



### “Current Events” for the MacArthur Ancestors

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When I was a child, my grandmother had a small book in her desk that listed the linear genealogy of the MacArthur family as recorded at the College of Heraldry. The fantastic range of dates given for the lives of some of my known ancestors extends back some 1,407 years prior to my birth in 1967; nearly one-and-a-half millennia.

As a child of the space age, I’m intimately familiar with technology and materials that were certainly beyond the wildest imagination of these ancient ancestors. Likewise, the world that they lived in is difficult for me to imagine. This brief examination of world history is intended to put the lives of these people into some kind of context.

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#### Fallobhe Flann                      560 - 598

This ancestor lived at the very beginning of what we now call the "Dark Ages." To put the era in perspective, the City of Rome was sacked a mere 105 years ago in 455 AD with the ultimate fall of the entire Western empire by 476. Arthur, the legendary King of the Britons is said to have died in 537 at the Battle of Camlan. St. Columban, the Irish Missionary that would bring Christianity to Scotland, would arrive in three years to establish a mission on the Isle of Iona in 563. Mohammed, the founder of Islam was not born until 570. A plague that began in 542 will end in 594 after killing half the population of Europe. By the year 600, an epidemic of smallpox that began in India will reach Western Europe.

**Colgan 590 - 631**

The expense of rebuilding China's Grand Canal in the early 600s led to the downfall of the Sui dynasty. The canal, however, became a valuable asset in later years. Grain could now be transported easily from the farmlands of the lower Yangtze and Huai regions to market, 1000 km (600 mi) north. The water level on the canal was regulated by log gates operated by hand or windlass. On slopes too steep for navigation, boats were hauled up the grades on slipways.

**Nathfraoch 620 - 685**

Muhammad was about forty years old when he began to receive truths from God. In a vision he was carried on a journey to Jerusalem, then through the heavens to Allah, who instructed him. When he preached the omnipotence of Allah, the citizens of Mecca mocked him, just as the people of Jerusalem had scorned Jesus Christ. Threatened with persecution, Muhammad left Mecca in 622, an act celebrated in Islam as the Hegira, or flight. He went to Medina, where he preached a new religion: there is only one God; all people are equal in God's sight; images must not be worshipped; rules, rites, and fasts laid down by Muhammad must be followed. Muhammad declared that his followers, the Muslims, were subjects of divine will and must make war on infidels, killing or converting them. In 624 they won their first jihad (holy war), defeating the Meccans. Muhammad died in 632, leaving an inspired following.

**Daologach 670 - 723**

One of the most forceful rulers in Chinese history (and the only woman ever to reign) was the Empress Wu. She entered the royal household as a concubine to the Emperor T'ai Tsung. In 683 she became empress after deposing and executing a rival. In that year she directed the Chinese conquest of Korea. A master of court intrigue, she defeated all her rivals, and after ruling through puppets, she assumed the title of emperor in 690. Wu held power until 705, when she was finally supplanted at age 80.

In 732, Charles Martel (Charles the Hammer), Christian ruler of the Franks, met the Moors at Tours, deep inside modern-day France. In earlier decades, Islamic armies had marched across North Africa, Asia Minor, and Spain. In 719 they had crossed the Pyrenees and occupied parts of France. During a day-long battle, fought somewhere between Tours and Poitiers, Martel drew his army into a tight square, "like a belt of ice frozen together." The Moors were unable to penetrate this human wall, and many of them died in the effort, including their leader Abd-ar-Rahman. At nightfall they fled the field. This victory was one of the most decisive in history, and it helped preserve Europe for Christianity.

**Sneidh 740 - 795**

Between 751 and 754, Pepin the Short united the Frankish domains, beginning the Carolingian dynasty. Three years later he invaded Italy at the invitation of the pope and defeated the Lombards. Pepin gave the territory he conquered around Rome to the pope, creating the basis of the Papal States.

### **Artgal 780 - 810**

Charlemagne, king of the Franks, was crowned Emperor of the Romans by Pope Leo III on Christmas Day in 800. Although the Holy Roman Empire did not grow under Charlemagne's rule, many later kings used his life as a model. As a Germanic warrior, Roman emperor and Christian, Charlemagne blended the three cultures into a mixture which later became the basis for European civilization.

In 800, the year Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, Harun ar-Rashid (766-809), the fifth caliph of the Abbasid Dynasty, reigned in Baghdad over a vast empire covering southwestern Asia and parts of northern Africa. Unlike Charlemagne, Harun was literate and interested in the arts.

