

Destiny and Duty of the United States.

Many have supposed that the Monroe Doctrine committed the United States to a hermit policy, which absolved the government from any duty toward the bloody despotism of Spain at its southern doorway. When the war of liberation for Cuba began, prophets of the hermit policy declared that the American republic had abandoned its traditions and entered the arena that would force entangling alliances from which the people had been warned by Washington. But a little inspection of the duty to civilization that is plainly before the great republic at once dispels the criminally selfish policy that restrains America from taking its place among the influences which drive ancient ignorance and despotism from the world.

The most crushing tyranny known in history has grown out of Roman government among the Latin races. That the inferiority and degradation of that courageous and energetic people are due to their paralyzing political system is beyond denial.

Latin influences are solely emotional, those of

the Anglo-Saxon judicial; the one acts from the passions of the present, the other calmly constructs his plans for the future.

The duty of America is clearly with those forces in civilization that are disciplined by judgment and governed for the emancipation and progress of man. The Anglo-Saxon represents that idea immeasurably beyond that of any other race, and the statesmen of England have recognized the fact that in the fundamental principle of the Monroe doctrine is planted the progressive element of western civilization.

That fundamental principle committing America to the cause of liberty is opposition to the European despotism which contains at once the absolutism of Spanish avarice, German militarism and Russian autocracy.

Absolutism is inevitably the deadly enemy of American institutions, and friendship cannot be wholly given to such a foe. Free institutions are safe only with the forces that are marching the same highway of human development.

Dr. Lyman Abbott, touching this subject, said: "I believe that the time has come when we ought, as a nation, to recognize the fact that we are not only an American nation, but a world nation; when we ought to take our place, with clear and

definite understanding that we are doing so among the nations of the world; when we ought to form clearly to ourselves our national purpose, and seek such affiliations as will promote that purpose."

As in answer to this sentiment in America, came the Birmingham speech of Joseph Chamberlain, British Secretary of the Colonies, which was the sensation of Europe and doubtless prevented the formation of an alliance to interfere for Spain in the war of liberation. His words were as full of purpose and force as were those of Premier Canning and Lord Brougham against the Holy Alliance. Their opposition to the Holy Alliance made the Monroe Doctrine effective without war, as England's attitude now leaves the United States free to deal with Spain without European interference.

Mr. Chamberlain said: "Our duty is to establish and to maintain bonds of permanent amity with our kinsmen across the Atlantic. They are a powerful and a generous nation. They speak our language, they are bred of our race. Their laws, their literature, their standpoint upon every question are the same as ours; their feeling, their interest in the cause of humanity and the peaceful development of the world are identical with ours. I do not know what the future has in

store for us. I do not know what arrangements may be possible with us, but this I know and feel—that the closer, the more cordial, the fuller and the more definite these arrangements are with the consent of both peoples, the better it will be for both and for the world. And I even go so far as to say that, terrible as war may be, even war itself would be cheaply purchased if in a great and noble cause the Stars and Stripes and the Union Jack should wave together over an Anglo-Saxon alliance. Now, it is one of the most satisfactory results of Lord Salisbury's policy that at the present time these two great nations understand each other better than they have ever done since more than a century ago, when they were separated by the blunder of the British government."

National prosperity is eminently desirable and the welfare of the people is paramount, but nations, like individuals, can not develop a great destiny by isolation.

As long as powerful absolutism bears arms to enforce its demands, liberty must do likewise; and, if the war with Spain had no effect but to unite liberty-loving people and arm the United States with an adequate navy, the gain is incalculable for civilization.

At the time when Washington uttered his famous address the United States had less than 4,000,000 inhabitants; to-day it has 72,000,000. During the same century Great Britain's 14,000,000 have grown only to 38,000,000, though it has so many millions more scattered through its dependencies that this will not serve for a comparison. But France in the closing decade of the last century had 27,000,000 inhabitants and it now has 38,000,000. Austria's 18,000,000 have increased to 41,000,000. Germany—or what is now Germany—had 15,000,000 then as against 52,000,000 now. In that century Spain's 10,000,000 have grown to 17,500,000. The Latin races have increased only about 50 per cent. The races of Saxon stock on the European continent have in the century added from 100 to 200 per cent. to their populations. But the United States in the same period has increased 2,000 per cent. Here, in a nutshell is the reason why the American policy of Washington's day can no longer be the American policy of to-day.

No less striking is the change in wealth. At the time when Washington uttered his farewell address this was one of the poorest of nations; now it is the wealthiest nation on the face of the earth. The total wealth of the American people

in that day was about 1,000 million dollars. To-day it is 81,000 millions. The United Kingdom's total wealth a century ago was about 8,000 million dollars, or eight times ours. To-day it is only five-eighths of ours, or about 51,000 millions; though this does not count the wealth of British subjects in India, Australia and the dependencies. In the same period the wealth of France has increased from about 7,000 millions to 45,000 millions—that is, it has changed from seven times our wealth to about one-half of ours. The same comparison in our favor might be made with all the other European countries.

In commerce and manufactures it is the same. The imports of the United States in 1796 were 81.5 millions; in 1897 they were 764 millions. Our exports in 1796 were 40 millions; in 1897 they were 1,051 millions. The straits of our inland lakes, navigated in Washington's time only by the canoes of hostile savages, to-day carry commercial fleets annually exceeding in tonnage the commerce of the Suez Canal. The small barges, schooners and sloops in which our early Atlantic trade was carried have given way to massive steel steamers and ocean greyhounds. In place of the stage coaches and wagons plowing through muddy pioneer roads we now have a net-

work of 179,000 miles of railroads, against Europe's 151,000 miles. A century ago we were producing little or no iron or steel, no silver at all, and only a trace of gold from some Virginia rivers, which the poorest Klondike prospector would scorn. To-day the United States furnishes one-third of the world's total product of iron and two-fifths of the product of steel. It produces more of both iron and steel than does Great Britain itself. Its output of silver is 39,000,000 annually and its output of gold is 60,000,000. Similar comparisons might be made with copper, lead and all other metals except tin.

Agriculture and food products show the same commanding power of the United States among the nations. Europe depends almost absolutely upon American breadstuffs to stand between it and famine. The bulk of the world's cotton crop is grown on American soil. The world, in a real sense, looks to the United States for its food and clothing. Our condition in a century has changed from one of frailty to one of command.

This mighty strength brings with it obligations to ourselves and to others. We can no longer stand aloof under the hands-off policy that befitted the infant nation. Hideous wrongs like

those of the starving Cubans beneath the shadow of our nation are distinctly our business, and should have been made such many years before. As ex-President Harrison said: "For what, if not for this, does God make a man or a nation strong?"

As the head of a nation of 72,000,000 people, Washington would have been the first to reverse the attitude of aloofness. He would have been the last man to sympathize with a small-bore policy of exclusiveness on the part of a mighty nation. The dying cries of the Cubans and the dastardly crime in Havana harbor would have been "intolerable" to him from the beginning. When he counseled that this nation keep out of all questions touching upon European politics in any way, he was speaking to an infant nation of four million people, and not to the powerful nation of seventy-two millions which it was to become a century later.

The United States is one of the responsible powers of the earth, if strength brings responsibility.

The national conscience can no longer hold aloof from such oppressions and wrongs of the earth as its influence and power can right or help to right. Its duty is to assert its influence among the nations and do its part in the welfare of the

world. Only in this way can the moral fibre of the people be kept firmly compact and the national character develop its duty and destiny. The republic cannot escape its destiny, and it has no desire to do so. It has a mission, and must accomplish it for liberty and humanity. Its institutions, its freedom, have been a lesson to the world, and such liberty is the world's only hope. It is an inalienable duty to help the world to such liberty; not to stand behind a safe rampart and give them useless moral sympathy, but to take part in bestowing human rights on human beings.

The new mission opened by the war will elevate the standard of government service and make trained statesmen. The nation will demand the services of its best men, and it will honor them with its confidence and its esteem. In short, it will advance to a higher stage of national evolution and emerge from the present comparative isolation into a commanding influence in the affairs of humanity and civilization.

The Louisiana purchase, without the authority of congress and in violation of the constitution, as Jefferson frankly admitted, is a superb illustration of his exalted devotion to imperative duty and lofty principle in this respect. Had he hesitated for one instant in that supreme hour the

whole history of the two Americas, North and South, as it is written to-day, might have been reversed, and the European powers, not the United States, possibly would be, in these closing years of the century, the dominant authority in this hemisphere. Next to the revolution the acquisition of Louisiana is the most stupendous event in our annals. The two combined, in the mighty and beneficent results that have flowed from them, have changed the destinies of a large part of the human race.

The conquest of an Asiatic island belonging to Spain, or any other country with which the United States may be at war, and its retention is not an interference with the internal concerns of any European power. The islands in the Pacific are not a part of Europe. They are not the exclusive domain of European powers. They are given no cause for offense if one of those islands becomes, in a legitimate manner, an American possession. They never have declared themselves protectors of the Pacific and announced that the United States must make no establishments there. Enlightenment and liberty may be thrust upon ignorant and unprogressive people. The "consent of the governed" must never interfere with the progress of civilization.



Map of the Western Hemisphere.

Drawn by Wytfliet in 1597.

Nor, if the United States retains the Philippines can European nations declare that the Monroe doctrine has been abandoned, for the United States, by asserting that Europeans must not intermeddle in American affairs, does not renounce the right to acquire by war, cession or otherwise, possessions in other parts of the globe, to give its liberty to those who have it not, and to spread the government of the people for the people and by the people over the oppressed of the earth.

Spanish Politics.

IN January, 1874, the Spanish republic collapsed and Lerrano became dictator, only to proceed immediately to place Alfonso XII on the throne. In 1885, after an insecure reign of eleven years, Alfonso died of premature old age. Six months after his death the present heir was born. His mother was made Queen Regent until he should become of age.

During her regency she has been beset by innumerable difficulties. The socialists and anarchists, under the name of republicans, have been constantly fomenting trouble; the Carlists have been incessant disturbers, supported by the clergy, the legitimists and the absolutists; while the impatient leaders in the army have added to the general menace and danger.

The Carlists disorders began with the abrogation of the Salic law in 1829. According to this law, no woman could inherit the throne of Spain. Ferdinand VII caused the Cortes to abolish it. His brother Carlos protested, but to no avail. In 1830, the first child, a daughter, was born to Ferdinand, and on his death, in 1838, the child

was proclaimed Queen, the mother being Queen Regent.

Don Carlos raised a rebellion in favor of his own rights and the maintainance of the Salic law. A desperate struggle ensued, which lasted till 1839. Being defeated he renounced his claims in favor of his eldest son. The liberals had supported the government against Don Carlos because they believed that, with a woman as ruler, more latitude could be had in political affairs, and that a constitutional monarchy could be established beyond its overthrow by absolutism. France, England, and the friends of constitutional government everywhere, supported the Queen Isabella for the same reason.

The Queen Regent and the youthful Queen Isabella did not reign with wisdom. Their court was continually disgraced with scandals which kept interest alive in the pretensions of the Carlists. The first pretender, Don Carlos, brother of Ferdinand VII, died in 1853. His two sons raised a rebellion in 1860, but it was short lived. They were both arrested and imprisoned until they signed a renunciation of their claims to the throne. The elder brother died in 1861, and a third brother, who had not renounced his claims, arose as Don Carlos, leader of the legitimists.

He was educated to the priesthood by Emperor Ferdinand of Austria, but his dream was to be king of Spain. At the age of twenty he married the daughter of the Duke of Parma, who inherited a large fortune, thus enabling him to live in Belgium with all the semblance of an exiled king.

In 1868 he was offered the crown of Spain by Prim and Sagasta, who went to London to see him, provided he would accept it under a constitutional government and would favor the separation of church and state.

The latter stipulation was too much. His loyalty to the Roman Catholic Church would not permit him to accept a kingship under such conditions. After the dethronement of Isabella his name was proposed to the Cortes, but Prim and Sagasta were his bitterest opponents. An insurrection in his favor took place in 1869, another in 1872, and he headed one himself in 1873 which lasted until 1876.

The Basque provinces were his stronghold and his effective supporters were in the church. The people were tired of strife and welcomed the formation of the republic as a solution, but troubles continued through two years when the Cortes proclaimed as king Alfonso XII, son of

the exiled Isabella. He at once proceeded to crush the Carlists and early in 1876 the opposing army disbanded. As Don Carlos stepped across the Spanish line on French soil, he exclaimed: "I will return, I will return."

As the representative of the old dynasty of kings he was very popular; as a man he was treacherous and dissolute, which many authentic anecdotes of his career show. He lived miserably with his first wife, whose son, Don Jamie, is regarded by the Carlists as the rightful heir to his father's pretensions. The Spanish people not alone need a military hero but they are ardently hoping for one, and Don Carlos, with his son, Don Jamie, who is an officer in the Russian army, seem to be all that could be desired. Whatever changes the future holds for Spain there is little promise of stability. The Spanish people are hopelessly divided in their crown allegiance and they have already demonstrated their inability to sustain a republican form of government.

Spain in North America.



Montezuma,
Aztec Emperor of Mexico.



Mexico.

THE conquest of Mexico is unparalleled in history for its reckless daring and successful issue over the most colossal opposition.

Cortez commanded an armada sent out by Valdesquez, the governor of Cuba. He arrived at the coast of Mexico in 1519 and found an organized confederacy of races busy with the arts of a semi-civilization. They had no notion of soil-ownership, and their tribal relations existed solely for mutual protection. Consanguineous relationship formed them into a community under a military democracy. There were no conquests except in defense or for the sake of tribute.

Their judicial system made murder, adultery, theft, drunkenness and extravagance a crime with a death penalty. Only the luxuries were taxed, and the tributes of dependencies were common property.

Polygamy and slavery were common, and the religion of the people was idolatrous and barbarous. Cannibalism prevailed with the most horrible religious sacrifices of human beings, and yet they loved and cherished flowers.

They had a written language of hieroglyphics,

pictures, and phonetic signs. Mathematics was highly advanced among them, and their astronomical system was so exact that they were eleven days nearer the true time than the Spaniards. They knew the causes of eclipses and they used the sun dial. In many of the arts they showed great skill, and in the higher classes there was much that might be called intellectual and moral refinement.

Cortez, with consummate insight, found the fierce tribe of Tlascala to be the implacable enemy of Montezuma of Mexico, and that he could form an alliance which would make him master of the country.

The exterminating atrocities of the conquerors, where Spaniard vied with savage in the excess of cruelty, are too harrowing to be told. In turn the Tlascalans were subjugated by their Spanish allies, and the dominion of the foreigners was complete.

The first expeditions to Mexico came from the West Indies

Diego Velazquez, first governor of Cuba, fitted out an expedition under Cordoba for a voyage of discovery to the main land toward the southwest. There were three small vessels and 110 soldiers.

On the 4th of March, 1517, they landed on the

coast of Yucatan and found a semi-civilized but hostile people. After two-thirds of the men had been slain in an attempt to subjugate the natives, Cordoba returned to Cuba and in a few days died of his wounds. Two native youths were brought home as captives. They were shown a root which in Cuba was called yucca; they said their name for it was tale. From these two words, according to Bernal Diaz, who was with the expedition and who wrote a history of the conquest of Mexico fifty years later, came the name Yucatan.

Another expedition, with four caravels and 240 men, was fitted out the next year under Grijalva. In June an embassy of twenty men from the ships found safe conduct to Pinott, governor of the province, who, in fatal simplicity, gave them presents in gold worth to each man about five thousand doliars.

When Pinott hastened to his king, Montezuma, with the story about his strange visitors, that monarch believed a god had come, according to tradition, to take his throne. Presents and messages of peace were sent to Grijalva, but he had left the country for Cuba. The gold brought to Cuba threw the people into a fever of excitement. But jealousies had poisoned the mind of the governor against Grijalva, and the next expedition

was fatefully put under the charge of Hernando Cortez. His instructions were very explicit. He must conduct himself in all things as a Christian soldier, prohibit blasphemy among his men, on no account to molest the natives, but gently to inform them of the glory of God and the Catholic king.

The fleet consisted of twelve ships, containing 109 sailors, 508 soldiers, 200 Cuban slaves and two priests of the Order of Mercy. There were 32 cross-bows, thirteen firelocks, sixteen horses and an artillery of ten bronze guns and four falconets.

Just before landing, Cortez made a stirring appeal to his men. He fired their religious zeal by reminding them of the heathen nations they were about to bring to God; their ambition was increased by the vastness of their expedition, and, most of all, their greed was touched by reference to the gold they would secure.

“Be true to me,” he said, “as I am to you, and ere long I will load you with wealth such as you have never dreamed of.”

At the present site of Vera Cruz they built a fort before the eyes of the wondering natives, and attempted to secure an audience with Montezuma, who lived several days' journeying in the

interior. Presents of enormous value were showered on the Spaniards, but they were politely told to be content and depart in peace.

“Truly this must be a great lord, and rich,” said Cortez. “God willing, some day we will visit him.”

The persistence and greed of the Spaniards evidently displeased the governor of the province, for the gratuitous supplies were withdrawn and the visitors brought to the verge of famine.

A general dissatisfaction prevailed, especially among the relatives and friends of Velazquez, the governor of Cuba, whose instructions Cortez evidently intended to ignore. The character and ambitions of Cortez began to appear, foreshadowing the executive energy which was to make his conquest one of the most romantic and astonishing in history. Many of the soldiers, appalled at his plans, were in a state of mutiny. Two or three plots to seize the ships were frustrated, but still the dissatisfied men kept plotting to return to Cuba. Appeals to their piety, ambition and greed no longer availed, and a bolder stroke was necessary. Cortez resolved to add desperation to the needs and incentives of companionship and conquest. He took his trustworthy captains into his confidence. A scheme was agreed upon.

They bored holes in the bottoms of their vessels, and with rueful countenances came to tell Cortez that their ships were not seaworthy. Cortez expressed great astonishment and alarm. He addressed his soldiers, telling them that it were better to burn the ships than to deplete their forces by the men necessary to guard such hulks. The counsel seemed wise and they agreed to the destruction of the vessels. This stroke made him sure of the co-operation of his men.

With consummate diplomacy, Cortez found the tribes that were unwillingly paying tribute to Montezuma, and offered to be their liberator. With 450 soldiers and a strong force of natives of unknown efficiency, he set out for the capital of Mexico. After four days' marching they reached Xocotlan, and the governor of the province conducted them through his plaza, where they saw a magnificent palace containing the governor's thirty wives and two thousand servants.

“Are you the subject or ally of Montezuma?” asked Cortez.

“Who is not his slave?” was the reply. “I and my 20,000 subjects are lowly vassals of the great emperor who has thirty chieftains, each of which can place at once a hundred thousand men in the field.”

Bernal Diaz, the historian of the expedition, says: "Despite the dangers described, we all wished ourselves at the capital striving for the fortunes there."

Cortez caused four chieftains to be sent forward to ask permission for his men to move through the province of the Tlascaltecs. The chieftains described the Spaniards as powerful gods from the east, though few in numbers yet invincible. The swift steeds, savage dogs and destructive weapons were described in detail. Permission was neither given nor denied, and the Spaniards pressed forward. The next day they came upon a force of a thousand warriors. After some parley the Tlascaltecs began an attack, then retreated in orderly manner before the fire of the invaders. Presently the Spaniards found themselves led into an ambushade in a narrow pass. Fighting their way through to an open plain, they saw before them an army of thirty thousand men. Several hours of desperate fighting ensued, ending in the natives retreating in an orderly manner.

Cortez fortified himself on a neighboring hill, and the next day a foraging party captured four hundred natives. These he sent to Xicotencatl, the general of the enemy, with peace messages, but the answer returned was, "Peace will be cel-

ibrated in my father's town, with a feast on Spanish flesh, and their hearts will be offered to our Gods."

September 5th, a resplendent army of fifty thousand men could be seen advancing in four divisions, each with banner and colors flying. A desperate conflict ensued in which it seemed that the daring band must be annihilated. At last the natives began to retreat from the destructive fire of the guns. A quarrel taking place between Xicotencatl and one of his chief captains, nearly half of the fighting force was withdrawn.

Four principal chieftains who had withdrawn from the league against Cortez, came to him bearing gifts in gold of enormous value with promises of an annual tribute, if the Spaniards would only leave them in peace. While the men were gloating over the gold a Tlascalcan deputation arrived, headed by Xicotencatl, the late commander-in-chief. He said he was too poor to bring any worthy gifts but he offered the entire submission of his country to the invincible people of the East, at the same time asking them to visit his captain and celebrate the event with a great feast.

The Mexicans, who were rivals of the Tlascalans or Tlascaltecs, for the favor of the strangers, said the invitation was a plot and that

the conquerors would never come from the feasts alive. Cortez coolly informed the Tlascaltecs that if the least unfriendly act was shown he would immediately proceed to destroy, without distinction, all the people and cities of the country.

They were met outside the city of Tlascala by throngs of women of rank who strewed their way with flowers, while priests swung incense over the heads of the Spanish captains. The feasting lasted three weeks in which more than a hundred thousand natives took part.

But the capital of the Mexican Montezuma was the object of Cortez and delay was irksome. The Mexican envoys advised him to go by way of Cholula, but the Tlascalans told him that it was a plot of the Aztec emperor for his destruction. The Tlascalans declared that an enormous army, a thousand times the number of the Spaniards, would surround them and there would be no escape.

Cholula contained two hundred thousand inhabitants and was next in wealth to the Aztec capital. As Cortez approached the city, a procession of nobles met him, displaying the most obsequious deference, but requesting that their enemies, the Tlascalans, should not be allowed to enter with him. This was agreed to, and the Spaniards were

installed in one of the temples. Meanwhile, word came to Cortez that the city was being barricaded for battle, that the women and children were leaving the city, and many thousands of soldiers were pouring in from all sides. Suddenly the supply of food ceased, and it was understood that an attack would come at once. A great Aztec army was rapidly forming just outside the city and the position seemed desperate.

Cortez coolly summoned the nobles and the commander-general of the city before him, and demanded provisions for the continuance of his journey and a guard of 2,000 picked soldiers. The chiefs promised to grant his request on the next day. At the same time they were heard, by the friendly Totonecs present, to whisper among themselves, "What need have these men of food when they themselves are soon to be food?"

At dark, the Spaniards planted their guns and prepared themselves for a desperate battle. Word was sent by Cortez to the Tlascalans, who had remained outside the city, to join in the attack at the first sound of a gun. But the expected attack did not come, and the next day the nobles came as appointed, with even more than they had promised. Cortez invited the chief and nobles into his room under pretense of bidding them

farewell. At a given signal they were all shot down. Then the guns were trained on the host of native soldiers crowding the great square of the city. The Spaniards fired a volley and charged the terror stricken mass, the Tlascalans poured in through the gates, and for five hours the unresisted slaughter of the people continued. Abject submission followed. Xicotencatl with 20,000 additional Tlascalans now came to the aid of Cortez. They were thirsty for revenge against these enemies, whom they hated worse even than the Aztecs. They were also anxious for the glory and booty to be found with the invaders. But Cortez declined their services and sent them back with enough booty to celebrate appropriately the great victory.

The Spaniards, beginning to feel the miraculous powers attributed to them by the natives, pressed forward undaunted toward the queen city Anahuac, regardless of the overwhelming dangers and difficulties that lay before them. November 1, 1519, they approached the capital of the Aztecs and were met by a thousand nobles and merchants, arrayed in resplendent costumes and greeting the strangers with the most profound obeisances. At a drawbridge before the gates of the city Cortez and his captains dismounted, for

the august Montezuma was himself approaching. Chieftains held over the emperor a magnificent canopy of green feathers resplendent with jewels. Others swept the path before him and laid tapestry on the ground to keep his majesty's feet from touching the earth.

After salutations and the exchange of many tokens of friendship, the Aztec monarch returned to his palace and the Spaniards entered the city. When they were comfortably housed Montezuma visited them again and expressed his delight that they were comfortable. Notwithstanding the manifest friendship and subservience of emperor and people, the insatiable ambition of Cortez was not satisfied. He resolved on a stroke of the most reckless magnitude ever attempted. It was no less than the capture of Montezuma with the purpose of holding him as a hostage.

Armed with a letter purporting to tell of the killing at Vera Cruz of a Spaniard by one of Montezuma's subjects, Cortez visited the emperor followed by as many armed Spaniards as could go without attracting special attention.

The captain-general showed his letter and accused Montezuma of having ordered the outrage. The monarch indignantly denied the accusation and at once ordered an officer to proceed to Vera



Plot of Mexico,
Capital of the Aztecs.

Cruz and bring the guilty persons to execution.

Cortez expressed much pleasure at this evidence of friendship, but said that, in order to satisfy the Spaniards, the emperor must be their prisoner until the offenders were properly punished.

Montezuma was speechless with amazement. The action of this handful of visitors seizing and holding him, who had thousands of devoted soldiers for every one of the Spaniards within his gates, was unthinkable audacity. But with all his august power and magnificent sovereignty, he believed himself helpless before the score of men who surrounded him. He was led from the palace to the apartments of Cortez through awe-stricken multitudes who had hitherto fled from the streets when the monarch was about to pass by, because it was believed to be a sin for such unworthy ones to look upon his face.

In a few days Montezuma called the chieftains and nobles of his empire about him, and, in terror before the guns and prowess of the Spaniards, they all swore fealty and allegiance to Cortez. Montezuma renounced forever his rights as chief sovereign of Mexico and the Aztecs in favor of the king of Spain.

Meanwhile, Velazquez of Cuba, who had commissioned Cortez, found that he was receiving

neither booty nor glory from the expedition, and that Cortez was intriguing for authority direct from Spain. To regain his hold on the conquest the governor fitted out the greatest fleet ever attempted so far in the western hemisphere. There were eighteen ships, 900 soldiers, several hundred Cuban natives and a large number of sailors, including also eighty horses and a strong battery of artillery.

Panfilo de Narvaez was given command with orders to supersede Cortez and to continue the conquest. When he arrived at Vera Cruz, Cortez tried in vain to open negotiations with him but Narvaez called Cortez a traitor and would have nothing to do with him. With his usual decision and promptitude Cortez set about a solution of the difficulty. He left 140 men to guard and hold the Aztec capital. With seventy men he went to Cholula and was joined by the 150 men left there. On the way to Vera Cruz sixty more of his men joined him. Reaching the camp of Narvaez at night, he surprised and captured the whole lot without resistance. Narvaez and such men as would not voluntarily join Cortez, were held prisoners.

At Anahuac, the Aztec capital of Mexico, the great festival of Tezcatlipoca was in progress,

having been permitted by the Spaniards on the promise that there would be no human sacrifice in the ceremonies. Alvarado, who was in command of the remaining 140 men, learned of a plot to attack them while the captain-general was away. His men immediately rushed into the building where the festival was in progress, and put to death 600 of the leading men, priests and chieftains. Then they plundered the temple of all its treasures.

It was a disastrous investment by the Spaniards. The people arose in a rage that they were not known to possess. The invaders were hemmed in, and when Cortez returned he found them besieged by hosts of desperate Aztecs. He forced his way through to his comrades and found them in a most desperate situation. The bridges and causeways over the lakes and streams surrounding the city were destroyed and the waters were swarming with canoes full of enraged and determined natives.

At a charge on the temple where most of the native soldiers were gathered, several Spaniards were killed and great slaughter inflicted on the natives. Montezuma was brought forward and commanded to advise his people to lay down their arms and seek peace.

He spoke a few words when emotion overcame him and his voice sank to a whisper.

“Coward! Chicken!” cried the people to him whom they had heretofore looked upon as a God, “Woman—slave to the Spaniards, fit only for the gown and spindle.”

The attack was renewed and before the Spaniards could interpose their shields, a stone struck Montezuma on the head. He was carried away but he refused nourishment or assistance and in a few days died.

June 30, 1520, the Spaniards, nearly perishing from famine, tried shortly after midnight to escape from the fort. The streets were deserted and they were nearing safety when the shriek of a woman aroused the sentinels. War drums and trumpets were sounded. The shouts of warriors warned the Spaniards that the most desperate conflict of all their adventurous invasion was now at hand. A host of frenzied natives rushed upon them, but the Spaniards fought their way through the mass to the water's edge. A temporary bridge was made over one of the numerous water-channels. Multitudes surrounded the bridge and in the struggle it was destroyed. Nothing more desperate than “*La Noche triste*” as this “sad night” conflict between despairing Spani-

ards and frenzied natives is called, has been known in history. Cortez and Alvarado fought with all the fierce energy of their natures, but only a demoralized mass of fugitives reached the city of Tlascala on the following day. One hundred Spaniards rushed back to the fort, when they met the first onslaught at the water's edge just outside the city. In a few days they were captured and given in sacrifice to the Aztec gods.

Cortez found the Tlascalans true to him, and ready to go wherever he led.

The Aztecs sent an embassy, imploring them under all the ties of blood and language to unite in ridding Mexico of its foreign invaders, but the Tlascalans replied that they must be loyal to their guests.

Cortez proposed to renew at once his conquest of Anahuac. There was a murmur among his men, most of whom were wounded, maimed and exhausted.

“What is this I hear?” he inquired of his assembled men. “Is it true that some want to retire from the fertile fields of new Spain and leave the shiploads of gold which we saw and handled in the Aztec capital? Would you leave standing the abominable idols, with their blood-stained

ministers, and tamely summon others to enjoy the riches and glory which you are too craven to grasp? Alas! for your patriotism and your duty to yourselves, your emperor and your God. For myself, if left alone, then I will remain alone and take command of Tlascaltecs, since my Spanish followers have all turned cowards!"

Not a man left and not another murmur was heard.

Reinforcements arrived and Cortez found himself at the head of 900 Spaniards, of whom 86 were horsemen. Besides, he had a Tlascaltec army of 50,000. He had three heavy guns and fifteen smaller pieces of artillery.

In May of 1521 Cortez laid siege to the Aztec capital. During the first week the besiegers succeeded in forcing their way into the city, and even drove the Aztecs beyond the plaza, but in turn were driven back out of the city by the desperate natives.

Reinforcements of tribes hostile to the Aztecs, with abundant supplies, kept coming in until the invaders had an auxiliary force of more than 200,000 men. Time and again the Spaniards forced their way into the center of the city, only to be driven back, with heavy loss.

After six weeks of unavailing attack against

the indomitable and heroic defenders the resourceful Cortez resolved to tear down the city step by step and throw the debris into the lakes. The first regret Cortez had been known to express was in destroying what he declared was the most beautiful city in the world.

Disease and famine seized the unfortunate defenders, but the Aztecs proved the quality of their race by keeping the foreigners still at bay. Slowly the invaders tore their way through the houses, and, with a night assault, captured from the weakened people the great square, which was capable of holding 60,000 soldiers. Then the pyramid temple was attacked, but the Aztecs threw themselves against the invaders with such desperate onslaughts that they were driven back again and again. At last the superior arms of the foreigners prevailed and the great structure was set on fire.

Anahuac, the greatest and most ancient city, was at the mercy of the invaders, most of it already in irretrievable ruin. The people made a last stand in the midst of the horrors of disease, putrifying bodies, famine, pestiferous air, and filthy water. The advancing soldiers were compelled to light fires in order to endure the stifling stench.

Cortez sent word to the Aztec commander that if they would surrender he would restore their sovereign to the throne and exact only the homage promised by Montazuma.

“Tell your commander,” was the reply, “that I and mine elect to die. We will intrust ourselves neither to the men who commit, nor the God who permits, such atrocities.”

In the next series of assaults 12,000 were killed and still they held out. The next day, when the Spaniards returned to their task of butchery, they were met by hundreds of unresisting beings scarcely with the semblance of humanity upon them, haggard, emaciated, staggering wretches.

“Son of heaven,” they cried, “why dost thou not finish thy task quickly. Kill us so that we may no longer suffer.”

But the Aztec soldiers would not yield and butchery after butchery followed till at least 40,000 more were slain.

At last Quauhtemotzin, the successor and nephew of Montezuma, was captured. “My empire is gone,” he said, “my city is destroyed, and my people are dead. For what have I to live? Rid me, therefore, of a worthless existence.”

The siege had lasted seventy-five days when it



FERDINANDO CORTES

CAVATO DA VN ORIGINALE FATTO IN AZI
CHEI SI PORTASSI ALLA CONOVISTA DEL MESSICO

Gouy Isabelle Piccini sculpsit

a fever and died miserably, December 2, 1547.

The subsequent history of Mexico, up to its first struggles for independence, is one long story of official corruption and oppression. The conquests were extended as far on all sides as offered any inducements for adventure and plunder. Every revolt of any part of the natives was punished by extermination or greater slavery. Scarcely had the colonists ceased to harass the natives for lack of further booty, and turned their attention to labor and the establishment of homes, than they began to feel the intolerable greed of their governor and home government.

Spaniards soon found that their Creole children were not recognized by law as citizens of Spain and that no distinction was made in treatment between them and the natives. Obedience to the divine right of their sovereigns was so deeply inculcated by Church and State into the minds of Spanish colonists that no oppression seemed to move them to revolt. But the disdain and contempt of those born in Spain against those born in America brought about a jealousy and antagonism which developed into hatred and final disruption.

The colonists were excluded from all preferment in political matters and were allowed no

opportunities in commercial affairs. Exorbitant prices were charged for all necessities and the most grinding monopolies were put into the hands of those who could make the greatest returns to the royal treasury of Spain.

The Jesuits had ingratiated themselves deeply into the friendship of the Creoles, Mestizos and natives, and when those priests were expelled from the Spanish colonies, in 1767, the church itself lent a kind of moral sanction to disloyalty, though it afterwards turned all its power against the revolutionists. The viceroys were invariably incompetent and corrupt, permitting and encouraging the most flagrant abuses, without doing anything to appease the disquietude of the people. Then the sentiment of loyalty to state was given its greatest blow by a Frenchman usurping the throne of Spain. When news came that the Spaniards were in civil war over the reign of Joseph Bonaparte, the first organized outbreak in Mexico occurred.

The belief prevailed that Sturrigaray, the corrupt governor, was preparing to put himself at the head of an independent Mexican government.

Three hundred conspirators against him invested his palace on the night of September 15, 1808, and took him prisoner. He and his family

were sent to Spain and an octogenarian named Garibay was made governor. The impotence of Spain to deal with the offenders or to give the people stable government made dissension bolder, and plots for the liberation of Mexico were in constant process toward success.

The first hero of Mexican independence came from an unexpected source. Miguel Hidalgo Costilla, the scholarly curate of Dolores, in Guanajuato, fifty-eight years of age, began to crystalize the forces opposed to Spanish oppression. News coming to him on the night of September 15, 1810, that the government had discovered his plans, he asked the night watchman to tell the men who worked in the little porcelain factory owned by him that Hidalgo wanted to see them at once. When they appeared he told them the hour had come for them to strike for their liberty.

Armed with lances made by the curate they went to the jail and liberated the political prisoners and with their augmented force, captured all the Spanish sympathizers in the town. By this time daybreak was approaching. It was Sabbath and the curate had the bell rung an hour earlier than was usual.

The people came in from town and country, and he preached them an inspiring sermon against the

tyranny of Spain and on the duty they owed to give liberty to themselves and their posterity

“To-day we must act,” he said. “The Spaniards are bad enough themselves, but now they are about to surrender us and our country to the French. Danger threatens our religion and oppression is upon our homes. Will you become Napoleon’s slaves, or will you, as patriots, defend your religion and your rights?”

