FAMOUS PEACE TREATIES

By H. IRVING KING

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THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA, 1648.

A Religious Upheaval That Lasted for Almost a Lifetime.

This gigantic conflict known as the Thirty Years' war was the longest war that has afflicted mankind, at least since the dawn of modern history; though that series of wars between France and England which extended from 1338 to 1453 is sometimes inaccurately referred to as the "Hundred Years' War."

The Thirty Years' war is often called a religious war, but it was a war in which religion was made the handmaid of politicians and the excuse of ambitious princes; the mightiest kingdom on the Protestant side was the Catholic nation of France, swayed by Cardinal Richelieu, and the Lutheran elector of Saxony did not hesitate to ally himself with the oppressor of the Bohemian Protestants.

First Overt Act of the War.

The story that the first overt act of war arose from two soldiers of different nationalities approaching a well to get a drink and getting into a fight as to who should first have the bucket, Tassoni, the Italian poet, has embalmed in his mock-heroic poem, "The Rape of the Bucket"—if he did not invent it. At any rate the stage of Europe was set for war and war came.

In May of 1618 the Bohemian Protestants rose in rebellion and the conflagration rapidly spread over continental Europe. Men were born, grew to manhood and died knowing no world but a world at war. A man of fifty could only remember that it was before he attained his majority that there had been no war; war had come to seem the normal state of the world. In this war were made the military reputations of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, Tilly, Wallenstein, Turenne and Conde. Central Europe was the battleground and the fortunes of war favored first one side and then the other. It would take volumes to detail the campaigns and battles of this war and its shifting politics. In the long run the Protestant side, through the fighting power of the Swedes and the might of Catholic France, got the best of it.

Meantime Europe was becoming utterly exhausted in men, money and commerce and industry. The pope suggested negotiations for a peace and in 1641 Louis XIII of France signed the preliminaries for a conference. But Cardinal Mazarin, who had succeeded Richelieu upon the death of that great statesman, did not desire peace until he had further humbled some of the Catholic powers, especially Spain.

Peace Delegates Met at Munster.

However, three years after Louis had signed the preliminaries peace delegates met at Munster. The congress accomplished nothing, the delegates spending their time in squabbles over matters of precedence and etiquette. It was hard work to get them to enter a common council chamber for fear one envoy would enter the room before the other, or to sit at anything but a round table for fear one should sit at the head of it. Their retainers fought in the streets for the right of way. The conference was removed to Osnabruck with like results. The war still going on, the fluctuations of battle caused a fluctuation of demands on the part of the envoys. The house of Austria split in two, the emperor desiring the peace for which all central Europe was clamoring, but Spain refusing to treat.

Finally in October of 1648, after four years of negotiation, the treaty known as the Peace of Westphalia was signed at Munster. This treaty put an end to the period of so-called religious wars and also to the supremacy of the house of Austria in Germany. France and Sweden were the principal beneficiaries, the latter receiving large German possessions with three votes in the diet, as well as an indemnification in money. France was confirmed in the possession of Verdun, Toul and Metz and most of Alsace. Germany was left in a horrible state materially; but had won liberty of conscience and a promise that laws, taxes and peace or war should be decided upon only by a free assembly of all the "estates" of the empire.

TREATY OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, 1748.

The Peace Treaty Following a War Started by Frederick of Prussia to Get Himself Talked About.

On October 18, 1748, there was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle a treaty of peace negotiated by the wisest statesmen of Europe—a treaty that put an end to the War of the Austrian Succession, which had been going on for eight years. This war over the question as to who should succeed to the Austrian throne not only disturbed Europe but its firebrands, flung across the Atlantic, lit the torch of war in America, kept the British colonies in a state of unrest and burdened them with an expenditure of money and lives. Before the death of the Emperor Charles VI of Austria he prepared the "Pragmatic Sanction" providing that the dominions of his branch of the house of Hapsburg should pass to his daughter, Maria Theresa. The nations of continental Europe agreed to it, but no sooner did Charles die than the Pragmatic Sanction became "a scrap of paper" and various claimants to the Austrian throne arose.

While the others talked, Frederick of Prussia acted. He had ascended the throne that year. On December 23 he left a masked ball, started by post for the Austrian frontier, where he had secretly massed 30,000 men, and without any preliminaries or any declaration of war invaded the Austrian province of Silesia, cynically remarking, "Let us make the war first—plenty of reason for it can be found afterwards." On another occasion, referring to this act, he said: "I did it to get myself talked about."

A True Hohenzollern.

There were but 3,000 Austrian troops in Silesia when Frederick struck and, though re-enforcements were hurried up, by the end of January the Prussians were masters of the province. France, Bavaria, Spain, Sardinia, etc., at once joined in to despoil the young queen before Prussia should get all the best of the "pickings." Driven from her capital, Maria Theresa sought refuge among the Hungarians who received her loyally, raised an army and began the struggle. In June, 1742, Frederick coolly abandoned his allies upon receiving the cession of the greater part of Silesia. Two years later he was fighting Austria again and got the rest of Silesia.