### **Lachna 803 - 840**

During the 9th and 10th century's two groups of nomads entered Eastern Europe: the Bulgars and the Hungarians. Both were considered fierce opponents (the word *ogre* comes from the name Hungarian). Both groups traced their origins to the Huns of central Asia. The Bulgars settled on the banks of the Volga in what is now Bulgaria. In 800 they attacked the Byzantine Empire and moved into the Balkans, but were eventually driven back. Their chief, a man named Simon, assumed the title of czar. Like other barbarians before them, the Hungarians were converted by those they conquered, adopting the Slavic tongue and Greek Christianity.

### **Bouchan 819 - 865**

The natives of Scandinavia (Swedes, Norwegians and Danes) embarked on a career of pillage and conquest during the 9th century. Sometimes called the men from the north, or Norsemen, they referred to themselves as Vikings (rulers of the sea). The Vikings traveled in narrow, high-prowed ships that could be rowed or sailed. Because they had learned the art of tacking (sailing into the wind) their ships had a freedom of movement unknown to earlier vessels. By sail they could arrive suddenly on a neighbor's coast, or by oar they could row far upstream into the interior. Once ashore they raided castles, villages, monasteries (wherever they could find booty). After AD 800, as the Viking attacks increased, a new plea was added to the catalog of prayers in Europe's Christian churches: "*From the fury of the Vikings, O God, deliver us.*"

### **Ceallachan Cashal 864 - 893**

The Chinese led the world in the invention of paper and the printing press. The oldest surviving printed book in the world is the Diamond Sutra, a book made in China in 868. It contains a collection of Buddhist prayers and is richly illustrated.

### **Doncha 880 - 915**

By the year 900, polyphony had become a common musical form in Europe. Polyphony consists of two or more melodies taking place at the same time. The *Musica enchiriadis*, a guidebook for singers, was written around 900.

In 900 the Hungarians (who called themselves Magyars) migrated to the Danube plain, where they settled. From this base they made raids deep into Europe, reaching Venetia, Saxony, Lorraine, Tuscany, and Thrace. They too were eventually converted. Their chieftain Va'lk was baptized Stephen, and he helped Christianize Hungary.

### **Saorbhreathach 903 - 946**

Cordoba was the capital of Muslim Spain from the 8th to 11th centuries. During the 10th century it was the largest city in Europe. By 930 Cordoba was a center for Muslim learning. Its mosque, known as La Mezquita, was one of the largest in the Islamic world.

### **Artha 932 - 967**

(His son took the surname "Mac Artha" - anglicized "Mac Arthur.")

In 962 Otto I of Germany was crowned Holy Roman Emperor by Pope John XII. In 955 he had defeated the Magyars (Hungarians) at the Battle of Lechfield, ending the Magyar threat to Western Europe. He also brought Italy and Burgundy under German control. Shortly after his coronation as emperor, he and the pope started to quarrel, beginning a centuries-long tradition of conflict between the Holy Roman Empire and the papacy.

### **Cathach Mac Arthur 950 - 1020**

Icelandic explorer Leif Ericson is believed to have been one of the first Europeans to set foot on North America. Ericson may have reached the North Atlantic coast, naming it Vinland, around 1000. A Viking-type settlement discovered in Newfoundland matches Ericson's description of Vinland.

Canute II was one of the most powerful of the Norsemen. In 1013 he completed the Danish conquest of England. Within a few years, he became king of England, Denmark, and Norway, and was called Canute the Great. Canute died in 1035, his kingdom was divided, and the Danish realm in England came to an end.

### **Cormac Magh-Tamnagh Mac Arthur 1030 - 1107**

One of the most important battles in history occurred near Hastings, England, in 1066. William, Duke of Normandy, crossed the English Channel from Normandy claiming the

English crown. On October 14 the Saxon king, Harold II, met him in battle. The Normans triumphed, and Harold was slain on the field. William became known as The Conqueror, and the Norman conquest of England followed rapidly from this first battle. To this day English language, culture, and government bear the marks of the conquest.

### **Diarmuid Mor na Gill Baghain Mac Arthur 1098 - 1185**

For hundreds of years pious Christians made pilgrimages to the Holy Land to visit the places where Jesus Christ had lived and preached. In 638 the region fell to the Muslims, but they continued to allow pilgrims to come. Then in 1071, Seljuk Turks conquered the Holy Land and reversed this policy, barring pilgrim access.