“We will defend them,” shouted the people, and the revolution spread from that little down-trodden Indian village like the winds.

Ignacio de Allende was the military spirit of the revolution, and he endeavored to organize the people into some semblance of military order. Armed with nothing but lances, clubs and machetes, they marched on toward Guanajuato, which was the capital of the province and had a population of 66,000. The revolutionists made captives of the Spaniards along the way, and every town added to the number in the army until it appeared before Guanajuato with more than 50,000 men. Hidalgo was named captain-general of America and Allende lieutenant-general.

At the capital the wildest confusion reigned. Doors and windows were barred, streets barri-

caded, and the whole population, night and day, kept weapons in their hands.

The slow progress of the revolutionists wore heavily on the excited apprehensions of the city. Those having only a half-hearted interest in Spain began to think that independence would not be so bad after all, and at the end of a week of suspense the seeds of disaffection were thoroughly well scattered.

Riano, the governor, distrusting the citizens, made a questionable move on the night of September 24, 1810. All the European Spaniards, with their valuables, moved into a massive stone storehouse called the Alhondega, and all the regular troops went into the fortified barracks around the storehouse, taking with them all arms and ammunition.

When daylight came the Mexican Spaniards found the wretched bit of treachery had left them at the mercy of the revengeful insurgents, who were now more than 50,000 strong, only a few miles away.

Guanajuato was situated in a valley-like gorge in the mountains, and the houses were built on such slopes that the floors of one tier were commonly on a level with the low flat tops of others. The stronghold in which the Spaniards and troops

had taken refuge, and in which they had so thoroughly fortified themselves, was in the center, as in a pit, but on nearly level ground. There were three or four passage ways through the mountains to the city, and along the main one of these appeared the advance guard of the insurgent army on September 28, 1810. The citizens rushed to the surrounding heights and took places, as in a vast amphitheatre, to watch the coming fight, giving the city up to the invaders without opposition. The assault began about noon, and the well-protected Spaniards sent a destructive fire into the faces of the mass of natives who fiercely pressed upon them with no weapons but lances and crossbows.

The soldiers in one of the barracks were about to be overcome by an assault when Riano rushed to their help with a rescuing party of twenty men. His desperate mission was safely accomplished, but as he returned to the Alhondega, he was killed. The death of the commander spread confusion among the Spaniards. Those outside in the barracks who could do so rushed into the stronghold, leaving the others at the mercy of the revolutionists. Those on the roof of the Alhondega were driven below, and the royalists were shut up in their fortress like rats in a trap. But

their murderous fire still smote the crowded ranks of the ill-equipped besiegers as they beat the stone walls with useless missiles.

A party of miners, who had been liberated from their slavery by the revolutionists, crept up to the walls under huge earthen jars and tried to make a breach in the walls with their picks, but were unsuccessful. Another party, with more wisdom, made a bonfire against the great iron-barred doors, and the flames soon began to eat through the supposedly impenetrable structure. The door began to fall to pieces and cries of despair from within mingled with the shouts of triumph from without. Handfulls of gold were thrown to the crowds in front, piteous cries for mercy were heard, and at last firing ceased as a white flag was raised in token of surrender. The assailants ceased the attack and crowded around the dismantled gates.

Gilberto Riano, son of the dead governor, ignorant, it is said, that the token of surrender had been raised, ordered his men to throw grenades into the crowds. This was done with dreadful havoc. "Treachery, treachery," was the cry from the enraged insurgents. "Kill and spare not," came the orders. The assailants in a frenzy rushed through the burning gates and the hand-

to-hand conflict ended in a merciless slaughter and an unrestricted sack of the city. Devastation and riot maintained control as long as there was plunder to be found. The commands of the captain-general, Hidalgo, for moderation and order were unheeded.

The insurrection, that heretofore had been considered only of local importance, now proved its formidable magnitude, and other cities that had been looking upon it with indifference saw that their only safety lay in immediate preparation for a desperate defense.

The church, ever subservient to Spanish interests, excommunicated Hidalgo and his two generals, Allende and Aldama, while the government offered tempting rewards for their heads. All the machinery of Church and State were industriously used to strengthen the loyalty of the people and cause them to fear and hate the revolutionists.

A semblance of order was at last restored in Hidalgo's army. He occupied Valladolid in a short time without resistance, and on October 20 started for the city of Mexico with 60,000 soldiers. Desiring to secure better military order Hidalgo reviewed his troops when he reached the city and divided them into regiments of 1,000 each. His council of generals then made him

generalissimo, Allende captain-general, and Aldama lieutenant-general.

Venegas, the commander in Mexico, sent Lieutenant-Colonel Trujillo with a picked force to check their advance. Trujillo was a treacherous and cruel commander, hated almost as much by his own men as by the enemy. He skilfully intrenched his men and planted masked batteries commanding the approach of the enemy. With equal skill Hidalgo invested the position taken by the Spanish troops. At the first assault the masked batteries opened on the assailants with fearful slaughter, but the desperate insurgents rushed on over the bodies of their comrades, and, regardless of the bloody hail, possessed themselves of every strategical point. Then a bit of treachery, so common in Spanish negotiations, took place. Knowing themselves to be masters of the field the revolutionists ceased their attacks and invited the Spanish army to join their cause. Trujillo asked for a parley. His men were placed in readiness to fire at the word of command and the insurgents were invited to the conference. Such friendly manifestations were made that great numbers of the insurgents followed their captains in a mass to the point where Trujillo was awaiting them. The order to fire was given to

the Spanish soldiers and the unsuspecting insurgents fell in heaps. The infuriated Mexicans renewed the conflict but Trujillo cut his way through the rear and escaped into the city, where a medal was immediately struck commemorative of his achievements.

But the city was panic-stricken and the whole resident army demoralized. An insurgent general of any military genius would have known that the city of the Montezumas was at his mercy, but Hidalgo was a genius only in his priestly humanity and scholarly patriotism. A few regiments under Trujillo had slain 2,000 of his best men. He studied the question several days, and, although Allende and Aldama advised him to attack Mexico at once, he ordered a retreat.

It was demoralizing to the insurgent forces and the generals saw that it was a mistake for a military expedition to be led by a priest, however noble his patriotism or inspiring his zeal.

A number of small engagements occurred along the road toward Guanajuato, increasing the discouragement of the insurgents. Calleja had been sent from San Louis Potosi for the purpose of retaking Guanajuato. He met the insurgents in a fierce engagement and succeeded in capturing the city. Immediately most of the inhabitants were

put to the sword in retaliation for a recent slaughter of Spanish prisoners in the old store-house known as the Alhondhga.

Hidalgo went to Valladolid, which was a revolutionary stronghold, and organized a force of about 8,000 men. He passed on to Guadalajara and was received with public demonstrations of the greatest enthusiasm. The insurrection continued to spread until all the northern half of Mexico was a unit for independence. More than 80,000 men were now under the command of Hidalgo, and fairly well organized, although most of them had no better arms than the sling and cross-bow.

Calleja, with a picked force of 3,000 cavalry and 3,000 infantry, thoroughly equipped, moved on to attack the revolutionary forces under Hidalgo at Guadalajara. The battle was to decide the fate of independence under the priest of Dolores, and it was determined by an accident. Victory was assured the insurgents after the most desperate struggle of the war, when a shell fell into the ammunition wagon of the revolutionists, and the explosion not only produced dreadful havoc in the crowded ranks, but it set on fire the heavy matted grass, which burst into overwhelming flames and smoke, choking and burning the

soldiers beyond human endurance. The wind blew the smoke and fire away from the Spaniards. Their cavalry and artillery beat the demoralized Mexicans till they fled in all directions a disorganized mass of fugitives.

Allende now took command of the disheartened remnants of an army and endeavored to present a formidable front once more, but the people were disheartened.

General Cruz sent to Hidalgo a copy of the conditional pardon which had been extended to the insurgents and asked him to sign it.

He replied: "Pardon, your excellency, is for criminals, and not for defenders of their country."

Not long after, Hidalgo and Allende were led into an ambush by a traitor, and both, with their escorts and the money of the revolutionary government, were captured. The chief captives were sent to Chihuahua and executed. Hidalgo was publicly degraded from his priestly office and shot two months later, on July 31, 1811.

The heads of Hidalgo, Allende, Aldama and Jimenez were placed in iron cages and suspended at the four corners of the notorious storehouse Alhondega, in Guanajuato. But the cause for which they fought triumphed at last; and in

1823 the heads were placed, with patriotic ceremonies, in the Cathedral of Mexico, in the tomb of the viceroys and the burial place of the presidents of the Mexican republic.

When the Spanish government supposed that every leader of influence had been executed and the rebellion crushed, Morelos, a pupil of Hidalgo, upon whom the mantel of patriotism had fallen, was organizing the insurgent forces to a still mightier effort.

Jose Maria Morelos had none of the refined scholarship of the sage of Dolores, but he combined an inexhaustible energy and courage with both military and priestly judgment. He was original in his methods and unerring in his laws.

After the capture of Guanajuato by the insurgents, Morelos raised a band of twenty-five men and started for Zacatula. The number was increased to 600 men who met and defeated 1,000 royalists January 11, 1811, capturing an immense quantity of stores. Slowly and carefully he felt his way, until in February, in 1812, he had 5,550 men at Cuautla, now called Morelos. Calleja here surrounded him February 10, with a strong force, and after a fierce battle, was repulsed. March 10 a bombardment was begun, but the inhabitants and soldiers repaired in the



Benito Juárez.

night all the damages of the day and the siege was turned into a blockade which lasted until May 2.

The most dreadful privations were endured, so that Calleja, merciless as he was, felt moved to write to the viceroy, "These people are heroes, and if their cause was just they would merit a worthy record in the page of history."

At two o'clock in the morning of May 2 arrangements were made by Morelos to get his famished people out of the city by stealth.

The strongest forces were placed in front and a procession made ending with the women and children. A cavalry, 250 strong, guarded them. It was two hours after the last one had left Cuautla before Calleja discovered what had happened. Then the order for attack was given and an indiscriminate slaughter of the weak and impoverished people began. Morelos gave the order to disperse, as his famished forces had no chance against the superior enemy. The Spaniards wreaked a horrible vengeance on the defenseless citizens following, the way for miles being covered with the disfigured bodies of women, children and men. The revolutionary cause was lost for a time, but Morelos seemed to create fighting strength out of the fugitives by sheer force of

energy and will. On October 29, 1821, he captured Orizaba, and before the end of November Oajaca was in his hands.

The revolution was again gaining ground and the home government in Spain became convinced, through the representation of merchants in Cadiz, that this was because of the weakness and leniency of the viceroy, Venegas. A stronger man was wanted and the notorious General Calleja was appointed viceroy in place of Venegas.

By this time the insurgents were in unrestricted control of all New Spain south of the city of Mexico and were overrunning the country almost as far north. The weakness of the movement lay in the fact that there was no general organization or concerted plan of action. There were many leaders, each trying to achieve the success that would make him known as the liberator of his country. Towns were lost and gained but no real progress made.

Against tremendous odds the poorly equipped bands of Morelos captured Acapulco in April, 1813. This made him the acknowledged chief of the revolutionary leaders, and in order to bring about an organized effort of all the forces, he called a congress of leaders at Chilpancingo. On November 6th, 1813, they issued a declaration of

independence. Morelos was declared generalissimo, and the revolution presented the most powerful front it had ever shown.

The first move of Morelos was the disastrous blunder of attempting to capture Valladolid, December 22, 1813. Through a daring charge made by Iturbide at dark with 360 Spanish cavalrymen, after the insurgents had been driven back from the attack on the city, Morelos' army was thrown into a panic which no efforts of the officers could stay. The generalissimo found himself with only a fragment of his forces when morning came. Loss after loss followed; surprise, capture and execution continued, and the name Iturbide became a terror to the enemies of Spain. It was this young man whom Hidalgo had earnestly counseled to join with him in redressing the wrongs of the people, but Iturbide was a royalist to the core, and the overtures of Hidalgo were in vain. A fierce opponent in the service of Venegas against Hidalgo, he became a merciless destroyer in the service of Calleja against Morelos. And yet, in a few years, this man was to make himself known in history as the liberator of Mexico.

Driven from one point to another, Morelos was at last captured by Lieutenant Carranco, who had

once served in the command of Morelos. After the usual degradations of the church, as in every case the servile instrument of the state, he was led to execution and shot December 22, 1815.

The organization of the revolution rapidly went to pieces, but thrilling deeds of daring were still enacted in many a place by the patriotic leaders. Among them may be mentioned the remarkable young man Estoz y Mina, a student from the University of Zaragoza, in Spain. Though only a beardless youth, he left school and became the most noted of guerilla chieftains against the French invasion of Spain by Napoleon. Driven out of the peninsula he equipped an expedition in England in the cause of the Mexican revolution. Landing in Mexico, when the cause of the patriots was lowest, he met, June 15, 1816, a cavalry of a thousand royalists and an infantry of seven hundred well equipped soldiers near San Luis Potosi. His own force consisted of about one hundred and seventy, or one-tenth that of the enemy. He was surrounded and his position seemed utterly hopeless. Making a feint of retreat, he immediately reversed his action to that of a fierce charge. He broke the ranks of the infantry before him, threw the enemy into a

panic from his fierce onslaught, routed the whole army and captured the city.

Mina's forces being considerably augmented, he marched on to San Felipe, where he inflicted another disastrous defeat on the royalists with an insignificant loss to himself. One of his favorite men was captured and was about to be shot. Mina offered to exchange 200 royalists for him. The offer was refused. Then Mina led the 200 prisoners to the front of his troops. "Behold the heartless indifference of your government," he said, "your lives are doubly mine—mine by victory and retaliation, yet you are free. Go your way in peace."

The atrocious character and ghastly instincts of the Spanish rulers and commanders in Mexico are well illustrated by the royalist victory over Mina at Sombrero. Mina's army, consisting of 650 men, occupied the place, and it was surrounded by a force of 4,000 royalists. Mina daringly escaped through the lines in order to bring reinforcements. But from lack of water the beleaguered patriots were forced to desperate measures before Mina's return. They attempted to cut their way out with the women and children following in their rear. The cries of some children disclosed what was going on, and the

butchery that ensued is too revolting to be told. Not satiated with the blood of helpless women and children, whose dismembered bodies were strewn over the fields, the soldiers rushed into the abandoned town and took the sick from their beds, tied them to posts and used them for target practice until all had been thus tortured to death.

A few days later Mina was surprised and captured, while resting at the hacienda where he was making almost superhuman efforts to bring an attacking force against the royalists besieging Torres in Los Remedios. The viceroy ordered the ringing of bells in token of joy over the capture. A few days later the youthful leader was shot in sight of the insurgents in Los Remedios.

At this time a strange change in the fortunes of Mexico took place. In April 1820 the news of the revolutions in Spain reached Mexico seeming to show that there was no royal Spanish home government worthy of further loyalty. Many influential men who had hitherto been indifferent to the revolutionists, or even antagonistic to them, began secret intrigues toward independence. They needed a powerful leader. That man was to be found in Iturbide. He had been largely instrumental in crushing Hidalgo and Morelos, but was now living in poverty, neglected by the



Don Pedro de Alverado.

men whom he had protected and held in power. The overtures which he had rejected in his boyhood, when coming from Hidalgo, he now secretly accepted from the influential men at the capitol.

Vicente Guerrero, the only insurgent leader of importance still holding out, had begun to gather some additional strength, and Iturbide applied to the viceroy to be given a command for the extermination of the last revolutionist. He succeeded in having a strong force put in his charge, with considerable sums of money. After being defeated by Guerrero in a light engagement, he proposed a union of forces with him for the liberation of Mexico. After some delay this proposition was accepted and the real purpose of Iturbide became known to the viceroy. Iturbide issued from Iguala a plan of government which asserted the maintenance of the Catholic religion and the establishment of a limited monarchy with equal rights in all things between the people of Spain and America. He sent this plan to the viceroy and offered him the presidency of the junta, but Apodoca rejected the proposition and at once proceeded vigorously against the new combination of revolutionists. Every means both of church and state were made to disintegrate Iturbide's forces. He was branded as an outlaw.

Nevertheless, his action was contagious and the viceroy found revolutionists at every turn. Apodaca fell under the suspicion of the home government in Spain and Lieutenant General Juan O'Donoju was sent to supercede him. The new viceroy found the whole country in sympathy with Iturbide, every province and town outside of the capital having declared for independence. The revolutionary spirit that had been crushed with such bloody force was now a spontaneous fire of enthusiasm over the whole territory of New Spain. O'Donoju was without army or friends and he found himself compelled to acknowledge the independence of Mexico and to surrender the capital to Iturbide, without an attempt at defense or battle. The liberator, Augustin de Iturbide, affected the greatest humility before the people, but at the same time he was intriguing with politicians and perfecting the movement to make himself emperor. The session of the first Mexican congress was ushered in with the wildest display of popular enthusiasm, but the manipulations of the president of the board of regency in favor of Iturbide became at once a menace. A series of stormy and ineffectual meetings followed during the course of nine months. Augustin de Iturbide having at last

reached the point for action the cry was raised in one of the infantry regiments on the night of May 18, "Viva Augustin I."

Soldiers and citizens surrounded the house of the generalissimo and in deafening uproar proclaimed him emperor. All night the clamor increased and in the morning, when congress assembled, it was surrounded with an uncontrollable mob of army and people shouting "Coronation or death." There lacked twenty representatives of being a quorum present, but sixty-seven out of eighty-two voted, under the pressure, for the empire, and the president of the assembly resigned his place for the emperor elect. May 21st Augustin de Iturbides took the oath of office as Augustin I, emperor of Mexico.

It was not long till the few remaining liberties of the people were swept away and insurrections against the government again became frequent and popular. Padre Mier, who had fought with Mina, was the first to declare the emperor's election invalid, but the revolt was quickly suppressed.

Guadalupe Victoria now appeared in Jalapa. He was the last chieftain under Morelos. After the death of Morelos, Victoria had been hunted in the mountains like a wolf for months, where

he had lived on roots, with all his clothing torn from his body by briars. Associated with him at Jalapa was a young man named Santa Anna, who was notable for impetuosity rather than courage, but whose daring made him a special favorite. Santa Anna and Guadalupe Victoria organized a force called the Army of Liberation. Iturbide having been informed of their plans suddenly attacked and defeated them. Santa Anna had a ship in waiting and, considering everything lost, was about to set sail for the United States, when Victoria said, "Go and put Vera Cruz in a state of defense. You can set sail when they show you my head."

At this time, a hitherto unheard of factor changed the whole face of events. Free Masonry had rapidly spread among the officers of both the revolutionists and the imperialists. Echavarri was the most trusted general of the emperor, but after being initiated into the Masonic order, at the time he was besieging Santa Anna in Vera Cruz, he suddenly became inactive and then issued a proclamation pledging the support of the army to re-establish the national assembly. Insurgent leaders arose all over the country, the imperial troops began to desert and go over to the revolutionists in whole battalions. The victims of the

Holy Inquisition were released from the dungeons and they headed their liberators crying "Long live the Republic."

Iturbide made frantic exertions to save his falling throne, but in vain. Then he tried to save his head by flattery, protestations of patriotism, and at last by unconditional abdication and a promise to leave the country. But the commission, which had been formed to consider questions relating to the empire, declared that Iturbide had usurped the place he held by fraud and force, and to recognize his abdication was to admit the legality of his empire. At last it was decided to banish him to Italy with a pension of \$25,000 a year, though the desire of many to bring him to trial nearly succeeded. Shortly after he reached Italy he began to be a menace through his intrigues. January 1, 1824, he arrived in England and wrote a letter to the Mexican congress saying that Spain was preparing to regain possession of Mexico and he therefore offered his services. In response the congress declared him to be an outlaw and, more than that, an enemy of the state should he ever attempt to return. Unaware of this, Iturbide secretly and in disguise set sail for Mexico. He landed at Soto la Marina and visited Garza, the commander. Despite precautions,

Iturbide was recognized and put under arrest. Orders came for him to be shot at once but General Garza went to the state congress, then in session, and pleaded Iturbide's ignorance of the fact that he had been proscribed.

But Garza was again ordered to execute the prisoner without delay. With imperturbable courage, Iturbide took his place and said his parting words to the people:

“Mexicans, in this last moment of my life, I beseech you to love your country and to observe our holy religion. I die for having come to aid you, and I am reconciled to death because I die among you. I am no traitor, and such a stain will never attach to my children or to their descendants. Preserve order and render obedience to your commanders. From the depths of my heart I forgive all my enemies.” He was buried at Padilla, and in 1838 his body was removed to the Cathedral of Mexico.

Although he was the actual liberator of Mexico the real heroes of Mexican independence are Hidalgo and Morelos with the insurgent chieftains Guerrero, Victoria, Bravo and Mina.

Mexico was now a republic modeled somewhat upon the constitutional plan of the United States. The heroic Guadalupe Victoria was the first presi-

dent with the insurgent chieftain, Nicolas Bravo, as vice-president. Vicente Guerrero was Bravo's rival in the election.

The constitution was promulgated formally on October 4, 1824.

The first trouble of the republic came from the powerful rivalries of the York Rite Masons and those of the Scottish Rite, resulting from Masonry having been used to unite the leaders against Iturbide.

Powerful leaders in the Scottish Rite desired to restore the monarchy but the elections resulted in favor of the nominees of the York Rite Masons.

The vice-president, Bravo, was grand-master of the Scottish Rite, and he collected 600 men in an attempt to enforce their demands and reverse the verdict of the elections. Guerrero, who belonged to the York Rite, attacked him and took his entire command prisoners. The congress ordered their expatriation, but their party being broken up they were allowed to return to their homes.

The republic now entered a stormy career of intrigue and factional insurrection. In 1828 and 1829 trouble arose between Mexico and Spain in which the attempt to reconquer Mexico was defeated by Santa Anna, who had been made generalissimo. Guerrero had been installed in office

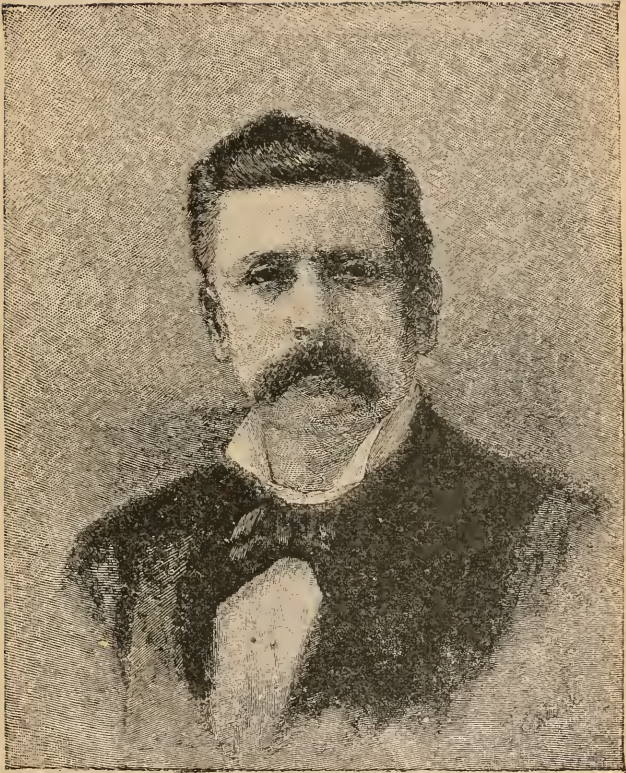
as president April 1, 1829, and the party of the people was in full power.

September 16th of this year slavery was abolished throughout Mexico; except in the states of Coahuila and Texas, where the law was disobeyed. However, in April 1837, the decree was enforced in these places.

Insurrections and revolutions continued. Guerrero was driven from office by Bustamante and was soon after captured and shot. In January 1838 the French ambassador withdrew because the government would not pay his demands for indemnity arising from the losses of French citizens at the sacking of Parian in 1828. A brief war ensued which ended in the Mexicans agreeing to pay \$600,000.

Meantime trouble with the United States immigrants in Texas began to overshadow the chaotic condition of political difficulties.

In 1820 the government had given a grant of land to Moses Austin, which at death was confirmed to his son. In order to provide against a dangerous immigration from the United States, a law was passed in 1830 in restriction, but within three years at least 20,000 Americans had come into the territory. In 1835 the government threatened to withdraw its special priv-



President Porfirio Diaz.

ileges and Texas at once following the example of other states declared its independence until a federal system was restored in Mexico. Santa Anna was sent against them but was captured and compelled to grant the rights of the secessionists. The influx of people from the United States became enormous and the independence of Texas was formally acknowledged by most of the foreign powers, but not by the Mexican government.

The demands of the United States for indemnity to its citizens who had lost property in the insurrections throughout Mexico were unheeded. As a consequence of these troubles California was invaded and occupied by Commodore Stockton and General Fremont. In 1845 Texas was admitted to the Union and war was declared, since it was still claimed as Mexican territory. The first regular battle was fought at Palo Alto, May 8, 1846, when General Taylor entered upon his victorious course through northern Mexico. General Kearney made a remarkable long-distance march through New Mexico to California, and General Scott landed his troops at Vera Cruz in March 1847. September 14 Mexico fell into the hands of the American army, without the loss of a battle, though always against greater forces, strongly fortified.

As a result of the war the United States secured, New Mexico and California. In return it paid the claims of American citizens and gave Mexico \$15,000,000.

As to the moral side of this war, history finds little excuse except that of conquest. Texas had declared the Sabine river to be the boundary line, and yet the territory to the Rio Grande was included when Texas was annexed. President Polk was afterward censured by the House of Representatives for having gone beyond the constitutional powers in invading a territory with whose government we were then at peace.

Texas was at once overrun with slavery, which had been banished from it by the Mexicans, and gave considerable additional strength to the intrenchment of the slave power. However, the vast domain thus acquired is now such a valuable part of the Union that the wrongs of the conquest are forgotten in our satisfaction over the magnificent gain to the nation and to civilization.

In the chaos of Mexican politics Santa Anna became dictator and was soon overthrown.

The Jesuits having become the most powerful real estate owners in Mexico the Lerdo law was passed June 25, 1856, prohibiting either civil

or religious corporations from holding real estate. Turmoil and insurrection arose to revolution and then fell back into chaos. The people who had for centuries been led were unable to lead. A school of more than a half a century of civil war was necessary to teach cohesion and make real patriotism necessary. Benito Juarez became president and he may be said to have been the first great leader of the new order that was to bring stability to Mexico. Within eighteen months after he had been installed president by the liberal party, more than seventy battles were fought.

On the charge that the church had not only supported the royalists in the wars for independence, but had been the chief source of opposition in the attempt to form a liberal government, and had promoted fratricidal wars in the effort to retain supremacy in civil as well as religious matters, a decree was issued by Juarez, July 12, 1859, severing the relations of church and state, granting to all denominations equal rights, and restoring to the nation all property held by the clergy. The united priesthood bitterly opposed these measures through the confessional, the home and the pulpit, but the laws were in the course of time rigorously carried into effect by Juarez.

The financial affairs of Mexico had fallen into a deplorable condition owing to the chaotic political methods of the various administrations. It became necessary to suspend payments to foreign creditors, or to resort to forced loans from a people already exhausted by taxation. Since most of the creditors were in France, with England and Spain next in order, the ministers of those countries made vigorous protests, but Juarez held firmly to his course. England, France and Spain then entered into an agreement to seize the custom house at Vera Cruz and hold it until the required payments were assured. In January 1862 a fleet from each of these countries appeared before Vera Cruz and took possession of the harbor.

Juarez was unyielding, and the designs of Napoleon III becoming apparent behind these scenes, Spain and England withdrew in April. France now boldly proclaimed the intention of establishing a monarchy in Mexico, and an army was raised to overthrow the government. Meanwhile Juarez was confronted by a powerful insurrection of Mexicans denying his authority. The first decisive engagement between Juarez and the French was on May 4, 1862, before the city of Puebla de los Angeles, in which the French, 6,000

strong under General Lorencez, were routed with disastrous loss. But in March 1863 the French General Forey invested Puebla with 26,000 troops and, against a most heroic defense, captured the city. In the absence of the army from the capital of Mexico, the monarchist party seized that city and invited the French to enter. This was done June 10, 1863, and General Forey called together a governing assembly, which declared for an hereditary empire, July 10. Archduke Maximilian, descendant of Charles V, and brother to the emperor of Austria, was selected by Napoleon III, on account of his availability, as the first imperial sovereign.

England and Continental Europe favored this usurpation, but the United States, in the midst of its civil war, vainly protested. The disastrous experiment of Iturbide was about to be repeated.

The imperialist party now occupied Mexico and Vera Cruz, overrunning all the intermediate territory with soldiers who were veterans of European wars. Porfirio Diaz, having chief command of the patriot forces, yielded the way step by step but only after the most valorous and heroic defense of every place where he could make a stand. Juarez was able to maintain only the semblance of a government near the northern border. Maxi-

milian now believed himself secure, but the unexpected triumph of the United States in its fratricidal war brought the new emperor and France face to face with a government powerful in recent victory and bitterly opposed to foreign interference in American affairs. Napoleon III. saw the folly of expecting any gain from a further support of Maximilian, and the French troops were ordered withdrawn early in 1867.

The Mexican patriots gathering encouragement and strength from the abandonment of Maximilian by France struck boldly at the strongholds of the enemy and regained them one by one; until, after a prolonged siege with a greatly inferior force, Diaz retook Pueblo, the surrender being made on the night of April 3, 1867. Orders were in force that all officers taken should be shot as traitors, but with a humanity exceptional in Spanish America, Diaz called eleven generals and six hundred subordinate officers before him and set them free.

Meantime, Maximilian was shut up in Queretaro with 9,000 soldiers, by Escobedo. It took desperate fighting to hold the trained soldiers of Maximilian in that mouse-trap, as the emperor called Queretaro, but it was done by the Mexican patriots from March 5 until May 15, when the city was taken by the assistance of a traitor.

Miguel Lopez had won his way into the confidence of Maximilian and had been rapidly promoted to the highest position of trust, notwithstanding the fact that he had led a dishonorable and treasonable career both as a civilian and soldier. Divining that the career of Maximilian in Mexico was about to end, Lopez decided to make as much as possible out of the fall. He went secretly to the headquarters of Escobedo on the night of May 14 and disclosed to that general the plan of Maximilian to cut through the lines and escape to a stronghold in the mountains. For a certain sum of money he offered to lead the way through which Escobedo's men could take immediate possession of the city. With some ulterior object, he stipulated that Maximilian should be allowed to escape from the city to a place of concealment to be designated by Lopez.

Troops under General Velez went with him, reaching the commanding position without mishap. Lopez explained to Maximilian's guards that it was a relieving force. Then he sent the startling intelligence to the emperor that the enemy was in possession of the city. Maximilian ordered his bodyguard to escape at once to Cerro de la Campana. He and his immediate friends crossed the convent grounds and suddenly met Lopez at the head of some Juarist troops.

At a word from Lopez the ranks opened and the party passed on through. Before Maximilian reached Cerro, Lopez overtook him and begged him to hide in a house where safety would be assured.

“I do not hide,” said the emperor, still having no suspicion against Lopez, and Maximilian marched on to Cerro refusing to ride the horse Lopez furnished, because his friends had no horses.

Cerro was soon surrounded. Escape being impossible and resistance useless, a white flag was raised.

“My abdication has already been sent to Mexico,” said the emperor, as he delivered his sword to Escobedo.

“The republican government must decide as to your disposal,” was the reply, and the late emperor of Mexico became a common prisoner of war, with no favor shown to his European rank.

The first word that came from the Mexican minister of war was, “the so-called emperor and his so-called generals, Miramon and Mejia, shall be tried before a court-martial according to the decree of January 25, 1862, in which invaders and traitors are made amenable to death.”

June 13 the trial began and the two generals

were sentenced to death in a few hours. The trial of Maximilian was more deliberate but with the same result, which was confirmed by General Escobedo on the 16th. Great exertions were made by the ambassadors of foreign powers to save him, but in vain. For the first time the people of Mexico felt their power as a nation and it gave a far-reaching impulse to patriotism. Mexico was denying the prayers of combined Europe. Garibaldi, Victor Hugo and many notable men petitioned the government for clemency but they were unheeded. The United States was the only government whose influence would have had weight, but the minister was instructed to recommend merely a humane policy.

Word came to Maximilian that his wife, Princess Charlotta was dead.

“It is one bond less holding me to life,” he said.

But she was not dead. The shock of his fall and sentence had made her insane, and she lived in that miserable darkness for more than thirty years.

The Cerro de la Campana was guarded by a large body of troops on June 19, 1867, when the condemned men reached the site selected for their execution in that embattled place. Maximilian

walked with unfaltering step to the appointed spot, speaking words of cheer to the condemned men with him.

After asking the soldiers to fire straight at his heart he said: "May my blood be the last shed in sacrifice for this country; and if more is required may it be for the good of the nation and never on the account of treason."

Five months later his body was taken back across the ocean in the same vessel that brought him over three years before.

More than 40,000 lives had been sacrificed during the four years in which Napoleon III. had tried to force upon the Mexican people a foreign ruler under foreign influence and obligations.

The day of the execution of Maximilian the City of Mexico surrendered to the siege that had been conducted by Diaz, and on July 15 Juarez entered and re-established the machinery of republican government. Juarez was re-elected to the presidency in December. He set himself to work with judgment and resolution to give stability to his turbulent and distracted country. Regardless of constant insurrections a period of prosperity ensued; but in the presidential election of 1870 Diaz and Juarez were rivals and, the vote being close, the election of Juarez was bitterly

contested. Diaz tried to restrain his followers, but state after state raised the standard of rebellion and Diaz was forced to take up arms in a civil war against his old comrade in arms. In the midst of the revolution Juarez was stricken with brain fever and then heart disease from which he died July 18, 1872. One of the greatest men in Mexican history had passed away; the man to whom the republic owes most of the principles that give it stability and power.

On the death of Juarez, the president of the Supreme Court, Lerdo de Tejada, became chief executive, according to the law. At an election following he was chosen to the presidency. He was an enemy of Diaz, and all his acts tended to increase the barriers between the parties which each represented. Lerdo caused himself to be re-elected to the presidency October 26, by a vote so clearly obtained by fraud that the whole country was aroused to the point of revolution. Porfirio Diaz was the recognized leader of the opposition. Towns and garrisons went over to him wherever he appeared. He defeated the forces of Lerdo at Tecoaac, November 20, 1876; and the president, accompanied by General Escobedo, taking a considerable portion of the public funds, left the country. In a few days Diaz

entered the City of Mexico and assumed the presidential office May 2, 1877. Porfirio Diaz was then elected by an almost unanimous vote to the presidency. He seemed to be the first man able to unite all the discordant factions for the common good of his country. Far-seeing, exact, and resolute, he placed the Mexican government firmly on the solid foundation of peace and prosperity, which it has since enjoyed.

The area of Mexico, as given in the report of 1895, was 762,005 square miles, and the population nearly ten millions. The prevailing religion is Roman Catholic, though all religions have equal privileges. No ecclesiastical body can acquire real estate. Education is well provided for, but the percentage of illiteracy is large, though considerably less than in other Spanish and Latin-American territories.



Archduke Maximilian.

Texas.

DE NARVEZ traveled from the Rio Grande to Mobile before De Nisa came to the coast of Texas in 1537. Corondo in 1540 took formal possession of some Indian villages, and in 1585 Espejo established a post at El Paso.

