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THE
METHODIST QUARTERLY REVIEW.

APRIL, 1863.

ART. I.—NATURAL THEOLOGY.

“THE invisible things of God,” says St. Paul, “from the creation of the world are clearly seen, being understood by the things that are made, even his eternal power and Godhead.” This being premised, it follows that the more deeply we inquire into nature, and the wider we make our circle of knowledge, the more will the wisdom, power, and goodness of the Creator shine forth. False views of nature, and a narrow conception of the plan of the universe and of the relation of its parts, almost necessarily lead to false views of God. We should, therefore, hail with peculiar delight the daily accessions that are made to our knowledge of nature, although there should occasionally appear phenomena which seem to militate against the wisdom and goodness of God, and may be pressed into an unholy cause by the false interpreters of nature; we should rest assured that these discrepant phenomena will be ultimately explained, and furnish new proof of the divine attributes. Just as the complex and erratic motions of the moon, which baffled the genius of Newton, and were for a long time regarded as a strong objection to his theory of gravitation, but now, being explained, afford a striking proof of its truth.

It is not necessary for us to inquire whether man without divine revelation would have had any idea of a God. The proof of the divine existence derived from nature is no more

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ART. III.—THE TWO GREEK REVOLUTIONS OF 1862.

WHILE upon this western continent we have for months been called to witness the sad loss of human life and destruction of property which a gigantic rebellion has inflicted upon a people that until yesterday had enjoyed a prosperity rarely equaled in the history of the world, and political institutions, the envy of all liberal men, the hand of Providence has not failed to lend us encouragement, in the midst of circumstances so much calculated to depress, by pointing not only to those seasons of severe trial which in the past have visited every nation of importance, but yet more significantly to events occurring in our own times, which must convince us that we are but suffering the common allotment of mankind. The most firmly established of European monarchies have not escaped commotions that seemed to portend more serious conflicts in the future; and the little kingdom of Greece has experienced a civil war which awakened in the minds of the older portion of the population an apprehension of the re-enactment of such scenes of horror as took place thirty or forty years ago, in the days of their youth. In a former article in this Review, little more than a twelvemonth since, we endeavored to convey a correct impression of the present political condition of the Greeks, as the result of their past history, and especially of the policy of the government of Greece during the period that succeeded its revolutionary struggle. We were naturally led to point out some of those dangers which, in our opinion, seemed to threaten the stability of its peace. The record of the past year has lent to our fears the confirmation of fact.

Of dissatisfaction with the administration of Otho there has for a long time been no lack. The glowing expectations founded on his advent to the land of his adoption in the bloom of youth were wholly dissipated years ago. His selfish schemes, as shortsighted as they were permanently injurious to his subjects, disgusted alike, though on very different grounds, the unenlightened peasant and the enthusiastic philhellene. The foreigner came in contact with few persons, in the intercourse he held with the Athenians, who would attempt to uphold the admin-

istration as deserving of respect, or to disguise their dislike of King Otho. The few exceptions were found to consist in general of the *attachés* of the court, or aspirants to offices at the king's disposal. With grief well-nigh amounting to despair, true patriots discovered that when a new cabinet succeeded one that had been overturned in consequence of the disclosure of flagrant malfeasance, or insufferable submission to the arbitrary demands of the sovereign, the new ministers were but the counterparts of their predecessors in everything but name. Nor was their faith in the future confirmed when the new deputies, returned to represent more liberal principles, proved no less open to the influence of the bribes or patronage of the court, so that the king rarely failed to secure a working majority in his favor. Yet popular commotions and abortive attempts at revolution, though frequent, were far less serious than might have been expected; for none were so dull as not readily to perceive that the same powers of Europe which had placed Otho upon the throne could assuredly either secure him in its possession, or supply his place with some other monarch, as much more oppressive as was King Crane than King Log, in the fable.

To the ordinary sources of dissatisfaction, which were of long standing, has of late been added the grievance of an unusual degree of interference with the freedom of the elections, and this of so marked a character as to elicit intimations of disapproval even from foreign governments. When the late Chamber of Deputies convened, it was found that there was not a single member elected by the opposition. The phenomenon was easy of explanation. In Greece the polls are almost uniformly held in the churches. A couple of soldiers posted at the door, on the days of election, gave ready admittance to electors known to be favorable to the administration; while the opposition vainly strove to gain access to the building, and were turned back with the announcement that their names were not upon the register of those entitled to vote. If by any accident the governmental candidate was discovered to be in danger of defeat, the prospect was readily altered by the insertion of additional ballots by the election committee and guard—all being men selected for their known devotion to the crown. To counterbalance this accession of ballots, the names of non-resi-

dents or deceased persons must be inscribed upon the lists; and it was a common report that four thousand dead men voted at Athens alone, all on the ministerial side. No wonder that with a House thus elected, and with senators appointed by the cabinet without any participation of the people in the selection, the most dangerous projects were initiated toward the close of the year 1861. Retrograde governments have always shown the utmost sensitiveness to the criticism of a free press; and the first symptoms of the proximity of revolution are frequently detected in the attempt to fetter its utterances. The new Chambers of Greece had scarcely been organized, before it was rumored that an oppressive bill was to be introduced to regulate the exercise of this new organ of public sentiment. The provision that no person should edit a newspaper who had not acquired the degree of "didactor," or doctor, in one of the schools of the university, was intended to exclude a great part of the present corps of editors. But the additional condition of depositing ten thousand drachms, or nearly seventeen hundred dollars, as caution money, was a manifest violation of the Constitution, which, while it recognizes the pecuniary responsibility of editors and proprietors of public journals, expressly prohibits the exaction of security. It was remarked by one well qualified to judge, that some few of the present corps might perhaps conform to the latter requirement, but that barely two or three were possessed of the necessary qualifications as graduates. "This measure," it was pithily added, "will greatly lighten the labors of the king's attorneys, and especially those of the prosecutor at the capital, since it will put an end to the frequent seizures of papers. It will also free the government from the annoyance of seeing its actions criticised and condemned through the press. Although in the present state of affairs nothing is improbable, yet we incline to believe that the cabinet will give a serious consideration to the consequences of so harsh a measure." The opposition elicited by the mere announcement of the project determined the ministerial party not to bring it publicly forward.