In response, Pope Urban II called upon Christian Europe to recapture the Holy Land. In a famous sermon, preached in 1095, Urban noted the comparative strengths of his faith and Islam: *“Can anyone tolerate that we do not even share equally with the Muslims the inhabited earth? They have made Asia, which is a third of the world, their homeland.... They have also forcibly held Africa, the second portion of the world, for over 200 years. There remains Europe, the third continent. How small a portion of it is inhabited by us Christians?”*

In a spirit reminiscent of Muhammad almost five centuries before, Urban called upon Christians to wage a holy war. Muhammad had promised that his followers, who were slain in battle, would enter paradise. Similarly, Urban promised that all who joined a crusade to free the Holy Land would be forgiven their sins.

The first to respond was a fanatical group of poor men and women who poured across Hungary to Constantinople and Asia Minor. The Hungarians slew many of them, and the Turks killed the rest. Soon afterwards a more promising group of knights marched across Asia Minor, stormed Jerusalem, and established a Latin kingdom there. Along the way they massacred Muslims, Jews, and dark-skinned Christians.

One result of all this bloodshed was to deepen mistrust between Muslims and Christians. During the decades that followed, the balance of power in the Middle East shifted continually between Arabs and Europeans. More Crusades were launched. One brought King Richard I of England, known as Richard the Lion-Hearted, to the Holy Land. He reached a truce with the enemy. Other Crusaders were pitiable—an ill-advised Children's Crusade resulted in an abundance of dead children. Still others were villainous; in 1204 a group of Crusaders stopped well short of liberating Jerusalem (once again in Muslim hands), and turned instead on Christian Constantinople, which they pillaged. One by one the Christian strongholds in the Middle East fell before the overwhelming numbers of surrounding Muslims. In 1291 Acre, the last of the Crusader kingdoms, fell to the Muslims.

The Crusades had many unanticipated long-term effects. Military orders founded in the Middle East to protect pilgrims acquired new objectives. The Knights of Saint John of Jerusalem became the Knights of Rhodes and then Malta, governing those islands. The

Knights Templar grew rich and became bankers. The Teutonic Knights carved out a kingdom on the Baltic coast, which later became Prussia. The most beneficial result of the Crusades for Europe was the revival of Mediterranean trade that followed in the wake of the expeditions to the East. The seaports of Italy and southern France thrived. Monarchs and merchants whose vision had been limited to tiny European principalities were drawn farther a field, and trade links were established with Constantinople.

### **Dormal Mor na Curra Mac Arthur 1138 - 1235**

During and after the 10th century a deadly new weapon found its way into the European arsenal. The crossbow was capable of flinging a missile 3000 m (1000 ft) and piercing chain mail. Mounted on a stock of wood, the bow itself was made of metal. The crossbow was so deadly that it was outlawed by Catholics—at least for use against Christians—in the Lateran Council of 1139. It was too popular, however, to be banished and remained in use well into the 15th century, when it was displaced by firearms.

In 1154 work began on the original cathedral at Chartres, near Paris. Shortly after it was built, a fire destroyed most of the cathedral, leaving only the carved portals of the west facade intact. The cathedral was rebuilt in the High Gothic style. The term “Gothic” came into use during the Italian Renaissance. Since then, the term has come to describe one of the greatest periods in architecture, and the cathedral at Chartres is one of the finest examples of this style.

### **Cormac Fionn Mac Arthur 1170 - 1242**

During the long centuries of Feudalism, trade in Europe was usually limited to the simple exchange of goods between neighbors within a small manor. Each feudal estate produced its own food, shelter, fuel, and clothing. Good roads and a stable currency—standard features of the Roman world—no longer existed. In 1100 ad Europe was economically backward, but soon that would change, largely due to the impact of the Crusades.

A phrase applied centuries later to the missionary impulse in Hawaii also describes what happened in Europe during the Crusades: they set out to do good and ended up doing well. Their endeavors, initially spiritual, ultimately stimulated the European economy. The Crusades required services that had all but vanished during Europe's dark ages, such as the amassing of funds, the creation of fleets, and the procuring and distribution of supplies. As a result of the Crusades, Mediterranean trade revived, and the cities of Amalfi, Pisa, Genoa, Venice, Marseilles and Barcelona became trading centers.