England became an ally of Austria in 1741, but it was not until 1744 that Louis XV formally declared war against that country, not as an ally of Austria but in his own name and on behalf of France. A French army sent into the heart of the Hapsburg domains, and consisting of 100,000 men, was so badly handled that, when forced back to Bavaria in 1743, it could muster but 35,000. The French met with reverses in Italy, but gained the battles of Fontenoy (where the Irish brigade distinguished itself), of Raucoux and Lawfeld.

The news that France and England were at war was first made known to America through the descent of a body of French from Cape Breton upon Canso, where the English garrison was surprised and taken prisoners. The most important event of the war on this side of the water was the capture of the immensely strong position of Louisburg, on Cape Breton island, by a colonial army under General Pepperell of Maine, assisted by a British fleet. Williamstown, Mass., was taken by a body of French and Indians and Saratoga was ravaged.

Alliance Between Russia and Austria.

An alliance between Russia and Austria hastened a desire for peace, and in April of 1748 delegates met at Aix-la-Chapelle and signed preliminaries. On October 18 a definitive treaty was concluded.

Everything in Europe was put back as it was before the war except that Prussia kept Silesia and the duchies of Parma and Piacenza were separated from Austria. In America, Louisburg was handed back to France. Eight years of war had only resulted in enlarging the boundaries of Prussia—nothing else had been accomplished. The treaty left undetermined the boundaries of the British and French possessions in America and French power in India decayed.

Macaulay says: "It was only a truce as regards Europe; it was not even a truce in other parts of the globe."

Sympathetic Electricity.

There are certain facts which have to be accepted, because they do exist, and among these is the fact thus set down in Ganot's Physics (ed. 1881). "When a glass rod, or a stick of sealing wax, or shellac, is held in the hand, and is rubbed with a piece of flannel or with the skin of a cat, the parts rubbed will be found to have the property of attracting light bodies, such as pieces of silk, wool, feathers, paper, bran, gold leaf, etc." That is to say, the rod or wax becomes electrified by rubbing it with the skin of a cat. You generate electric sparks in the fur of your black cat by friction. The possibility has been known for centuries. Why the fur of the cat rather than the fur of a rabbit or dog is not known.

Art Criticism.

Arthur, age nine, returned from his first visit to the John Herron Art institute with such a depressed air that his mother was puzzled.

"Didn't you like it, dear?"

"Not much. Mostly there were just heads of people cut off."

"But there must have been some pictures of animals and trees and lovely country."

"Oh, a few, but" in disgust, "there were more of people doing things they shouldn't."

"Doing things they shouldn't?"

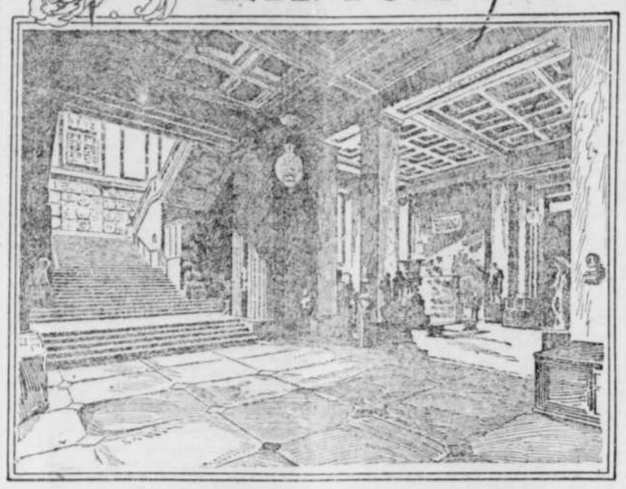
"Yes. A lot of them had taken off all of their clothes, even their union suits.—Indianapolis News.

He Got It.

"What became of that boy who said that he wanted a place where he would have a chance to rise?"

"He found it; he got a job in a powder mill."

British Museum Library



Entrance Hall of British Museum.

IT HAS become customary to start the history of the British Museum library with a transaction which took place between the British government and Sir Hans Sloane in 1753, but, as a matter of fact, the genesis of this library should be recorded 20 years earlier. The event chronicled upon this date of October 23, 1731, is a fire at Ashburnham house which partly destroyed the famous Cottonian library, and emphasized in the minds of influential patrons of learning the absolute necessity of properly housing the great collections which as yet had escaped the same fate, says the Christian Science Monitor.

That portion of the Cottonian collection which was saved from the flames still exists as an important and valuable part of the present British museum. Sir Robert Cotton was a real booklover and a natural collector. When summoned by Queen Elizabeth to Calais as royal commissioner in arranging a treaty between England and Spain, it was with sincere regret that he accepted the appointment, because it took him away from his library and from the research in which he found the greatest delight of life. Later Cotton's political activities aroused the suspicions of Charles I, and, as a result, his beloved library was sealed up and he himself arrested. When later a royal messenger came to him with the message that under certain conditions he might be restored to court favor, Cotton replied: "You come too late, my heart is broken."