The illiberal character of the legislature was evinced yet more distinctly by the law on mixed marriages, in which the odious provisions of the most bigoted edicts on this vexed question were reproduced. "Marriage between a person belonging

to the Eastern Orthodox (Greek) Church and one belonging to any other Christian religion is valid," says this precious relic of medieval exclusiveness, "when celebrated by a priest of the Eastern Orthodox Church, if all the prescriptions of the Greek law are observed, and if a promise is first made by the bridegroom, in the presence of the justice of the peace (*ελληνοδικης*) of the place in which the marriage is performed, that the children that may be born of this marriage shall be baptized and educated in the Eastern Orthodox religion. The violation of this promise is punished according to the 270th article of the Penal Code." Vainly did the friends of religious equality and toleration oppose the law; it was passed by a large majority in spite of the remonstrances of Mr. Cyriacus, representative of the city of Athens, who stigmatized it as repugnant to the spirit of the Constitution, and to the principles of the nineteenth century.

Alarming evidence of the discontent of the people was found about the same time in an attempt made by a young student named Dosios to assassinate the Queen Amelia, then regent, during the absence of her husband. The queen fortunately escaped injury, and the would-be murderer was tried and condemned. His counsel endeavored to prove him insane, but the judges took a different view of the case. He himself, at a preliminary examination, boldly avowed his intention of freeing his country from tyranny. Scarcely had the felicitations of ambassadors and high dignitaries, and the special services in the churches in honor of her majesty's deliverance ceased, when a new and equally startling disclosure was made. A conspiracy had been formed to murder the king, who had now returned, and among those implicated were a number of cavalry officers and soldiers. These premonitions could not fail to excite alarm in the breasts of Otho and Amelia, for against insubordination in the native army they had been without defense, since they were compelled in 1843 to dismiss their Bavarian troops.

Notwithstanding these and other tokens of an approaching tempest, the government was unable to obtain any intimations sufficiently definite to enable it to provide against the storm. Information which has of late reached us, but which never found its way into the Athenian press, enables us to assert that an extensive revolution had been organized, far more extensive than the monarch or his counselors ever imagined possible.

The head and heart of the movement was Athens, from which, as a center, it had spread to all parts of the kingdom. In the capital it counted among its adherents many of the most influential citizens, some of whom held high offices in the civil administration, as well as in the army and navy. But although so many were necessarily intrusted with the weighty secret, so perfect was the organization, and so reliable the confidants, that no tidings reached the cabinet. Many a poor Athenian possessed and kept securely the intelligence which the court would have willingly bought at a high price. Vague rumors were indeed current, and the police even ventured to make some arbitrary arrests; but all their search was of no avail. Canaris, an admiral in the Greek navy, was probably the leader of the conspirators. For the outbreak, which was intended to be simultaneous throughout the entire country, a day early in the month of February, 1862, was chosen. On the evening of that day a ball was to be given at the palace, at which the king and queen, the latter an ardent lover of the dance, were to appear in public. At an appointed signal the conspirators, who had posted themselves near the persons of the royal pair, were to advance, and, interrupting their festivities, hurry them off to the port Piræus, whence a steamer in waiting would convey them back to the Germany, which they ought never to have left. The plan was a bold one, and it would probably have been effected without the effusion of blood had not one of those apparently fortuitous circumstances occurred which often disturb the most accuraté of human calculations.

An important point in the eyes of the conspirators was the city of Nauplia, situated at the southern end of the rich Argolic plain, sixty miles distant in a direct line from Athens, but nearly twice as far by the circuitous route which a steamer must take in turning the southern cape of the Argolic peninsula. Of no great importance in ancient times, except as the port of the celebrated cities of Mycenæ, Argos, and Tiryns, which, as was customary at an early period, when piracy universally prevailed, were built at a considerable distance from the sea, during the middle ages Nauplia grew at the expense of its neighbors. When Greece revolted from the Turks, Nauplia, called by the Italian sailors Napoli di Romania, was the most important city of the Peloponnesus. When the

claims of various localities to become the permanent capital of the new kingdom were made the subject of debate, there were not a few who advocated the selection of Nauplia, which had served as the temporary seat of government. Nothing but the prestige of Athens prevented the adoption of Nauplia or Corinth for this honorable distinction. Besides its convenient situation for commercial purposes, the city of which we speak possessed a strong fortress, the Palamede, reputed to be the most defensible position in the Peloponnesus, surpassing even the famous Acrocorinthus in this particular, since there are no great elevations in the neighborhood by which it is commanded. The possession of this citadel had indeed made Nauplia the *key* of Southern Greece.

For many years the Palamede has been the arsenal of Greece. At the beginning of 1862 it was said to contain not less than fifty thousand stand of arms. There was a large quantity of ammunition, and all the siege pieces in Greece were to be found within its walls. A great part of the standing army of the kingdom were permanently stationed here to guard the position and its important stores. Three thousand men constituted the garrison at the date above mentioned. Not only the principal officers, but even the subordinates, had entered into the conspiracy; and it has been remarked that none were more faithful than the non-commissioned officers, who on more than one occasion during the subsequent difficulties, detecting infidelity or cowardice in their superiors, locked them in their rooms, that they might have no opportunity to damage the common cause.