The claims of the French to the northern part of Texas rested in the explorations and settlement of La Salle in 1685. All the old French maps include Texas in Louisiana, but no claim was ever made to territory farther south than the Rio del Norte. Napoleon made no claim that Texas was included in the Louisiana purchase, and Spanish maps always included the whole of Texas in New Spain.

In the treaty of February 22, 1819, between Spain and the United States, a part of the stipulation for the cession of Florida was that the American republic relinquished all claims on the territory of Texas. When the Spaniards in Mexico heard of the encroachments of the French under La Salle, who had by mistake passed west of the mouth of the Mississippi, where he had intended to land, they sent Monclova, in April

1689, to drive them away. All they found was five captive children and the two murderers of La Salle. Spanish history claims that they returned the children to France and executed the murderers, while French history says that they kept the children and rewarded the two assassins. The next year Alonzo de Leon founded a mission on the Rio Grande. In 1718 Alarconne founded the town of Bexar, the fortress San Antonio, and the mission of Valero. Large numbers of monks came into the territory and missions were everywhere established. In 1691 the first Spanish governor of Texas was appointed. In 1735 St. Denis removed a French colony from the Red river into Texas. The Spaniards protested, but allowed them to remain.

There is little of interest in the history of this territory until the profits of smuggling between New Spain and the United States called there large numbers of adventurers.

Texas was the object of many adventurous projects from 1806 until its independence. Its fortunes were constantly changing between the revolutions in Mexico and the intrigues of Americans. It was constantly disloyal to Spain and was the scene of numerous bloody conflicts.

In 1812 Lafitte, the notorious pirate, founded

the town of Campeachy and ruled the surrounding country with absolute authority until dislodged in 1821 by the United States government.

The way to the first American settlement of importance was prepared by Moses Austin, who obtained a grant of land from the Mexican government, but on his return to Missouri for immigrants, he died, leaving the work to his son Stephen Austin. The first requirement was that each immigrant must be a Catholic. He would then be permitted to have 640 acres of land, his wife 320, and each child 160, with 80 to the master for each slave brought with him. The government was to receive twelve and one-half cents an acre. Austin's first grant called for 500 families, a second grant was for 300 more. Other contractors then undertook by agreement to bring 300 or more families and the colonization of Texas was assured.

American influence soon became predominant in Texan affairs, and the people made several attempts to buy the territory.

When Bustamente became president of Mexico he determined to Mexicanize the Texans. The first step was a law forbidding further immigration from the United States. Then Texas was practically turned into a penal colony by the

decree that all Mexican convicts should be sent there. This gave the excuse for a large force of soldiers to be distributed through the territory to compel obedience.

Mexico abolished slavery, and an order declaring the Texan slaves free still further exasperated the colonists. Austin armed his people for resistance to an enforcement of the law and several conflicts took place in which the Texans were victorious.

In 1833 the American settlers, numbering over 30,000, held a convention and determined to separate Texas from the State of Coahuila, with the end in view to be acknowledged by the Mexican Republic as a separate state in the confederation. Stephen Austin went to Mexico to represent the memorialists. He failed in his mission, but secured the revocation in 1834 of the decree forbidding American immigration.

March 17, 1835, committees met at Mina, now Bastrop, and an organization was effected toward Texan independence. December 20 a declaration of independence was made at Goliad. February 23, 1836, Santa Anna, with 7,500 men, invested the Alamo, a strong fort in possession of the Americans, near San Antonio. It was garrisoned by 140 men under Colonel Travis. The bom-

bardment began on the next day. On March 1 thirty-two citizen soldiers cut their way through the Mexicans and entered the fort. At 4 o'clock of Sunday, March 6, 1836, the fort was stormed by Santa Anna, and, after one of the most desperate fights on record, it was carried. Every Texan fought as long as he had life enough left to lift his arm. Among them was one of the Bowie brothers, of Bowie knife fame, and David Crockett, the celebrated pioneer of Tennessee. Only three persons were left alive, two women and their negro servant.

On the night of the 17th of March, 346 Texans, under Colonel Fannin, were surprised by General Urrea on the open prairie near Colita Creek and surrounded. They threw up earthworks, and in a sharp encounter the Mexicans were driven off. When morning came it was seen that the Mexicans were bringing artillery to bear upon them and a company of cavalry was approaching. Escape was impossible and fighting useless. They agreed to the summons to surrender provided they should be treated as prisoners of war according to the usages of civilized nations, and that they should be sent to the United States as soon as vessels could be procured. The Mexican commander signified his consent to these stipulations

and the men laid down their arms. They were taken to Goliad and confined in the mission with forty-six other prisoners captured some days before. On Palm Sunday, March 27, they were taken out on the pretext that they were about to be sent home, and shot, according to orders received the night before from Santa Anna.

Such uncivilized warfare was a powerful factor in the subsequent sentiment of the United States, and it frenzied the Texans to the last degree of hatred against Mexico.

On April 21 the decisive battle of the war was fought at San Jacinto, between Santa Anna, at the head of about sixteen hundred troops, and General Sam Houston, with half that number. With the inspiring war cry of "Remember the Alamo," the battle began by a fierce onslaught of the Texans. So swift and destructive was the attack that the Mexicans were panic stricken from the first shot, and were unable to man their guns. The entire Mexican army was captured, including Santa Anna, the president of Mexico. This practically ended the war, and the independence of the state, whose 30,000 people had maintained their liberty against 7,000,000, was acknowledged by the United States, England and other powers. However, Mexico would not

acknowledge the independence of the Texans and made several efforts to recover their lost foothold.

Dr. Anson Jones was inaugurated in December, 1844, first president of the new Republic of Texas, and a proposition for union with the United States at once made. January 25, 1845, joint resolutions for annexation passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 120 to 98, and the Senate two days later by a vote of 27 to 25. March 11 President Tyler approved. July 4 a Texas convention of sixty-one members was called to accept the terms of annexation. All the legal requirements having been complied with, a joint resolution of Congress, December 29, 1845, made Texas and its western territory, now included in New Mexico, an integral part of the American Republic. Mexico had already advised the government of the United States that Texas was its unsubdued territory, and that annexation would be considered a declaration of war.

In conformity to this hostilities began at once, War was declared by the United States, April 24, 1846, and was ended September 14, 1847, by the fall of the city of Mexico.

Notwithstanding that the way from Santa Cruz to the capital was fortified with strong forts, equipped with superior forces, General Winfield

Scott landed his troops within that period from slow transports, marched them the entire distance from Santa Cruz taking fort after fort, with fewer than 14,000 men. The capital defended by more than 30,000 picked troops was captured by 8,000 American soldiers.

Only 73,776 men were called out, less than half of whom saw active service. No time was given for the enemy to plan special means of opposition. General Scott acted on the principles of the Great Napoleon, "I am always as prepared as the enemy" and "I may lose battles but I never lose minutes."

California.

CORTEZ sent Grizalva north with two ships on a voyage of discovery, from Guatemala in 1534. He came to the peninsula of Lower California, and, believing it to be an island, called it Santa Cruz. The expedition was a failure and Cortez then headed another expedition which found nothing but a barren coast and hostile natives without gold. In 1537 he sent Ulloa with three ships, but they got no higher than Lower California. Many other attempts were made only to fail in finding anything but barrenness, until in 1562 Cabrillo explored the whole coast. In 1578 Sir Francis Drake, the renowned English sailor and freebooter, reached the coast of upper California and named it New Albion.

A century later the Spanish explorers believed the whole of California to be an island and named the country *Islas Carolinas* in honor of Charles II. of Spain. The first settlements in Lower California were made in 1683 by Jesuit missionaries. The first settlement in upper California was made at San Diego by the Jesuits in 1768. San Francisco bay was discovered in 1770, and the first

mission there was established about six years later.

Spanish power in California was overthrown by the Mexican revolution of 1822. As it was the policy of the Mexican government to secularize state affairs, the Jesuits, who owned most of the property in this territory, were finally stripped of both possessions and secular control. Immigration from the United States began to flow into California in 1843, interest in the great west having been greatly stimulated by the remarkable expeditions of John C. Fremont. That intrepid explorer had fallen in love with Miss Jessie Benton, the fifteen year old daughter of Col. Thomas H. Benton, the famous senator of Missouri, and the young lieutenant was suddenly sent to explore the unknown regions of the DesMoines river. He accomplished the work with astonishing rapidity and returned to Washington within the year, where he was secretly married to Miss Benton, October 19, 1841.

In May 1843 he went with a party of thirty-nine men across the continent, by way of the Great Salt Lake, to the mouth of the Columbia, through territory never before seen by white men. November 10 he set out on his return. Encountering impassable snows, which were hemming him in on a desert, and finding himself in

the latitude of San Francisco, he determined to make his way there. His Indian guides declared it impossible to go over the mountains in winter and no reward was any inducement to them. He determined to make the attempt without guides and in forty days reached Sutter's Fort on the Sacramento. March 24th he resumed his return journey and at the end of fourteen months reached his post in Kansas.

In the Spring of 1845 he started on his third expedition of exploration, which brought him to Monterey, then the Mexican capital of California. He asked permission to continue his exploration of the river through Mexican territory but was ordered to leave the country immediately. He refused to go and the Mexican governor, General Castro, at once mustered his forces to drive the defiant American and his sixty-two men off Mexican soil. A hostile attitude was maintained several days and Fremont quietly withdrew and proceeded unmolested with his work. In Oregon government dispatches reached him stating that it was believed the Mexican government was about to drive the American settlers out and cede the territory to England. He at once returned to California and found General Castro on his way to attack the settlements. The people flocked to

Fremont's standard and in less than a month all of upper California was freed from the authority of Mexico. July 4, 1846, the people elected Fremont first governor of California. On the 10th he joined Commodore Sloat, who had arrived with his fleet and captured Monterey. Commodore Stockton, who had come on the frigate Congress with authority to conquer California, soon reinforced them. War having broken out between the United States and Mexico, because of the annexation of Texas, the project to make California an independent territory was abandoned and Commodore Stockton appointed Fremont military commander and civil governor of the territory. January 13, 1847, articles of capitulation were signed with the Mexicans, and California became part of the United States, the sum of \$15,000,000 being paid to Mexico. The discovery of gold in the mill race of Colonel Sutter, February, 1848, in the town of Coloma, Eldorado County, brought an unparalleled influx of settlers from all over the world. The romance of lawlessness ran its course for several years. September 9, 1850, California was admitted to the Union.

New Mexico.

ALVAR NUNEZ CABEZA DE VACA, with Castillo Maldonado Andres Dorantes and his negro slave, sole survivors of the expedition of Narvaez to western Florida in 1528, told such marvellous stories of their eight years' wanderings through the great regions west of the gulf that adventurers were stimulated to explore and conquer the country. Viceroy Mendoza bought the negro slave, Estevanico, who had made this great journey, in order to secure his services as guide, with the view of exploring and settling that region.

In March 1539 Fray Marcos, guided by the slave Estevanico, set out for San Miguel, accompanied by a small contingent of natives. They pressed on through increasing difficulties until they entered the present territory of New Mexico, when the black discoverer of that country was killed by Indians. Fray Marcos succeeded, returning home with a glowing report of the possibilities of the country.

In 1540 Corondo went beyond the region of the Rio Grande and was the first white man to kill the bison or American buffalo. Bonillo, in 1581,

gave a glowing report of the mineral wealth of that region. Sometime between 1595 and 1599 Don Antonio Espejo sent Juan de Onate with soldiers to take formal possession of the country in the name of Spain and to establish missions. The Pueblo Indians, being a home-loving people, readily embraced the Catholic faith, and settlements were established without difficulty. These Indians lived in stone houses and wore clothing of their own manufacture. But unlike other natives subjugated by the Spaniards, they would not submit to the slavery and customary cruelties of their Spanish masters. In 1680, after many attempts to throw off their oppressors, they succeeded in driving all Spaniards as far south as El Paso del Norte. It took Spain eighteen years to regain possession.

Sante Fe was a prosperous Pueblo town when visited by the Spaniard in 1542. It is not known when Spaniards first settled in it, but it has been the capital of Mexico since 1640. Its freedom from Spain came in 1822 with that of Mexican independence. In 1846 it was taken by a force under General Kearney, who soon subjugated the whole territory. In 1848, at the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, New Mexico was ceded to the United States. It was given a territorial government September 9, 1850. In the way of compensation,

the territory south of the Gila river, known as the Gadsen purchase, was bought from Mexico and added to the territory; \$10,000,000 was paid, and Mexico relinquished about \$15,000,000 in claims from depredations of United States Indians. The Gadsen purchase contained 45,535 square miles, and is about one-third in New Mexico and the remainder in Arizona.

The territory of Arizona was separated from New Mexico and organized by act of Congress passed February 24, 1863.

Utah was a part of this territory acquired from Mexico by the treaty of 1848. It was settled by the Mormons under Brigham Young, at Salt Lake City, in 1847. It was organized into a territory by act of Congress September 9, 1850. It then embraced most of the present territory of Colorado, Wyoming and Nevada. It became a state July 10, 1894.

Louisiana.

THE Meschacebe, father of waters, now known as the Mississippi, was discovered by Ferdinand de Soto, an adventurer of Spain, in 1542, but legal claim to the vast territory west of it was established by Robert Cavelier de La Salle, a Jesuit of France, who embarked on Lake Erie in September 1679 with the purpose of reaching the Mississippi and descending to its mouth.

He sent Father Hennepin and two other Frenchmen up the river in a bark canoe to discover a nearer route to Canada and to see if the river had its rise in China. After numerous adventures they rowed up the Wisconsin river, and, not discovering China, went on to Canada.

La Salle awaited Father Hennepin's return for several months in vain, and then set out for Canada to replenish his supplies. He returned in the latter part of 1682, and, embarking on the Mississippi, explored it to its mouth. According to national custom this gave the territory to France, and La Salle took formal possession in the name of his country. He named the country Louisiana, in honor of his king, Louis XIV. La Salle



Hernando de Soto.

First printed in Herrera, edition 1728.

then returned to France, and in the early part of 1684, with his two brothers, two nephews, one hundred soldiers, a hundred vagabond mechanics and eighty sailors, in four vessels, sailed from France in an attempt to make a settlement in Louisiana. They reached the Gulf of Mexico and sailed past the mouth of the Mississippi before the error was discovered. The commander of the vessels put La Salle and his colonists ashore at the Bay of St. Bernard, in what is now the State of Texas, and returned to France.

La Salle vainly wasted the substance of the colony thus deserted by the fleet in trying to find gold and to reach the mouth of the Mississippi. When they were reduced to thirty-seven men he selected sixteen and determined to reach Canada for reinforcements.

Soon after their departure, the younger of two brothers named Lancelot, became too sick to bear the fatigue of such a journey. La Salle ordered him to return alone. He had hardly left camp when he was killed by Indians. The elder brother vowed revenge. May 19, 1687, with some accomplices, he killed La Salle and one of his nephews. There are several very different stories about the death of La Salle, but this is the most accredited. The remainder of the party reached

Canada, but the colonists left behind were all killed by Indians except five children who were afterward taken from the Indians by Spaniards and returned to France. This same party of Spaniards found two of the murderers of La Salle and sent them to the mines for life.

Tonti, an associate of La Salle, had meanwhile established a colony at Fort Crevecœur, on the Illinois river; but, being neglected by France, most of the colonists assimilated with the Indians, and a settlement could scarcely be said to exist.

In 1697 Lemoine d'Iberville was sent from France to renew the exploration of Louisiana. He entered the mouth of the Mississippi river, not knowing what river it was until a friendly Indian came to him with a letter from Tonti, written thirteen years before while searching for La Salle. Settlements were made on the Isle of Dauphine and a fort built at the mouth of the Mississippi. Laurole, the eldest brother of d'Iberville, took charge of the colony, and Bienville, the youngest brother, managed their affairs with the surrounding tribes. Learning of these settlements Tonti sailed down the river to confirm the joyful news of friends so near at hand.

The belief prevailed in Europe that Louisiana

contained more gold and precious stones than Mexico or Peru. Fabulous stories obtained credence that there were chieftains richer than Montezuma or the Incas. Speculators obtained grants of the territory only to ruin themselves and their friends. At last the summit of speculative folly was reached when the notorious John Law of England formed a company in Paris that promised to pay off the national debt, then of such enormous proportions that France was considering the necessity of bankruptcy. He proposed to colonize the territory with 6,000 white persons and 8,000 blacks. A bank was formed which, from a peculiar course of events, became the bank royal of the nation, with Law as its director. His company for the operation of the Mississippi scheme gradually absorbed the rights of all other companies and became master of all the foreign trade of France. Having the complete monopoly for a long term of years of all the supposed unlimited riches of the vast territory of Louisiana, as well as the trade of China and the Indies, which was confirmed to him by the government in order to make secure the issue of the bank's paper money, shares rose to fabulous premiums, people of rank were trampled to death in mobs trying to buy stock, and Law was financial sovereign of the world. Kings,

princes, potentates and royal ladies waited at his gate to pay him homage, and the greatest statesmen of the time fawned upon him like spaniels.

At last the people began to reflect that an unlimited issue of stock and paper money, with no better security than a fictitious trade with unknown countries, could not have lasting value. Nothing was being earned from Louisiana, China and the Indies, and the wiser ones began to buy coin and hoard it away. Many bought houses, lands and anything that was real in permanent use and value.

Real property began to rise in price, or, in other words, stocks and paper money began to fall.

Law had acquired kingly power and he resorted to violent measures in the frantic effort to restore confidence and value to his system of finance. The use of diamonds and of manufactured articles in gold and silver were forbidden. Laws were passed declaring certain values to the bonds, notes and stocks, but still they fell or realties rose. It took all the money that could be earned in a day of common labor with which to buy a loaf of bread. Law became an object of popular hatred, he lost favor at court and the financial idol with his false system fell, ruining in the fall

the many thousands who had given all their realities for his worthless paper.

History grants that he was in truth a financial genius but he died in Venice, March 21, 1729, poor and despised. However, when Montesquien visited him just before the great speculator's death, he found the dethroned king of financiers, like the coming Napoleon, in exile and impotency, still planning great systems for France.

Of the fourteen thousand colonists to be sent to Louisiana, who were to extract therefrom the fabulous riches, only eight hundred were sent there to perish from disease and famine at the settlement of Biloxi.

In 1718 Bienville gathered together his fragments of settlements and selected the site of New Orleans for a united colony, which soon became a prosperous center of French enterprise.

In 1759 France lost Canada to the English. Spain, believing that no one but itself had any right in the western world, declared war against England, and as a result lost Florida in order to save Cuba, which the English had captured. France being in sympathy with Spain, ceded Louisiana to Spain in 1765. The people were frantic with hostility to this act. The first Spanish governor they compelled to leave, but the second

came in 1769 with 4,900 soldiers and opposition was at an end. O'Reilly, the second governor, was an Irishman who had found honors and power in Spain. His first act was by friendly assurances, to get the leaders in the four years of opposition to Spain, in his power. This was treacherously accomplished and all were executed. Several others were sentenced for life to Morro Castle, Havana. The clemency of the king at last freed the prisoners through the pathetic importunities of one of the prisoner's sons to take his father's place. In 1770 O'Reilly left for Spain and Louisiana was annexed to the captain-generalcy of Cuba.

In 1779, while the American colonies were struggling for independence against England, the Spanish government endeavored to recapture the Gulf territory from the English. Louisiana furnished more of the troops under Galbez. His success in driving the English out of Florida and in capturing their settlements at Baton Rouge, Natchez and Mobile, caused him to be made captain-general of all Spanish territory about the Gulf. These Spanish colonies became very prosperous and they began to look with envious eyes upon the rich lands of the Ohio valley and the South. The commercial value of a

free waterway to the Gulf became more and more a matter of importance and consequent controversy. In 1802 the Intendent or Vice-Governor of Louisiana, closed the Mississippi to American trade. Two years previous, unknown to the people, the treaty of St. Ildefonso had restored the whole of Louisiana to France. Meantime, Napoleon had been trying in vain to reconquer Haiti through his brother-in-law Le Clerc.

His failure in Haiti caused him to believe that his energies were of more use at home and he was very indifferent to Louisiana. When the re-established French ownership became known in 1803, it caused great rejoicing in Louisiana but the United States did not relish the idea of Napoleon controlling the mouth of the Mississippi. President Jefferson dispatched instructions to Robert Livingstone, American minister at Paris, in which a demand was made that New Orleans be ceded to the United States as a guarantee to the free navigation of the Mississippi. Napoleon saw at once that he could avoid serious and continuous difficulties with the United States. To secure an increase in his treasury, and to strengthen an antagonist of England, he determined to sell not alone the port of New Orleans but all of Louisiana to the American Republic.

At the same time it was discovered that England was collecting vessels in the gulf of Mexico with a very possible intention of capturing Louisiana for themselves. Napoleon believed he must act at once. Accordingly on April 30, 1803, the treaty was signed which gave the whole of the vast territory immediately west of the Mississippi to the United States for \$15,000,000 and certain indemnities due for illegal capture.

“From this day,” said Livingstone, “the United States takes rank with the first powers of Europe.”

“By this cession of territory,” said Napoleon, “I have secured the power of the United States, and given to England a maritime rival, who at some future time will humble her pride.” On December 20, 1803, Generals Wilkinson and Clairborne entered New Orleans at the head of their American troops and the stars and stripes waved from the flag staffs that had borne the banners of Spain and France.

Florida.

A FEW miles north of the present site of St. Augustine, an adventurer named Ponce de Leon, who had been with Columbus on his second voyage, set foot on the shores of Florida, April 3, 1512. He had come from Puerto Rico in search of gold and the fabulous waters of a spring that would restore the vigor of youth. He took possession in the name of Spain, and, finding no trace or information of the marvellous spring, he contented himself with planting a cross and then sailed away.

The first settlement attempted was by another people animated with the desire which gave to the United States its masterful progress. This settlement originated in the purpose to found a home for the persecuted Huguenots of France.

Admiral Coligny in 1562 sent a colony under Laudonniere to establish themselves on land obtained from a grant of Charles IX. Entering St. John's river he sailed a few miles up stream and built Fort Caroline. In a few months they were reduced to famine when Jean Ribault arrived with reinforcements and supplies.

Philip II of Spain hating the Huguenots, envious of the French, and desiring to hold the whole of the new world in his grasp, sent Menendez de Aviles to drive the French from the territory and to plant a colony for Spain. His fleet of eleven vessels reached Florida, August 28, 1565.

The French at Fort Caroline expected to be attacked by water and most of the soldiers went out in the vessels with Ribault, but the Spaniards surprised the fort at night by a land attack, and massacred all of its 240 inmates, except a few of the more active men who escaped over the walls. September 24, the name of the fort was changed to San Matheo.

The French who had gone out in vessels to meet the Spaniards were shipwrecked, and being found by Menendez were all killed, after having surrendered themselves under promise of being returned to France.

Although Charles IX of France cared nothing for the fate of the Huguenot colony, yet their fate was a cherished source of revengeful feelings among their brethren in France. Menendez expected some vengeance sooner or later and he did all he could to fortify his position and protect his colony from attack. This he did so

thoroughly that Father Mendoza, head of the Jesuit mission, boasted that half of France could not take them. But in this he was mistaken. In April 1568 DeGourgues with three vessels and only two hundred and fifty men entered the river; and, landing his men, surprised the two small forts at the mouth of the river. He captured or killed most of the 120 men. Sixty soldiers sent out from Fort San Matheo, or Caroline, for a reconnaissance were captured by DeGourgues and the remaining 220 attempted to escape to St. Augustine, but few reached there.

Menendez had erected a tablet to commemorate his capture of Fort Caroline and, somewhat in justification of the massacre, had inscribed on it, "Not as Frenchmen but as Lutherans."

DeGourgues erected instead an inscription, "Not as to Spaniards, nor as to outcasts, but as to traitors, thieves and murderers." After totally destroying all evidence of the Spaniards on the St. John's river, he returned to France and was a few years later made Admiral of the fleet.

In 1586 Sir Francis Drake, on returning from South America, accidentally discovered the Spanish lookout on Anastasia island and sent a vessel to see what it was. The Spaniards precipitately left the lookout and abandoned their fort, retreat-

ing inland. Not caring to pursue them, Drake destroyed everything he could not carry away; and, without doing further damage, left them.

Before the settlement of the English at Jamestown in 1607, the Spaniards had passed through the Carolinas into Virginia. Missions had been established and a fort built, but the defeat of the Spanish armada in its attack on England deprived the Spaniards of their pretensions to the western hemisphere, and the territory claimed by Spain in the north was abandoned to the English.

In 1648 St. Augustine contained at least 300 families. In 1665 English buccaneers, under Captain Davis, sacked the town, but made no attack on the fort, where the citizens had fled for safety. That the Spaniards claimed all the territory north is shown by an official report to Spain in 1681, which says: "The English, having examined a province of Florida, distant twelve leagues from another called New Castle, where the air is pleasant, the climate mild and the lands very fertile, called it *Salvania*. Knowing these advantages a Quaker, or Shaker (a sect barbarous, impudent and abominable) called William Penn, obtained a grant of it from Charles II. and made great efforts to colonize it."

The attempts of the Spaniards in Florida to

enslave the Indians, as was done in all others of their colonies, resulted in failure and disaster. One or two peaceful tribes for a long time worked on the forts and fortifications, but at last revolted, and great loss of life resulted before they could be driven away.

One hundred and five years of existence found St. Augustine well fortified and prosperous. In 1670 the English established a settlement at Port Royal, in South Carolina. As the Spaniards regarded this as an invasion of their territory, a resolution was taken to drive them away or destroy them. The first attempt, in 1675, was unsuccessful. In 1685 they attacked the Scotch settlement, founded by Lord Cardross four years before, and broke up the settlement. They marched on, burning, plundering and massacring the inhabitants, as far as they felt safe to go. In August 1702 the English in the Carolinas, under Governor Moore, attempted to retaliate, but the expedition was a failure. However, two years later he laid waste the numerous missions of the Spaniards in Middle Florida. In 1725 the incursions of Spanish Indians from the re-established missions became unbearable, and Colonel Palmer, with 300 men, entered Florida, destroying everything up to the walls of St. Augustine.

Oglethorpe established his settlement in Georgia in 1732, and claimed the territory to the marshes of the St. Johns. The Spaniards again attempted to drive away the encroaching invaders of their territory, but were unsuccessful, except in so far as to prove to Oglethorpe that the life of his own colonies depended upon a crushing defeat to those in Florida.

On March 25, 1740, according to the report of Monteano, the governor, there were 2,143 citizens and 740 soldiers in St. Augustine. On June 13, 1741, Oglethorpe invested the town and continued a siege for thirty-eight days, twenty of which was a continuous bombardment. Finding it impossible to take the fort he raised the siege and returned home.

A few months later, the Spaniards being reinforced, went to Georgia and attacked Oglethorpe equally as unsuccessfully.

In 1743 Oglethorpe again unsuccessfully tried to capture St. Augustine. The English in Georgia continually suffered from incursions of Spanish Indians and from the loss of slaves said to be caused by the Spanish missions, until 1763, when by a treaty of peace, England acquired Florida. All the wealthier Spaniards left when England took possession, and during the war of

American independence, which soon followed, St. Augustine was a stronghold for British supplies. In 1784 England ceded Florida back to Spain, and all the English able to leave abandoned all the possessions they could not carry away. In 1812 United States troops overran Florida, claiming that it was hostile territory and about to be ceded to England. Out of these incursions arose the "Florida claims" which the United States finally paid.

In 1818 General Jackson pursued the Seminoles and Creeks into the Spanish territory, where they had been uniformly protected, and crushed them, regardless of the protests of Spain.

Florida being unprofitable to Spain, and constantly menaced by fillibusters, as well as being the source of international irritation, Spain agreed in 1819 to sell it to the United States for \$5,000,000. July 10, 1821, the Spanish flag, planted on Florida soil two hundred and fifty-six years before, was lowered forever, and its place was taken by the banner of a powerful republic that had grown out of the colonists whom the Florida Spaniards had so long regarded with derision and disdain. On March 3, 1845, Florida was admitted to the union of states.



Ponce de Leon.

First printed in Herrera, edition 1728.



Spain in South America.

Argentine Republic.

IN 1512 Juan Diaz de Solis entered the mouth of the Rio de la Plata and in 1535 Mendoza founded Buenos Ayres. Until 1776 the settlements were under the vice-royalty of Peru. Buenos Ayres was made the capital in 1620 when the province became independent of Paraguay. In 1806 Buenos Ayres and Montevideo were captured by the British, who were shortly driven out. The next year a still more determined effort to capture the territory was made by the British but repulsed. General Whitelock had ten thousand soldiers with abundant equipments and his previous reputation was ruined by his failure. He was cashiered for incapacity. In 1810 the war for independence began and was concluded in 1812 by the capture of the Spanish forces remaining in Montevideo. The next year General Jose de San Martin decided to cross the Andes and help the Chilians in their struggles against Spain. The Argentines and Chilians then went together into Peru and entered Lima in 1821. Five years before this the Portuguese took possession of Montevideo but were soon driven out.

At this time the united provinces of La Plata declared their independence under a dictator, General Puyerrredon. The seat of government was soon removed to Buenos Ayres and in 1821 it gave way to a democratic form of government. The provinces along the river united themselves with Buenos Ayres and in 1824 the republic was organized under Las Heras. Brazil was hostile to this action, and January 1, 1826, blockaded Buenos Ayres, when the confederacy went to pieces and a treaty was made with Brazil through the mediation of England. In the north provinces there was a wealthy class of land owners who were in favor of an independent government but who desired it to be under a dictator from among their own number. Buenos Ayres was democratic and the most powerful. That a powerful aristocracy and an equally powerful democracy could not live peacefully together was evident and the treaty with Brazil provided that the Banda Oriental of Uruguay should be an independent state. The usual series of Spanish-American revolutions took place until 1832 when General Rosas obtained control of the army and was elected governor. In 1835 he was made dictator with autocratic power. With a strong and relentless hand he held the people in subjection

until 1852. The country prospered but all attempts to cause Paraguay and Uruguay to become an integral part of the confederation were in vain.

Of the two factions in Uruguay, headed respectively by Oribe and Rivera, Rossa of the Argentine confederation favored Oribe. Rivera was assisted by the enemies of Rossa, by Brazil and by the French fleet. The French consul in Buenos Ayres and General Rossa had a quarrel over the Uruguayan politics; and although it was peacefully settled in 1840, yet at the request of Brazil, France very readily broke the peace that had been declared, and joined with Great Britain in demanding the withdrawal of Rossa's influence and interference in the affairs of Uruguay. The allies seized Rossa's fleet, then blockading Montevideo, and speedily nullified all the advancements of the Argentine confederation toward absorbing Uruguay and Paraguay. England withdrew in July, 1848, and in January, 1849, France withdrew. The rival factions continued as before in Uruguay, but the war had brought up a powerful opposition to which the dictator was compelled to yield in the revolution of 1852. During one of the revolutions that followed this date the independence of Paraguay was acknowledged. But the turmoil was unceasing, and in 1865

a secret alliance was made between the Argentine Republic, Uruguay and Brazil with the sole determined object of destroying the government of Paraguay. The war was carried on against Paraguay in great bitterness with varying success for five years, when Bolivia protested against certain claims of the allies, and a strong party in Buenos Ayres denounced the war as barbarous, murderous, and fatal. In 1871 Argentine suffered from formidable insurrections. Yellow fever broke out in Buenos Ayers and the surrounding territory. In one hundred days 26,000 people died. At this time a quarrel with Brazil arose and the alliance against Paraguay was ended. A treaty was soon agreed upon and the independence of Paraguay was no longer subject to menace.

In 1880 General Roca, who as minister of war under his predecessor had conquered and annexed the Patagonian territory, became president. Under him great internal improvements were made and the republic became prosperous.

But a system of state money had been in vogue for ten years in which the issues were backed only by the credit of the country. Speculation became rife and the money lost its purchasing power. In July, 1890, gold was 320. A quick

revolution took place with but little loss of life and confidence was somewhat restored. Gold fell to 125. In November, 1890, the famous London banking house of Baring Brothers, having immense holdings in Argentinian securities, was about to fail because of the fall in value of their Argentinian investments, when a committee of London bankers came to their relief. These facts stopped any further capital from going to the republic. It could not borrow money and its financial affairs were in a chaotic condition. Political affairs have since been in a very unsettled state but the country seems in a fair way to recover its prosperity.

The area of the Argentine Republic is 1,778,195 square miles and the population in 1895 was 4,094,911.

The state religion is Roman Catholic though others are tolerated. In 1897 the country produced 1,500,000 tons of wheat and contained 22,000,000 cattle, 75,000,000 sheep and 5,000,000 horses.

Uruguay.

THE Oriental Republic of the Uruguay is the official title of the country being known in South America as Banda Oriental. Its climate is healthful and the soil rich from Pampa mud, as the refuse of antediluvian animals covering the valleys is called.

Juan Diaz Solis entered the estuary of the Plate in 1512, and went ashore about seventy miles east of the present site of Montevideo. The natives he found there are the only people known in America who had no worship or trace of religious ideas whatever. They were a war-like race, ferocious in battle but generous to their captives. They killed Solis on his second visit, in 1515, and drove his men back to their ships. In 1526 Ramon, the lieutenant of Sebastian Cabot, was driven away by them. In 1603 they utterly destroyed a strong force of veteran Spanish soldiers under Laavedra. Three other attempts were made by the Spaniards in the next fifty years to subdue them, but in vain. Under Philip II. the Jesuits, by friendly overtures, obtained a foothold. This was increased by the

commercial efforts of the Portuguese and was followed by military occupation. The Spaniards settled at Montevideo under General Zavala in 1729 and subjugated the Portuguese at Colonia in 1777. But in 1806-7 the British invaded Montevideo and Buenos Ayres almost extinguishing Spanish dominion in the Rio de la Plate. In the war waged by Buenos Ayres for independence Montevideo was taken by the revolutionary general Alvear. Then there was a long struggle between Brazil and Buenos Ayres for possession of Uruguay. In 1828, through the influence of Great Britain, the trouble was ended by a treaty declaring Uruguay to be a free state with Montevideo as the capital. The republic was regularly organized in 1830. For forty years following this date the history of Uruguay is nothing but a succession of intrigue, insurrection, political folly and ruin.

Since 1870 exhaustion has promoted peace and foreign capital has given it some advancement.

Its area is 72,110 square miles and the population in 1896 was 843,408. The Roman Catholic is the state religion but there is religious toleration.

Paraguay.

POPE Alexander VI. defined the respective lines of discovery which should govern the Castilian and Lusitanian crowns in the New World. Notwithstanding the complaints of the Portuguese king, of infringements on the part of the Spanish king, Juan de Solis was sent to the disputed territory by Castile in 1515. On this voyage, Solis entered an estuary so wide that he could not believe it to be a river, regardless of the fact that the water flowed southward and was fresh. He named it the Sweet Sea. A subsequent navigator called it the Silver Sea because of the silver ornaments worn by the natives. Thus it became known as the Rio de la Plata.

Sebastian Cabot, after his discoveries in North America, became chief pilot to the King of Spain in 1526. The merchants of Seville fitted out a squadron which he was to take to Cathay and Cipango (China and Japan) by way of the straits which Magellan had discovered in 1520. Because of a mutiny he put into the Sweet, or Silver Sea and sailed up the La Plata and Parana more than a thousand miles. In 1534 Mendoza

attempted to plant a Spanish colony, but failed because of the savage opposition of the natives. His lieutenant, Ayolas, was more successful. He drove the natives from a village, took possession, and with each of his men married several native women. The city thus founded he called Asuncion.