As cities grew, so too did the need for food. Uncultivated lands gave way to the plow, and farmers learned to fertilize fields and alternate crops. New crops were cultivated, including buckwheat, maize, cotton, and sugarcane. Innovative technologies often borrowed from the Muslims—who, in turn, had learned them from the Chinese—came into use. The windmill and wheelbarrow helped people work. The iron horseshoe and the breast-strap increased the usefulness of horses as draught animals.

As seaborne trade revived, sailors were quick to exploit another Asian invention, the magnetized needle which pointed faithfully to the north. Mounted on a straw and set upon water in a bowl, it acquired the name compass. Another innovation, the rudder, firmly attached by hinges to the rear of a boat, replaced the steersman's oar and enabled builders to fashion heavier craft suitable for ocean navigation.

Money, long forgotten in the West, came into circulation again, encouraged by supplies of gold taken from Byzantium and the Levant. In Europe a kind of gold rush occurred as prospectors found the precious ore in such rivers as the Rhone and the Rhine, and miners found gold in Hungary and the Caucasus. Royal mints were established in Sicily, Genoa, and England to mold gold into coins. The new money facilitated trade and encouraged a social revolution, in which wage-earners began to replace serfs.

Another piece in the economic growth puzzle was supplied by the rebirth of banking. The Catholic Church had discouraged trade for centuries by outlawing the loaning of money at interest; they preached that a Christian should not charge interest for giving money to someone in need. Now such regulations fell into disuse. Along with loans came insurance and letters of credit. The first modern bank in Europe was established in Venice in 1171. Encouraged by a favorable business climate, merchants developed new ways of making profits. In Germany, for example, the merchants of several dozen cities drew together for mutual protection, forming the Hanseatic League in 1358. The German trade with England gave the English the name for their currency: they called the Hanseatic traders "Easterlings," and hence English currency came to be known as "sterling."

By packhorse and cart as well as by ship, trade goods began to move from region to region. Russia exported cereals and furs; England, wool and tin; France, honey and wine; Flanders, cloth. Fairs were held throughout Europe where merchants exchanged goods. There, men and women were introduced to a wider world which included not only the merchants and their wares, but also wandering singers and actors. Perhaps most beguiling of all were products manufactured far away by a people few Europeans would ever see—spices, silk, cotton, and perfume from China.

Richard the Lion-Hearted, king of England, set forth on the Third Crusade in 1189. He captured the city of Acre and made a truce with Saladin, the sultan of Egypt and Syria. Although Richard was seldom in England during his ten-year reign (1189-99), his prowess in battle established him as one of the great heroes of English romance.

In 1196 on the Asian plains, a Mongol named Temujin eliminated his rivals among the Mongols and assumed the position of supreme ruler, or Genghis Khan. His people, clad in skins, were illiterate, nomadic, and numerous. They were excellent horsemen and archers, and moved in well-disciplined armies of as many as 200,000. During the 13th century they would terrorize much of the world from China to Europe.

Genghis Khan was a born leader, fierce in battle but also adept in government. He surrounded himself with learned counselors, and had the wisdom to follow their advice. In 1214 he crossed the Great Wall and defeated the Manchus, descendants of other

Mongols, who had entered China long before. After Beijing surrendered, he razed it to the ground. He then turned westward and conquered Turkestan, Samarqand, Afghanistan, and Persia.

Genghis Khan died in 1227, at the height of his power, but the Mongols continued their path of conquest, annexing Korea and sacking Moscow and Kiev. They moved into Europe as far as Dalmatia and the Adriatic Sea and conquered the Turks and Arabs in Asia Minor. Then they turned on Baghdad. They massacred their prisoners—men, women, and children—and destroyed the irrigation system that had served the region since the days of ancient Sumeria.

When Kublai Khan, grandson of Genghis, came to power in 1257 the Mongol Empire extended from the China Sea to the Mediterranean. Within a few years Kublai Khan marched into Southeast Asia and forced the kings of Burma, Cambodia, and Annam to swear allegiance to him. In 1274 and again in 1281, the Mongols invaded and almost conquered Japan. Other regions of the Mongol Empire broke away into separate states, but the Mongols maintained sway in China as the Yuan dynasty.

Kublai Khan was a builder as well as a warrior. The kinder, gentler side of Mongol rule was apparent during his reign. He tolerated the various religions in his vast empire, built roads and canals, and encouraged trade. The Mongol court was the most cosmopolitan of its time. There, merchants and craftsmen from Italy, France, and Byzantium mingled with Persian astronomers and Indian mathematicians, and envoys from the Pope met Buddhist priests from India. In the 1260s the Mongols received two Venetian travelers, the brothers Nicolo and Maffeo Polo, and a few years later the Italian traveler and author Marco Polo was their guest.