The conspirators at Nauplia, in their communications with the leaders at Athens, had been assisted by an agent of the Dutch consulate. Their letters were inclosed by him in envelopes addressed to the consular bureau at the capital, and thus they passed safely through the post-office, protected by the foreign seal from the prying eyes of the salaried spies, whose acquaintance with ordinary letters is reputed to be much too intimate. The Dutch consul himself seems to have been ignorant of the contents of the correspondence that accompanied his dispatches. At length intelligence reached the monarch of Argolis which satisfied him that letters of a treasonable character would be found in the mail then in the post-office. He at once ordered its detention; and the police officers had

executed his commands, when the agent of the consul revisited the office, suspecting that something was amiss, and requested his dispatches to be returned. Instead of complying with his request the seal was broken, the letters read, and the names of some of the principal leaders at Athens, as well as of their comrades at Nauplia, came to light. The Nauplians saw that there was no time to be lost, if they would consult their own safety. On the first day of February, Old Style, (the thirteenth, New Style,) five or six days before the day previously fixed upon for the common movement, the Hellenic army at Nauplia raised the standard of revolt. Under their commanding officers, Botzaris, Grivas, and Artemes, they at once possessed themselves of the person of the nomarch, who had been instrumental in their discovery, not without some violence. The custom-house and the bank were the first objects of their search, and their contents were speedily applied to the support of the movement. The military prison was visited, and the convicts were not only liberated, but arms were placed in their hands, and they went to swell the number of the insurgents. At the same time the precaution was taken to secure not only the strong fortifications of the citadel, but also the inferior works that protect the lower town in the direction of the suburb of Pronia, and the detached castle of Bourdzi, which stands upon a rock scarcely rising above the sea. So promptly were these measures adopted that if any opposition was entertained by the inhabitants of the city, which with its suburbs may contain eight or nine thousand souls, few ventured to give any expression to their secret feelings.

Meanwhile at Athens the intelligence awakened the deepest solicitude. The king could not view without emotion the establishment of an armed band of rebels in the very city where twenty-nine years before, on the 6th of February, 1833, he had stepped for the first time upon Grecian soil. Apprehensions were entertained lest the insurrection at Nauplia might prove to be only a part of a preconcerted movement extending over the entire country. It was not, therefore, without great relief that telegraphic dispatches from Argos, Patras, Lamia, and other prominent localities, announced the maintenance of good order, and a general repudiation of the attempt of the rebels. At Athens itself quiet ruled, and the citizens

devoted themselves to their usual pursuits, with the exception of a few ever ready to take advantage of any novelty to indulge in idleness. The legislative bodies were summoned to an extraordinary session, and at once took occasion to express in strong terms their condemnation of the revolution, and their readiness to afford the government all needed aid and support. At the same time the government ordered the arrest of fifteen or twenty Athenians of various professions, whose names are given in the Greek journals. They seem subsequently to have been as summarily released; and from this circumstance we may be warranted in inferring that the grounds of their imprisonment were discovered to be frivolous. At least no charge was preferred against them that could be substantiated before a court of law.

As intelligence began to come in from those parts of the kingdom which were in less close communication with the capital, it was found that nowhere had the insurrection manifested itself outside of Nauplia, save in the town of Tripolis, or as it is named upon our maps, Tripolitza, the capital of Arcadia, the central *nome* of Peloponnesus. Here the leaders endeavored to strengthen their cause by giving it the sanction of religion. The Archbishop of Mantinea was induced to take an active part in encouraging the rebels, if indeed he was not originally one of the chief conspirators. Not only did he sprinkle the band with consecrated water, and administer to them the oath of fidelity to one another, but he was so bold as to deliver a sermon or address full of comfort to those who had espoused the desperate cause. Only a few months had elapsed since this prelate had revealed his true character indifferently well. An agent of the British and Foreign Bible Society visiting Arcadia, had felt the liveliest pity for the poor prisoners confined in the jail of Tripolitza, and destitute of religious instruction, as well as of anything to counteract the debasing influence of vicious associates. He therefore distributed among the prisoners a number of Bibles and New Testaments in the modern Greek. On hearing of this benevolent donation, the Archbishop of Mantinea, instead of testifying satisfaction at so Christian an act, exercised his authority as diocesan, and caused the Word of God to be taken away from these poor souls who were famishing for spiritual food. This

heathenish course was violently criticised by thinking men, but it received no notice from the government, which soon after discovered this prelate's unworthiness, as evinced in his abetting the rebellion. But whether the insurgents did not meet in Tripolitza with the support they anticipated, or whether the position was too exposed to be deemed tenable, certain it is that they were compelled, after seizing upon the public treasury, to evacuate the town and retreat in the direction of Sparta and Messenia. Not long after, finding their efforts fruitless, and their number diminished by desertions, they sent for one of the national officers of a village near which they were, and after voluntarily surrendering to him the public property they had seized, quietly dispersed and returned to their homes.

The first military movements of the royal forces seem not to have been attended with much success. A considerable body of infantry and artillery, drawn together from various points, was concentrated near Corinth, and hurried forward to the narrow pass of Dervenakia, where the road from Corinth to the Argolic plain finds its way through the mountain range which further to the east spreads over the entire Argolic peninsula. It was the possession of this difficult pass which in 1822 enabled the Greek patriots to overwhelm the numerous army of Drami Ali Pasha. The royal generals were consequently anxious to become masters of it, and in this attempt they were successful. The Argive to whom the insurgents had intrusted the task of organizing a band and defending the pass proved a coward, and hid himself in a neighboring vineyard, whence he was drawn out and imprisoned by the Nauplians. But on pressing forward the royal army fell into an ambuscade in the immediate vicinity of the ruins of ancient Tiryns. The prospect of the sea-shore is here cut off from the main road by a growth of reeds and other marsh plants. Under cover of these the insurgents had placed floating batteries in a position to command the road; and scarcely had the royal troops made their appearance before the vegetation disappeared, as if by magic, and a murderous fire opened on their flank. The loss of the army from this unexpected attack was reported by the government organs to be two killed and twelve wounded. It was subsequently shown that it ought to have been stated at more than one hundred.