Ayolas went away on a gold-hunting expedition to Peru, leaving his chief officer, Irala, at Candelaria, on the Paraguay, to cover his retreat. Irala waited six months and returned to Asuncion. Ayolas soon after returned to Candelaria broken down through his wanderings. The place was deserted. He attempted to go on to Asuncion, but the Paraguayan tribe murdered him and his people.

Irala took control. He carried out the idea of Ayolas in regard to polygamous marriage with the native women, and before his death, at the age of seventy, he saw a new race of Paraguayans. His colony was prosperous and powerful.

A bishop was assigned to Asuncion in 1547, and thereafter the Jesuits were the ruling factors in Paraguay. The subsequent history of Paraguay is better understood as told in connection with that of the Argentine Republic. Its area is about 98,000 square miles, and in 1896 there

were about 400,000 inhabitants. Less than forty per cent. of the population can read and write. It has no direct communication between the United States or Europe, and all its foreign commerce is under outside control. The state religion is Roman Catholic, but other forms of worship are permitted.

Chili.

THE beginning of Spanish history in Chili opens with the latter part of the year 1535, when Almagro started from Peru on his expedition of conquest with five hundred and seventy Spaniards and about fifteen thousand natives, under Inca Manca. The hardships of the journey may be estimated from the fact that one hundred and fifty Spaniards and more than ten thousand of the natives perished from cold and hunger before the land of plenty was reached. The conquest of this territory was given him in settlement of his quarrel with Pizarro over the conquest of Peru, but he did not live to reap any of the benefits.

Soon after his arrival at Copiapo, two of his soldiers who had gone on to Guaseo were killed. Almagro went at once to the capital Coquimbo where he summoned the Ullmen or ruler of that district and his brother the ruler of Copiapo with twenty of the principal inhabitants. After a few questions about the murder, he ordered them to

The name Chili is supposed to be derived from Tchili, an ancient Peruvian word meaning snow.

be seized and burned, which was done. He pursued his conquests south to the Rio Claro where he met a force of warlike Promaucaes, who stopped his onward march in a fierce battle and caused him to retreat to Cuzco, where he met his death as related in the story of Peru.

In 1540 Francisco Pizarro determined to extend his dominion over Chili. With two hundred soldiers, several women and monks, his chief officer Valdivia started south. Valdivia fought the natives successfully all the way to Mapocho, now Santiago. Here the natives attacked them with a fury which was ceaseless for nine years or as long as there were enough natives left to form an attacking force. In 1550 Valdivia was enabled to parcel the land out among his followers, without fear from the few natives remaining. However, these natives known as the Arucanians gathered strength in the mountain fastnesses, and for one hundred and eighty years were a constant menace and terror to the Spaniards. It was these Aurucanians, subjugated by the Incas, who implored their conquerors to drive the Spaniards from their territory and have nothing to do with them. After the power of their conquerors, the Incas, had been crushed, one of their tribes in the north drove Almagro from the territory, and for

nearly two centuries the southern tribes pinned the Spaniards to the coast. Then they were still able by treaty to limit farther Spanish aggression to the river Biobia as the southern boundary.

Spanish Chili was under a governor appointed by the Viceroy of Peru until 1810.

During the fifty years preceding this date the Spanish government, in its worse than Roman greed, had almost exterminated the natives by oppression and had made their own laboring classes desperate by extortion.

The last of the governors was Mateo de Toro. At that time Spain was overrun by French armies and Spanish soldiers were almost entirely withdrawn from Chili. The first step to independence was taken in July by a declaration of freedom. September 18, 1810, the people deposed the governor and placed a committee of seven men at the head of the government. In April 1811 the royal troops being drawn up in the public square at Santiago in order to awe the people, they were attacked and routed. December 20 the government was put into the hands of a triumvirate and Juan Jose Carrera was made general-in-chief.

A royalist army under Paroja was sent to Chili in 1813 and was twice severely defeated. Rein-

forcements came and the sovereignty of Spain was re-established. Three years of even greater Spanish misrule and oppression followed. La Plata furnished another patriot army and with the support of the people of Buenos Ayres the royal army was routed at Chacabuco in 1817.

An elective government was formed with San Martin, head of the army, as supreme director. The royalists surprised the Chilean army at Cancharayada and defeated it with great loss, but at the plains of Maifu the patriots struck the decisive blow that gave them freedom.

General O'Higgins assumed the dictatorship in 1817 and held it for six years, when a civil revolution deposed him. Until 1828 the country was in a state bordering on anarchy when, under General Pinto, a constitution was adopted which gave them some stability. In 1831 General Pinto was made president, the constitution was revised and May 25, 1833, the form now in force was adopted. Since then Chili has made the most rapid social and material progress. It now stands foremost in South American affairs.

An insurrection took place in 1851 but went to pieces from the accidental death of the leader, General Urriola. Prudence and wisdom having characterized the Chilean government, it is one

of the most respected and prosperous of the Latin republics.

Roman Catholicism is the state religion, but there is liberal religious toleration. No ecclesiastic is allowed to perform the marriage ceremony. Popular and advanced education is liberally provided for. However, only five per cent. of those of school age attend, and eighty-five per cent of the population is illiterate.

Chili is rich in minerals and agricultural products. Its manufactories and commerce are rapidly increasing. The government is modeled after the constitution of the United States, except that the president holds office for five years and is not eligible to immediate re-election. In 1890 Balmaceda attempted to name his successor with the result that a bitter civil war ensued between the president and his congress. In January 1891 the navy under Admiral Don Jorge Montt revolted from the administration and joined the Congressionalist party. In August, 1891, Balmaceda's forces were routed and the president soon after committed suicide.

Don Jorge Montt was made president from January 1892 to 1897.

It was during the civil war that some of the sailors on the United States cruiser Baltimore,

while on shore, were set upon and several killed. A demand for reparation was made by the United States government; and, after considerable delay, the American flag was saluted and an indemnity paid.

Bolivia.

THIS republic was named in honor of General Simon Bolivar known in history as the South American liberator. This eminent man was born of a wealthy and noble family in Caracas, Venezuela, July 24, 1783. He was educated in Madrid and had traveled extensively through Europe when he visited the United States in 1809, and became impressed with the great value of free institutions. In defeating the Spanish armies he showed military genius; and, in organizing and conducting the government of the liberated colonies, he proved himself to be possessed of a broad statesmanship. Nine-tenths of his great wealth was spent in the cause of patriotism, and, although for several years he had unlimited control of the financial affairs of Bolivia, Peru and Columbia, not a cent was ever appropriated by him or lost.

As is familiarly known, the inhabitants of the territory overrun by Pizarro and other ferocious adventurers from Spain, were crushed under a tyranny and oppression that has no parallel outside of Spanish America.

The "mita" required every native to work in the mines one year, the capitation tax was eight dollars for every year, usually between the ages of fifteen and seventy, and the "repartamento" required everything used by them to be bought from the Spaniards regardless of the quality or price of goods. Even Spanish vegetables could not be raised and nothing could be manufactured. Under these rules came all persons with a drop of native blood in their veins. As the Creoles or mixed races at last outnumbered the others, insurrections and revolutions were the result.

In 1781 Tupac Amarn, the Inca, devastated the country and laid siege to La Paz. Tupac was captured and tortured to death with the most diabolical cruelty. In 1782 the insurrection was crushed and the chains of the Incas made doubly strong.

The war for independence, beginning twenty-seven years later, was not carried on by the aborigines but by those descendants of Spaniards who could no longer endure the exactions of Spain. Bolivia did not engage separately in the war for independence but in conjunction with Peru and Buenos Ayres. The interior provinces of Rio de la Plata waged continuous warfare from July 1809 to August 1825, against the royalists remaining in Peru.

To the valor of General Sucre is owed most of the patriot success in Peru. In 1824 he crushed the Spanish forces in lower Peru and then marched rapidly toward upper Peru. But the news of his victory preceeded him and before he reached La Paz, the patriots had arisen in such numbers as to capture the city and pen up the Spanish General Olaneta in Potosé, which surrendered in March, 1825. In August an assembly declared that henceforth upper Peru should be known as Bolivia, in honor of General Simon Bolivar, who had been the organizing genius that made concerted action effective for South American independence.

Under a constitution prepared by General Bolivar, General Sucre was chosen president for life. He accepted only for a term of two years. But anarchy was the disease that avarice had planted in the soil of Spanish America; and, regardless of the eminent abilities and services of General Sucre, within a year he was driven out of the country. Strife reigned until 1831, when there was four years of peace, after which civil war was almost constant until 1865 when Melgarejo became dictator for five years. In 1871 Morales became president under a military system, which insured domestic peace. In 1879 Chili laid

claim to the nitrate beds in the Bolivian province of Atacama. Peru espoused the cause of Bolivia and war ensued. Chili was successful and dictated such severe terms of peace that Bolivia lost the nitrate beds, all the sea board, and was compelled to pay a heavy indemnity. Peace reigned till the unsuccessful insurrection of General Camacho in 1890, except for some serious Indian revolts in 1888.

During the civil war in Chili, Bolivia warmly favored the congressional party against Balma-ceda; and, when the congressionalists were successful, they recognized the friendliness of Bolivia by granting a free outlet to the sea.

In the treaty of February 1893 Bolivia became commercially dependent upon Chili.

The population of Bolivia is about two million and its area is 842,729 square miles. Lucre, the capital, has 20,000 inhabitants but La Paz has twice that number. Roman Catholicism is the religion of the state, with little toleration of other forms of worship. About one in every hundred attend the schools.

Peru.

GOLD was the dream that led the Spanish to undertake many heroic expeditions to Peru. Ayolas went from Paraguay but failed. Irala, his successor, reached the territory only to find it already occupied by his countrymen from the north. Balboa heard of the rich Peruvian coast when he discovered the Southern sea, or Pacific ocean, in 1511, but he failed to penetrate that far. An expedition fitted out to reach Peru in 1522 got no farther than Balboa had gone.

Two years later a man who had been with Balboa when he discovered the Pacific ocean, was given charge of an expedition. He could neither read nor write and had never been on a ship or had any responsibility until he was nearly fifty years of age, yet the name of Francisco Pizarro is among the most famous of Spanish explorers. On the way his ship was caught in a terrific tropical storm which raged for ten days. Lack of food and water forced them ashore but incessant rain had made the low coasts an almost impassable swamp. No natives were anywhere to be seen and nearly half of his men died of starvation,

but he was indefatigable in exploring the surrounding territory. One night they saw a light and he made his way to it through the almost impassable vines and bushes. The people fled and the starving Spaniards found some corn and cocoa nuts. A number of gold ornaments were found and the fever for conquest overcame their distress.

Continuing south through untold hardships and exciting adventures, they at last found natives who boldly attacked them and finally compelled them to return to Panama for a better equipment.

His second expedition consisted of one hundred and sixty men in two vessels. Landing at a village on the San Juan river, he began his memorable conquest in which no terms can sufficiently execrate his savage brigandage, however much his daring energy may be admired. He proceeded inland through almost impenetrable forests, scantily sustaining life by roots and berries.

It was on this expedition, in 1526, when the potato was discovered, which has since played such an important part in the food production of America and Europe.

It was at Tacamez where Pizarro began sacking a town and was on the verge of being destroyed



Pizarro.

From an engraving given in Montanus ad Ogilby.

by the valorous natives, when a Spaniard fell from his horse and the natives were so astonished to see them as separate beings that they fled.

After many marvelous adventures the height of greed was touched when he discovered the almost civilized city of Tumbes. The people were covered with gold ornaments and there was a costly temple of the Virgins of the Sun.

But Pizarro was powerless. He returned to Panama with his story of riches, too great to be believed. The authorities at Panama did not believe him and would do nothing further to help him, either to extend Spanish dominion or the influence of the cross.

Undaunted he went, in 1528, to get help from the Court of Castile. His commission was sealed under the most impressive religious ceremonies, and in January, 1531, his third and last voyage of conquest for Peru was begun.

At his first landing he surprised and plundered a village. A heap of silver, gold, emeralds and other precious booty was made and divided, the royal one-fifth being kept for the king, the rest shared according to agreement among officers and men.

From that day on Pizarro was the ruthless scourge of Peru. The crowning stroke of daring

and infamy was perpetrated on Saturday, November 16, 1532. On the invitation of the Inca he quartered his men in the spacious royal buildings of Caxamalca, the heart of the golden empire of Peru. With him were 101 soldiers and sixty-seven horsemen. In turn he invited the Inca and his retinue to a feast.

When the Inca and his followers, all unarmed, appeared in the open square not a Spaniard was to be seen, except the Dominican priest Valverde, who came forward with the crucifix held aloft and an open Bible in his hand. A learned and lengthy harangue was begun, which ranged from creation to the Apostle Peter, and covered all the intricate doctrines of the Trinity. The Inca pointed to the sun, saying that his God lived in the heavens, and, when the Bible and crucifix were given him to kiss in token of conversion and submission, he threw them on the ground.

The priest hurried away, Pizarro swung aloft his scarf, a signal gun was fired, and the slaughter of the unsuspecting and unarmed Peruvians began. About a thousand natives had come inside the walls before the gates were closed; and, as the Spaniards wore heavy armor the defenders of the king were like so many sheep at the mercy of ferocious wolves.

The Spaniards were complete masters of the situation with the Inca as their captive. The Peruvians regarded his person as more sacred than their country or possessions.

In an evil hour, he offered to ransom himself by filling the room in which he was confined, seventeen feet by twenty-two feet, with gold, and two adjoining rooms with silver.

The ransom, about twenty million dollars, was accepted and fulfilled in two months; but, after the money had been received the Spaniards bethought themselves that to restore the Inca to his people would strengthen their enemies and to keep him would weaken their own forces to the extent of the guard required. The resourceful invaders were not lacking in expedients. The Inca was charged with a crime committed before the Spaniards had set foot on Peruvian soil. The trial was conducted with due religious solemnity and the Inca was condemned to be burned. However, on the representation of the Dominican Valverde that the Inca had confessed christianity the sentence was mitigated to strangulation.

Hero worshippers have compared Pizarro at Caxamalca to Leonides at Thermopylae. It would be hard to find a greater insult to heroism or to history.

Meanwhile, Pizarro's band had been increased

by reinforcements to five hundred men. With unparalleled energy he pursued his course of exploration and conquest.

Unexpectedly, at a time when he supposed the subjugation to be complete and his government in full control, the Inca Manco, who had been made nominal ruler under Pizarro, escaped from Cusco and raised a rebellion which cost the lives of many Spaniards and nearly succeeded in exterminating them. To add to the troubles, Almagro, who had been associated with Pizarro from the first, was embroiled in a fatal quarrel with two brothers of Pizarro over the governorship of Cuzco, which the brothers had successfully defended in a long siege by Peruvians. Almagro was the rightful governor of Cuzco and all the country south known as Chili, according to authority from Spain, and he at last made the brothers prisoners. They were soon released under the solemn promise that they were to interfere no further. But, shortly after telling their story to Francisco Pizarro, a hostile expedition headed by Hernando Pizarro was sent against Almagro. It was successful, and, after a mock trial, Almagro was executed. Hernando went at once to Spain with immense riches but the death of Almagro cost him twenty years in prison.

Francisco Pizarro endeavored to deprive the little son of Almagro not alone of his possessions, but also of the governorship of Chili. The result was that the friends of Almagro formed a conspiracy to revenge. Eighteen of them attacked Pizarro in his palace, and after a desperate struggle with the merciless conqueror and his friends, slew them all.

A licentiate named De Castro had been sent from Spain to act as judge for the Crown in the civil trouble of the Spaniards and in case of the death of Francisco Pizarro to assume command in his place. Learning of Pizarro's death De Castro hastened to Peru from Panama.

The friends of Almagro claimed control of both Peru and Chili for the young son, whose mother was a Peruvian princess. A long contest ensued which culminated in a pitched battle between the rival forces on the plains of Xauxa. De Castro had about seven hundred men and young Almagro, who had now become old enough to take command, had about the same number. September 16, 1542, the combat began, late in the afternoon. No quarter was asked or given till late in the night when more than two thirds on each side had fallen and most of young Almagro's party were prisoners. He escaped to Cuzco where he was arrested, tried and beheaded.

A period of riotous living ensued. The natives were worked to death as slaves, their flocks of llamas destroyed, their fields devastated, and their substance wasted until the miserable Peruvians wandered naked over the plains, or were hunted and slain by blood hounds as an amusement for the Spanish gentry.

The natives were on the way to speedy extinction when their cause was taken up in Spain by the Dominican priest Las Casas, who came before a convention of lawyers and ecclesiastics at Valladolid in 1542, and eloquently pleaded for protective laws. A code, intended to produce order and justice in the chaos of colonial laws, was framed and a viceroy was sent to put it into execution.

Two generations had grown up in the rights of unrestricted pillage, and the fiercest indignation swept over the colonies when they learned that their entire social and judicial systems were to be reconstructed on a wholly different basis.

The fiercest indignation possessed everybody at the arbitrary acts of the Viceroy Blasco Nunez in putting the new laws into execution. He freed hundreds of Peruvian slaves, laid an embargo on a cargo of silver that had been mined by slave labor, and relentlessly prosecuted indictments against all who opposed the execution of the royal ordinances.

Gonzalo Pizarro, a fifth brother of Francisco Pizarro, was exploring the silver mines of Postosi and filling every new mine with slaves when news of the tyranny of the home government came to him. He went to Cuzco and was made captain-general, by the rebellious municipality, of all the opposing forces he could raise.

Nearly four years after the arrival of the Viceroy Blasco Nunez, whose well-disposed intentions had meanwhile been constantly thwarted, he found himself with four hundred cavalry, worn with long marches, confronting Pizarro before Buito. A desperate battle ensued in which Nunez and almost his entire force were slain. The despised ordinances were thus overthrown and Gonzalo Pizarro was more completely master of Peru than ever his brother, the conqueror, had been before him.

Pizarro could have made himself king of Peru and Chili and anticipated their final independence by two centuries and a half if he had been possessed of the moral courage of his brother Francisco. But he lacked this quality and the King of Spain brought all into quiet submission through the tact and address of an ecclesiastic named Pedro de la Gasca, whom the king sent to the American colonies with almost the absolute authority of an

independent sovereign. He entered Peru as a meek and humble advisor for the king and in less than four years secured possession of all the forces of Pizarro and had him and his chief followers beheaded for treason.

The years that followed were filled with wars of extermination between the natives and the Spaniards. But intermarriages had brought a new strain of blood into the interests of the colonies and the evolution of the people was steadily moving towards independence from the mother country. The story of the independence of Peru belongs to that of its northern part, now known as Bolivia. The history then following is such a labyrinth of insurrections as to be of little interest to any but the special student of South American politics. It has no late history of any interest that is not bound up in the more important history of its neighbors.

In August, 1894, there was a year of civil war in which President Carceres was driven out of the country and the leader of the revolution elected in his stead. Since then the country has been comparatively peaceful.

Roman Catholicism is the religion of the state and there is a constitutional prohibition of all other religions. But in Callao and Lima there

are Anglican and Jewish churches. Elementary education is compulsory for both sexes but there is a great deal of illiteracy.

About 57 per cent. of the population are Aborigines, 23 per cent. of mixed races, and the remainder chiefly descendants of Spaniards.

Ecuador.

PIZARRO sealed the fate of the native rulers of Ecuador in 1533, and Quito was made a part of the vice-royalty of Peru. In 1710 it was made a part of the vice-royalty of Santa Fe, and restored to Peru in 1722.

When the revolution was begun in Santa Fe, at the close of the century, against Spanish rapacity, it spread rapidly into Ecuador, but only a provisional independence was claimed until 1809, when an attempt was made to secure absolute independence. But the insurrection was crushed and the second attempt, in 1812, fared no better.

In 1820 General Simon Bolivar, of Bolivia, sent General Jose de Lucre to assist in the third attempt. May 22, 1822, a battle was fought against the Spanish on the side of Mount Pichincha, 10,200 feet above the sea, resulting in the complete overthrow of the Spanish.

Ecuador was united with New Granada and Venezuela under the name Colombia in 1821. In 1828 there was a short war with Peru, and in 1830 the country proclaimed secession from Colombia and its own independence.

General Flores was the first president and he maintained the ascendancy through a troublous period of fifteen years. Insurrections and revolutions followed in rapid succession for about twenty years, when an alliance was made in May, 1865, with Chili and Peru against Spain, and all Spanish subjects were banished from their territories.

In August, 1868, an earthquake destroyed Quito and three other principal towns. In 1869 Moreno, who favored religious despotism, forced President Espinosa out of office by revolution, and succeeded in having himself elected in 1870 to a six years term of office. August 14, 1875, Moreno was assassinated by three of his private enemies. Insurrections began again and continued until 1886, when a spirit of internal improvement and commercial enterprise took hold of the people and they became more united under a given policy. From 1890 to 1894 numerous boundary disputes were disposed of and internal peace seemed assured.

Roman Catholicism is the state religion. Suffrage is extended only to those who can read and write and are Roman Catholics.

In a population of nearly a million and a half there is an enrollment in the schools of about sixty thousand. The area is about 120,000 square miles.

Colombia.

THE Republic of the United States of Colombia is a confederation of states. Its coast line is about a thousand miles in length on the Atlantic. Western Colombia is the most mountainous district in the world. The eastern part takes in part of the great plains of the Orinoco and the Amazon.

Its coast was first touched by Ojeda in 1499 and 1501. Columbus, on his last voyage, reached Veragua and Portobello, in 1502.

The principal settlements were made at Panama, from which conquering expeditions were sent north through Central America and south into Peru and Chili. The two territories known as Nueva Andalucia and Castella de Oro were united in 1514 into the one province of Tierra-firma which, towards the middle of the century, was made into the presidency of New Granada. In 1718 it became a vice-royalty. In 1740 the territory of Venezuela and Ecuador were included. The burdens of sustaining the dignity of a vice-royalty, and the attendant unlimited rapacity of favorites, resulted in an insurrection against the home government

in 1811. Incessant war continued for thirteen years. In 1819, a great national hero, General Simon Bolivar, united Colombia, Ecuador and Venezuela under one government against Spain. In 1829 Venezuela withdrew and set up her own independence and the next year Ecuador did the same.

November 21, 1831, the Republic of New Granada was founded on the territory of the disorganized Republic of Colombia. But civil war arose over financial affairs and continued until ended in 1841 by the election of General Herran to the presidency. The State of Cartagena had already seceded; and, at the election of Herran, Panama and Veragua declared themselves independent with the title of State of the Isthmus of Panama. Soon after a reconciliation took place. Slavery was abolished in 1852, and the next year the constitution was altered to that of a new confederation of states. Civil war began in 1857 and was concluded by the capture of Bogota in July, 1861. A new republic was now established under the name of United States of Colombia. In 1886 the title was changed to Republic of the United States of Colombia. This was brought about by a revolution in 1885 against the confederate system of the states.

The state religion is Roman Catholic, but other religions are tolerated.

Bogota, the capitol, is 9,000 feet above the sea level.

The area is about 504,773 square miles, two-thirds of which is north of the equator.

The population in 1881 was 3,878,600.

Venezuela.

VENEZUELA is a federal republic receiving its name, meaning little Venice, from Ojeda, who in 1499 found a village of pile-dwellings in the Gulf of Maracaibo, called by him the Gulf of Venecia. In the southeast and south it is mountainous and covered with heavy forests. In the northwest are vast plains of dense tall grass, known as the llanos of the Orinoco. The trade-winds modify the heat. Its area is a subject of dispute. Its population in 1891 was 2,323,527. The Roman Catholic is the state religion, but liberty of worship is constitutional. Less than 100,000 pupils are in the schools, and in 1870 only ten per cent. of the population were able to read.

In 1498, Columbus, on his third voyage, entered the Gulf of Para, and sailed on to the Orinoco. The next year Ojeda, accompanied by the celebrated Amerigo Vespucci, traced most of the coast. In 1550 Coracas became the seat of a captain-generalcy, and the government of Venezuela so remained until 1811.

The whole territory, of unknown extent, was first called *Costa Firme* by the conquerors. In

1520 the first settlement was made at Cumana. Its further settlements were largely due to the trade in Cacao from the Dutch island of Curacoa. This territory was the most neglected of all the Spanish regions, and its independence came about largely through the efforts of Napoleon to make his brother Joseph king of Spain. Venezuela was among the first to rebel against the usurpation. The revolutionist party obtaining control declared the independence of the state July 5, 1811. The next year the royalist party became ascendants and it returned to the control of Spain. The year following General Bolivar succeeded in forming a coalition which united the whole of the northern part of the continent against Spain, under the name of Republic of Colombia embracing in 1819 New Granada, Venezuela and Ecuador. But the Spanish force in that territory was not entirely overcome until 1823. In 1829 the three confederate states separated peacefully and Venezuela became an independent republic. Civil dissensions, chronic to Spanish colonies, began and did not cease until June, 1863, the worst period of civil war being from the presidency of General Monagas in March, 1846, to the accession of General Falcon in 1846. March 30, 1845, Spain recognized the independence of Venezuela in the treaty

of Madrid. March 24, 1854, a law was enacted emancipating the slaves.

Peace has been attained in Venezuela only under a military despotism seconded by the church; the last modification of the constitution suitable to such conditions being made in April, 1881.

Besides its internal troubles which dissipated its resources and paralyzed its progress, Venezuela has for three centuries been vexed with its questions of boundary. Portuguese, French, Dutch and English were at the borders and their settlements had always been more prosperous and aggressive than those of Spain.

In 1891 the boundary dispute between Venezuela and Colombia was decided by the arbiter, Spain, in favor of Colombia. In 1880 the Brazilian boundary had been amicably adjusted, but Great Britain steadily refused all efforts at arbitration. In 1892 the colonial government of British Guiana took formal possession of the disputed territory. The belief prevailed in the United States that England was trying to possess itself of the mouth of the Orinoco river without having the remotest right thereto. In 1895 an official British map, published in 1882, was discovered, which marked the boundary exactly as claimed by Venezuela.

In line with the Monroe doctrine of the United States, declaring that no foreign power should be allowed to extend its territory in America, President Cleveland sent a message to congress in the latter part of 1895, practically declaring that the dispute must be submitted to arbitration or the United States would act as an executive judge. A commission was appointed early in 1896 to collect facts for the use of the United States in its act of judgment. In November, 1896, Lord Salisbury, premier of Great Britain, announced an agreement to the terms of arbitration.

In 1892 a bloodless military revolution placed General Crespo at the head of the government. Next year he was elected president. As long as the president has the support of the military power he can hold his office, since there is no peace except through military despotism.

Guiana.

VINCENT YONEZ PINZON was the first man to sail along the coast of Guiana. Vasco Nunez de Balboa reached the coast in 1504. Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595 sailed up the Orinoco in an unavailing search for the El Dorado which was to relieve him of debt and the sentence of death. Some Dutch people made the first settlement near the Pomeroun River in 1580. In 1813 a colony of Sealanders was flourishing on the banks of the Essequibo. The English and French made some temporary settlements on the Surinam. Charles II. made a grant of the whole territory in 1662 to Lord Willoughby, but in 1669 the Dutch were the acknowledged owners of all Guiana, after several exchanges of authority between the English and Dutch. In 1814 the indefinite territory of the western part was formally ceded to Great Britain. French Guiana, on the east, dates specially from the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713.

Brazil.

UNDER the Brazilian Republic church and state are entirely separated and absolute equality declared in all religions. However, the government continues to provide for the maintenance of the ecclesiastics who had previously been provided for by the state.

The area of Brazil is 3,209,878 square miles, with a population of 14,332,530. About one-fourth of the population is white.

Pinzon, of Palos, was one of three brothers who had sailed with Columbus on his first voyage. This Pinzon, with two of his nephews and several sailors who had been with Columbus, obtained permission from Ferdinand of Castile to embark with four caravals on a voyage of discovery to America. He left Palos in December, 1499, and, after a tempestuous voyage, reached land at what is now known as St. Augustine, Pernambuco.

The natives were everywhere hostile, and his men had several severe encounters, so that he put to sea toward the northwest. Their casks of fresh water had given out, and, nearly famished, they were obliged to seek land. While taking



Vasco da Gama.

their soundings, they discovered, to their astonishment, that the water about them was fresh and sweet. Land was nowhere in sight, and the phenomenon was inexplicable. A few leagues further and they came to some islands, where they found the natives friendly and hospitable. In due time Pinzon found that he was in the estuary of a mighty river. To one who had never seen a stream larger than the Guadalquiver this argued that before him lay a continent of almost boundless extent.

The tide coming in and meeting the flow of the river caused a rise of five or six fathoms and produced such waves that his ships were nearly swamped. Hastily seizing thirty-six of the natives who had been furnishing him with food, he put to sea and carried back to Spain the claim to the territory of Brazil.

But Cabral, in 1500, and Amerigo Vespucci, in 1501, in the service of Portugal, reached the coast of Brazil and claimed the country for King Emanuel of Portugal.

It was the account of this voyage, written by Amerigo, and addressed to Lorenzo de Medici, printed in Venice, 1504, and in Strasburg 1505, which created the impression among the learned geographers that Amerigo Vespucci was the first

to see the main land of the new world. In his honor it was named America.

The Brazil-wood brought to Portugal by Amerigo was considered so valuable that a colony of criminals was sent to Brazil to gather it. Thus was established the claim of Portugal to Brazil which the Spanish could not break and which cost them the fruit of their first discovery.

Brazil was the first colony in America to be settled with no further object than that of agriculture.

Rio Janeiro was settled first by French Huguenots under Villegagnon, an unscrupulous but skilful seaman who posed as their friend. His oppression forced so many to return to France that he was compelled to seek reinforcements. While he was gone the reinforcements, who were Catholics, attacked and dispersed the community establishing a colony themselves at Rio in 1567.

During the period between 1578 and 1640, when Portugal was under Philip II. of Spain, Brazil was nearly abandoned by the home government, as the Spaniards had no use for an agricultural colony. Meanwhile, Brazil was a prey to the English, the French, and the Dutch. They obtained a foothold in the north, having undisputed possession in the division of Guiana.

Owing to the invasion of Portugal by Napoleon, the Prince Regent removed the capitol from Lisbon to Rio Janeiro March 7, 1808. A powerful stimulus was thus given to Brazilian enterprise. The state arose to such prominence that January 16, 1815, a decree was issued that Portuguese sovereignty should bear the title of United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil and Algarves.

Since Brazil was required to furnish the means to support the throne as well as all the Portuguese nobility, and Brazilians had no share in the levying of the enormous taxes, a general discontent prevailed. The luxurious court transplanted from Europe to the shores of the new world became unbearable.

There were outbreaks in Pernambuco and Bahia which were suppressed by picked troops from Portugal. In 1820 a revolution proclaimed a representative government and February 26, 1821, the Portuguese troops made a demonstration to force Dom Joao, the king, to adopt the system then operating in Portugal.

Dom Pedro, his son, prince heir-apparent to the crown, became mediator and the king submitted. Dom Joao could not return to Portugal and he thought it best to re-establish his seat of government in Lisbon.

Dom Pedro was left to govern Brazil but the Cortes of Portugal did not like the equality of Brazil and ordered Dom Pedro to return to Portugal. An agitation at once arose all over Brazil for Dom Pedro to remain. The Brazilians had tasted the prosperity of independence and did not want to sink back to the position of a simple colonial dependency of Portugal.

The municipal council of Rio conferred upon Dom Pedro the title of Perpetual Defender of Brazil and September 7, 1822, in Lao Paulo, he proclaimed the independence of Brazil. October 12, at Rio Janeiro, he was proclaimed constitutional emperor.

Portugal sent a large force to Bahia to suppress the revolution but the Brazilian squadron, under Lord Cochrane, an Englishman, who had commanded the Chilian navy in the wars for independence, forced them to depart July 2, 1823. Another Englishman named Taylor, harassed the Portuguese all the way across the Atlantic and captured some of the vessels when in sight of the coast of Portugal.

August 25, 1825, treaties were signed by King Dom Joao VI. of Portugal, acknowledging Brazilian independence. Misgovernment followed. On the death of his father, Dom Pedro became

king of Portugal and he left for that country, where he had a disastrous career.

Dom Pedro II., his son, was proclaimed of age July 23, 1840, and, after a stormy period of insurrections, stability was secured. Under his enlightened rule Brazil progressed rapidly. In September, 1871, a law was passed for the gradual extinction of slavery.

On November 15, 1889, a remarkable revolution occurred. Brazil was a republic in all but name, and on that date, with one accord, Dom Pedro II. was deposed and a republic proclaimed. Goodwill prevailed and the late emperor was voted a handsome pension. He and his family were sent to his people in Portugal by the Brazilian government, where he died in 1891.

Spain in Central America.

Guatemala.

CORTEZ, early in his colonization of Mexico, sent two small parties into the territory south of New Spain. They returned bearing enough gold and pearls to awaken the dreams of Spanish avarice.

The chief of Tehuantepec being hard pressed by a neighboring chief, sent to the white war-gods of the north, to whom he had been sending presents, for help in his distress. In answer to this welcome request, Pedro de Alvarado went to his aid early in 1522. In a few weeks the enemy of Tehuantepec was captured and the whole country made humble subjects of Spain.

The next year it was determined to extend the conquest and subjugation to the southern districts and Alvarado was given command of the finest equipment for invasion ever organized in New Spain. The usual long march ensued over seemingly endless difficulties, during which the army doubtless appeared to the natives like an insatiate monster winding its way through their lands.

At Zapotitlan, in the Quiche territory, near the northern border of Guatemala, the natives, a

war-like people, made a desperate stand in defense of their city but the dreadful horses and the awful guns could not be withstood.

At Xelahuh, a fortified city of 300,000 inhabitants, were assembled 232,000 of the fiercest warriors that Central America could furnish. They came forward along the table land to meet the intrepid Spaniards who had climbed over the perilous coast ranges to meet them in battle.

But what availed numbers against the sword and lance thrusts from more than a hundred war horses in a compact cavalry charge? Great masses of warriors made only so much the better targets for the steady work of the cross-bow and arquebuse of the three hundred infantrymen.

The attack of the natives was made with considerable military skill and the Spaniards were often nearly overwhelmed, but the natives fell like grain before the reaper. When they fled the Spaniards slew them as long as the horses had strength to run or the soldier's arm had power to thrust a lance into the defenseless backs.

The Spanish army moved on to Xelahuh but the city was deserted. The people had fled to the mountains. A week was spent here in rest and then about noon the Spaniards saw coming from every direction a countless host of warriors.

They were commanded by the king in person.

Alvarado went out on the plain with his cavalry to meet them. They closed in upon him and the slaughter of a week before was renewed. The hundred horsemen plowed back and forth through the crowded ranks of the enemy, whose slung pebbles and rude javelins were nothing against the armor of the men in compact cavalry charges. In desperation Tecum Umam, the king, rallied his bravest men about him and made a mad rush upon Alvarado. They clung to his horse's legs and were kicked and trampled to death in the effort to hold the beast while their comrades endeavored to thrust their wooden javelins through the thick hide of the animal to a vital spot. With the energy of despair Tecum Umam rushed forward upon Alvarado wherever he saw a chance to reach him until at last the Spanish leader sent a lance through the heart of the king. The infantry plied their cross-bows and guns upon the fugitives flying from the cavalry, and altogether it was a glorious day for the prowess of European civilization and the mercy of the Spanish religion.