By then the Mongols had divided into several empires. The largest besides China were the Khanate of Persia and the Golden Horde, which ruled most of Russia. The goal of a united Mongol Empire was briefly renewed in 1360 when Tamerlane declared himself ruler from a capital at Samarqand, and marched on Syria and Delhi. He was on the verge of invading China when he died in 1405. After his death, the western Mongols again divided into rival states.

### **Donal Og Mac Arthur 1239 - 1307**

In 1295 a Venetian traveler, Marco Polo, returned from a perilous journey to China and wrote a popular account of the East, emphasizing its fabulous wealth. Toward the end of the 15th century, the desire to acquire the treasures of the East would inspire adventurers and profit seekers to sail around the coast of Africa and across the Atlantic to a New World. In such ways, the rebirth of economic activity in late medieval Europe would lead to unexpected consequences throughout the world.

### **Cormac Mac Arthur 1271 - 1359**

In 1274 and 1281 the Mongols attacked and nearly overwhelmed Japan. Rebuffed in their first attempt, they returned in 1281 with a force of 140,000 men—the largest naval expedition before modern times. The Mongols clung to several beachheads for two months before fortune came to the aid of the Japanese. A typhoon destroyed much of the Mongol fleet. Ashore the dispirited invaders fell to defeat. Only about half of the huge Mongol army returned safely to the mainland. The Japanese believed that providence had sent a kamikaze—Japanese for “divine wind”—to their assistance. Hundreds of years later, hard pressed in World War II (1939-45), the Japanese attempted to repeat the miracle and create their own divine wind against the American navy using suicide pilots, whom they called kamikazes.

### **Donal Mac Arthur**

**1303 - 1371**

The Black Death, a form of bubonic plague, first appeared in China during the 14th century. The disease would kill tens of millions of people during the decades that followed. The plague had been known in China as early as 224 BC. It is caused by the bacterium *Yersinia pestis* and is transmitted to human beings by infected fleas and rats. In most cases the victim suffers from fever, chills, fatigue, and painfully swollen lymph nodes. The 14th-century plague acquired its name from another symptom: hemorrhages that turned black. In its most deadly form, the disease affected the lungs, and it was easily transmitted by droplets from coughing or sneezing.

The Black Death began as an epidemic in the Gobi desert in the 1320s and spread to China. By 1400 it had reduced the population of China by 30 percent, from 125 million to 90 million. The Black Death followed trade routes west to India, the Middle East, and Europe. In Cairo, Egypt, a city of 500,000, roughly 7,000 people died each day at the height of the epidemic. By 1349 the plague had killed one-third of the population of the Muslim world. In 1347 the Kipchaks, nomads from the Euro-Asian steppe, deliberately infected a European community with the disease. While laying siege to a Genoese trading post in the Crimea, they lobbed plague-infected corpses into the town by catapult—possibly the source of the plague in Europe. From the Crimea the Genoese inadvertently brought the disease to Sicily in a ship carrying infected rats. It swept through Sicily in 1347; North Africa, Italy, France, and Spain in 1348; Hungary, Austria, Switzerland, England, Germany, and the Low Countries in 1349; and reached Scandinavia in 1350. Norsemen carried the disease to faraway Iceland, and probably carried it on to their most remote outpost, Greenland, where the plague may have hastened the end of the Viking settlements. Some 25 million Europeans were killed by the initial onslaught of the Black Death; whole villages were wiped out. The disease returned to Europe again in 1361-63, 1369-71, 1374-75, 1390, and 1400. In its course, the Black Death carried away a greater proportion of the world's people than any other disease or war in history.

European society was transformed by the disease, which took roughly one-third of the population between 1347 and 1351. New forms of religious behavior developed. One of the more macabre responses was the emergence of flagellants, men and women who attributed the disease to God's wrath. In an effort to appease their vengeful Lord, they wandered from town to town bearing crucifixes and ritualistically whipping themselves.

Others blamed Jews for the plague and conducted organized massacres of Jews, slaughtering 2000 in Strasbourg and 600 in Brussels. Many clergymen perished in an effort to comfort the afflicted, and some Dominican friaries were left nearly empty. As a result, the church lacked educated clerics in the wake of the disease. A succession of momentous events can be traced to the plague: labor shortages, demands for higher wages, efforts to control the economy, and, in response, strikes and peasant rebellions.