A few weeks elapsed, embracing the latter part of the month of February, during which the operations before Nauplia were unimportant. Indications of feeling unfavorable to the government appeared at Athens, where disturbances took place at the university and the gymnasia, and a number of shopkeepers suddenly closed their shops, alleging that as no business was done it was useless for them to keep them open. The shopkeepers were forced by the police, who saw in the steps adopted some secret design, to reopen their establishments, even if they sold nothing. And the students were punished by the promulgation of an order from the minister of public instruction, suspending the exercises of the institutions for a period of several months, an arrangement by which all but the most industrious were delayed fully one year in their studies. Within a few weeks the gymnasium of Patras was likewise closed, apparently for the same cause. Evidently the government looked with suspicion on the body of students gathered in these institutions, perhaps fearing lest in the bosom of this excitable and enthusiastic class there might arise some more significant movement, giving to the revolution a definite aim and a more lasting impulse. The Athenians were forbidden their customary carnival festivities, for the disguises so essential to the unrestricted license of this season were altogether prohibited. Nor were more than two persons allowed to walk the streets in company. At the same time the influence of the clergy was invoked to restore quiet throughout the land. The "Holy Synod" published an encyclical letter, in which both clergy and laity were enjoined to give due submission and obedience to the king and to the laws of the state.

Meanwhile the rebel leaders, although disappointed at finding that their cause was espoused by few outside of the walls of Nauplia, prepared to make a vigorous resistance to the royal troops, now encamped in the immediate neighborhood, while continuing to kindle the flame of revolt elsewhere. For this purpose they had, at the very commencement of their struggle, addressed to their countrymen a proclamation, now for the first time published by the loyal papers of the realm. The glories attaching to the 25th of March, the anniversary of the outbreak of the revolution which emancipated Greece from Turkish rule, were rehearsed and contrasted with those that belonged

to the 3d of September, 1843, which beheld the establishment of constitutional government. But neither of these critical days was more deserving of everlasting remembrance than the 1st of February, when the country was saved from the suffocating embrace of "a system whose emblem was lawlessness and treason, a system of slavery and degradation." "Heroic Nauplia," added the document in enthusiastic language, "under the leadership of heroes, in conjunction with its brave garrison, and with the full concurrence of the citizens, first seized its arms, and first struck a fatal blow at that system, unfurling the standard of freedom, on which appear, inscribed in golden letters, these three principles capable of saving the nation: 1. The fall of the system hitherto observed, and the proclamation of a new system assuring the freedom of the people, and the application of the two following principles. 2. The dissolution of the present council (Chamber of Deputies) established by violent measures. 3. The convocation of a national convention promising the recovery by the nation of its liberties, which have been trodden under foot, and the fulfillment of all our noble and national longings." This declaration of the objects contemplated by the revolution was signed by eleven of the most prominent leaders, among whom were Zaphiropoulos and Peter Mauromichales. A document accompanied it, in which the authorities of the city of Nauplia indorsed the action of the army, and boasted that the maintenance of good order had been undisturbed, while private rights and property were amply respected.

On the other hand King Otho, on the 17th of February, (March 1, New Style,) made a solemn address to the Greek people. After deploring the treachery of men for whom the sacredness of an oath and the unsullied honor of a soldier ought to have been pledges of fidelity, but who had invited to their native land the most hateful of all anarchy, military license, the Greek monarch states that the needful steps have been taken to bring the revolt to a speedy conclusion. In the midst of such mournful circumstances, nothing could be more consoling than the universal reprobation with which the tidings of rebellion had been met at the hands of all classes of the population. As the king of such a nation, he must express his gratitude and pride. He reminds his subjects that he has identified his fortunes with theirs, since their future is also his

own. It was for their sakes that he left his own land, his parents and other relatives, a quiet and undisturbed life; for he had from the beginning recognized the fact that a noble future was in reserve for Greece. By their conduct the Greeks had shown that, duly estimating these sacrifices, they sought the prosperity of their country only in the exercise of justice and the operation of the Constitution of the realm. He therefore exhorted them to remain steadfast in that mutual confidence in and love of the throne, to which they were indissolubly bound by the oaths of 1833 and 1844. To the address were appended, below the signature of Otho, the names of all the members of the cabinet: Coundouriotis, Botsares, Simos, Botles, and Christopoulos. It was everywhere read, and by some its assurances of solicitude for the common welfare were welcomed. The greater number of readers, however, we may well suppose, were not disposed to rate very highly the sacrifices which an unappanaged younger son of the king of Bavaria had made in consenting to accept the regal crown of Greece, and thought perhaps that the profuse expenditures of the palace, when viewed in connection with the neglect of public improvements, failed to confirm that extreme devotion to the national weal of which an exhibition was so ostentatiously made. Others, if disposed to be more censorious, suggested that the repeated reference to civic and military oaths was scarcely seemly in the mouth of a monarch whose entire policy had been an undisguised hostility toward the form of government he had solemnly sworn to uphold.

A royal ordinance, published two days before the address, promised amnesty to all soldiers who, previous to the commencement of the actual bombardment of Nauplia, should lay down their arms. It was also extended to non-commissioned officers who could prove that their participation in the revolt had been compulsory or the result of no premeditation. What was the effect of the proclamation does not appear. Indeed, the universal complaint of the press was that the public was kept in ignorance of events that were transpiring in and around Nauplia.