But the Quiche nation was not yet crushed. Utatlan, the ancient capital, was so fortified that no enemy had ever been able to prevail against

it. In every respect it was a worthy rival of the capital of Montezuma. The genius of the twenty generations of one dynasty was represented in its construction. Palaces, gardens and fortresses worthy of European skill in magnitude, beauty and strength, made the city one of the greatest on the American continent. But the hope of the nation was gone and the city council resolved upon a desperate stratagem. Submission was offered and an invitation extended to Alvarado to visit Utatlan and receive in person the allegiance of the new king, son of Tecum Umam.

Alvarado marched with his army into the city, but he noticed that the men were armed, no women or children were to be seen, and firewood was everywhere piled against the houses. Suspicion ripened into proof; and, while quietly moving among his men, he acquainted them with the facts and gave his orders. Riding forward to the nobles, he greeted them with manifestations of the greatest friendship. They invited him and his men to go into the temple at once to the feast prepared for them, but Alvarado said that he could not do so until the horses had been provided for. A feast was not to be thought of until the horses were comfortably fed in the open air of the plains, when all would immediately return to

the banquet of peace. While the horses were being picketed, a Spaniard was killed by some natives in ambush. Alvarado pretended to believe it an accident, but in honor to the dead the feast must be postponed until the next day. But the king, Oxib Quieh, and his nobles were invited to pay a friendly visit in return to the Spanish camp. Thinking it necessary to keep up the friendly appearances they visited the Spaniards and were of course made captives. Then the army took possession of the city; and, as long as the captives could furnish gold, or hold out the promise of gold, their lives were spared. Then a great fire was built and the prisoners were thrown into the midst of it. After this deed the city was burned and the country laid in waste.

April 11th, 1524, Alvarado left the desolate site of Utatlan and continued his course of desolation and subjugation through difficulties almost as great as had so far marked his way, and crossed the La Paz river into what is now known as the state of Salvador.

After a three month's career of unrivaled bloodshed without profit to the king, he returned to Patinamit in July, and founded the city Senor de Santiago.

The natives soon found that friendship to the

Spaniards meant speedy death in a slavish toil for gold or a speedier death in rebellion against their heartless masters. Homes, wives, children of religion were perishing under the insatiable greed of the invaders. An impossible demand for gold was made on the Cakchiguel nobles, and they brought all they could get, which was far short of the amount demanded. In a rage Alvarado inquired of Sinacam, the king, why the specified amount was not forthcoming. They said because there was no more known to them either in the temples or in the earth. Alvarado suddenly reaching forward caught in his fingers the gold rings in the nostrils of the king and his two princes.

“It is my will,” cried the Christian savage, tearing the rings through the flesh, “that the gold and silver be here in five days, or you shall have the choice of being hanged or burned.”

A long and bloody guerrilla war followed in which the Spaniards would have been annihilated if reinforcements had not come.

“Take gold, Tonatiuh, take gold,” shouted the desperate natives as they showered their arrows on the mailed breasts of the Spaniards, and fell beneath the iron hoofs of the war horses. At last the native warriors were all dead but the few

thousands who had taken refuge upon the remarkable tableland of Mixco. The spacious level top could be reached only along a few paths in which not more than two persons could walk abreast. It seemed to be impossible to capture such a place; but in order to complete the subjugation and destruction of the people, Mixco must be taken. Ladders were brought and an attempt was made to scale the precipice while others forced their way along the paths, but in vain. Meanwhile, the besiegers were set upon by the Chignautes, allies of the Mixcos, and the Chignautes were so thoroughly beaten that to save themselves they turned traitors to the Mixcos, and revealed a cavernous passage that led to the table land above. This was of no use in the attack, but when the place was at last carried by the Spaniards, the retreat of the Mixcos was everywhere cut off, and the whole tribe was exterminated.

A stronghold of the Mames, named Zakulen, yet remained unconquered in Guatemala and word was sent to the ruler Caibil Bolam that if he would surrender he would be taught the Christian religion, but he ignored the offer and prepared to sell his life as dearly as possible. The ever conquering Spaniard surrounded the precipitous tableland on which he had taken refuge, and after

an annoying delay starved them into submission.

With the fall of Zakulen there were no longer enough native warriors in Guatemala to give any trouble. All that remained were mercilessly subjugated to the uses of the invaders, and the civilization, arts and science of the Central American tablelands were annihilated and lost.

As in all the other Spanish colonies, the history of Guatemala up to the first attempt at independence for Central America, November 5, 1811, was a weary monotony of insurrections and their bloody repression.

Napoleon's usurpation in Spain sent a shock throughout Spanish America which did more to loosen the bonds of sovereignty than nearly three centuries of oppression had done. After union with Mexico, and the experiment of various methods for government, Guatemala declared itself an independent state April 17, 1839.

It joined a Central American Union but repudiated it in 1879.

It has an area of about 63,400 square miles and its population in 1893 was 1,364,678. Sixty per cent. are Indians and about thirty per cent. are half-caste. There is no state religion, although Roman Catholicism prevails. About 75,000 is the entire school enrollment.

Salvador.

PEDRO DE ALVARADO, in his devastating march from Mexico through Central America, found no bloodier work than lay in his way before Acajutta, Salvador. The plain before that city was covered with a host of warriors in line of battle, when he approached.

It would seem at a glance to be the acme of heroism and daring for a commander of sorely tried men to ride up fearlessly within bow-shot of countless warriors, desperate in the defense of home and native land, but coats of mail, cavalry and artillery could find no more suitable conditions for slaughter.

The natives were massed next to the forest and awaited in order the attack. But Alvarado was not contented with defeating them; it was his purpose to exterminate them. A retreat was ordered and the natives crowded after the Spaniards out into the plain. When they were far away from the forest cavalry and artillery began the usual slaughter. The native warriors had encased themselves in thick cotton armor, so cumbersome that they were as sheep in the

shambles; and, according to Alvarado's official account not one was left alive.

The Spaniards rested five days in Acajutta and then moved on to Tacuxcalco. There another army was drawn up, even in larger numbers than the one he had just exterminated. The iron-clad cavalry again went through the exercise of sweeping back and forth through the impotent natives until the plain was covered with their bodies.

Two days were all that was required for recuperation at Tacuxcalco, when the invaders moved on to Mihuatlan. The trail of desolation and destruction continued, the obstinate natives everywhere refusing the blessings of the Spanish religion, thus nullifying the labors and objects of these militant missionaries of the cross.

Alvarado pressed on to Cuzcatlan, the capital of the Cuzcatecs, but the natives inconsiderately abandoned their towns and harassed the enemy in a guerrilla warfare which was more discouraging and injurious to the conquerors than anything they had yet met. Besides, the rainy season had set in and neither booty nor spoils worthy of their work had been found. The Cuzcatecs were ordered to surrender, but they were scattered over the mountains and they paid no attention to the summons. Then they were put on

trial and a verdict duly rendered pronouncing them traitors, and condemning the chiefs to death. After this ceremony the country was solemnly declared to belong to Charles and Christ under the vice regency of the discoverer, Alvarado.

Little of special interest to the general reader is contained in the explorations, settlements, colonization and government that followed until the first stroke for the independence of Central America was made at San Salvador, November 5, 1811. This was done by the union of six leaders, who captured the royal treasury and arsenal of the city. But this revolt soon went to pieces from the lack of united support. The leaders were forgiven, and the loyal Spaniards who opposed the revolutionists were liberally rewarded with titles. Political turmoils disturbed Salvador as in other colonies, and rose to the point of a declaration of independence from Spain September 21, 1821.

The republic joined in the confederation of all the republics of Central America, in what is known as the Greater Republic of Central America. This union was ratified September 15, 1896. Its area is 7,225 square miles; the population, January 1, 1894, was 803,534. San Salvador, the capital, has about 25,000 inhabitants. The chief produce is coffee, indigo, sugar and tobacco.

Honduras.

COLUMBUS first touched the American continent on his fourth voyage, August 14, 1502, near the island of Guanaja. Twenty years later it was overrun by the Spaniards.

The conquest of Mexico was not enough to satisfy Cortez. Stories of the wealth and culture of natives southward in Hibueras pursued him night and day until he had an expedition fitted out under a trusted lieutenant, Cristobel de Olid. It was necessary for Olid to go to Habana for certain supplies, and there he met Velazquez, governor of Cuba, whom Cortez had betrayed and deserted when sent by Velazquez on the voyage of discovery to Mexico. Velazquez was revengeful for losing his rightful share of booty and honor due from the conquest of Mexico, and he began to urge Olid to turn from Cortez and to enter upon the conquest of Honduras on his own account.

Velazquez was successful; and, when Olid landed on the north coast of Honduras, May 3, 1524, he took possession in the name of Cortez, but the documents were made out in his own name.

However, there were two other claimants to

the territory of Honduras. One, Gil Gonzales, had already founded a settlement called Cabellos, fourteen leagues west of the place where Olid had just founded a town called Triunfo de la Cruz.

Captain Gil Gonzales Davila, commissioned directly by the king, had sailed from Santo Domingo in the spring of 1524 in search of the outlet of the Freshwater Sea in Nicaragua. Being driven by a storm to the coast of Honduras, he founded Cabellos, so called because of the loss of his horses, which a storm compelled him to throw overboard. He then marched on toward Lake Nicaragua. Meantime Pedrarias, governor of Panama, had sent Cordoba—not the one who discovered Yucatan—northward into Nicaragua. Learning that a band of Spaniards were north of him, Cordoba sent Hernando de Soto to learn who they were. The party sought for was that of Gil Gonzalez. He wanted no rivals in the territory he had discovered, therefore on learning of the approach of the searching party, Gonzales attacked De Soto in the night, captured all his treasure, and sent the men back disarmed.

Cortez was not the man to allow his ambitions to be thwarted by a traitor to his cause; and, in a great rage, he sent Francisco de las Casas with four vessels and one hundred and fifty men to

overthrow Olid. After a sharp engagement in which Las Casas had Olid at his mercy, a storm arose by which Las Casas lost all his vessels and forty men. Then Olid sent a party out after Gonzalez, which captured him at Choloma. Olid was now master, but he was so generous to his two prisoners that they were enabled to intrigue successfully against their common enemy. One day while they sat at the table with their captor as his guests, at a signal from Las Casas, they sprang upon him and inflicted mortal wounds, from which he died. They tried him for treason while dying, and his body was beheaded after death according to the verdict.

During this time Cortez had become so anxious concerning the expedition he had sent under Las Casas after Olid, that he determined to head an exploring party himself into Honduras. Through natural difficulties, greater than the conqueror of Mexico had ever before encountered, Cortez worked his way southward. After almost incredible hardships, through the swamps and forests of Guatemala, his long weary journey was done and he reached the fever and famine stricken settlement of Gonzalez at Nito. In a short time his authority was everywhere acknowledged and the settlements firmly established.

In his absence from Mexico enemies had been persistently working for his destruction, and a rumor of his death had made them very bold. While he was planning for further conquests from Nito to the southwest, news of his safety reached Mexico and his friends determined to have him recalled as the only security for his interests in New Spain. It was a great blow to his ambitions when the recall came, but he obeyed it and reached Vera Cruz May 23, 1526.

The court of Spain being jealous of the vast extent of territory acquired by Cortez and other explorers, decided to limit the acquisitions as far as possible. Cordoba had been encouraged to become independent of Pedrarias, the brutally unscrupulous governor of Panama; Gonzalez had been assisted in his discoveries through Nicaragua, and even Olid had been unrestrained in his treason to Cortez.

In 1525, regardless of the claims of Cortez, Gonzalez and Cordoba, and unknown to them, Diego Lopez de Lalcedo was appointed governor of Honduras. He was inaugurated October 27, 1526.

Trujillo, founded by Cortez near the spot where Columbus had landed, was the largest of five settlements in 1547, and yet it contained only

fifty Spaniards. Because of its slow growth the early history of Honduras has fewer local complications and factional contests to its account than most other Spanish colonies.

When Guatemala threw off its allegiance to Spain, the governing power of Honduras declared for the Iguala plan of Iturbide in Mexico while a faction remained in union with Guatemala. The liberal party continued to gain in strength until the declaration of independence was promulgated October 26, 1838.

The country is rugged and has many high mountains and navigable rivers. Its valleys are alluvial and fertile; its tablelands affording unsurpassed pasturage; its mineral resources are abundant but undeveloped. The people vary from uncivilized aboriginal tribes to cultivated civilians.

Its length is 440 miles, greatest breadth 200 miles, width about 50,000 square miles. The population consists of about 184,000 Indians, 205,000 Mestizos, 5,750 whites and 5,250 negroes.

The state religion is Roman Catholic. No other worship is tolerated, though no attempt is made to interfere with the liberty of conscience.

The seat of Spanish government was first at Gracias. In 1823 Honduras joined the confeder-

ation of Central America and became an independent republic in 1839. War and intrigue, insurrection and revolution, followed one another in bewildering succession from that date until 1862. The clergy were the chief instigators of discontent. As a result of religious intolerance and civil inability, little progress has been made. Education is not encouraged and the people are poor.

A charter government was proclaimed in 1865; a strong treaty of mutual amity was made with Spain in 1866, and November 1, 1880, a constitution was adopted. June 20, 1895, a treaty between Honduras, Nicaragua and Salvador, providing for their union under the name of Greater Republic of Central America, was concluded preparatory to a union of all the Central American republics.

In this new union education is compulsory and entirely secular.

The chief exports are bananas, tobacco, sugar, maize, coffee, indigo and rice. The government gives grants of land in order to provide for an increase in cultivation.

Costa Rica.

NUEVA CARTAGO was seen by *Columbus* on his last voyage in 1502, and *Gil Gonzalez* had lived several days on the southern coast in the tree tops to escape being carried away by the floods. But this country, also known as Costa Rica, was an unknown region when in 1540 *Diego Gutierrez*, a rich merchant of Madrid, obtained a grant to the territory and was appointed governor. His beginning was not auspicious. On reaching *Jamacia* he lost all his supplies through a mutiny, and at *Nombre de Dios* he fell sick and his men deserted him for the more propitious fields of Peru. Although without men or means, he luckily found an adventurer who loaned him an ample amount of money which had been secured in the conquest of Peru. With this money he began to enlist men in Nicaragua, but *Contreas*, the governor, greatly impeded his work by declaring that Costa Rica was included in Nicaragua territory, and that it was a barren country. Nevertheless, he succeeded at last in setting sail with sixty men in two vessels. Shortly after landing in Costa Rica the men became discouraged

and returned to Nicaragua, leaving Gutierrez with his nephew, four servants and a sailor. The nephew followed the deserters and succeeded in enlisting twenty-seven other men in Nicaragua. With these he set out for Nueva Cartago, but a storm drove them on a small island and kept them there for seventy-two days in the greatest suffering. When they at last reached the camp of Gutierrez they were helpless from exhaustion. The persistent governor immediately sent the vessel back to Nombre de Dios in Nicaragua for more recruits and the number was increased to eighty.

Going up the Rio Surre about thirty miles in canoes the party came to a village, but the native chiefs brought nothing except fruits.

“I have come to give you a secret of the greatest value,” said the governor to them through his interpreter, “but I must have gold in exchange.”

The promise to pay liberally for the priceless secret was given and the governor invited them to a feast of salt pork, when he delivered the secret in a post-pandial discourse.

“My very dear friends and brothers,” he said, “I am come hither to free you from the chains of idolatry, by which through the influences of your evil spirits you have until now been bound. With me I have brought holy men to teach you

the faith, which to accept and implicitly obey our sovereign superior Charles V., king of Spain and monarch of the world, and us his representatives, comprises your whole duty.”

The chiefs did not seem to consider this secret worth the gold promised, and they brought it in very slowly in small quantities. Gutierrez invited two of the principal chieftains to visit him. When they appeared he put heavy iron collars about their necks and chained them to a post in his house. He then accused them of stealing some salt and honey which had been previously given to the Spaniards by them. The denial of the chiefs, coupled with the statement that they had a superabundance of those articles, did not prevent a verdict being rendered that several times the weight of the articles should be returned in gold. This demand was complied with when a further demand was made that a basket shown them should be filled with gold six times within four days or they would be burned to death. One in terror endeavored to comply, the other stoutly maintained that it could not be done.

Before the specified time had expired Comachire, who was trying to collect the necessary gold, escaped, but Cocori remained still defiant. Gutierrez brought his bloodhound around the intract-

able chief and showed him the formidable teeth and blood-thirsty jaws of the ferocious brutes.

“Get me the gold required of both or I will feed you to these dogs,” cried the incensed governor.

“You lie, bad Christians,” replied the imperturbable chief. “Often you have made bad threats and still I live. I would rather die than live in bondage among such vipers, which I wonder how the earth can bear.”

Such a man was too valuable for dog meat, so he was done to death by the Spanish Christians as a pack animal.

Believing the invaders were devils, the natives set fire to their villages, destroyed everything that could be used as food, and went into the mountains. Gutierrez set out at once to find the villages from which he expected his rich plunder. But the whole country was so devastated by the natives that nothing but leaves could be found for the subsistence of his soldiers.

In July, 1545, the miserable band reached the Rio Grande, flowing into the South Sea. Here they were attacked by the natives and all but six of the company slain. After incredible hardships these survivors met the detachment that had been left to pursue a way along the coast, when all went back to Rio San Juan and sailed for

Nombre de Dios. Years afterwards portions of the limbs of Gutierrez were found among the tribes he had attempted to subjugate, where they were used as a warning to evil spirits.

In 1560 the pacification and settlement of Costa Rica was undertaken by Cabollon, the fiscal of Guatemala, in connection with a rich priest named Rabago. Several settlements were founded but so little plunder was taken that they were considered failures. Three years later, Juan Vazquez Coronado, being made Alcade Mayor of Nicaragua and Costa Rica, with the title of adelantado and captain general, attempted to get some value out of Costa Rica. He spent his own fortune and those of several others without success. In 1573 Cherino entered into a contract to make a prosperous colony of this region; but, with unlimited resources lavishly expended, there were only two Spanish towns in 1586.

At this time there appeared in Costa Rica a Franciscan friar named Betanzas, whose missionary zeal was tempered with a genuine piety which does much to counteract the evidence that Spanish Catholicism was all greed and blood. He was able, tireless and just. From one end of the country to another he traveled without covering on head or feet, accompanied only by a little boy.

For a long time he would not allow a soldier to come within the territory. He mastered the native languages and was soon able to preach fluently in twelve dialects. During the sixteen years which he spent in Costa Rica there was peace unmarred by unchristian acts. Provisions were abundant and most of the natives were persuaded to throw away the idols and accept the religion of Betanzos.

Little of interest to any but Costa Ricans occurred until October 27, 1821, when independence from Spain was declared. The colony came under the control of Iturbide of Mexico for awhile then it became a part of the Central American Union, but November 1, 1838, it threw off all entangling alliances and adopted a state constitution.

The first Central American state to be formally recognized by Spain as an independent nation was Costa Rica by the treaty of May 10, 1850. It joined the Central American union of September 15, 1896.

The area of this republic is about 23,000 square miles; the population in 1897, 268,000. The state religion is Roman Catholic, but the constitution grants full religious freedom. Education is compulsory, but is mainly under ecclesiastical control. The principal exports are coffee and bananas.

Nicaragua.

COLUMBUS ran from a storm, September 25, 1502, into the river San Juan, Nicaragua, behind an Island which he named the Gorden. But it was not till Gil Gonzalez came out from Panama that any exploration of the territory took place.

At Wicoya, in Costa Rica, Gonzalez was told that a rich and mighty chief named Nicaragua lived a few day's journey to the north. Gonzalez marched on; and, as he approached Nicaragua he sent six natives with two interpreters to inform the great chief that the representative of the kingdom of heaven and Spain was approaching.

“Tell him,” commanded Gonzalez “that all who believe and obey the God I represent shall at death ascend to heaven, while disbelievers shall be driven into the fire beneath the earth. Tell him to be ready to hear and accept these truths, or else to prepare for battle.”

“Tell those who sent you,” was the reply of Nicaragua, “that I know not their king and therefore cannot do him homage; that I fear not their sharp swords, but love peace rather than war.

Gold has little value and they are welcome to what I have. As to their religion, I will talk with them, and if I like it I will adopt it."

Gonzalez went on to the town and was met with demonstrations of friendship. As much gold as a slave could carry was presented to the Spaniards, who in return presented the king with a shirt, a red cap and a silk dress, including with the presentation a long harangue on spiritual matters.

"You know so much of the world and its maker," said Nicaragua, "tell me how large are the stars, how they are held in the sky, and how they move about. Why is there darkness and cold? Why did not the Christian God make a better world, and what honor is thus due Him? Whither goes the immortal soul at death, and why do the Spaniards have such a love of gold?" These were a few of the questions Nicaragua asked.

Gonzalez answered them and other questions so convincingly, according to the official report, that Nicaragua and 9,017 of the natives were forthwith converted and baptized in one day.

The Spaniards went on towards the northwest, receiving great quantities of gold as presents and baptizing the natives in return. April 14 they

were met by a train of attendants, bringing Diriangen, a powerful chief, to visit them; in military order five hundred men each bearing one or two turkeys, ten men with flags unfurled, seventeen women laden with plates of gold, five trumpeters and the rich palanquin of the chief, Diriangen, with ceremony rivalling the people of the east, the presents were made and the return spiritual lectures given. Altogether it was the most flattering and profitable meeting Gonzalez had yet known.

“In three days,” said the courteous lord, to the invitation to baptism, “I will have decided and will return with my answer.” On the 17th Diriangen appeared with three thousand warriors and the Spaniards were enabled to escape only after a fierce battle, and the use of a stratagem in which they dismayed their antagonists by cutting off the hair of the soldier and tying it on the chins of their allies to make the enemy believe that as fast as the Spaniards were slain they came to life again in double numbers. Gonzalez and his men reached Panama safely with their booty, June 25, 1523. Settlements were not attempted, but the ecclesiastics moved freely through the native towns, converting the natives and building places of worship. Cordoba had



Don Diego de Almagro.



founded Leon, near the South Sea, in 1523, but the place was abandoned in 1610, after Bishop Valdivieso had been murdered there by the revolutionist Hernando. The inhabitants went into the Indian district Lubtiaba and refounded the town which became the capital of Nicaragua. In 1586 Realejo contained about a score of Spaniards and in Granada, founded in 1524, there were but few more.

The first revolt in Nicaragua grew out of the governorship of Contreras, a noble cavalier of Legovia, Spain. His wife was the daughter of the notorious Pedrarias of Panama. She had been betrothed to Balboa, discoverer of the Pacific Ocean. After Balboa had been beheaded by Pedrarias, she married Contreras. The hero-priest and humanitarian, Las Casas, who did so much in Spain and America to limit the slavery and extermination of the natives, was in Leon at the head of the Dominicans, and he strenuously opposed the ambitions of Contreras for conquest and plunder. The ecclesiastics all advocated the plan of placing the natives entirely under their charge, thus abolishing slavery and enormously strengthening the church. A law of this nature was passed which shook the foundations of all the Spanish colonies in America. Contreras, to

avoid the law, transferred his slaves to his wife. They were then declared confiscated and Contreras went to Spain for redress. He never returned but his two sons, Hernando and Pedro, remained. They were very popular among the Spaniards and the ecclesiastics were considered meddlers. Soon Hernando and Pedro were the leaders around whom gathered all the malcontents of the Spanish colonies, and a plan was formed not alone to recover certain rights in Nicaragua but to conquer all the territory south to Chili and make Hernando de Contreras king of Peru. After assassinating Bishop Valdivieso, and thus overawing the ecclesiastics, the conspirators with consummate skill and dispatch possessed themselves of every stronghold in Nicaragua, and swept everything before them to Panama.

At night, April 20, 1550, Hernando de Contreras and his lieutenant Bermejo entered Panama, with the war cry of "Death to the traitor!" and "Long live Prince Contreras, Captain-General of Liberty." The terror-stricken inhabitants surrendered and the revolutionists plundered the town.

Success had come so easy that in overconfidence the conspirators made the fatal mistake of dividing their forces into small bands, which were sent

to as many different places to make attacks. The citizens of Panama captured the small force left to hold them in subjection and disastrously defeated the party that returned to the rescue. In a few days the revolution had gone to pieces, which, under abler hands, could have achieved the independence of the richest portion of Spanish-America.

Nothing of special importance in the destiny of Nicaragua occurred until Iturbide became emperor of Mexico, when Leon, the capitol, accepted his authority under the Iguala plan and became, October 21, 1821, a part of the Mexican empire.

Grenada refused to vote for the union and remained with Guatemala under the diputacion provincial of Spain. April 17, 1823, at the fall of Iturbide in Mexico, a junta gubernativa, recognized by the general government, came into power at Leon. Incessant factional fighting took place, as in common with all Spanish colonies, until awed into peace, January 20, 1835, by the eruption of the Volcano Coliguina. This was followed by the most violent earthquake known in the history of Central America. A dense yellow dust of sulphur darkened the air and almost stifled the people. The priests made the most of the occurrence for the restoration of their prestige, and a

feast day is still held in commemoration of their prayer, so efficacious stopping the terrific convulsions of nature.

November 12, 1838, Nicaragua withdrew from the Central American federation and a state constitution was adopted making it a republic.

During the stormy career of Nicaragua as a republic, it has been of interest to the United States chiefly because of the Nicaragua canal, but twice it has had difficulties with the United States. An American company was granted the right to open a transit route across the country and so many Americans came that in a short time their interests and influence were predominant along the way. At a preliminary meeting by them, San Juan was declared a free city and the territory about it an independent state. There was then a very popular interest throughout the southern part of the United States for the acquisition of territory in Central America, and the American ministers went beyond their official duties to further such ends, as far as possible.

The Nicaraguans and the Americans in San Juan were in a very hostile attitude when a sloop of war, under Commander Hollins, was dispatched to that port in the interest of the Americans. He at once made arrogant demands for alleged rights,

indemnities, and the punishment of offenders. The demands not being complied with, he bombarded the city July 13, 1854, and landed a party of marines who burned it down. With this the affair ended and the authority of Nicaragua was undisputed.

Four years previous, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, concluded in the ship canal convention, April 19, 1850, saved Nicaragua from the territorial aggression of Great Britain, which claimed the territory of the Mosquito coast. By this treaty neither power should occupy, fortify, colonize nor exercise any kind of authority over Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito coast, or any other portion of Central America. Interoceanic communication was to be opened either by canal or railroad with neutrality of the Interoceanic ways.

In August, 1854, some revolutionists made a contract with Byron Cole, an American, to bring a lot of immigrants into the country, who would help to take Granada and join it to Nicaragua, or establish an independent government. Cole transferred his contract to William Walker. Under Walker a filibustering expedition was fitted out in California, and sailed from San Francisco May 4, 1855. He was made a Colonel in the Nicaraguan army, but his first operations were unsuccessful

and his forces were dispersed. In September he secured a larger force of Americans and natives, with which he again commenced operations against Granada. October 13 he was successful in surprising the town and in capturing most of the officers. A campaign against Corral, commander in the legitimist forces, resulted in the final capitulation of Corral and the formation of a joint administration of the government of Nicaragua. But Corral, finding that Walker was more and more securing control, endeavored to induce a revolution against him, which, being discovered by Walker, led to an illegal execution of Corral November 8. This left Walker in absolute control; but he committed two fatal blunders, one of which was his estrangement from the democrats and the other was the quarrel with the transportation company that had brought him his supplies and recruits from the United States. Meanwhile President Pierce, of the United States, issued a proclamation forbidding filibustering expeditions.

Costa Rica had failed to acknowledge Walker's government in Nicaragua and he demanded an explanation. Louis Schlessinger, the Nicaraguan envoy, threatened war, and President Mora, of Costa Rica, at once declared war. He proceeded to raise 9,000 troops, and levied a loan for



Balboa.

First printed in Herrera, edition 1728.



expenses. Underestimating his enemy, Walker sent only 500 men with Schlessinger against 3,000 under the personal command of Mora. A rout resulted, but cholera came to the aid of the fillibusters and stopped the enemy's advance. Troubles in Costa Rica caused Mora to return, and so the interference of neighboring states came to naught. Shortly after Walker quarreled with Rivas, the Nicaraguan president, and then caused an election, with the end of having himself made president.

The United States government, sympathizing with any movement to extend slavery, now recognized Walker's government and Walker proceeded to annul the federal law of Nicaragua which prohibited slavery.

Rivas, the deposed president, appealed to the neighboring states to assist him to expel the usurper and a prompt acquiescence came from Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador and Costa Rica.

The allied army took possession of Leon in July and continued its operations with much fierce fighting and varying success until Grenada was taken, December 13th. Walker was compelled to capitulate May 1, 1857. However, he was not satisfied with his inglorious career of

brief authority and he fitted out an expedition that was seized by Commodore Paulding of the American home squadron. With vicious persistence he fitted out a third expedition which, being more successful, landed at Trujillo August 6, 1860. Here he seized the money provided for the payment of indebtedness due from Honduras to the subjects of Great Britain. A British ship promptly appeared and he was compelled to leave. On the eastern coast he was captured by a party of Honduras soldiers, when he was tried at Trujillo and executed September 12.

July 4, 1894, a new constitution was proclaimed and June 20, 1895, the treaty was signed with Honduras and Nicaragua constituting the Greater Republic of Central America. To avoid trouble with Great Britain the Mosquito Indians were voluntarily incorporated into the Nicaraguan state, November 20, 1894. An ultimatum was delivered to Nicaragua for indemnity because of the expulsion of the British consul. Nicaragua demanded arbitration, expecting the United States to uphold the demand because of the Monroe doctrine. But the United States authorities decided that the claims of England were just and so declined to interfere. April 27, 1895, a British fleet took possession of Corinto

harbor. May 4th the English withdrew on the agreement of Nicaragua to pay the claims.

Nicaragua has been of special interest to the United States and other countries because of the feasibility of an interoceanic canal through its territory. A charter for that purpose was given in 1849, known as the Vanderbilt concession. The concession being forfeited a charter was granted April, 1887, to the New York Nicaragua Canal Association. The United States gave a charter February 20, 1889, to the Maritime Canal Company. The first labor worthy of mention was done by the Nicaragua Canal Construction Company. From October 8, 1890, to September in 1892, about \$4,000,000 was expended. Realizing their enormous task, they ceased work and in 1891 asked the United States government to take up the work and appropriate \$100,000,000. A bill to that effect was introduced but did not pass. In 1892 a similar bill passed the Senate but failed in the House. In 1895 the president appointed a commission of engineers to look into the work. This commission reported as a result of their investigations that no judgment could be given without a complete survey, which would occupy eighteen months. The Republican platform of 1896 urged government completion of the work.

Spain in the West Indies.



Ferdinand of Spain.

According to an Ancient Medallion.

Bermuda Islands.

JOHAN BERMUDA, a Spaniard, accidentally discovered the islands that bear his name, while on a voyage across the Atlantic in 1527. No attempt to settle them was made by the Spaniards because of their great distance from other shores and for the unpromising appearance they presented to their discoverer.

In 1612 sixty Englishmen began the first settlement. The climate is not torrid as its position would indicate. The influence of the immense bodies of water which surround it, the sea breezes which constantly sweep over it, so modify the intensity of the heat natural to the locality, that the atmosphere is peculiarly uniform and agreeable. It was at once represented as salubrious as Eden and since then it has been a favorite resort for valetudinarians of every nation.

In its botanical resources this region, probably, has no equal. Rare plants, palms, ferns, creepers, and flowers of dazzling beauty and enchanting perfume grow on every side in the most luxurious profusion; majestic forests of tropical trees cover its valleys and plains.

The Bahamas.

RODERIC TRIANA, at the command of Columbus, climbed the mast of his ship in the early morning of October 12, 1492, and was the first European to see the green shores of the West Indies. Cat island is distinguished as the land first seen. Columbus discarded the native name and religiously called it San Salvador.

In 1509 Ferdinand authorized Ovando to procure laborers for Hispagniola and he went among the Bahamas to procure slaves. Ovando told the natives that he had come from heaven to carry them to the happy shores where their dead friends had gone. In this way he induced about 40,000 to embark with him to Hispagniola where they all perished miserably in the mines.

Though thickly inhabited at that time with peaceful native tribes, not an Indian or house was to be found when a party of Englishmen in 1670 settled on one of the islands which they named Providence. In 1680 the Spaniards sacked this settlement leaving not a single person alive. The islands were again abandoned by the Spanish conquerors. In 1690 another party of English-

men occupied the site of the former settlement. Thirteen years later this colony, which was in a flourishing condition, was captured by a force of Spaniards and French. The colonists were deported and every evidence of their thirteen years' toil destroyed. The conquerors again abandoned the islands and they were taken possession of by a band of pirates who preyed principally upon British commerce. Sixteen years of such depredations and a force was sent either to drive the freebooters away or to offer them pardon, provided they would become useful citizens. Most of them improved the opportunity and the English rule over these islands became firmly established.

Jamaica.

ON June 24, 1503, a violent storm drove Columbus on to the shores of Jamaica, where he lost two of his ships, after which he grounded the rest in a harbor in order to keep them from foundering. The natives gave him the most friendly assistance until their stores were nearly exhausted. Regardless of the moderation of Columbus, the excesses of the Spaniards began to be manifested toward the defenseless natives. Food was seized and ornaments were violently stripped from their bodies.

Formal possession of the island was not made until 1508, when Diego, son of Columbus, having become Governor of Hayti, otherwise known as Hispaniola, sent Esquivel to occupy Jamaica. Esquivel seems to have been a generous and chivalrous man in many ways, but avarice had made of the Spaniards a race of butchers with America as their fields of slaughter. In the beautiful island of Jamaica they never sheathed their swords while there was a native left to tempt their love of human blood. Its 60,000 inhabitants were annihilated in less than fifty years.

About the year 1523 Jamaica was suddenly abandoned by the Spaniards. Many historians claim that the natives drove them away through desperation occasioned by Spanish cruelty. But Spanish historians, either from truth, or not wishing to acknowledge such an outcome, relate that the island was overrun with ants to such an extent that not alone was vegetation totally destroyed but the inhabitants compelled to flee for their lives.

However this may be, the prosperous town of Leville Neuva was never revived and St. Jago de la Vega, afterwards known as Spanish Town, became the seat of government. It was considered sufficiently important for Charles V of Spain to confer on Lewis, grandson of Columbus, the title of Marquis de la Vegas. After the death of Lewis and his two brothers without heirs, and the hereditary rights being turned over to Isabella Columbus, who had married the Portuguese nobleman Count de Gelvez, of the house Braganza, a great many Portuguese merchants settled in St. Jago. Factional quarrels as a result, so enfeebled the colony that in 1596, during the 38th year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Anthony Shirley landed with an insignificant force and looted the settlements. In 1636, St Jago was again captured

and pillaged by the English who then abandoned it. A few months later it was again captured by the English and saved from destruction by a heavy ransom. Nineteen years later, Cromwell sent an expedition against it and it was annexed to the British dominions. Several thousand slaves, liberated from their Spanish masters, went into the almost inaccessible mountains and the Maroons thus had their origin.