The famous library was restored years later to Sir Robert's son and successor, Sir Thomas Cotton, who inherited, also, his father's love of books. From Sir Thomas it came down to Sir John Cotton, who presented the collection to the nation in 1700. The Cotton library, therefore, should be considered the nucleus to which the other collections were added.

Money Raised by Lottery.

This brings us to Sir Hans Sloane, where the chronicle usually begins. Sir Hans was physician, naturalist, and antiquary, and during his lifetime accumulated an extraordinary collection of books, manuscripts, drawings, prints, together with collections of natural and artificial curiosities. Toward the end of his life he offered them to the British nation, provided the government paid his executors some £20,000, which he estimated to be one-fourth of the intrinsic value of his collections. The real value was probably somewhat less than his estimate, but the price at which the British nation acquired his treasures was surely less than half their value, which made the contribution of Sir Hans a princely one under any circumstances.

To persuade King George II, so indifferent to the importance of letters and so miserly regarding the expenditure of money save for his own pleasures, that so large a sum should be paid was no easy task, and when the memorial was first presented to him he remarked: "I do not think there are £20,000 in the treasury." Fortunately, however, there was influence enough among those favoring the acquisition of this important collection to push the matter to a conclusion. As a result, an act was passed through parliament authorizing the holding of a lottery to raise £300,000, out of which £30,000 should be paid to the executors of Sir Hans and the countess of Oxford, and an additional £30,000 invested at interest in the public funds to provide for salaries and other expenses. Beyond this, an adequate sum was to be devoted to a suitable building for the collections. This act passed parliament in 1753, and marks the definite foundation of the British museum.

Early Restrictions on Users.

The records show that the first building containing the collections which went to make up the British museum was thrown open to the public on January 15, 1759; but the words "thrown open" require some explanation. Today there is no library in the world where the visitor or student is able to inspect and make use of its wonderful contents with greater ease or freedom than the British Museum library, but originally such restrictions were imposed as to make its use almost inaccessible. In the first place, it was announced that the library would be open "except Saturday and Sunday of each week, except Christmas day and one week after, except the week after Easter Sunday and the week after Whitsuntide, and except Good Friday, and all days which now or shall hereafter be specially appointed for Thanksgivings or feasts by public authority."

If a prospective student were able to master the mathematics of these restrictions, he then presented himself at the porter's lodge, where he was obliged to give his name, condition and address, to be entered in the register. This accomplished, the volume was laid before the librarian to decide whether the person so applying was entitled to admission. If the question were settled in the affirmative, on a second visit the applicant might receive his ticket. Having secured the precious card, he would then present himself for admission, but, as there was a restriction that not more than ten persons should be admitted for each hour the museum was open, it was still problematical whether he would be successful. If so fortunate as to be a member of one of these groups of ten he was then escorted around the library by a guide, with a limit placed upon the time, and with every element created to destroy the pleasure of literary communion with the volumes.

Later, important additions to the Cottonian, Harleian, and Sloane collections include the Royal library of 12,000 volumes, which was eventually turned over to the British museum by George II; the Thomason collection of "Kings' Pamphlets," the da Costa collection of Hebrew books and manuscripts; the Birch collection of biography; David Garrick's library of English plays; Musgrave's collection of biography and manuscripts; the Cracherode collections of books and prints.

Some Great Acquisitions.

All these collections were acquired previous to the year 1807 with no expense whatever to the government, but at this time a grant of approximately £5,000 was made for the purchase of the Lansdowne manuscripts. In 1813 another £8,000 was appropriated for the Hargrave Legal library, and, in 1821, some £13,500 was granted to secure the classical library of Dr. Charles Burney. Two years later the splendid Royal library acquired by George III became part of the British museum. This necessitated larger quarters, and was the beginning of the reconstructed museum. George III's library contained no less than 84,000 volumes. George IV tried to dispose of the collection to the emperor of Russia to enrich his own private coffers, but this plan was frustrated, and the volumes were saved to the British nation.

Francis Egerton was a later benefactor of the Museum library. He bequeathed to it the famous Egerton manuscripts, together with £12,000, the interest on which to be devoted to increasing the collection and maintaining a custodian. Three years later, in 1832, the autograph collection of the museum was enriched by the acquisition of the Arundel manuscripts; and, in 1847, the Rt. Hon. Thomas Grenville presented to the museum his magnificent library, which is still preserved as a unit under the donor's name.

No library is geographically situated more favorably to be available to the world than the British museum. A famous American collector some years ago bequeathed to it an extraordinary collection he himself had made, which it seemed from patriotic motives should have been turned over to some American institution. After having worked in the British museum, however, and after seeing the cosmopolitan nature of those who visit and make use of its treasures, one is forced to admit that this collection will accomplish its highest good by being where it is rather than consigned to the geographical limitation of any one of the American libraries. In this case the American donor considered his loyalty to letters beyond the demand of any nationality.

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