At length, everything having been made ready for an assault on the positions held by the rebels, a general attack was made on the 1st of March, just one month after the outbreak of the rebellion. On all points the attack was successful, although

the advantage was not gained without great effusion of blood. First the little hamlet of Areia was carried, a position two miles eastward of Nauplia, on the same rocky ridge, the possession of which was of great importance, as it contains the springs whence the water is brought by an aqueduct to the city. A height crowned by a mill known as that of Tambacopoulos was taken about the same time. Next the assailants directed their efforts against the suburb of Pronia, close to the gates of the city. Here a more determined resistance was experienced, but before the close of the day Pronia was added to the positions that remained in the hands of the royal troops. In these several engagements a considerable number of prisoners were taken, among whom were several officers, Lieut. Gourgoures, Coronæus, and others. Six cannon and some ammunition also fell into the hands of the royalists. But the victory was purchased at a costly sacrifice of life. Five or six hundred were counted among the fallen. The attack had been skillfully planned and faithfully executed by the commanding general, Chan. This prominent philhellene, a Swiss by birth, who after serving in the revolution had settled in Greece, and risen to the rank of major-general in the Greek army, had been ordered by Otho to undertake the suppression of the rebellion. At first he declined the odious task, alleging that it was for no such purposes that he had come to the land of his adoption. But the king assumed the responsibility, and reminded him of that subordination which is the first of military virtues. With great reluctance the general yielded; but at the conclusion of the campaign he retired from a country where he had been made the unwilling instrument of the shedding of the blood of citizens by citizens, and betook himself once more to his native hills.

Notwithstanding this great success, but little progress had been made toward the reduction of Nauplia. It is true that it was now invested both by land and sea; but the fortress was almost impregnable, and, what was of more consequence, the insurgents had an abundance of artillery and ammunition, while the royalists were altogether unprovided with siege pieces, all that the government owned having fallen into the possession of the rebels, together with the arsenal. It was evident that Nauplia could be gained for the royal cause only by a long and tedious blockade or by surrender on advantageous terms. A

truce for five days was agreed upon between the garrison of Nauplia and the besieging force, and this was the end of active operations. At the termination of this truce a new truce followed, and then a series of armistices were entered into.

Meanwhile another insurrection, or rather another part of the same general plan of revolt which had been disconcerted by the premature disclosure of the plot and outbreak at Nauplia, revealed itself among the Cyclades. The small garrison of Syra or Hermoupolis, the most important commercial port of Greece, raised the standard of the revolution about the first day of March, (Old Style.) The local government indorsed the movement, but afterward disowned its action, as having been the result of constraint. The soldiers, numbering about one hundred and fifty men, seized one of the best vessels belonging to the Greek steamship company, and steamed first to the island of Tenos, where, after a delay which eventually proved fatal to their cause, they took on board another small detachment of troops animated by the same sentiments. They were under the command of a skillful officer, Leoutzakos by name, who in 1854 had been governor of Lamia, and had twice defeated the Turks in the plains of Thessaly. It was his plan, after gathering all the troops whom he could muster on the islands of the Ægean, to sail to Chalcis, on the island of Eubœa. Having released all the prisoners in the public prison, and thus swelled his force, he was to cross the bridge to the mainland and march through Bœotia, or transport himself and his followers to Marathon and take a more direct route to Athens, where his confederates awaited him, ready to take up arms at his approach. But the want of readiness of the Teniots delayed the steamer so long that scarcely had it reached the island of Cythnus, its next stopping place, when the royal corvette "Amalia" made its appearance in pursuit. As it arrived Leoutzakos, who had hastily thrown up a breastwork on the shore, and might easily have destroyed the royalists in their open boats, ordered his soldiers not to fire, and made signals of his desire to address the approaching party. He was standing on the breastwork about to speak, when Chrysoverges and Tsiros, in command of the royalists, ordered their men to fire. Leoutzakos fell pierced with several balls; many of his followers shared his fate, the rest were made prisoners, and the plan failed. The brutal

Chrysoverges expressed his unwillingness to give the corpse of the fallen officer a place on the *Amalia* as it returned to Athens. Placed, naked, we believe, in a little open boat, it was trailed after the steamer, while the insolent victors vented upon the dead man their reproaches and contumely. The commandant had even the hardihood to boast at Athens of the exploit, and nearly paid the price of his audacity; for a relative of Leoutsakos attempted to avenge his murder, and was only hindered by the interference of other persons who happened to be present. And even after the flames of civil war had been extinguished, when Chrysoverges had occasion to land at Nauplia, for the purpose of visiting friends at Argos, he was met at the wharf by an indignant crowd of three thousand persons, who hissed and cursed him as a murderer, and pelted him with the most disgusting substances. Not a carriage driver would consent to carry him to Argos; with difficulty could he find a seat in a rough cart.