Under the English, Jamaica prospered apace without incident, excepting the destructive earthquake of June 7, 1692, the deportation of the Spaniards, and the suppression of the ecclesiastics, until June 17, 1694, when the French landed 800 men at Con Bay with orders to devastate the country. With the ferocity and atrocities common to those blood-stained islands, the invaders obeyed their orders. But the English gathering their forces at last drove away the French army, whose chief booty consisted of a thousand slaves, who were crowded on to the vessels and carried to Hayti.

On August 28, 1712, a West Indian hurricane swept the island like a besom and the same day twenty years later was repeated with equal destruction.

In 1873, the Maroons, in their guerilla depreda-

tions, had grown to be an unbearable menace, and their destruction or enslavement was determined. In the desperate war that followed, the Maroons held their own and the results were so disastrous to both that a treaty was at last proposed by the English and accepted, which gave the Maroons a certain defined territory and a form of independent government satisfactory to all.

In 1760 there was a formidable insurrection of the slaves which the Maroons very probably fostered; although, according to the treaty, they were to support every legal measure of the government.

In 1795 the Maroons rose in rebellion against the use of the whipping post as practiced on some of their offenders against the English law. Several attempts on both sides were made for peace and then another war of extermination began. In order to discover the Maroons in the ambush, which was their favorite mode of warfare, a hundred Cuban bloodhounds were imported. Thereafter, the English gradually closed in on them, and, in short time, different bands took advantage of proclamations of amnesty until only about six hundred remained defiant. They were captured and sent to Halifax, Nova Scotia, where lands were bought for them and they were left in peace as a free people.

In 1832, under the belief that slavery had been legally abolished, there was an insurrection of the negroes which cost many hundreds of lives and much property before it was suppressed. Another outbreak occurred in 1865, which caused the annulment of the constitution under which Jamaica had been ruled for more than two centuries. Since that time continuous prosperity has resulted.

The island has an area 4193 square miles, and in April, 1891, there was a population of 629,491. Sugar, rum, coffee and fruits are the principal exports. Kingston is the capital, with a population of 46,542.

Hayti.

COLUMBUS gave the name Hispaniola to the island which the natives called Hayti. He made a landing December 6, 1492, and was received in a very friendly manner by the natives. When one of his ships went to pieces here they used their utmost exertions to save his stores and not an article was appropriated by them.

Columbus learned that the Haytians were in great terror from the depredations of the neighboring Charaibeas and he proposed an alliance in which the Spaniards were to be protectors and the Haytians subjects of the king of Spain. This being agreed to, a fort was built and thirty-eight Spaniards left to govern the island. At his departure, all restraint being removed, the Spanish nature prevailed and plunder became the whole object of their energy. Goaded to desperation, the natives attacked the Spaniards, and when, in the November following, Columbus returned, not one of the soldiers he had left remained alive. The fort, houses, and every trace of the Spaniards were destroyed.

Believing that the Haytians had been justified,

Columbus made no attempt to punish them but proceeded to equip another settlement which he called Isabella in honor of his patroness. This he left in charge of his brother, Diego, with a body of soldiers sufficient for their protection. Another brother, Bartholomew, who had been unsuccessfully seeking aid for Columbus in England, soon arrived at the colony bringing some much needed supplies. In five months Columbus returned and met his brother whom he had not seen for fourteen years. Columbus again left the colony, and when he returned two years later, found that his brother Diego had removed the town in 1498 to a more favorable site, naming the new settlement St. Domingo in honor of their father.

In 1508 the son of Columbus, named Diego, having inherited his father's right and titles, and being married to a lady of wealth, came to St. Domingo and the colony became one of the most prosperous in the West Indies.

Father Las Casas, the crown protector of the Indians, in his investigations at that time laid before Cardinal Ximenes, estimates that at the discovery of Hispaniola, there were a million natives on the island; on the arrival of Diego, son of Columbus, there were sixty thousand yet alive; and in 1517, when Roderigo Albuquerque became

the commissioner for their disposal there were but fourteen thousand. These were divided into lots and auctioned to the highest bidder.

The Dominican order under the leadership of Father Las Casas waged unceasing conflict against the enslavement and extermination of the Indians in the western hemisphere. At last a decree was secured declaring the Indians free citizens with all the legal rights of Spaniards, but the exterminating process in the cause of avarice continued, the colonists everywhere avoiding the law or ignoring it altogether. Ferdinand of Spain, the head of the vast Spanish body of avarice, was too covetous of the royal fifth that came from the mines and the sale of slaves, to enforce the law. Most of the Dominicans returned to Spain. They could not preach Christianity to a people whose mothers, for slight offenses, were tied to trees and their helpless babes deposited at their feet and both left under the burning sun to thirst to death. But, to the immortal memory of Bartholomew de las Casas, he worked heroically and incessantly through all the colonies of the western world to stem the torrent of Spanish savagery against the natives. But to reduce the death rate of the West India natives, through unnatural slavery, he introduced an evil scarcely

less appalling by importing African negroes, whose slavery he believed to be natural. It was reserved for them to be at last the liberators of the island from Spanish rule.

Diego Columbus died in January, 1526, leaving a son, Lewis, six years old, as hereditary viceroy and high admiral of the West Indies. When Léwis became of age he was compelled to exchange his title and rights for the Island of Jamaica and the Central American province Veragua. His titles were Marquis de la Vega and Duke de Veragua. When Lewis and his younger brothers died without children, his eldest sister Isabella, who was married to Count de Gelvez of the Portuguese house of Braganza, inherited the family rights and titles. When the house of Briganza came to the throne of Portugal in 1640, Spain declared forfeit to the rights of the heirs of Columbus.

In January, 1586, Sir Francis Drake captured Hayti and by a heavy ransom was induced to sail away. It then became a prey to pirates and for many years made no progress as a colony.

Previous to the treaty of 1630, the Spaniards claimed the sole and exclusive right to the American seas and denied the right to any other country to make settlements anywhere in the western

hemisphere. In 1829 a fleet was given to Don Frederic de Toledo with the command to enforce these claims.

At St. Christopher's island, which had been settled by the English and French, he seized 600 able-bodied Englishmen and condemned them to slavery in Spanish mines for life. The French and some of the Englishmen escaped to the island of Tortugal where they were joined by some Dutch escaping from the Spaniards at Santa Cruz. This island became the refuge of all the subjects of Spanish persecution in the new world, and from such a heterogenous colonization on the almost impregnable shores of the Tortugal arose the buccaneers.

Willis, an Englishman, was made their chief; and, through his influence and daring success, the sovereignty of Tortugal and the main land of Hayti could have remained with the English, if he had been more fairly disposed toward the French. His discriminations against the French settlers brought the French government to their aid.

De Toiney, Governor-General of the French Windward islands, determined to relieve them of English oppression. He sailed with forty men from St. Christophers. Off St. Domingo he was

joined by forty others. Landing at Tortugal and uniting with the French there, he ordered the surrender of the English. Willis, whose piratical exploits had been the wonder of Europe, believing that an overwhelming force had arrived, surrendered and promised to take all the English to Jamaica. Both the French and the English then joined in opposition to the Spaniards and in 1659 became so strong that they were left in unmolested possession. At the treaty of Ryswick in 1695, the joint occupancy was acknowledged between Spain and France, and the island was divided between them, the French having a narrow part of the west end of the island. In 1776 lines were drawn definitely indicating the boundaries.

The Spanish part of the island, being very mountainous, was given up almost entirely to cattle raising, but the French colony became a flourishing agriculture and commercial community. Slavery being profitable, vast numbers of negroes had from the beginning been brought into the colony, until free negroes and slaves together made up a large preponderance of the population, but every man of colored blood was in effect either slave to a master or to the government. They were not allowed to keep a school or

even to retain the surname of their parents. They could never get a decision in the court, and, as an example of the severity of the law, if a man of negro blood ever struck a white man, the legal penalty was that the right arm of the negro should be cut off.

The French revolution of 1789 furnished the opportunity for an attempt at redress, and a wealthy mulatto coffee planter named Obge, who had been educated in Paris, raised an insurrection in the hope of righting the negroes' wrongs. But his attempt was suppressed, twenty of his followers were hanged, but Obge and his lieutenant, Chavane, were condemned to the horrible torture of being broken alive and left to die on the wheel. Their death produced a profound sensation in France, and popular clamor drove the national assembly to pass a decree May 15, 1791, guaranteeing full political and legal rights to all free negroes.

The French planters in Hayti were enraged. Their colonial assembly determined to respect the decree and their destructive cruelties were so increased by the slave owners on both free negroes and slaves that the free negroes fled from their homes and armed themselves, while the slaves were driven to a most frenzied revenge.

On a plantation called Noe, in the parish Acul, about nine miles from Cape Francois, the slaves of a merciless master assembled in the night of August 22, 1791, murdered every white person on the plantation, and then went from place to place repeating the ghastly tragedy, their forces being augmented at every fresh scene of blood by the slaves thus liberated.

The inhabitants flew to arms and the towns were at once fortified. Troops were sent against the mob of slaves but everywhere met defeat. In two months two thousand white people had been massacred and the most horrible abominations everywhere committed. More than a thousand of the principal plantations had been utterly destroyed. Most of the prisoners taken by the French were broken on the wheel and no quarter was anywhere shown.

In this state the French entered into an agreement with the mulattoes to put the decree granting their political liberties into effect in return for their support against the savage warfare of the slaves. Meanwhile, such influences were at work to have the decree abrogated, that this was done about the time when the mulattoes were fully persuaded to give their weight to the suppression of the rebellion.

With the abrogation of the decree the last hope of the mulattoes were gone and the free mulattoes joined the slaves in a ferocious war of extermination. Unspeakable barbarities and atrocities were practiced on both sides to the full extent of the opportunities. Four thousand soldiers came over from France but they only postponed the fall of the cities.

Jean Francois, one of the negro leaders, caused the planting of such grain and vegetables as insured plenty of provisions, and thus wisely provided for a prolongation of the war which ultimately made possible the Black Republic.

Meantime a factional war broke out among the colonists, so bitter that one faction offered the negroes an opportunity to sack Cape Francois, which was done, and the inhabitants indiscriminately butchered. In this wretched state of affairs the other faction, despairing of help from France, appealed to the English at Jamaica, and the British flag was hoisted over the port of Jeremie by Captain Whitlocke, September 9, 1793. Commodore Ford took possession of Cape St. Nicholas on the 22d. For nearly a year, the faction fighting the English, maintained the warfare, losing one stronghold after another. But the mulattoes under Rigaud and the slaves under

Touissant L'Ouverture had collected their respective forces in the mountains, organized them perfectly, and prepared for the ultimate triumph of their cause against both French and English.

In 1795 Spain ceded all Spanish rights in the island to France. The next move by France against the English was the appointment of Toussaint L'Ouverture as general in chief of all the armies of St. Domingo and Hayti with a virtual dictatorship over the whole island. That able and patriotic negro general had disciplined his raw and ignorant troops till they moved with the precision and courage of European veterans.

The affairs of the British had now become so desperate that it was decided to abandon the island. The French who had joined with the English were thus to be left without protection from either the negroes or the bitter animosity of their own people. However, General Toussaint L'Ouverture was as merciful as he was courageous, and he protected their persons and property from molestation.

July 1, 1801, Touissant published a declaration of independence. A satisfactory government was in operation when Napoleon, having come to power in France, put his brother-in-law, General Le Clerc, at the head of an expedition to

reduce the island and subjugate the blacks. Two sons of Touissant, who were being educated in France, were sent with the squadron as hostages to compel the father to accept the sovereignty of the first consul.

Near the close of the year 20,000 soldiers were landed on the eastern side of the island. Touissant's two sons had been flattered and caressed by the French till they believed them to be the noblest people in the world. Their teacher, a priest, was sent with them to the home of their mother with all the blandishments that could be contrived. The mother sent word to Touissant to come home and visit his children. He found his family wholly devoted to the priest and in favor of the dominion of France. Coisnon, the tutor priest, presented a personal letter from Napoleon, promising perfect equality before the law of white and black. But neither the wily blandishments of the priest nor the importunities of children and wife had any effect on his patriotism, though it almost prostrated him with grief.

"Take back my children, if it must be so," was the indignant answer, "I will be faithful to my brethren and my God."

Then the war of extermination between Touissant L'Ouverture for his country and his people

against Napoleon and his ambitions began. Bribery, intrigue, the influence of the clergy, were used for all they could accomplish. The negroes were made to believe that they were to be specially favored by the great French nation, and that it was impossible to resist the armies that would be sent against them.

Desertions to the enemy weakened the patriot armies more than all other ways combined. Le Clerc offered oblivion for all the past, equality before the law, that Touissant and his officers should retain their rank, and that they should retire unmolested to their homes to pursue their ways in peace. Hostilities ceased May 1, 1802, and the negroes laid down their arms in the belief that the newly organized French nation was their friend.

Le Clerc was in full possession. Touissant retired to his home in the belief that the rest and peace promised him for life was his.

In a few days the base depravity of the French commander began to be revealed. He ordered the cultivators, as the former slaves were called, to return to their former master's fields. They appealed pathetically to Touissant, and he wrote a letter of respectful inquiry to a friend. The letter was forwarded to Le Clerc in Tortuga,

and three nights later, while Touissant was peacefully asleep with his family, his house was surrounded, the door broken in, and he was taken prisoner. This was within a month after he had retired to his home with the most friendly assurances from Le Clerc. For himself Touissant L'Ouverture cared nothing, but he begged that his invalid wife and helpless children be left in peace at home. But before their neighbors could learn of the outrage the whole family was being borne away on the French war ship. In like manner at least a hundred of his confidential friends were apprehended. Most of them were shot. Touissant was kept in solitary confinement in the dungeon of Besancon, department of Doubs, France. The world did not hear of him until the announcement of his death. His family was returned to Hayti, stripped of their fortunes and doomed to the existence common to impoverished negroes.

After the seizure of Touissant great numbers of negroes fled to the fastnesses of the interior mountains and maintained a savage independence that was a constant source of fear and injury to the French. As if to avenge the wrongs of the people, disease fastened upon the French soldiers, and seemed destined to annihilate them. To add

to their discomfiture a guerilla chieftain, named Sans Souci, arose among the blacks in the mountains, and did incalculable damage to the French. An attempt was made to exterminate the blacks. Every device was used to get them into places where they could be slaughtered like sheep. So many were killed that putrefaction filled the air and contagion spread its dreadful devastations. The tide covered the beach with the bodies of negroes, who had been crowded into the holds of ships and suffocated with sulphur or tied in bunches and thrown overboard. At last the monster, who had outraged human nature and shocked civilization with his butcheries, met death from the avenging fever. Madame Le Clerc, the sister of Napoleon, broken down with grief that must ultimately come to such ambition, took the body of her husband back to France.

Rochambeau took Le Clerc's place and was a fitting successor. He received reinforcements in 1803 to the extent of 4,000 tried soldiers from France; but, Dessalines, who had been a valiant chieftain under Touissant L' Ouverture, had become general-in-chief of the negroes, and under him an army was being organized and operated as effectively as ever before.

Rochambeau never kept prisoners longer than

he could find time to devise the manner of their death.

The great Touissant never retaliated but Dessalines met the French with their own horrors. Although negro prisoners were usually tortured to death, Dessalines contented himself with hanging his captives on prominences in view of the French garrisons.

War was now renewed between England and France, making still greater the perils of the soldiers in Hayti.

In July, 1803, an English squadron under Commodore Loring appeared off Cape Francois, not knowing the straits of the French army.

Rochambeau and Dessalines both opened communications with Commodore Loring, who had on his arrival blockaded the ports. The negroes proposed an alliance, the French offered an armistice looking to friendly negotiations. Meanwhile the French busily strengthened their defenses and the negroes so vigorously pressed their siege that Rochambeau's situation became hopeless. With characteristic duplicity, he proposed terms of surrender at the same time to both Dessalines and Loring, attempting, meanwhile, to escape on one of his ships. Unconditional surrender was the only proposition acceptable to

either; and, just as the negroes were about to carry the last defense Rochambeau surrendered to the English. Satisfied with the booty and the 8,000 soldiers thus acquired as prisoners of war, the English left Hayti and St. Domingo to Dessalines. He at once visited all parts of the island and put it under a thoroughly organized government. Everywhere the people received him with wild demonstrations of joy. A movement to make him emperor was taken up and in a little while became overwhelming. October 8, 1804, after all due ceremonies, the general was crowned and ascended the throne as Jean Jaques Dessalines, first emperor of Hayti.

Dessalines no sooner felt indisputable imperial power than he became tyrannical to such a degree that he was assassinated in 1806 by one of his own people. The two most powerful negro chiefs, Christophe and Petion, in striving for the vacant throne, precipitated a civil war. Christophe possessed the north and Petion the south.

The Spaniards availed themselves of the opportunity and established themselves in the east. Christophe, in 1810, obtaining the mastery was declared king of Hayti as Henry I., but insurrection ensued and he committed suicide in 1820.

Petion had died in 1818 and was succeeded by

General Boyer, who also succeeded Christophe in 1820. The next year the Spanish part of the island declared its independence of Spain and in 1822 it was subjugated by Boyer. He instituted the republic of Hayti, comprising the entire island. In 1843 he was driven out of the island by a revolution. The next year the Spanish part resumed its independence under the name of Dominican Republic. In 1861 the Spanish government attempted to reconquer Santa Domingo but failed.

Hayti had a series of presidential revolutions until 1846, when Soulouque, who had been a slave, became president. He tried to subjugate Santa Domingo but did not succeed. In 1848 he became emperor of Hayti as Faustin I. In 1858 a republic was reestablished. A revolution was almost continually in progress in one form or another until 1880, when it became tranquil for three years. Insurrections again became chronic. General Telemaque led an attack on the Palais National at Port-au-Prince in October, 1888, and was killed with three hundred of his men. October 22 General Legitime was elected to the presidency but on January 1, 1889, General Hippolyte was installed. Victories and defeats for both followed, but Hippolyte was successful and his administration was very creditable. At

his death, March 25, 1896, General Simon Sam became president, since which time it has enjoyed prosperity and peace.

The religion is nominally Roman Catholic and the educational system is very incomplete.

The island of San Domingo contains 29,830 square miles. The Republic of Hayti has 9,242 square miles and a population of 1,210,600. The capital, Port-au-Prince, has 60,000 population.

The Dominican Republic has a population of 500,000. Its capital is San Domingo, with a population of 18,000.

The chief produce of the island in order is tobacco, coffee, sugar, cocoa, mahogany, log-wood and cotton. The soil is fertile and the climate mild.

Puerto Rico.

COLUMBUS discovered Puerto Rico in 1493, and Ponce de Leon occupied it with soldiers in 1511, laying then the foundation of its present fortifications. It is the most fertile of the West Indies and is tillable almost to the mountain tops. Rectangular in form it averages about one hundred miles in length and nearly fifty miles in breadth, having an area 3,600 square miles. It is only sixty miles from St. Thomas, which the Danish government tried so long to sell to the United States.

The merchants and agricultural class are of Spanish descent but the governing class are of persons almost invariably born in Spain. Nearly one half of the 700,000 population is colored, and 600,000 can neither read nor write.

The city of Ponce, three miles from the sea, has about 38,000 inhabitants. It has a vast export trade, sugar being the principal product. San Juan is next in size with about 25,000 inhabitants.

Two small islands, Culebra and Vieque, adjoin the coast. They are tenanted mainly by fisher-

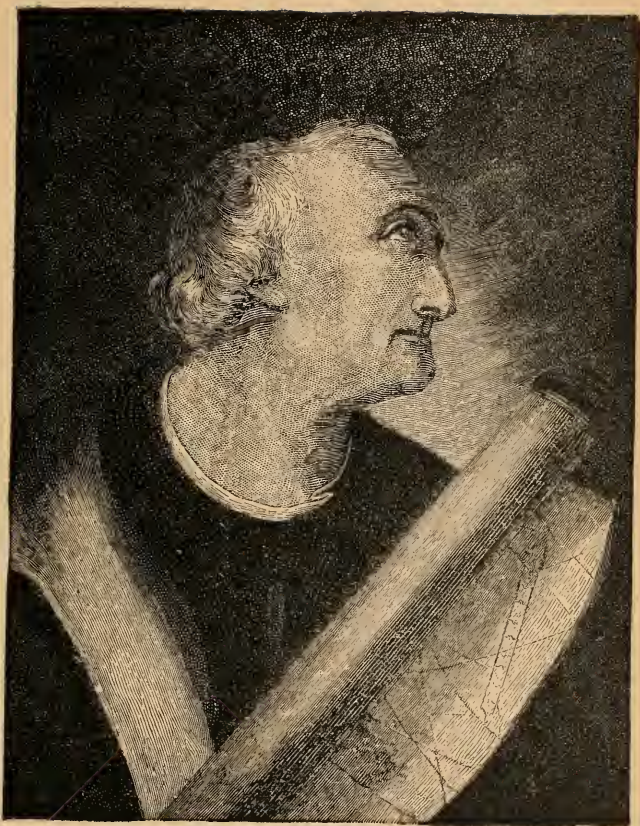
men. However, the soil is rich and the forests are composed of rare dye and cabinet woods.

San Juan is a thousand miles from Havana due southeast. Towns, fortifications and customs are primitive Spanish.

The harbor opens toward the north, and is the most commodious in the West Indies. The buildings are of stone, and the people are fond of idleness and amusement. The Morro, is a castle made as in the middle ages, many buildings about it being two centuries old. The people, as in other Spanish tropical countries, are indolent and fond of low amusements. The local conditions, as about nearly all other Spanish cities, are filthy and laden with the germs of fever and disease.

The dry months in this locality are from October to May. Thirteen hours is the length of the longest day. The mean annual heat is about seventy-five degrees and the daily average is not more than ten degrees. During the coldest month the average is not below seventy degrees and in summer the hottest month not above eighty degrees. The daily alternation of land and sea breezes is delightful, the land breezes beginning about nine in the morning, the sea breezes beginning about dark and continuing till after sunrise.

The highest mountain is the Luguillo which



Vespucius.

This is a copy of the best portrait known of Amerigo Vespucci. It is claimed to have been painted from life by Bronzino.

has an altitude of 4,000 feet, succulent grasses grow almost to the top, and fertile soil covers the sloping sides down to the sea. In the valleys wealthy planters have coffee and sugar estates with large fields of bananas, plantains, cocoas, and all kinds of tropical fruits. All its scenery is poetical and romantic. The matchless climate and soil produce everything in rare abundance and with the least cultivation or attention.

It is an earthly paradise rendered inert by bigotry and oppression. The people are wonderfully ignorant from lack of the opportunity to learn and there has never been any effort made to improve society or to better the political conditions of the people. The inhabitants can not revolt since there is no hiding place, as in Cuba, from the alien soldiery that presses their burdens upon them.

Only one attempt was made in Puerto Rico to throw off Spanish authority, and that was a feeble insurrection begun in 1820. It was so quickly and thoroughly crushed, by the execution of all prominent in the uprising, that no thought of resistance to Spanish rule has since been entertained.

Poverty, ignorance and the limit of oppression, are the common inheritance of all the native born

inhabitants, except a favored and prosperous few whose political influence has been considered too valuable to lose.

Only once in five centuries has Puerto Rico been out of the possession of Spain. June 6, 1598, the Earl of Cumberland, England, landed a thousand men and captured the island; but, because of a deadly fever carrying away at least 600 of his men, he was compelled to abandon his prize, September 16 of the same year.

Its products are sugar, tobacco, coffee, cotton, fruits, spices, cattle and sheep, of which \$15,000,000 worth are exported annually. Birds of fine plumage, such as the mocking bird, the ruby topaz, the emerald-crested humming bird, the crimson maize bird, and hundreds of other varieties of land and water birds are found in extravagant numbers. Wild animals are rarely found, and only of the smaller species.

Cuba.

“PEARL of the Antilles,” so named by the Spanish poets, has been given the title of “Pearl in the Mire” by Cuban orators and authors.

October 28, 1492, sixteen days after Columbus first sighted land in the New World, he landed on the coast of Cuba. The first thing to attract the attention of the Spaniards was the gold ornaments worn by the natives. To the eager inquiries as to where they found the gold, the natives continually replied Cuba-na-can.

Columbus named the country Juana in honor of Prince Juan, son of Ferdinand and Isabella. Diego Velasquez, the first governor, named it Fernandina, in honor of King Ferdinand; later it was called St. Iago or Santiago in honor of St. James, the patron saint of Spain; then the name Ave Maria, in honor of the Virgin Mary, came into use. In the midst of this confusion the native word Cubanacan, supposed to mean “place of Cuba,” indicating where gold could be found, was remembered and the use of Cuba to designate the island became permanent.

Until 1508 it was supposed to be a part of the mainland of Asia, when Sebastian passed around it, demonstrating to the disgust of the governor that it was an island.

In 1511, Diego, son of Columbus, sent Velasquez with 300 men to colonize it. They settled at Baracoa after capturing and burning Hatuey, the Cuban chief who opposed them, and three years later planted a community at Santiago and at Trinidad. At the present site of Batabano they founded San Cristobal de la Habana in 1515, but four years later they moved the town to a better point on the northern side of the island.

In 1538 a French privateer burned the town and Hernando de Soto, who had helped Pizarro to plunder Peru, was commissioned governor of Florida and Cuba by Emperor Charles V, with the view to placing those territories in a state of adequate military defense. De Soto's lieutenants were erecting the first fortress at Habana while the governor was searching for gold fields and finding a grave in the Mississippi.

In 1585 Havana was greatly menaced by the English freebooter Drake, and was several times damaged by attacks from pirates. Two fortresses were completed in 1597, the Pateria de la Punto and the Castle of Morro.

Following the cruel and fanatical religious policy of expelling the Jews from Spain in 1492, came the more cruel and fanatical expulsion of the Moriscoes by Philip III in 1609. Sugar and tobacco culture was thus destroyed in Spain, and consequently transferred to the shores of Cuba. The terrible reverses of Spain in the seventeenth century left her West Indian possessions almost wholly without protection from the mother country. The power of Spain on the sea was destroyed with her armada in 1588 by the English. The Dutch captured the Spanish treasure fleet, with \$3,000,000 in 1628, while the second and last great Spanish armada was destroyed shortly after in the downs. Then the illogical and unmitigated oppression of the Spanish colonies began. It was decreed illegal for the Spanish colonies to buy or sell with any country but Spain, and that monopoly was sold to the port of Seville. Smuggling began, and the wild cattle of St. Domingo (Hispaniola) were the first articles of contraband trade. The islanders killed these animals, placed the flesh in houses and smoked it until thoroughly preserved for shipment. These smoke-houses were called buccans, and the smugglers of meat became known as buccaneers. Their numbers increased, and their soon arose a powerful body of

island freebooters, who defied the Spanish power and preyed on the commerce of Spain until its ships were almost driven from the western seas. Their navy assisted the French to secure Fortuga in 1660 and the English to occupy Jamaica in 1665. They sacked New Legovia, in Honduras, in 1654, plundered the coasts of Venezuela and Mexico, and threatened the existence of Spain in the West Indies. The English, French and Spanish buccaneers had so far acted together, but when war broke out between France and England in 1689 the English and French buccaneers quarreled, and, their forces being divided, lost both prestige and power. The treaty of Ryswick in 1697 condemned them all as pirates and their extermination began but was not completed for nearly a century and a half. Meanwhile the Spanish government had found its tobacco monopoly so difficult to maintain because of the smuggling buccaneers, that it farmed out the monopoly to a number of individuals or private monopolists, who had power to collect all the revenue from that source which could be got.

The growth of British commerce between the Spanish and French possessions in the new world excited the apprehension of both nations, as they decided to unite to put an end to British expan-

sion. This third "Family Compact" between the two reigning houses of Bourbon in France and Spain caused a war to begin in 1762. June 3rd of that year, the British began a siege of Havana with 44 war vessels and 150 transports, carrying 15,000 men. Morro Castle surrendered after hard fighting on July 30, and the city two weeks later. \$3,500,000 in prize money was divided among the soldiers. The following February by the treaty of Paris, Spain gave Florida to England in exchange for Cuba.

When the American colonies rebelled against England, the two Bourbon monarchies took advantage of the opportunity to recover lost territory in the Western Hemisphere. France assisted the colonists, Spain attacked Gibraltar, recaptured Minorca, drove the English from a number of small islands, and compelled the treaty of Versailles which restored Florida. After the formation of the American republic, Havana became the centre of the slave trade, and through this traffic at the beginning of the 19th century, was the wealthiest city in America. But at this time Spain had become as putty in the hands of Napoleon. By treaty he took Louisiana; and, upon the determination of the United States that the Mississippi should be free, and that New Orleans

must be ceded to the American government as a guarantee, Napoleon decided to sell the whole territory to the United States for \$15,000,000.

The success of the black revolutionists in San Domingo caused frequent bloody uprisings of blacks in Cuba, but they were suppressed and that island became the refuge of Spaniards and French who fled from San Domingo, Louisiana and other revolutionary territories about the gulf of Mexico.

In 1809, when the Spanish peninsula was struggling under the civil war occasioned by the usurpation of Joseph Napoleon, the standard of rebellion was raised in Buenos Ayres, carried along the Andes through Chili and Peru the same year, taken up by Bolivar in Venezuela in 1810, and in twelve years every continental colony in America, from Terre del Fuego to the Missouri river, was lost to Spain. Rich refugees, loyal to Spain, poured into Cuba from all these territories, and made a preponderance of influence to the abolition of the Bourbon monarchy.

Spanish leaders on the continent, who had endeavored to abolish slavery and the slave trade in the colonies, made a vigorous effort to pass a law to that effect in Cuba, but the Cuban leaders defeated it and the result was the first considerable

insurrection against Spanish rule. It was led by Jose Aponto but was suppressed with relentless execution of all those prominent in the rebellion.

Meantime England had become the ally of Spain against the French, and Wellington, afterwards the conqueror of Napoleon, had maintained the independence of Portugal with an English army at Lisbon. In the war of 1812, against the United States, England took advantage of the alliance with Spain to use the ports of Pensacola and Mobile as harbors for British operations in the southern campaign that ended with the defeat of Pakenham at New Orleans by Jackson in 1815. Tecumseh was sent into Florida by the British to stir up the southern Indians, and at Pensacola they were supplied with arms and ammunition. As a result General Wilkinson captured Mobile in April, 1813, and threatened the remaining Spanish possessions. Peace was declared in 1815, but Spain was compelled to sell Florida to the United States. The influence of England in Spain and Portugal, after the defeat of Napoleon, caused the abolition of slavery in their possessions and added a further incentive to agitation in the southern states for the acquisition of Cuba.

In September, 1815, after the battle of Waterloo, the representatives of Russia, Austria and Prussia met at Paris and entered into a solemn compact to unite for the preservation of existing dynasties and the enforcement of state religions. Their first act was to meet at Verona in October, 1822, and determine upon the restoration of absolutism to Ferdinand VII of Spain. A French army was sent in April, 1823, which accomplished this object by the overthrow of the Spanish liberal or constitutional party. Russia, Austria, Prussia, France and Spain now constituted the Holy Alliance and it was determined to make Cuba a vast arsenal and rendezvous for the armies and navies of Europe, from which overwhelming forces should be sent out for the subjugation of the lost colonies of Spanish America. These were to be parcelled out among the powers.

England, as well as the United States, became alarmed at the prospect of an united continental Europe of aggression and expansion. President Monroe formulated his famous message to Congress in December, 1823, and England recognized the independence of all the Latin-American republics in 1824. The Holy Alliance at once ceased its movements and the Monroe Doctrine

became a fundamental principle in American politics.

The Spanish soldiers in Cuba, that had been mobilized there for the subjugation of the American colonies, were needed there to suppress the frequent insurrections of the Cubans. In alarm at the menace of the Holy Alliance a conference of American republics was called to meet in Panama in 1826, with reference to a union of interests against European aggression. John Quincy Adams, in his first message, December, 1825, informed Congress that the invitation was accepted. But all the Spanish-American republics had abolished slavery, and the slaveholding interests in the United States opposed everything that contained any possibilities of a menace to an institution which they held above all other considerations. Colombia and Mexico had planned to liberate Cuba, under the leadership of the Spanish-American hero, General Simon Bolivar; but owing to the attitude of the United States the plan was abandoned, and both Cuba and Puerto Rico were left to the undisputed possession of Spain.

During this time, in order to hold secure the remaining possessions of Spain, the captain-general was made absolute dictator, and hence-

forth the territories were the unlimited feeding ground of the Spanish possessions. In all its turbulent trials the government of Spain had learned nothing. Ruthless proscription for all who opposed the unrestricted will of the petty politicians and officers was the unvarying rule. Political prisoners, when not executed by orders of the court, were most frequently shot "while attempting to escape." So the report read.

In June, 1834, General Miguel Tacón, who had been driven out of South America during the patriot wars, became captain-general, and during his unmitigated tyranny was inaugurated "the period of conspiracies." Spain and its allies interested in the West Indies had lost so much from the influx of negroes and their insurrections for freedom that many attempts had been made to abolish slavery, but the slaveholders defeated all such measures. To preserve slavery in the contiguous territories and to extend the sovereignty of the slaveholding power of the southern United States, Texas and Cuba both became objects of unlimited interest to that class of politicians and their constituents. Their assistance brought about the independence and annexation of Texas, and their political agitation reached its limit in what is known as the Ostend manifesto.

Meanwhile, Cubans, having freedom from Spanish rule as their paramount object, and slaveholders, having the extension of United States slave territory as their chief aim, united in numerous filibustering expeditions, which several times brought Spain and the United States to the verge of war. Cuba was surrounded by the territory of twelve nations. The others were prosperous and happy; the Cubans, with the richest resources, were like a race of slaves. The sympathy of their powerful neighbors inevitably meant freedom. In 1848 President Polk removed Cuba from the sphere of foreign complications by declaring that the United States would never consent to the occupation of the island by any other power.

During the preceding administration a society had been formed in the United States which had for its avowed object "the acquisition of the island of Cuba as part of the territory of the United States." The proposition rapidly gained favor among the pro-slavery interests of the United States, and was correspondingly in disfavor among those opposed to slavery.

In May, 1847, Narcisso Lopez, who had been planning an insurrection in the central part of Cuba, was pursued to the United States by a Span-

ish force. In 1849 Lopez organized a strong company of filibusters, intent on delivering Cuba from Spanish rule and causing its annexation to the United States. The United States government prevented the expedition from leaving this country. But the next year, May 19, Lopez landed six hundred well-equipped men at Cardenas.

The United States government had promptly informed the captain general in Cuba of the intended raid, and the Spaniards were on the alert to receive the invaders. Meanwhile a prohibitory proclamation had been issued by President Taylor, warning all citizens of the United States against the expedition, and ordering them to take no part in it and to give it no assistance whatever.

The Spaniards soon drove the expedition out to sea. It sailed for Key West and was there disbanded. Frequent uprisings occurred from time to time over the island, but the unhappy and oppressed natives lacked concerted action or leadership and they were mercilessly beaten down.

Lopez continued as the active agent of the Lone Star League, and in August of 1851 escaped from New Orleans with four hundred and fifty men. Colonel Crittenden, of Kentucky, was his lieutenant. The United States again sent immediate word to the Spanish government in Cuba, and the

force was met thirty miles west of Havana at their landing place, Bahia Honda. One hundred and fifty men under Colonel Crittenden were captured and imprisoned. Lopez, with fifty of his followers, were taken to Havana and executed.

News of the revolt among the natives stimulated further action in the United States, and in 1853 General Quitman, of Mississippi, organized a company and chartered vessels for an expedition, but the government suppressed it. Many other minor efforts were made, but they lacked cohesion and leadership.

It is impossible for any just complaint to be made against the United States government because of its attempts to free Cuba from the government of Spain, or because of the assistance given by the American people to the natives in their struggles against Spanish oppression. In the face of a universal popular sympathy, everything has been done by the government to suppress the manifestation of any interest in the distress of the Cuban people. The complacency of the Republic seemed to invite Spanish aggression as shown in their treatment of American citizens in Cuba, and their insulting search of American vessels in their harbors.

An instance that created a furor of indignation

in the United States was the detention and search of the American steamer *Black Warrior* in the harbor of Havana, with scarcely a shadow of pretext or excuse.

At the same time certain regulations for the manumission of slaves were decreed in Cuba, and the agitation was increased throughout the Southern states, for the acquisition of Cuba, on the political grounds that it was a menace to the institution of slavery.

The pro-slavery party being in power, its representatives abroad, Mr. Buchanan, United States Minister to Great Britain, Mr. Mason, United States Minister to France, and Mr. Soule, United States Minister to Spain, met at Ostend and issued a declaration that the possession of Cuba by a foreign power was a menace to the peace and welfare of the United States. It was proposed to issue an ultimatum to Spain, offering to purchase the island for \$200,000,000 or to take it by force of arms.

Spanish procrastination and diplomacy succeeded over all the reasons brought forth. The owners of the *Black Warrior* were permitted to take their cargo from Havana, by dropping their claim of \$300,000 indemnity and paying a fine of \$3,000 for violation of port regulations. The ob-

noxious decrees of manumission were abrogated and a new captain-general favorable to slavery was appointed.

President Pierce now entered the list of proclamation makers. On the 31st of May, 1854, he told the citizens of the United States just what they should do in order to keep well within their duties toward Spain. They must refrain from giving any encouragement or aid whatever to Cuban insurrection. But, meanwhile, Cuban youths were learning in Northern schools the meaning of freedom, and the knowledge of Spanish atrocities in the unhappy island could not be suppressed.

The Spanish captain-general, Jose de la Concha, inaugurated a special reign of terror for those who were suspected to be unfriendly to the unlimited oppressions of Spain. The contentions that culminated in the civil war now arose and Cuba, with its sorrows, was lost sight of till after the period of reconstruction. Although the South had been the persistent enemy of Spain, yet so anxious was the Spanish government to see the disruption of American institutions, that it recognized the belligerency of the Southern states more than a month before the first battle of the war.

Under cover of the American civil war, Maximilian of Austria endeavored to establish a monarchy in Mexico, under the immediate assistance of Napoleon III. of France, and with the general support of Spain and England. But with the accumulating evidence that the American Union was not to be dissolved, the European powers saw the wisdom of ceasing their efforts to resubjugate America or to establish independent monarchies in the western hemisphere. Maximilian was abandoned, and in 1867 was captured and shot by the Mexicans.

With an obstinacy and stupidity unexcelled in history, Spain tightened the screws of her exactions in Cuba, and learned nothing from the continued sympathy and rising power of the United States.

The increasing burden of inexcusable taxation placed on the prosperity of native Cubans had brought a more intelligent opposition to the front against the government of Spain. A petition was made for an autonomist form of government, thus to abolish the autocratic power of the captain-general, establish the right of petition, the freedom of the press, representation in the Cortes, and to guarantee local self-government. The reply came in the form of a rise of ten per

cent. on the direct taxation, to take effect in June, 1868, under Captain-General Lersundi.

There were numerous revolts and insurrections, ending in bloody retribution, until the fall of 1868, when the plan for a general uprising was discovered and the war prematurely begun. A force of less than 26,000 poorly equipped Cubans held at bay for ten years the Spanish forces of 110,000 men. Filibustering expeditions in favor of the Cubans began again, and there appeared to be a very friendly rivalry between the Spanish and American governments as to which could capture the most of them.

In Havana there came into existence a band of volunteers who had been fattening from special privileges in dealing with the Cubans. They were in favor of swift repressions since the insurrection interfered with their gains in proportion to its spread. They took possession of the city and put it under a form of mob rule. In May, 1870, they marched to the Villaneuva theatre and poured several volleys into the crowd entering, justifying themselves by saying that they suspected the performance to be for the benefit of the insurgent cause. The captain-general protested against their unauthorized course and they shipped him back to Spain as being too mild for

the proper prosecution of the war against those they termed the Cuban brigands and outlaws.

While on a street parade, they came to a cafe, which some one said was owned by an insurgent sympathizer. They at once broke ranks, rushed into the cafe, looted the room, and killed many of the visitors. In November, 1871, the glass plate on the cemetery vault of one of the volunteers killed in the war, was found to be scratched. At the dictation of the volunteers, forty-three students in the University of Havana were arrested and tried before the civil court. A Spanish officer so thoroughly vindicated them of the charge that they were released. But the volunteers immediately demanded a retrial before a court martial, composed of nine volunteer and seven regular army officers. As a result four were acquitted, thirty-one sentenced to an indefinite imprisonment in the deadly dungeons of Morro, and eight condemned to be shot. The next day 1,500 volunteers assembled in regular order to see the sentence duly executed. Guerrilla warfare continued with unvarying success for the insurgents, especially those under Calixto Garcia and Maximo Gomez in the eastern and central provinces.

Thirty light draft vessels, purchased in the United States, were added to the Spanish navy,

and it became almost impossible for the Cuban army to obtain any outside supplies. Nevertheless, the patriots constantly inflicted defeat on the Spaniards and completely overran and possessed the greater part of the island east of Havana.

The citizens of the United States were shocked and enraged by the continued insults of Spain and the atrocities of the Spaniards in Cuba, which seemed to have no limit. But the end of endurance seemed to be reached when on October 31, 1873, the *Virginus*, an American steamer, was captured in the open sea off the island of Jamaica. The vessel and crew were taken to Santiago de Cuba. On November 4th three Cubans and one American of her crew were shot; November 7th thirty-seven more, many of them Americans, were lined up against the walls of the fortress and shot; November 8th twelve more received the same fate. At this point a man, with the humanity of a moral being, interfered. The following message was sent to the governor-general of Santiago de Cuba: "Commodore de Horsey protests in her Britannic majesty's name, against further execution of persons on *Virginus*, pending arrival of her majesty's ship *Niobe*, which leaves this evening for Cuba."

The result was that not another man was shot.

The honor of the United States government was satisfied by Spain paying an indemnity of \$80,000. The survivors of the crew started home on the released vessel, and in a storm off Frying Pan shoals it went down with all on board.

The vessel had been captured on the high seas; her crew and passengers were tried by drum-head court martial; all the crew and passengers were alike found guilty, though no evidence whatever was found on the ship or persons of the captives. Captain Frey, of the *Virginus*, surrendered at the first command of the *Tornado*. There was no contraband material on board, and many of the passengers did not know that the *Virginus* had ever had any connection with filibustering expeditions. None but the court of a half-civilized people could have found them guilty under the circumstances, much less executing them with the revolting brutality exercised on the bodies of the dead and wounded after the first volley of the executioners.

Hamilton Fish was secretary of state. He cabled to General Sickles, United States minister at Madrid, as follows:

“ It is hoped that the report of such butchery and murder may prove inaccurate. You will ask of ministry confirmation or denial of the report,

as the alleged date is subsequent to the orders said to have been sent from Madrid forbidding any punishment. I have telegraphed for further intelligence. If the report be confirmed, you will protest in the name of this government and of civilization and humanity against the act as brutal, barbarous and an outrage upon the age, and will declare that this government demand the most ample reparation of any wrong which may have been committed upon any of its citizens or upon its flag."

On November 14 General Sickles received instructions to make a demand for full reparation and the punishment of the executioners of the Virginus people, and if not given immediate satisfaction, to close his legation and leave Madrid with his archives.

Shrewd diplomacy on the part of Spain, and a powerful pressure from the financial institutions of the United States on President Grant and the cabinet, made the paltry indemnity of \$80,000 satisfactory, although Spain had failed to secure even the moral support of a single European nation.

The war dragged on until the Autumn of 1876, when General Martinez de Campos was sent over with 25,000 veterans of the Carlist war. But

two years showed that he could do nothing. Both sides were exhausted. Plainly, the Cubans could not drive out the Spaniards, and the Spaniards as plainly could not subdue the Cubans. Campos proposed an armistice and a compromise. Such promises of amnesty and reforms were made that the insurgents under General Garcia were disposed to accept them. A commission from each side was appointed and they met February 10, 1878. A compact was made, which became known as the Peace of Zanjón, from the name of the town near which the commissioners met.

In this compact the Cubans laid down their arms on the express stipulation with the captain-general as representative of the Spanish government that the reforms demanded by the Cubans before the opening of the war, and which had since been put into operation in Puerto Rico, should be guaranteed them. Campos went to Spain and made the attempt to have these propositions incorporated into the law, but was unsuccessful, and the shackles were fastened upon the island so firmly that it was supposed to be impossible for another protracted uprising ever to occur. The war had cost Spain \$300,000,000. According to the records in Madrid 200,000 privates and 8,000 officers had died in battle or in

the hospitals. Cuba had suffered almost as heavy in proportion.

The Spanish government at once set to work to devise a system of taxation that would reimburse it for the money expended. The oppression that had always been arbitrary and tyrannical now became unendurable, and on February 24, 1895, the conflict began which was to end in Cuban freedom through the interference of the United States.

Spain in the East Indies.

The Ladrones.

THE Ladrone Islands make up a group of about fifteen very fertile islands north of the Carolines in the Pacific Ocean. The Spanish name of the group is "Islas des los Ladrones," meaning "Islands of the Thieves." They were so called by the sailors of Magellan because of the thieving ways of the natives.

The total area of the group is 420 square miles. They have been the property of Spain since their discovery by Magellan. Guahan is the largest island of the group and has the only town in the colony, Ignacio de Agana. It sits at the head of a fortified harbor. The population of the Ladrones is about 8,000. When the Spaniards first took possession the original inhabitants numbered about 50,000, but they were soon killed off, and 150 years ago they did not number more than 1,000. The natives are related to the natives of the Philippines.

The Ladrones paid no revenue to Spain, but their value as a coaling station is very great. They are 1,500 miles from Manila and 2,500 miles from Honolulu, and are thus in a most conven-

ient position for use by the United States as a coaling station.

A broad channel divides the islands into a northern and a southern group. There is no question as to the volcanic origin of the Ladrones. The rocks of the northern group are entirely of igneous origin, and on two of the northern islands, Pagan and Uraccas, there are smoking craters. The soil is very fertile and the vegetation luxuriant. Forests of fine trees cover the land, and the flora is like that of the Philippines. In the forests are wild oxen and swine.

The agricultural products are rice, sugar, corn, cocoanuts, cotton, breadfruit, bananas, indigo and castor beans.

The climate of the islands is healthful, although humid. The average temperature is about 81 degrees. There is a dry and a rainy season and a good breeze from the sea all the year round.

When the *Charleston* stopped at the Ladrones, on its way to Manila, the Spanish commander was found to be ignorant that war had been declared between Spain and the United States. He was taken on to Manilla a prisoner, and an American, the only citizen of the United States on the islands, was appointed temporary governor.

Caroline Islands.

THE New Philippines, as this widely scattered archipelago of small islands was once most frequently called, is north of New Guinea and east of the Philippines. The Pelew islands of this group, containing about 346 square miles, are at the western extremity. They are very fertile and are covered with fine forests of valuable woods.

There are about forty-eight central groups of the Caroline Islands, containing about 360 square miles. The Yap group at the northeast contains a good harbor, and the inhabitants are fairly well civilized. The Spaniards established a mission on this group in 1856. Strong's Island was discovered by Crozier in 1804, and now contains an American mission. These islands are not thickly settled, and the natives are usually inoffensive.

The Carolines were probably first visited by Alvaro de Saavedra in 1528; in 1579 Drake discovered the Pelews; and in 1686 another group was added to the list by admiral Francesco Lazeano. To the last mentioned they owe the name they now bear, which was given in honor of Charles II. of Spain.

The Philippines.

“THE whole world,” says Kotzebue, “does not offer a more advantageous station for commerce than the town of Manila, situated as it is in the neighborhood of the richest countries of Asia and almost midway between Europe and America.”

The Philippine Islands, affording the most advantageous situation for a base of commerce with oriental countries, and being in themselves a possession rich in possibilities, awaiting development and use, are a prize worth any war both for revenue and the cause of progress. Of the six or fifteen hundred islands (according as mere islets are included) Luzon is the largest, containing about 40,000 square miles, the total area being about 52,000 square miles. All the natural wealth of the tropics flourishes in these islands. The appearance of perpetual spring is over the forests and fields of vegetation. They are in the latitude of typhoons and in the zone of earthquakes. Mountain chains cross the islands, with peaks eight thousand feet high, and numerous volcanoes act as safety valves to the forces of the earthquakes.

From May until September, sometimes until December, is the rainy season, and vegetation springs up with overabundant luxuriance. Rice and wheat thrive equally well. Oranges, bananas, palms, bread-fruits, and the betel-nut grow in the open fields. Tobacco, cocoa and coffee abound in every variety. There are abundance of the finest sago trees and whole forests of cinnamon and indigo nutmegs, cloves, and various spice are found everywhere. Pearl, amber and cochineal are abundant, and there are unknown quantities of gold, silver and other metals in the unworked mines. Sapan wood, ebony, sulphur, tortoise shell, and cordage cloth furnish a rich source of export. Cattle are numerous, fish inexhaustible, while the unexplored portions are full of buffalo, deer, wild boars, monkeys, snakes and all the numerous varieties of tropical countries.

The generous abundance of nature and the balmy climate of these islands are not such as induce energy in the inhabitants, consequently only foreigners have made use of the resources, and the policy of Spanish oppression has made their progress unprofitable.

Scenically the ocean does not hold a more delightful and picturesque group of Islands. Blue waves, white coral beaches with mountain ridges

wooded to the summits, countless cataracts, flowers of matchless beauty and sky serene, all unite in making a natural paradise of the Philippines.

The aborigines are of Malay extraction, peaceful, lazy and easy to rule. However, under unbearable oppression they are brave and energetic, but they lack cohesion and their slothful nature causes them to take the first overtures of peace. They are intensely religious and are subject to the influence of the priests, who are all from Spain.

Manilla, the capital, is about six hundred miles from Hong Kong and about five hundred from Singapore. Its exports in 1897 were \$40,000,000. Most of the 400,000 tons of sugar from the islands goes through this port. The coffee industry pays the producer a net profit of \$150 per ton, yet not quite one-tenth of one per cent. of the Philippines is under cultivation, although they have been controlled by a Christian government with all the inducements of trade, for more than three centuries.

Magellan found on the Philippines, in 1521, the most inferior race that the Spaniards had yet encountered. The government of Spain sent a fleet from Mexico which took possession of the

islands, and finding no rich mines and no natives worthy of plunder, contented themselves by levying a tribute such as the neighboring savages could pay.

Land was distributed among the colonists and there was a gradual intermixture of races which made a race of negroids more capable of working the resources of the island.

The natives readily accepted the religious worship of the Catholic church and submitted to all the exactions of the government. Being of no more value as slaves than they were as servants, and since they offered no resistance whatever, there were no incentives to subjugation and extermination such as desolated and destroyed the country and inhabitants of other Spanish possessions in the New World.

The Spanish banner was first raised by colonists at Cebu several years before Manila was founded and made the capital. Chinese pirates sacked Manila in 1574, and the Philippine Spaniards suffered much from the half a century of war between Spain and Holland.

In 1639 there were 30,000 Chinamen settled about Manila. At this time the Spaniards, fearing their increasing number, attacked them, and, according in an old chronicler, "reduced their

number to 7,000, who surrendered at discretion." In 1757 the governor of the Philippines sent all that remained back to China, and not one has since been allowed to land there unless he first became a convert to the Catholic religion.

Manila was taken by the English in 1761, after a siege of twelve days, during the war between Spain and England. It remained in their possession during the war, at the close of which the islands were restored by treaty.

Since then the natives have been in constant rebellion and there are tribes in the interior islands which claim that they have never obeyed or paid tribute to Spain. Of the 8,000,000 inhabitants more than one-seventh have always been free from Spanish control.

The government is ecclesiastic and military, neither of which holds any inducement to progress beyond their petrefactive conservatism. Levying tributes for the coffers of the crown and state has been the undoing of Spain and the loss of all the matchless opportunities afforded by her adventurous explorers.

Notwithstanding the natural abundance and rich resources of the Philippines, it is the most primitive of all the Spanish possessions. The most squalid and barbarous conditions surround



Magellan.

the luxury and refinement transplanted there by the wealthy Europeans. The prosperous Mes-tizos have filled the rude houses with costly foreign luxuries, of which they neither know their merits nor value. The Spanish ladies dress richly in transparent muslins from India and China, and lounge about the stores, bargaining and gossiping most of the day. Much of the time of the young people is spent in amusement, such as bathing, dancing, and various forms of light entertainments, while the elders are gambling or watching the struggles of a favorite in the cockpit. Gambling and the lottery are encouraged by the government. The object of government officials is to become rich as quickly as possible and return to Spain, while the ambition of the clergy is to gain power. The native priests have been increasing in numbers and influence for several years.

Half-breeds and half-casts abound in great numbers. They retain most of the slothful vices of their widely different parents and have few of their virtues. An expressive paragraph from a French writer visiting them, fully reveals their character :

“The oars used in the Philippines are usually made of bamboo poles, with a board tied with

strips of rattan to their extremities. If they happen to break so much the better, for the fatiguing labor of rowing must necessarily be suspended until they are mended again."

The chief grievances of the islanders arise from the corrupt administration of the Spanish officials in collecting the extortionate taxes and in serving the laws of justice. Every man must give each year forty days of labor to the government; he must pay \$6 a year poll-tax, besides a heavy tax on his income or labor, and an excessive fee—as much as \$500 a year for a small store—on every business in which he engages. The law of confiscation is in operation and is likely to be exercised against any suspect.

The system of tax-farming with which the Roman Empire glutted itself to destruction at the time of Christ, and which Cicero so eloquently denounced more than twenty centuries ago, is in full operation for the plunder of the Philippines. If anything were needed to prove that the abominable system of Spanish government should forever disappear from colonial affairs, this ancient form of pillage is enough.

It is estimated that the infamous Weyler, while Captain-General of the Philippines, accumulated a fortune of several millions, and he is known to

have placed to his credit in continental banks more than twenty times his entire authorized income.

To appreciate the oppression of the taxes, it should be remembered that most of the natives receive less than ten cents a day for their work. There is a special fee to be paid before an animal can be killed for food, and no one can go from one section to another without a form of passport which costs from \$1.50 to \$20. If the person is not able to pay as much as \$3 for his passport he must work for the government from fifteen to forty days before he can obtain it.

Rebellion has been at all times in the air, but more especially in recent years, as the half-breeds have become more numerous and native priests have attained more influence.

Spain in the North Atlantic.

The Canary Islands.

THE Canary Islands lie in the North Atlantic Ocean. The seven principal islands cover an area of 3,700 square miles, and have a population of upwards of 260,000. Aside from these there are a number of islets, most of which are uninhabited.

There is ground for supposing that the Phoenicians were not ignorant of the Canaries, and it is certain that the Romans, in the time of Augustus, received intelligence of this through Juba, king of Mauritania. Mention is made by the elder Pliny of "Cunaria, so called from the multitude of dogs of great size," and "Nivaria, taking its name from perpetual snow, and covered with clouds," doubtless referring to Teneriffe, the larger of the group, whose penetrating volcanic peaks are continually snow capped. The first authentic data is of their discovery about 1334 by a French vessel driven amongst them by a storm. A Spanish nobleman obtained a grant of them with the title of king, from Clement VI., but want of means prevented him from carrying out his project of conquest. Subsequently two expe-

ditions set out from Spain but returned without having taken possession. In 1400 Jean Bethencourt, a gentleman of Normandy, fitted out an expedition, but finding himself deficient of means to effect his purpose, he repaired to the court of Castile, and obtaining from Henry III. a grant of the islands, with the title of king, he sailed in 1404 with a strong force and mastered smaller of the group without opposition. It was not until sixty years afterward that Canary, Teneriffe and Palma, the larger islands, passed into nominal possession of Spain, and then to find that Bethencourt's nephew had made disposition of them to Portugal, which caused a contention between Spain and Portugal until 1416, when Spain came into possession, but without acknowledgement from the inhabitants of the three larger islands, which maintained a bitter opposition for independence until 1495, since which time they have continued in the possession of Spain, although at intervals revolts have been made against the ruling power, as with other of Spains colonial possessions. The presumption is that the early inhabitants came from the adjoining coast of Africa. The present inhabitants are slightly darker than the people of Spain, but in other respects are scarcely distinguishable. Spanish is

the only language in use. The people have most of the traits of the people of the peninsula. The lower orders are illiterate, and the better classes not very enlightened. The climate generally is very mild, dry, and salubrious. On the lower grounds the temperature is equable, the daily range seldom exceeding 6° Fahr. There is here the rainy season and the dry season, which is peculiar to this latitude. Grain and potatoes are produced in abundance and the vintage, extensive, is almost equal to that of the Madeiras. The fruits of the tropics are raised in abundance, and the islands are free from beast and reptile. There is a good deal of shipping from the ports, principally carried on by British merchants.

St. Sebastian, the chief town and port of the island of Fuerteventura, is noted as the abiding place of Columbus before sailing in search of the New World.

At the present time the Canaries have been brought into prominence as the place of rendezvous of the Spanish fleets on their way to the possessions in American waters.

War with Spain.

Spain at the Opening of War With the United States.

THE kingdom of Spain is a peninsula, made so by the waters of the Mediterranean, the bay of Biscay and the Atlantic Ocean. A wide neck joins it to France. On its southern extremity is the almost unassailable fort of Gibraltar, cut from the solid rock and commanding the entrance of the Mediterranean. This unsurpassable natural fortress is owned and garrisoned by Great Britain.

The union of the houses of Aragon and Castile by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, founded a monarchy which has continued almost uninterruptedly under the houses of Aragon, Bourbon, Savoy and Hapsburg for four centuries. There was a short diversion when Joseph Bonaparte was made king of Spain by the Emperor Napoleon, and in 1873 and 1874 when Spain was a republic.

The republic was a failure and Alfonso XII., a Bourbon, who had married Isabella of the house of Hapsburg, a princess of Austria, was called to the throne.

The constitution adopted in 1876 proclaims the government to be a constitutional monarchy, the chief executive power to be vested in the king, the legislative power to be "in the cortes with the king." A senate and a congress having equal authority comprises the cortes. There are senators who are so by their own right, others that hold office by appointment from the crown, and a third class who are elected by certain provincial and communal states, academies, universities, the church and large payers of contributions. The grandees of the kingdom are senators in their own right.

There is one deputy in the congress for every fifty thousand of the population. The only concession secured by Cuba for its ten years' war was the privilege to send a deputy to the cortes for one in every 40,000 free inhabitants who paid 125 pasetas in yearly taxes.

According to the constitution, the king is inviolable and the ministers are responsible. All decrees of the king to be valid must be countersigned by the ministers. He cannot marry except by the approval of the cortes, and anyone excluded by law from succession to the throne is not eligible to marriage with him.

Should all legitimate lines become extinct a

king may be elected by "vote of the nation."

The area of Spain, including the Balearic and Canary Islands, each of which is considered a province, is 197,670 square miles. New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and all of the New England states combined have an area of 162,065 square miles. Spain is therefore a trifle larger than these states. On the other hand, Texas has an area of 262,290 square miles, so that Texas is 74,620 square miles larger than Spain. The population of Spain is estimated to be 17,650,234, about the same as that of the New England states, including the three states named.

Besides the Canary and Balearic Islands Spain holds the colonies of Cuba, area 41,655 miles; population before the war 1,631,687; Porto Rico, area 3,500 square miles, population 806,708. Total area and population in America, 45,205 square miles and 2,438,395 persons respectively. Her possessions in Asia are: The Philippine Islands, area 114,326 square miles, population 7,000,000; the Sulu Islands, area 950 square miles, population 75,000; the Caroline Islands and Palaos, area 560 square miles, population 36,000; the Marianne Islands, area 420 square miles, population 10,172. Total area and population in Asia 116,256 square miles and 7,121,-

172 persons. Her possessions in Africa are Rio de Oro and Adrar, area 243,000 square miles, population 100,000; Ifui (near Cape Nun), area 27 square miles, population 6,000; Fernando Po, Annabon, Corisco, Elobey and San Juan, area 850 square miles, population 30,000. Total area and population in Africa, 243,877 square miles and 136,000 persons. The total area of Spain's foreign possessions is 405,338 square miles. The total population is 9,695,567 persons.

Census returns show that a very large proportion of the inhabitants of Spain are illiterate. Nearly 12,000,000 in the kingdom can neither read nor write. In the whole of Spain it was found that but 5,004,460 persons could read and write, 608,005 persons could read only, and yet Spain supports 24,529 public and 5,576 private schools. A law making education compulsory was passed in 1857, but it was never enforced, partly for political reasons and partly because of the wretched pay of the teachers—\$50 to \$100 a year being a usual fee. In higher education Spain is not behindhand. She has ten large universities, carrying an enrollment of 16,000 students.

The most primitive conditions prevail in many parts of Spain, and in some parts life is almost

as it was when Columbus traveled the country roads on foot leading his little son by the hand. This is due to the meager means of communication, there being only 7,548 miles of railroad in the whole country. This is only 3.9 linear miles of road for every 100 square miles of territory. New England alone has as many miles of railroad as has Spain, and her territory is not nearly as great. The same area as Spain picked out of the upper eastern United States has nearly 30,000 miles of road. But the people of Spain still adhere to their gayly caparisoned mules, which, perhaps, make up in wornout romance what they lack in speed.

Spain maintains a permanent army. She also has what is known as an active reserve and a sedentary reserve, each of which could be relied upon for support in time of war. Any Spaniard above the age of 19 is liable to be called upon to serve in the permanent army for three years. From this part of the army the soldier passes to the active reserve for three years' service, and from thence to the sedentary reserve for six year's service. By paying 1,500 pesetas any one may escape service. The colonial army requires every able-bodied subject to serve eight years in the various reserves.

Spain's navy has made slow improvements and has not kept up in full with modern invention. Her defenses are elaborate, but not adequate against modern guns. In view of the unquestionable corruption among Spanish officials and the weakness of national finances, it is easy to understand the incompleteness and lack of progress in colonial defenses.

The War of Liberation.

DURING two hundred and fifty years, Spain, with unmitigated stupidity, persisted in a course that lost a vast empire of colonies. Strangely enough, it was through a system of oppression and self-corruption similar to the colonial rule, that ruined Rome. Spain's captain generals were like the pro consuls in the days of Pontius Pilate. Their powers were co-similar and the consequent corruption and ruin so alike, as to produce a striking historical analogy.

In 1812, when Spain was on the verge of losing at once all her American possessions, a liberal government was provided, in which it was decreed that "South America and the Antilles is an integral part of Spanish territory." It arranged for "The representation in the cortes of the ultramarine provinces on the basis of one deputy for every 60,000 inhabitants." When this liberal plan was ready for operation, it was rejected by Ferdinand VII. in 1814. It was taken up again in 1820, but Ferdinand VII. again annulled it in 1823. It was adopted by Queen Regent Christiana in 1836.

Nevertheless, Captain General Tacon of Cuba declared that "not the slightest change should be made in the island, unless by his permission."

The province of Santiago, Cuba, ignoring his statements, proceeded to elect representatives according to the law. The three deputies elected, went to Madrid with their credentials, but were scornfully rejected. The cortes declared April 18, 1837, that, "in virtue of the power in them vested by the constitution, it is decreed that the ultramarine provinces of America and Asia, shall be governed and administered by special laws; consequently, the deputies for the designated provinces are not to take their seats in the present cortes."

In that betrayal was lost all the faith and respect of the freedom loving Cubans for Spain. Conspiracies, insurrections and revolutions continued without interruption until the interference of the United States became a national necessity.

The efforts of patriotic Cubans at Madrid, were unceasing to secure such unassailable rights as would restore peace to their distracted and blood-stained island. The Spanish members of the cortes, in order to show their contempt for Cuban affairs, established the custom of being absent whenever any Cuban affairs came up for

discussion. As an example, when some of the most consequential parts of the stipulations, by which the Cubans laid down their arms, ending the ten years war, before the cortes, four hundred out of the four hundred and thirty deputies remained away. At that time Cuba was contributing \$100,000 a year for the expenses of the ministry of foreign affairs at Madrid. Without representation of any kind, Cuba, having only a million and a half inhabitants, was taxed for the year following the ten years war the sum of \$46,594,000, regardless of the fact that its industries had been paralyzed and its property devastated for ten years.

Laws were immediately passed, disfranchising all Cubans not directly subservient to Spanish interests. In the budget which fastened the burden of \$9.79 interest yearly on every man, woman and child in the island, for the bonded debt of \$295,707,264, were items requiring Cuba to pay for debts incurred by Spain in San Domingo and Peru; and for costs incurred in the Carlist war in Spain, and for the expenses of the assistance that Spain gave to Maximilian when he attempted to become emperor of Mexico.

The records of the Spanish debates in the cortes, show that army officials robbed the treasury

of \$22,811,516 during ten years war, by false returns concerning the purchase of provisions. It was proven in 1890 that the safety deposit vaults of the government in Cuba, had been robbed of \$6,500,000 in cash. Although it was shown that the vaults could be opened only by the use of three keys, each of which was in the hands of a different person of high station, yet no one was arrested. Governor-General Martin found such flagrant and open thefts customary in the Cuban custom house, that in August, 1887, he attacked the place with a company of regulars, and drove the employes away at the point of the bayonet. General Pando in 1890 laid proof before the cortes that false warrants issued by the Board of Public Debt exceeded \$12,000,000, yet no one was arrested or censured.

According to the commercial laws of 1882, Spanish products entered Cuba free while the average tariff on foreign goods was about one thousand per cent. Spanish merchants thus got enormous prices for their inferior goods. There has never been a public library in Cuba supported by public funds, and the amount given to the entire island for education is less than is spent by many American towns of ten thousand inhabitants.

The burden is such that Cuba has never had more than two per cent. of its production for its own service and not more than ten per cent. of its resources in use.

Taking these as only a few examples out of the stupendous and unmitigated blunders of Spanish rule in Cuba, it amounts to an indictment against the civilization and government of the United States that it did not interfere sooner, not to speak of the causes that arose from insult, the destruction of property belonging to American citizens, the loss of commerce and the murder of Americans.

Whatever the prejudice or ignorance of foreigners may assert to the contrary, the American people know that there has never been a more righteous war waged in the interests of liberty and progress than that of the insurgents in Cuba and the soldiers of the United States against Spain.

In February, 1895, Jose Marti, the head of the Cuban revolutionary junta, arrived in Cuba and raised the standard of rebellion that had been laid down at Zanjon. General Maximo Gomez was placed at the head of the Cuban army.

April 11, 1895, the independence of the island was declared and a constitution adopted.

May 20, in a battle near Dos Rios, Jose Marti was killed.

In August General Bartolome Masso was made president of the Cuban republic.

In February, 1896, the Cubans were in undisputed possession of more than half of Cuba. The Spanish government at this time proposed to mortgage the Cuban sugar crop as security for a French loan, and the Cubans proceeded, without difficulty, to destroy the security. The tobacco crop shared the same fate for the same cause.

January 17 General Campos, at his own request was recalled, to be succeeded by General Valeriano Weyler, whose reputation for ferocious and savage warfare during the ten years' war in Cuba, had given him the name of butcher wherever he was known.

On February 17 General Weyler issued his infamous reconcentrado order commanding, under pain of death, all the men, women and children in the country to remove at once into the towns in control of the Spaniards. About half a million non-combatants were thus concentrated in towns, where more than half died of starvation in less than two years.

In the early months of 1896 over six million dollars worth of property was destroyed by the

Cubans to prevent it being used for Spanish loans.

April 13 General Fitzhugh Lee was appointed by President Cleveland to succeed Ramon O. Williams as consul at Havana, where he remained until the declaration of war between Spain and the United States. The authenticated history of Spanish savagery in Cuba during this war, as well as during the previous ones, is too revolting to be put in print, and yet it can not be said to be worse than has been common to the Spanish colonial system for four centuries.

For fifty years the people and the representatives of the people of the United States were incensed and often enraged at the cruelties and devastations in the island of Cuba. Many resolutions were introduced in Congress, indignation meetings were held, political conventions indorsed action, and still diplomacy wrestled with Spanish duplicity. But the inevitable exhaustion of forbearance at last came suddenly, when the American warship and 266 American seamen were treacherously sunk in Havana harbor.

In a speech in the house of representatives, January 18, 1859, Samuel S. Cox, the distinguished member from New York City, said:

“There is a logic in history which is as inexorable as fate. The disquieting aspect of cis-Atlantic

politics signifies the consummation of territorial changes on this continent, long predicted, long delayed, but as certain as the logic of history!

* * * The largest expression of this law of annexation is: that no nation has the right to hold soil, virgin and rich, yet unproducing; no nation has a right to hold great isthmian highways, or great defences, on this continent without the desire, will or power to use them. They ought, and must, inure to the advancement of our commerce. They must become confiscated to the decrees of Providence! * * *

Had the Thirty-Fourth Congress aided President Pierce in the Black Warrior matter, we should now have representatives from Cuba on this floor. As to Cuba the reasons for its acquisition are well understood by the country. Its geographical position gives to the nation which holds it, unless that nation be very weak, a coign of vantage as to which self-preservation forbids us to be indifferent. While the island is of little use to Spain, save as a source of revenue, it is to us of incalculable advantage.

* * * Our unsettled claims, and many other difficulties growing out of our relations with Spain, demand settlement but receive none. How long shall we continue in this condition? During the pleasure of Spain? Is there no redress? Is our

every attempt to be construed into usurpation? What impediments have we to meet? There is one which has since Mr. Adams' time proved insurmountable—Spanish pride.

“It is well said by an old poet that

“ Spain gives in pride, which Spain of all the earth
May freely give, nor fear herself a dearth.”

“Since then there has been no curtailment of that pride. True, Spain has now little to be proud of but her recollections. Poor, sensitive, corrupt, she holds to the punctilio of dignity without its substantial energy. If Spain will not sell Cuba to us we must insist on her changing its policy. We have tried in vain by diplomacy to unloosen these shackles [on commerce]. * * * Nothing but the sword can cut them off. Such a system in this era of commercial freedom is a shame to civilization, and if international law were rightly written, it would itself be a cause of honorable war! * * * Call it by what name you will, I am ready to answer the call of the President, if for nothing else, for the benefit of our \$250,000,000 of yearly trade, which must pass under the range of Cuban cannon. I am ready to vote for the bill looking to the purchase of Cuba. In case of our failure to purchase by

honorable negotiation, I would favor its seizure in case of foreign war or of a European intervention. * * * We have become a Colossus on this continent with a strength and stride that will and must be heeded. With our domestic policy as to local governments established, we can go on and Americanize this continent and make it what Providence intended it should become, by a perpetual growth and an unsevered Union—the paragon in history for order, harmony, happiness and power!”

Of the many organizations in the United States formed to promote interest in the liberation of Cuba from the incompetence and inhumanity of Spain, none were so influential, energetic and prominent as the “Cuban League of the United States.”