The time for an accommodation was now evidently drawing nigh. On the one hand, the insurgents had beheld the failure of their attempts to elicit the co-operation of the other portions of Greece. A new effort might be crowned with success, if carefully planned and executed simultaneously throughout the country; but the failure of the present undertaking was inevitable. On the other hand, the government had no means for the reduction of Nauplia, and could afford to purchase the submission of the rebels at the cost of a few concessions. The terms of the proclamation of amnesty were gradually extended by announcements issued during the latter part of the month of March. Many of the families of Nauplia were allowed by both parties to leave the rebel lines. Finally the insurgents consented to surrender the place on condition that the amnesty should be extended to all excepting certain leaders, a list of whose names was made; and the government pledged itself to the foreign ambassadors to carry into effect those reforms which the Nauplians had demanded in their programme. On this basis an agreement was made; and on Easter Sunday, April 8, Old Style, (20th, New Style,) 1862, the rebellion, which had lasted nearly seventy days, was terminated. The leaders, and many of their followers, embarked on an English and a French steamer that lay waiting for them in the Argolic gulf, and soon

reached Smyrna. Three of their number, among them the coward who had been appointed to guard the pass of Dervenakia, being in disagreement with their comrades, proceeded from Smyrna to Italy. The royal troops re-entered Nauplia through those ancient and curious gates on whose portals is yet to be seen the winged lion of St. Mark's, the emblem of the former supremacy of the Venetian republic. The blockade of the Argolic gulf was removed. The tidings of the restoration of peace were carried to every part of Europe on the telegraphic wires, and the congratulations of the Lord Commissioner of the Ionian Isles and of other rulers came back in quick response.

A wise monarch and cabinet would have viewed such an opportunity as that now presented as one of those critical junctures which, if improved, may lead to firm and solid peace, but which, neglected, are forever irretrievably lost. The rebellion had made a clear and unmistakable revelation of the extent of the prevailing discontent. No class of the population were free from dissatisfaction. Even the soldiery, upon whom Otho had reposed unquestioning confidence, had proved disaffected. They had been ringleaders in the revolt. Nor were the causes which had led to the revolt disguised. The government had been distinctly informed that it was the deliberate ignoring of the people, the attempt to deprive the public of all participation in the affairs of state, the utter disregard of constitutional prescriptions and of the common welfare, which had alienated the great mass of the Greek people. And the lesson which the revolution was intended to communicate ought to have been no less salutary, because of its failure through a want of concert among its originators. It would have been easy for the monarch, by the adoption of wise and sufficiently radical reforms, to have precluded the possibility of a repetition of the attempt, and to have acquired such a hold upon the affections of his people as might have secured his crown to his successors for several generations. None of his previous derelictions—the sad record of nearly an entire generation—would have dimmed his future glory; so forgiving is the people whom recent favors blind to ancient wrongs. Was this the record of the Bavarian Otho?

The king in his boyhood had been intended for a cardinal of the Roman Church. A casual suggestion, and the election

by the protecting powers of Europe, diverted him from an ecclesiastical career, and he exchanged the prospect of a crimson cap for the reality of a regal crown. But the principles which Jesuit tutors had inculcated he could never forget. It was no intention of his to fulfill the promises of reform which he had made; and the proofs of this were soon to be seen.

The revolution had exhibited the paramount necessity of the organization of a national guard. The legislative bodies were summoned to take this matter into consideration, and after several postponements of the opening of their sessions, they commenced their deliberations. Meanwhile the ministry of Miaoulis fell; and after the portfolio had been offered to Mr. Tricoupis, whose demands the king could not bring himself to admit, Mr. Colocotronis, formerly master of ceremonies, was intrusted with the formation of a new cabinet. How general and how thorough was the detestation in which the outgoing ministers were held, may be inferred from a single incident. The Minister of Justice and Education, Mr. Potles, a person of gentlemanly manners and pleasing address, had been a lawyer before taking his seat in the cabinet. No sooner was his resignation of office tendered, than the Athenian association of lawyers expelled him from their society. Similar marks of disapproval awaited other tools of the king.

In the Chamber of Deputies the law respecting the new National Guard was made the subject of violent discussion. On the one hand, all true patriots endeavored to secure to the members of the guard themselves the selection of all the officers. On the other hand, the party which was headed by both the late and the present ministers proposed to place the unrestricted right of nominating them in the hands of the king. Finally there was a partial compromise adopted, which provided that from four candidates elected by the guard the king should select one. The determination of the government to secure the passage of the bill we cannot but regard as most ill-advised. It convinced the people that Otho was determined to be guided, as heretofore, by a policy dictated by Austria and Bavaria; a policy that denied to the people all control of the military, as well as of the civil administration. For could not the king always count upon finding at least one out of the four candidates entirely subservient to his purposes? "The Cham-

ber of Deputies of Greece," said one journal, "has thus, in open day, granted to the executive a right belonging exclusively to the people. We devoutly pray that this instrument may never be turned against the people itself, from whose hands it has been so dextrously snatched." As a matter of necessity the bill, which had passed the lower House, was hurried through the Senate, composed of the nominees of the king, and in August the law was formally signed by Otho. At that very moment the Minister of Justice, Mr. Eliopoulos, chose to give a new token of his zeal to outdo all previous ministers in devotion to the "system," under which term the Athenians have been wont of late to designate the unconstitutional and retrograde tendencies of the partisans of the court. He gave to the police and other authorities of justice the power of unsealing and reading the private letters sent through the mail, an act expressly forbidden by the Constitution. But this was a draught too bitter even for the Senate, which had so promptly swallowed the law on the National Guard. A violent discussion ensued, and the minister was compelled to admit the illegality of his instructions, with the secret intention, we have no doubt, of nevertheless carrying them more privately into practice, and the Senate entered upon its records this minute: "Whereas the Minister of Justice has publicly acknowledged that the document No. 5,295, of June 30 of the present year, has no official force, and conveys no obligation for its application, the Senate, satisfied with this confession, ceases from all further discussion."

We come now to a fresh scene in the revolutionary drama. Quiet had for months been restored throughout the kingdom. The civil commotions, like angry waves after the tempest has ceased, had gradually subsided, and a season of undisturbed calm seemed about to succeed. So at least thought the court, for the king and queen regarded it as a favorable opportunity for making a pleasure trip, and at the same time conciliating favor by visiting some of the provincial cities. On Wednesday, the 3d of October, Old Style, (15th, New Style,) the royal party left Piræus in the steamer "Amalia," intending to touch at various points on the coast of Peloponnesus, as well as at some of the islands. They carried with them, it is said, not a few ecclesiastical ornaments, intended as presents for the churches they

might visit. They had not been absent many days before important intelligence reached them, as the "Amalia" lay before Calamata in the Messenian gulf. On Monday, the 7th of October, the news of a fresh insurrection was received at Athens. It had broken out in the garrison at Bonitza in Acarnania, a town on the Ambracian gulf, and, therefore, in the extreme west of continental Greece. In rapid succession came telegrams announcing its spread to Missolonghi, and along both shores of the Corinthian gulf. On Wednesday the 10th, (22d, New Style,) it was known by all the initiated that the outbreak was to take place in the capital. But the day passed quietly away, and it was not until an hour before midnight that the signal was given by the firing of a musket. Soon the city was in commotion; bodies of armed citizens appeared in all the streets. They massed in the public squares, especially that in front of the palace, where the garrison of probably about three thousand men were called out to oppose them. At first no symptom of disaffection appeared among the troops; they were only waiting to be convinced that the movement was conducted by competent leaders. Most of the fighting took place in the vicinity of the Polytechnic School, and on the street of *Æolus*, one of the chief thoroughfares. But few were killed; it is said three of the gendarmes and two of the citizens. The gendarmes were the only troops that remained steadfast. A spectator thus describes the concluding scene, when the troops began to yield to the popular movement: "Almost the entire garrison of Athens was quartered in the square before Mr. —'s house, and as I was very anxious to be an eye-witness of part of the affair at least, I spent the night at his house, looking down upon the scene below me from one of the windows. It was capital fun to see a portion of the troops scamper off and join the citizens about one o'clock in the morning, which was followed by great cheering in the neighborhood of the royal stables. In half an hour's time after this event there was not a man left on the square; cavalry, infantry, and artillery, all were gone! The gendarmes, seeing that all was over, took refuge in the palace, where they remained till morning, and then surrendered."

The revolution was successful. Country and capital had risen and shaken off the yoke of slavery. Nothing remained

but for the ministry of Colocotronis to resign, which they did the same morning at about two o'clock. Meanwhile the insurgents had not waited for that event, but had at once published the following document :

DECREE.

The sufferings of our native land have ceased. All the provinces and the capital, in union with the army, have put an end to them. As the common determination of the entire Greek nation, it is announced and decreed :

The kingly rule of Otho is annulled. The regency of Amelia is annulled. A provisional government, to govern the realm until the convocation of the National Assembly is established, consisting of the following citizens: Demetrius Boulgares, President; Constantine Canares and Benizelos Roufos.

A national assembly will be called immediately for the formation of the form of government and the choice of a ruler. Vive the nation! Vive the fatherland!

Done in the year of salvation 1862, the tenth day of October.

This decree was prefaced in the public prints by such editorial expressions as these: "Fellow-citizens! after a thirty years' contest, and after the greatest sacrifices, the Greek nation has arisen against the tyranny of the Bavarian, Otho Witeltsbach, and is now free!"

The king and queen, informed of the revolt at Bonitza and of its spread through western Greece, had turned their faces homeward. But the overthrow of the government had been effected before they reached Athens. Finding Piræus in the hands of the people, the "Amalia" dropped down toward Salamis; but on hearing further details regarding the complete success of the revolution, the king gave orders to leave the anchorage. Meanwhile the very officers and sailors of the sole vessel at the king's command had been infected with the prevailing contagion. The firemen had extinguished the fire; the engineers declared the machinery to be out of order. There was no alternative left but surrender, or escape to some friendly ship. Reluctantly the royal family embraced the latter course. "The tyrant and blood-stained Otho, with his abominable wife Amelia, embarked, weeping and wailing like children, in the English steamer Scylla." Such was the language in which the outraged public expressed its long pent-up indignation at the wrongs it had suffered. At nine o'clock in the evening of October 12th,

(24th, New Style,) 1862, the late king, with his consort, was on his way for Trieste, there to resign the crown in favor of his younger brother.

The change had been effected with little bloodshed. It was a providential circumstance that the king and queen were absent on their tour around Peloponnesus; for the plan of the revolution had been formed irrespective of their movements, and had they been in Athens we can well imagine that the issue might have been much more sanguinary. No one had dreamed that the detestation of the people for the late monarch was so general. All joined in the execrations of his memory. The busts and statues which had been so lavishly erected in the squares and gardens were thrown down. The king's crown was destroyed. Even the names of streets and buildings, which recalled his rule, were summarily changed. The *University of Otho* became the *Grecian University*. The palace, it was suggested, must be converted into a great national museum.* The police, the instruments of tyranny, were disbanded, and their places were assumed by a home guard, consisting chiefly or exclusively of students. Their services were needed. Some miscreants, taking advantage of the general confusion, broke into houses during the night of the ensuing Friday. They were caught after a determined resistance, and *eight* were sentenced to be shot at four o'clock on the next day upon the public square of *Concord*, the late square of *Otho*.