It was organized in 1868 and its members labored for twenty years before they saw the certainty of Cuban freedom. Colonel Ethan Allen, of New York, was its tireless president during the greater period of its active work. The league was reorganized in December, 1896, to repeat even more effectively if possible, its former service for Cuba.

It started to work at once, and during January and February, 1897, addressed every governor,

requesting action in favor of Cuba from his legislators. Within one month it had an answer from every governor in the United States in favor of the request, and every legislature of the Union passed such resolutions, excepting six states not then in session and those afterward followed.

It then addressed every mayor of the United States, and urged the formation of a branch league in each city. Some five hundred such leagues were formed with an aggregate membership of half a million of men. Then every league was requested to bombard, daily and constantly, its representative in congress in the effort to compel his support for struggling Cuba. This was effectively done in every part of the Union. Nearly every town and county had its mass meetings and its congressman told what was expected of him. Much of this was heeded and public feeling had reached a burning heat when William McKinley was inaugurated in March, 1897, on a platform that held the most burning and patriotic demands for the freedom of Cuba.

Then a period of Spanish procrastination in play with American diplomacy ensued, regardless of popular demonstrations and ringing party platforms. Every president for the last half century seems to have been infatuated with the idea

that he could get justice for Cuba and satisfy the American people through the mediumship of his diplomacy with Spain.

The obstinate struggle of Spain against the armed intervention of America, showed the ridiculous folly that lay in the hope of diplomacy ever being able to accomplish anything. The besotted ignorance of the Spaniards, manifested on all occasions, caused them to believe that they could easily defeat the United States in war. Their people were everywhere eager for the conflict, and it became inevitable when they sank the *Maine* and its crew on the evening of February 15, 1898. But many times before this, the people of the United States had been enraged at the atrocities in Cuba and the contemptuous insults of Spain, without coming to war, and the President still labored with the diplomacy that had failed for fifty years with thirteen presidents. However, the American congress became every day more uncompromising in its attitude, and more determined that Spanish intrigue should be forever removed from American politics. After endeavoring in vain to stem the tide toward war, the president threw the whole matter upon congress in his message of March 28, without suggestion or recommendation. The next day reso-

lutions were introduced in both houses of congress. The president used every influence to restrain congress from declaring war, but in vain. The senate wished to recognize the Cuban republic, and the house, obedient in this respect to the president, was uncompromising in the determination to give no recognition to the Cuban insurgents. Three weeks were consumed before an agreement could be reached and joint action taken, but it was at last done in spite of the protests of the president that his diplomacy would succeed if he were given time. April 19 joint action was reached and the independence of Cuba was recognized, but the insurgent government was ignored. The desperate resistance following intervention by force of arms revealed the absurdity of the diplomacy with which Spain had so long defeated the will of the American people. But the doom of Spain in America had been struck, and four years of gross inhumanity and atrocious avarice were to be avenged. Its entire colonial government had been so atrocious, that Motley, the historian, says: "It was beyond the power of man's ingenuity to add any fresh horrors to it."

The following is given as an instance of the ridiculous ignorance and falsity used in Spanish

rule. Seven days before Commodore Dewey's victory at Manila, the governor general issued this proclamation:

“Spaniards: Between Spain and the United States of North America hostilities have broken out. The moment has arrived to prove to the world that we possess the spirit to conquer those who, pretending to be loyal friends, take advantage of our misfortunes and abuse our hospitality, using means which civilized nations count unworthy and disreputable.

“The North American people, constituted of all the social excrescences, have exhausted our patience and provoked war with their perfidious machinations, with their acts of treachery, with their outrages against the law of nations and international conventions. *The struggle will be short and decisive.* The God of victories will give us one as brilliant as the justice of our cause demands. Spain, which counts upon the sympathies of all the nations, will emerge triumphantly from this new test, humiliating and blasting the adventurers from those states that, without cohesion and without a history, offer to humanity only infamous traditions and the ungrateful spectacle of chambers in which appear united insolence and defamation, cowardice and cynicism.

“A squadron manned by foreigners, possessing neither instruction nor discipline, is preparing to come to this archipeligo with the ruffianly intention of robbing us of all that means life, honor and liberty. Pretending to be inspired by a courage of which they are incapable, the North American seamen undertake as an enterprise capable of realization, the substitution of Protestantism for the Catholic religion you profess, to treat you as tribes refractory to civilization, to take possession of your riches as if they were unacquainted with the rights of property, and to kidnap those persons whom they consider useful to man their ships or to be exploited in agricultural or industrial labor.

“Vain designs! Ridiculous boastings!

“Your indomitable bravery will suffice to frustrate the attempt to carry them into realization. You will not allow the faith you profess to be made a mock of, impious hands to be placed on the temple of the true God, the images you adore to be thrown down by unbelief. The aggressors shall not profane the tombs of your fathers, they shall not gratify their lustful passions at the cost of your wives’ and daughters’ honor, or appropriate the property that your industry has accumulated as a provision for your old age. No,

they shall not perpetrate any of the crimes inspired by their wickedness and covetousness, because your valor and patriotism will suffice to punish and abase the people that, claiming to be civilized and cultivated, have exterminated the natives of North America, instead of bringing to them the life of civilization and of progress.

“Philippinos, prepare for the struggle, and, united under the glorious Spanish flag, which is ever covered with laurels, let us fight with the conviction that victory will crown our efforts, and to the calls of our enemies let us oppose with the decision of the Christian and the patriot the cry of ‘Viva Espana!’ Your general,

“BASILIO AUGUSTIN DAVLA.

“Manila, 23d April, 1898.”

The last diplomatic intrigue that was attempted in the effort to sustain the expiring Spanish power in America is characteristic and noteworthy. It was written by the last captain-general in Cuba, May 4, 1898:

“General Maximo Gomez, Commander-in-Chief of the Revolutionary Forces—Sir: It cannot be concealed from you that the Cuban problem has radically changed. We, Spaniards and Cubans, find ourselves facing a foreign people of

different race, of a naturally absorbent tendency, and with intentions not only to deprive Spain of her flag over the Cuban soil, but also to exterminate the Cuban people, due to its having Spanish blood.

“The supreme moment has therefore arrived in which we should forget our past misunderstandings, and in which, united by the interests of our own defense, we, Spaniards and Cubans, must repel the invader.

“General, due to these reasons, I propose to make alliance of both armies in the City of Santa Clara. The Cubans will receive the arms of the Spanish army, and with the cry of ‘Viva Espana!’ and ‘Viva Cuba!’ we shall repel the invader and free from a foreign yoke the descendants of the same people. Your obedient servant,

RAMON BLANCO.”

To this General Gomez replied as follows:

“Sir: I wonder how you dare write to me again about terms of peace when you know that Cubans and Spaniards can never be at peace on the soil of Cuba. You represent on this continent an old and discredited monarchy. We are fighting for an American principle, the same as that of Bolivar and Washington.

“You say we belong to the same race and invite me to fight against a foreign invader, but you are mistaken again, for there are no differences of races and blood. I only believe in one race, mankind, and for me there are but good and bad nations, Spain so far having been a bad one and the United States performing in these movements toward Cuba, a duty of humanity and civilization.

“From the wild, tawny Indian to the refined, blond Englishman, a man for me is worthy of respect according to his honesty and feelings, no matter to what country or race he belongs or what religion he professes.

“So are nations for me, and up to the present I have had only reasons for admiring the United States. I have written to President McKinley and General Miles, thanking them for American intervention in Cuba. I don't see the danger of our extermination by the United States, to which you refer in your letter. If it be so, history will judge. For the present I have to repeat that it is too late for any understanding between my army and yours. Your obedient servant,

MAXIMO GOMEZ.”

On the morning of February 16, 1898, the long

stress and tension of public opinion over Cuban affairs, was electrified by the news that one of our principal war ships had been blown up the night before in Havana harbor. The telegram from Captain Sigsbee to the secretary of the navy read as follows :

“Maine blown up in Havana harbor, 9:40, and destroyed. Many wounded and doubtless more killed and drowned. Wounded and others on board Spanish man-of-war and Ward line steamers, send light house tenders from Key West for crew and few pieces of equipment still above water. No one had other clothes than those upon him. Public opinion should be suspended till further report.”

A telegram from Consul General Lee to the state department suggested that a naval court of inquiry be held to ascertain the cause of the explosion, and closed with the words, “I hope our people will repress excitement, and calmly await decision.”

But opinion was chiefly divided along the lines previously existing. Those who had been opposed to intervention by the United States in Cuban affairs very generally assumed that the explosion was the result of an accident, but those who sympathized with Cuba in its oppressions,

and believed that the United States owed a duty to humanity and civilization to suppress Spanish barbarities, were possessed with the profound conviction that the explosion was a culmination of four centuries of Spanish atrocity.

Two days after the explosion, Secretary Long of the navy expressed himself publicly as follows:

“I have believed from the first that it was an accident, and it will require very positive evidence to convince me to the contrary. I do not think there is any difference of opinion in the cabinet on the subject.”

All loyal partisans of the president at once settled down to the conviction that it was an accident, while others not yet over the anger caused by the insulting letter of the Spanish Minister De Lome, made public five days before the destruction of the *Maine*, were dumbfounded that apologists for Spain could still be found in such high quarters.

The president was pledged on his party's platform to the speedy settlement of the Cuban question, but his message to congress offered no suggestion in that direction. It elicited the following statement in the letter from Spanish Minister De Lome to the editor of the *Heraldo* of Madrid:

“The president’s message has undeceived the insurgents who expected something else, and has paralyzed the action of congress, but I consider it bad. Besides the natural and inevitable coarseness with which he repeats all that the press and public opinion of the United States has said of Weyler, it shows one what McKinley is—weak and catering to the rabble, and besides a low politician, who desires to leave a door open to me and to stand well with the jingoes of his party. Nevertheless, as a matter of fact, it will only depend on ourselves, whether he will prove bad and adverse to us.”

On the heels of this revelation of Spanish duplicity and insult, came the destruction of the *Maine* and 266 of its sailors. Already the whole country had not alone been aroused by mass meetings in almost every town and hamlet of the United States, but fiery speeches had been made in both houses of congress urging immediate action, voicing similar protests from all over the nation. Mr. Mason, Republican senator from Illinois, said: “Dante pictured with unrivaled pen the horrors of hell, but he was incapable of depicting the terrors of life among the reconcentrados of Cuba. When the bucket shops write our legislation then our evil day is upon us. The

Republican party is pledged to put a stop to this condition of affairs in Cuba, and no man has a right to interdict action, let him sit in the White House or elsewhere, notwithstanding the declaration of the Republican platform, nothing has been done."

A board of inquiry was appointed with Admiral Sampson at the head, and was ordered to Havana, February 20, to begin its investigations. Meantime, the public feeling was becoming more and more a unit in the sentiment that diplomacy as a remedy could be no longer tolerated. The talk of the administration for indemnity as a settlement of the loss of the battleship and its sailors aroused a storm of protests from the people and their representatives in congress. The slowness of the board of inquiry in completing its work brought out the overwhelming desire of the people for the ending of Spanish rule in the devastated island of Cuba.

On March 28, forty-one days after the death-dealing explosion, the report of the board of inquiry was made public by being delivered to congress. It reviewed the disaster scientifically, and rendered a verdict that the explosion destroying the ship had come from the outside, but made no suggestion as to the responsibility for the

unparalleled crime. The official cablegrams to Spain from the administration at Washington referred to the destruction of the *Maine* as a "lamentable incident," and diplomatic correspondence concerning affairs was renewed.

The next day after the report came to congress, resolutions recognizing the independence of Cuba were introduced in both houses. The president, believing that he could settle the whole controversy through diplomatic channels, used every expedient within his power to restrain the action of congress. The resolutions were smothered in committees, and an ultimatum to Spain from the president was promised from day to day until the temper of the people in and out of congress was at fever heat. This was continued until congress was plainly resolved to brook no further delay when the president turned the whole matter over to congress April 11, without recommendation or suggestion. After eight days of debate as to the proper form of recognition, the following resolution was passed April 19:

Resolved, First, that the people of the island of Cuba are, and of right, ought to be free and independent.

Second—That it is the duty of the United States to demand, and the government of the

United States does hereby demand, that the government of Spain at once relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba, and withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters.

“*Third*—That the president of the United States be, and is hereby directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States, and to call into actual service of the United States the militia of the several states, to such extent as may be necessary to carry these resolutions into effect.

“*Fourth*—That the United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people.”

Two days later, the United States minister at Madrid was dismissed before he could deliver the ultimatum; and on April 25, without a dissenting vote, congress passed a formal declaration of war as follows:

“*First*—That war be and the same is hereby declared to exist, and that war has existed since the 21st day of April, A. D., 1898, including said

day, between the United States of America and the Kingdom of Spain.

Second—That the president of the United States be, and he hereby is, directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States, and to call into the actual service of the United States the militia of the several states to such extent as may be necessary to carry this act into effect.

April 22 the blockade of the principal Cuban ports was declared, and the next day the president issued a call for 125,000 troops.

The first staggering blow of the United States against Spain occurred on Sunday morning of May 1 in the bay of Manila. It was one of the greatest events in the annals of naval warfare, and it marked an epoch, the beginning of a new era, in the history of the United States. Commodore Dewey, with six ships known as the Asiatic squadron, in obedience to the laws of neutrality, and with orders to attack the Spanish fleet in the Philippines, left Hong Kong April 24. It sailed through the mouth of Manila bay on the night of April 30 to attack the Spanish squadron. The Spaniards had not established a patrol and there were no searchlights at the entrance of the bay. In fact, the American ships would probably have

passed inside the bay without any challenge, had it not been that some sparks flew up from the funnel of the dispatch boat McCulloch. Thereupon a few shots were exchanged with the batteries on Corregidor island, but the fleet did not slow down, and soon took up a position near Cavite, awaiting dawn in order to commence hostilities.

Five o'clock revealed the opposing ships in line of battle under the protecting batteries of the shore. The Spanish flagship opened fire. Her action was followed by some of the larger Spanish warships, and then the Cavite forts opened up and the smaller Spanish vessels brought their guns into play.

The American squadron, which had been led into the bay and through the channel by the flagship Olympia, did not reply, though the shells of the Spaniards began to strike the water all around, but moved onward as in majestic parade.

The Spaniards opened fire at 6,000 yards, but the Americans reserved their fire until within 4,000 yards of the enemy, when the real battle began.

The Reina Christina, Castilla, Don Antonio de Ulloa, Isla de Cuba, Isla de Luzon and the Mindanao were in line of battle outside of Cavite at that time, with four gunboats and the torpedo boats inside the harbor.

The American ships then passed backward and forward six times across the front of the Spaniards, pouring in upon the latter a perfect hail of shot and shell. Every American shot seemed to tell, while almost every Spanish shot missed the mark.

After having thus scattered death and demoralization among the Spanish fleet and in the Spanish batteries, the American fleet retired to afford the marines and sailors time for breakfast, and incidentally a council of war was held on board the Olympia.

By this time the Spanish ships were in a desperate condition. The flagship *Reina Christina* was riddled with shot and shell, one of her steam pipes had burst, and she was believed to be sinking. Already the victory was almost complete. The American sailors were wild with enthusiasm. Although hardly one of them had slept the night before, and they had been fighting in a burning temperature, they were more than anxious to return to the engagement and finish the good work. It was thought best, however, to take a rest for at least three hours. The decks were cleaned, the guns readjusted, and after food had been served to the men, the fleet formed and headed straight for Cavite again. The remnant of the Spanish

squadron offered very little resistance, but the forts at Cavite continued their wild efforts to strike an American warship.

This time the Baltimore was sent in advance. She headed boldly to within range of the Cavite batteries and opened fire, pounding away for thirty minutes. At the end of that time every gun of the batteries had been silenced. Of the Spanish warships the Antonio de Ulloa was the only one which came out of refuge to offer battle with the Baltimore, and she met with horrible punishment. Her decks were literally swept with shell.

The Baltimore, having silenced the forts, turned all her guns on the Spanish cruiser and actually riddled her. She sank and all her crew went down with her. That was the end of Spanish resistance. Admiral Dewey ordered his light-draught vessels to enter the navy yard and destroy everything that might give future trouble.

The Boston, the Concord and the Petrel were detailed for this duty, but the Boston, drawing twenty feet, ran aground twice, not knowing the shoals, and had to leave the work to the Petrel and the Concord. By the time these two vessels reached the navy yard they found the vessels there abandoned and most of them on fire. They

destroyed the flag end of the Spanish fleet, and when Sunday afternoon came, there was nothing left above water to represent the Spanish naval force in Asiatic waters except the transport Manila. The arsenal had been shelled to pieces.

At 12:45 o'clock the signal was given that the Spanish had surrendered. The word was passed rapidly from ship to ship. The American sailors were crazy with delight. There was tremendous cheering on every ship. The enthusiasm became even greater when the word was passed that not one of our men had been killed and not one American vessel had been injured.

The eight men who were hurt by the explosion on the Baltimore continued to fight until the end of the battle.

The Boston was struck once and the officers' quarters set on fire.

For some reason the Spanish gunners seemed to think that the Baltimore was especially dangerous, having the general build of a battleship, and next to the flagship she had to withstand the greatest amount of firing, and was struck several times, with no great damage.

The loss of the Spaniards was more than \$5,000,000, with not fewer than 1,200 killed and wounded. Two or three thousand dollars

is a liberal estimate of all the damage done to the American vessels. There was no luck in this superb achievement. It was the triumph of discipline, energy and mind.

Every one of Dewey's two thousand men had some one thing to do, and he devoted himself to that single duty, in the confident knowledge that every other man in the fleet would support him by doing with equal fidelity the other things that had to be done.

Down in the grimy, stifling stokehole of the war vessels, in a temperature hotter than any Turkish bath, men stood shoveling coal. The roar of the battle overhead was none of their business. It was not their affair whether the guns were working properly, whether the ship was running on a reef, or whether Spanish shells were about to explode in the magazine. There might be a mine just under their feet, and if it blew up they would be the first to go with it, but it was not their place to think of that. All they had to do was just to keep opening and shutting furnace doors, raking down fires and shoveling in coal.

Above them, in a compartment alive with moving masses of shining steel, was a man whose duty was to move certain wheels and levers con-

nected with the engines. With his eye on the steam gauge and his ear alert for a signal from the conning tower, he turned this handle forward and that one back.

In the magazines men in list slippers were hoisting ammunition upon loading trays, which they sent aloft, unconcerned about what happened to them when they got there. They put the bricks into the hod; it was the business of others to build the wall.

Up in the great gun positions there were men that went through certain motions, which, with the help of complicated gear, resulted in sliding the projectiles and powder into the guns. There were others who devoted their whole attention to sighting on the enemy. The rapid fire and machine guns had their own particular crews; some of whose members supplied the cartridges, while others aimed and fired.

A quartermaster stood by the steam steering gear. It was not his place to think about the ship's course; but as he turned his little wheel in response to a quiet order, the great vessel swerved deftly to starboard or port, and poured her broadside into the enemy from a better position.

On the bridge the captain stood, his keen eyes taking in the entire ship, and in brief, general

terms he gave the orders that filtered down, gaining in particularity as they went, until they governed the action of every man in the crew.

By his side was the commodore, quietly surveying the whole engagement, and then, taking his field glasses from his eyes, addressing a subdued remark to a staff officer, in response to which a string of flags fluttered to the masthead and all the other ships of the fleet moved as with a single intelligence. It was the culmination of mind. Here was the brain of the fleet—the thing that made it a single harmoniously working organism.

Every other man had to think about some particular detail. The commodore did not have to think about details at all, for, thanks to years of previous preparation and training, he knew that they would be efficiently attended to. A word from him was enough to unchain and guide the power of nearly fifty thousand horses in the engines and of hundreds of thousands of foot tons of powder energy in the guns.

There are some very interesting figures as to the amount of firing done by our ships during the battle. The Olympia fired 1,764 shells, aggregating twenty-five tons in weight. The Baltimore did even heavier firing, being called upon

to reduce the forts after the first engagement. This vessel sent no less than thirty-five tons of metal into the Spanish ships and the land batteries. The remainder of the fleet shot a total of eighty tons of metal, making a grand total of 140 tons.

On May 9th congress voted thanks and a sword to Commodore Dewey, and he was raised to the rank of rear admiral. Medals of honor were voted to all the men under his command.

From the destruction of the Spanish fleet came the necessary occupation of the islands, and with that the political problem of the Philippines, which will need the best statesmanship of the United States to manage for the best interests of America and civilization. The army of occupation was organized under General Merritt, and the first expedition sailed for Manila on May 25th. Another call was made at this time for an additional 75,000 volunteers. The next tremendous stroke against Spain came with the destruction of another Spanish fleet in its desperate attempt to escape from the harbor of Santiago de Cuba.

When Spain sent its fleet into the West Indies, there was for two or three weeks a perplexing problem as to its whereabouts and destination,

but at last Commodore Schley located it in the tortuous cliff-hidden bay of Santiago de Cuba. At once this place became the center of army and naval operations. It was immediately invested by land and sea, the army under General Shafter landing at Baiquiri, June 23d. The most notable action among the troops was that of the "rough-riders" under Colonel Wood and Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt in driving from an ambush at San Juan, near Santiago, three or four times their number. Among the sailors, the most thrilling action was that of Lieutenant Hobson and his eight companions in sinking the collier Merrimac across the channel of the harbor. It was done before daylight on June 3d, in the midst of a volcano of fire from the Spanish batteries. A shell having torn off the rudder, the vessel could not be swung around completely, but it blocked the harbor so that the Spanish vessels could not attempt to pass the obstruction at night, forcing them, when they tried to escape, to go during daylight to certain destruction. Lieutenant Hobson related his experience as follows:

"The run up the channel was very exciting. The picket boat had given the alarm and in a moment the guns of the Vizcaya, the Almirante

Oquendo and of the shore batteries were turned upon us. Submarine mines and torpedoes were also exploded all about us, adding to the excitement. The mines did no damage, although we could hear rumbling and could feel the ship tremble.

“We were running without lights, and only the darkness saved us from utter destruction. When the ship was in the desired position and we found that the rudder was gone, I called the men on deck. While they were launching the catamaran I touched off the explosives. At the same moment two torpedoes, fired by the *Reina Mercedes*, struck the *Merrimac* amidships. I cannot say whether our own explosives or the Spanish torpedoes did the work, but the *Merrimac* was lifted out of the water and almost rent asunder.

“As she settled down we scrambled overboard and cut away the catamaran. A great cheer went up from the forts and the war ships as the hull of the collier foundered, the Spaniards thinking the *Merrimac* was an American war ship.

“We attempted to get out of the harbor on the catamaran, but a strong tide was running, and daylight found us still struggling in the water. Then for the first time the Spaniards saw us, and a boat from the *Reina Mercedes* picked

us up. It then was shortly after 5 o'clock in the morning, and we had been in the water more than an hour. We were taken aboard the *Reina Mercedes* and later were sent to Morro Castle.

“In Morro we were confined in cells in the inner side of the fortress and were there the first day the fleet bombarded Morro. I could only hear the whistling of shells and the noise they made when they struck, but I judged from the conversation of the guards that the shells did considerable damage.

“After this bombardment Mr. Ramsden, the British consul, protested, and we were removed to the hospital. There I was separated from the other men in our crew, and could see them only by special permission.”

Lieutenant Hobson and his eight heroic companions were exchanged for men of similar rank captured from Cervera's fleet.

The destruction of the Spanish squadron was one of the most thrilling and spectacular scenes known in naval warfare.

At 9:30 a. m. Sunday, July 3, while the American ships were lying four to six thousand yards from the mouth of Santiago bay, a thin line of smoke appeared trailing outward through the cliffs.

Some one on the Iowa cried : "Call the captain, the Spaniards are coming out of the harbor."

"Clear the ship for action," came the order, and almost immediately afterward the Spanish flagship appeared in view, rushing at full speed out of the harbor followed by the entire fleet.

The Spaniards with bottled steam, cleared the harbor's mouth seemingly in a moment. Under their eager prows a column of foam whitened the long billows, and their bubbling wakes left furrows as straight and sharp as a racing yacht making a winning run for the finish line. Their course was shaped westward, but as fast as they sped in their desperate break for freedom, faster flew the shells of the pursuing Americans.

Every gun of the American squadron that could be brought to bear was pumping projectiles into the enemy. In a few minutes one ship of the Vizcaya class burst into flames, caused, undoubtedly, by a long, sure shot from the Oregon or Texas. A minute later a twelve-inch projectile, sent from her forward turret, struck the flagship Marie Teresa near her after smoke pipe. A tremendous explosion followed. Then she was shrouded in smoke and was lighted with lurid flames. When the powder cloud blew down the wind she was seen, helm hard aport, rushing for

the beach. The Oquendo followed wrapped in flames.

A dozen or more explosions followed, the smoke from which covered the hillsides running down almost to the water's edge.

Another column of smoke two miles farther to the westward was observed. The Vizcaya was also in flames, and was obliged to run ashore to keep from going down. The Iowa and the Indiana were keeping up a terrific fire upon her, and her condition was as bad as that of the others.

The Brooklyn, Oregon, Massachusetts and Texas, and several smaller vessels, continued the chase of the Cristobal Colon, and in less than an hour were lost to view of the burning ships on shore. The Iowa and Texas both gave assistance to the imperiled crew of the Vizcaya. Her captain surrendered his command, and the prisoners were transferred to the battleship.

The Cristobal Colon, having the lead, ran farther along the coast, before the persistent firing by the Brooklyn and Massachusetts brought her to a stop. She fought for twenty minutes. At noon she was on the rocks, perforated and tattered.

Captain Sampson, who was made chief commander of the navy after his work at the head of

the Board of Inquiry on the destruction of the *Maine*, had gone early Sunday morning on his flagship, the *New York*, to Siboney to confer with General Shafter, and thus the battle was conducted by Commodore Schley. On the appearance of the Spanish fleet a dispatch boat was sent to signal the *New York*, but it did not arrive in time to share in any of the glory of the fight.

Captain Evans of the *Iowa* said of the battle:

“For courage and dash there is no parallel in history to this action of the Spanish admiral. He came, as he knew, to absolute destruction. There was one single hope—that was that the *Christobal Colon* would steam faster than the *Brooklyn*. The spectacle of the two torpedo boat destroyers, paper shells at best, deliberately steaming out in broad daylight in the face of the fire of a battle ship, can be described in one way—it was Spanish and it was ordered by Blanco. The same must be said of the entire movement.

“In contrast to this Spanish fashion was the cool, deliberate Yankee work. The American squadron was without sentiment, apparently. The ships went at their Spanish opponents and literally tore them to pieces.”

In speaking of the pathetic part of this great naval victory, the rescue of the sailors, he said :

“The bottoms of the boats held two or three inches of blood. In many cases dead men were lying in the blood. Five poor chaps died on the way to the ship. They were afterward buried with military honors from the Iowa. Some examples of heroism, or, more properly, devotion to discipline and duty, could never be surpassed. One man on the lost Vizcaya had his left arm almost shot off just below the shoulder. The fragments were hanging by a small piece of skin. But he climbed unassisted over the side and saluted as if on a visit of ceremony. Immediately after him came a strong-hearted sailor, whose left leg had been shot off above the knee. He was hoisted on board the Iowa with a tackle, but never a whimper came from him. Gradually the mangled bodies and naked well men accumulated until it would have been almost difficult to recognize the Iowa as a United States battle ship.

“Blood was all over her usually white quarter-deck, and 272 naked men were being supplied with water and food by those who a few minutes before had been using a rapid-fire battery on them. Finally came the boats with Captain Eulate, commander of the Vizcaya, for whom a chair was lowered over the side, as he was evidently wounded. The captain’s guard of marines

was drawn up on the quarter-deck to salute him, and I stood waiting to welcome him. As the chair was placed on the deck the marines presented arms. Captain Eulate slowly raised himself in the chair, saluted me with grave dignity, unbuckled his sword belt and, holding the hilt of the sword before him, kissed it reverently, with tears in his eyes, and then surrendered it to me.

“Of course I declined to receive his sword, and as the crew of the Iowa saw this they cheered like wild men. As I started to take Captain Eulate into the cabin to let the doctors examine his wounds, the magazines on board the Vizcaya exploded with a tremendous burst of flame. Captain Eulate, extending his hands, said: ‘Adios, Vizcaya. There goes my beautiful ship, captain;’ and so we passed on to the cabin, where the doctors dressed his three wounds.

“Meantime, thirty officers of the Vizcaya had been picked up, besides 272 of her crew. Our wardroom and steerage officers gave up their state-rooms, and furnished food, clothing and tobacco to those naked officers from the Vizcaya. The paymaster issued uniforms to the naked sailors, and each was given all the corned beef, coffee and hard tack he could eat. The war had assumed another aspect.”

With the close investment of the Spanish army in Santiago by General Shafter, and the destruction of the squadron, further resistance was plainly no less madness than the attempted escape of the warships.

The tightening grip of the American lines had been done with remarkable precision and swiftness. The difficulties to be overcome in a foreign climate, on unknown shores, against forces strongly intrenched, may be readily appreciated, and the rapidity of the occupation thus rightly estimated.

General Shafter's forces arrived off Santiago June 20, and June 23 they were safely landed at Baiquiri. The advance upon Santiago began promptly. June 24 Juragua was captured, and on the same day occurred the gallant repulse of the Spaniards at La Quasina by the regulars and Rough Riders. June 26 Shafter occupied Sevilla, and June 27 his advance was within three miles of Santiago. June 30 Caney was taken, and July 1 and 2 there was fighting all along the front, which resulted in the capture of San Juan and the driving back of the Spaniards from their outer line of defenses. July 3 General Shafter demanded the surrender of the city, and the demand was emphasized by the destruction of

Cervera's fleet in its desperate effort to escape from Santiago harbor. An armistice was arranged, which was successively extended to July 9 and 10. On the last named date, Linares refused unconditional surrender, and the fleet bombarded the city. July 11 reinforcements came up, the investment of the city was completed, and a second demand for surrender was sent. July 13 overtures were made by the Spanish General for the appointment of a commission to arrange terms of peace, and the armistice was extended again to noon of July 14. Convinced of the hopelessness of further resistance, General Toral surrendered the city and his army on that day, including the whole of eastern Cuba.

On Sunday morning following the acceptance of the terms of surrender, General Shafter and his men marched into Santiago and raised the American flag over the city. The next week the expedition of the army and navy for Porto Rico, got under way. Monday, July 25, the first troops arrived at Guanica Bay. The next Wednesday the first war vessel appeared at the Port of Ponce. To the astonishment of Ensign Curtin who was sent ashore to demand the surrender of the town, the Americans met with an ovation such as they had never seen before. Instead of Spanish sol-

diers, they were met by crowds of natives shouting their joy at being delivered from Spanish rule, and showering presents of fruit and cigars upon the Americans.

The Alcaldes of the different towns hastened to declare their allegiance to the United States, and the progress of General Miles assumed more the appearance of a gala day procession, than that of a conquering army of invasion.

On July 30th the French Ambassador, M. Carbon, with full power from Spain to conduct preliminary negotiations with the United States looking to immediate peace, called on the president, and received from him the ultimatum which President McKinley announced to be as follows:

“The President does not now put forward any claim for pecuniary indemnity, but requires the relinquishment of all claims of sovereignty over or title to the Island of Cuba, as well as the immediate evacuation by Spain of the island, the cession to the United States and immediate evacuation of Porto Rico and other islands under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies, and the like cession of an Island in the Ladrones.

The United States will occupy and hold the city, bay and harbor of Manila, pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace which shall determine

the control, disposition and government of the Philippines.

“If these terms are accepted by Spain in their entirety, it is stated that commissioners will be named by the United States to meet commissioners on the part of Spain, for the purpose of concluding a treaty of peace on the basis above indicated.”

With the exit of force and the advent of diplomacy, the conclusion could not be expected to follow soon. But the people of the United States have become conscious of the responsibility and duty resting in a great world power. The American republic can no longer stand apart from participation in the influences that make for the welfare of the civilized world.

A pertinent question whose affirmative answer is obvious, may be asked in this way. If American liberty is a good thing, why not let it speed?

The political responsibility of the American nation is well expressed by the *London Spectator*:

“The world’s future greatly depends upon the political character of the Americans. When in 1950 they are 200,000,000, they can crush any people except the Slavs. To fit them for that destiny the Americans should have difficulties, dependencies and complicated relations with the

remainder of mankind. At present everything is too easy for them. They live too much to themselves. They must learn to govern as well as to be governed."

On July 26th, M. Cambon, the French ambassador, informed President McKinley that Spain had asked through him for the terms of peace. On August 11, the peace protocol was signed by Mr. Day, the American Secretary of State, and by the French Ambassador acting for the government of Spain.

The protocol finally given, which practically had the force of an ultimatum, was in effect as follows:

1. That Spain shall relinquish all claim of sovereignty over or title to Cuba.
2. That Porto Rico and other Spanish islands in the West Indies and an island in the Ladrões, to be selected by the United States, shall be ceded to the latter.
3. That the United States will occupy and hold the City, Bay and Harbor of Manila pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace which shall determine the control, disposition and government of the Philippines.
4. That Cuba, Porto Rico, and other Spanish Islands in the West Indies shall be immediately

evacuated, and that commissioners to be appointed within ten days shall, within thirty days from the signing of the protocol, meet at Havana and San Juan, respectively, to arrange and execute the details of the evacuation.

5. That the United States and Spain will each appoint not more than five commissioners to negotiate and conclude a treaty of peace. The commissioners are to meet at Paris not later than the 1st of October.

6. On the signing of the protocol, hostilities will be suspended, and notice to that effect will be given as soon as possible, by each government, to the commanders of its military and naval forces.

Thus came to an end one of the most remarkable wars ever waged. One hundred and eleven days were consumed in the contest from the opening of hostilities until the terms of peace were signed. In that time Spain lost thirty-five war ships that had cost, with their equipments, nearly forty millions of dollars. The damage done to American vessels was at most but a few thousand dollars. More than a thousand Spanish sailors lost their lives, while only one American sailor was killed in battle. About two thousand Spanish soldiers were killed, and three thousand wounded, while only two hundred and seventy-

nine Americans were killed, and fourteen hundred and sixty-five wounded. About thirty thousand Spaniards were taken prisoners. Spain lost as the penalty of war about fifty thousand square miles of land, with a population of two and one-half millions, not to speak of the Eastern possessions, with 114,326 square miles, and a population of 8,000,000.

The United States at the close of the war had a navy of fifty effective war vessels and ten thousand sailors, with a volunteer and regular army of 278,500 men.

The total expenses past and prospective were listed by competent authorities as follows:

1. Current war expenses.....	\$400,000,000
2. State expenditures.....	15,000,000
3. Private contributions....., ..	15,000,000
4. War claims.....	20,000,000
5. Loss of soldiers' productive labor..	100,000,000
6. Interest on war debt.....	90,000,000
7. Pensions.....	300,000,000
8. The Maine.....	3,000,000

Total..... ..\$943,000,000

According to the custom of civilized nations, the defeated power must indemnify its conqueror. With this done, the Spanish American war becomes a memory, and at last it will be known only by the few pages it will occupy in history.

Nevertheless, its stupendous effect on the great American republic can not be estimated. The United States has found that its duty is not alone to itself, but to the advancement of liberty, justice and commerce, wherever may be assured the development and progress of civilization.

**University of Toronto
Library**

**DO NOT
REMOVE
THE
CARD
FROM
THIS
POCKET**