The new provisional government was speedily organized, and in the presence of the new metropolitan of Athens swore to consult the interests of the Greek people. It was headed by a man whose antecedents rendered him deserving of the position. Boulgares was a faithful and consistent friend of liberty, a worthy compeer of the aged Mavrocordatos and of Tricoupes. He had, only a few weeks before, introduced into the Senate,

* Among other tokens of the universal desire of all classes of the population to destroy every trace of their late servitude, not the least amusing was the wish of those unfortunate individuals who had hitherto borne the name of Otho to divest themselves of the unpatriotic appellation. In a note addressed to the editor of a journal of the 3d of November, Mr. Catsoulieres says: "I beg you to insert in your next number, for the information of my friends, that having heretofore borne the name of Otho, I now change it to Odysseus, (Ulysses.) I accordingly announce that I shall allow no one to address me by my former name, which recalls to the heart of every Greek years of base slavery and tyranny."

and spoken in favor of a petition from Greeks of Galatz, in Moldavia, praying for a change in the policy of the government, and after a violent debate had secured its insertion in the records of that branch of the legislature. He selected as his cabinet: T. Manghinas, Th. A. Zaimes, A. Coumoundouros, D. Mavromichales, E. Delegeorges, D. Calliphronas, B. Nicolopoulos, and A. Diamantopoulos; filling respectively the departments of Finance, Interior, Justice, War, Public Instruction, Navy, Ecclesiastical, and Foreign Affairs. These gentlemen followed the example of the provisional government in taking a solemn oath to support the laws of the realm and the provisional government, and conscientiously to fulfill their duties. The selection of ministers was not unexceptionable. It is to be regretted that some of the nominees were men destitute of the requisite attainments; while against Mr. Nicolopoulos, placed at the head of the department of religion, can be urged the unpardonable offense against justice, of having been the presiding judge in the iniquitous trial of Rev. Jonas King, D.D., in 1852. Of one whose entire deportment on that occasion was dictated by fanaticism or worse motives; whose examination of witnesses was by no means impartial; whose verdict was in flagrant defiance of the entire testimony, and who added to all a falsification of the record of the case, it cannot be expected that he will carry liberal sentiments into his new and responsible office.

With the successful establishment of the provisional government, the history of the revolution properly ends. An unworthy monarch, who for nearly thirty years had abused the trust reposed in him by those who elected him to sway the destinies of Greece, who squandered on his own pleasures, or laid up for his future use, the scanty revenues of a nation just emerging from an exhausting war of independence, who not only neglected public improvements, but systematically corrupted all upon whom the court could exert an influence, was at last, after eight or nine unavailing insurrections, driven ignominiously from the land. The mendacious proclamation which he wrote from Salamis, attributing his retirement to Germany to his desire to avoid the effusion of blood, and, in an excess of effrontery, asserting that "abstaining from all display, he had cared only for the true interests of Greece, seeking with all his

power to advance its material and moral development, and giving especial study to the impartial administration of justice," was received with contempt by those who knew that no words could have given a more false description of his whole life.

Meanwhile the entire population of Greece seemed to unite in a common pæan for the triumph of its liberties. The exiled heroes of Nauplia, who had resisted single-handed the generals of Otho, returned from their wanderings, and were received with acclamations by the excitable populace. Coronæus, especially, was the object of a popular ovation. On the other hand, Botzares, Potles, and Simos, members of the Miaoules ministry, which had rendered itself peculiarly obnoxious, were bidden by the government to leave the country; and Spiro-Melios and Colocotronos, of the last ministry, received a similar order. In taking this course, the government merely adopted a measure of necessity in the critical posture of affairs. It was sad that among the names of such "dangerous citizens" should be found that of the unworthy son of that Marco Botzares whom the verses of our own Halleck have immortalized.

The personal effects of the deposed monarch were delivered by the Greeks to the ambassador of Bavaria, appointed by Otho to receive them; but they, very properly, refused to allow him to remove the correspondence of that prince, regarding it as an important source of information respecting the means employed for the degradation of Greece. They declined even the proposition to allow it to be placed under seal.

The joy of the inhabitants of Greece was shared in equal measure by all those of the same race in the Ionian Isles, in Turkey, in southern Russia, in Austria, and in western Europe; but the most signal instances of self-denial in behalf of the fatherland were exhibited by the natives of the late kingdom. All classes showed the greatest alacrity in offering a portion of their property to relieve the necessities of the new government. The judges of the Court of Areopagus, the highest tribunal in Greece, the officials connected with the navy department, the professors of the University, and some ecclesiastics, are particularly mentioned as having voluntarily come forward to devote a part (generally the third or quarter) of their income to the support of the country.

But here we must terminate our sketch of the two Greek

revolutions of 1862. The Bavarian dynasty, so inauspicious to the happiness of Greece, has been deposed, never, as we may hope, again to curse that land. Will the experience of the last thirty years satisfy the great powers of Europe of the impracticability of all attempts to impose on the Greeks a monarch of their selection, however badly qualified to perform the most difficult of all tasks, that of elevating a nation long debased by the oppression of tyrannical rulers? Will they suffer the million of Greeks to choose Prince Alfred of England, or the Duke of Leuchtenberg, as they see fit? Or will they once more override the clearly-expressed wishes of a people which ought to be free, if the shedding of torrents of blood in the holy cause of liberty can entitle a nation to that privilege? On the answer of the question depends the future of Greece. God grant that it may not be her sad lot to be subjected to an ignorant, bigoted, illiberal prince, blind to the interests of his subjects, deaf to their remonstrances, insensible to their sufferings, and intent only upon maintaining his power by a series of temporary expedients, and upon the accumulation of private wealth. Then will there be a wide door open for intellectual and moral progress, and Greece may become the instrument in the hand of an all-wise Providence of furthering the advance of pure Christianity in the East.

ART. IV.—ROWLAND HILL.

ABOUT nine miles south of Whitchurch, a handsome market town in Shropshire, England, is the beautiful Hawkstone Park, for many years the residence of the ancient and honorable family of the Hills. The mansion is elegant and spacious, and the surroundings are of the most picturesque character, nature and art combining to delight the eye and to gratify the taste. A celebrated foreign traveler regarded it as one of the most attractive places he had visited in all his wanderings. Dr. Johnson was particularly struck with its wild beauty. In his peculiar style he calls it "a region abounding with striking scenes and terrific grandeur." "The ideas which it forces on