### **Teige na Ministreach Mac Arthur 1340 - 1415**

The first great work of literature in the English language was *The Canterbury Tales*, written by Geoffrey Chaucer around 1390. Chaucer was, at various times, a court page, a soldier, and a diplomat. His travels exposed him to a variety of men and women, many of whom served as models for his vivid characters. Chaucer tells the story of a group of pilgrims bound for the shrine of Thomas à Becket, who entertained themselves by telling tales. The Pilgrims included a nun who “would weep if she but saw a mouse caught in a trap” and a stout friar who knew the best taverns along the route. Writing in English, Chaucer was following an impulse that swept Western Europe at that time—the tendency to turn away from Latin and write in vernacular languages.

### **Donal an Daimh Mac Arthur 1373 - 1420**

During the Hundred Years' War, King Henry V of England met and defeated a superior French army at Agincourt (1415). The victory enabled England to gain control of much of France. The English were helped by their long bows, which allowed them to bring down armored knights from a great distance. The story of the battle became the centerpiece of the great drama *Henry V* by William Shakespeare. In the play Henry delivers a rousing speech when he hears complaints that the English are outnumbered. The greater the odds, he says, the more the glory. He emboldens his men with a magnificent description of their fraternity: “*We few, we happy few, we band of brothers...*”

### **Teigh Laith Mac Arthur 1407 - 1490**

On May 30, 1431, Joan of Arc—“The Maid of Orleans”—was burned at the stake in Rouen. One of the great heroines of France, she lived at a time when the English controlled much of her country. Joan fought several winning battles, but she was finally captured by a rival French faction and sold to the English. Tried before a pliable French court, she was proclaimed a witch and executed before reaching her 20th birthday. Almost 400 years later, in 1920, the papacy canonized her as a saint.

### **Cormac Ladhrach Mac Arthur 1440 - 1516**

Leonardo da Vinci, a leading figure in the Italian Renaissance, was born in 1452, the illegitimate son of a Florentine notary and a peasant girl. Despite his humble beginnings, Leonardo's career gave substance to the expression “Renaissance man.” He was a painter, sculptor, architect, and scientist—one of the most brilliant men who ever lived. His works

include the most famous painting of all time, Mona Lisa (1503-6). The Mona Lisa, long thought to have been a portrait of Lisa del Giocondo, has been shown through computer analysis to bear a striking resemblance to the painter himself.

In 1455 the Gutenberg Bible—the first ever printed with moveable metal type—was published in Mainz, Germany. German printer Johann Gutenberg (circa 1400-68), who was most likely trained as a goldsmith, is an obscure figure, and some scholars argue that credit for moveable type should go to some other European. Gutenberg most likely began printing in Strasbourg in 1436 or 1437. However, the first moveable type was used in China long before the Gutenberg Bible appeared. The advent of printing revolutionized learning by making books more readily available. It also nourished the Protestant Reformation of the next century by putting the Bible in the hands of ordinary people.

### **Donal an Drumin Mac Arthur 1481 - 1531**

In 1492 Christopher Columbus “discovered” America. However, American Indians already inhabited the land, and Norsemen had visited the shores of present-day Canada almost 500 years before Columbus reached the Caribbean islands. Spanish support made possible his initial voyage and three others. But when Columbus failed to bring back the treasures of the Orient, he lost favor at the Spanish court. He died in poverty in 1506.

During the 1400s Portuguese explorers pushed down the coast of West Africa, seeking a sea route to Asia. In the process they discovered that Africa itself had “commodities” they wanted—particularly gold and human beings. So began the enslavement of Africans by Europeans.

For several centuries England would be one of the most powerful nations in the world. But in 1485, when the first of the Tudors came to the throne, England was a relatively unimportant country. At the end of the Stuart reign little more than two centuries later, England was one of the most powerful countries in the world. Henry VII brought a long and debilitating period of civil war to a peaceful end in his realm. His successor, Henry VIII, was crowned in 1509. Famed in the popular imagination for his succession of six wives, he was most important for bringing England into the Protestant camp—a result of one of his divorces. When the pope refused to terminate one of his marriages, Henry created his own church, independent of the papacy, and arranged to have the divorce sanctioned. The Church of England retained many elements of the Roman Catholic Church, prompting criticism later in the century from a religious faction known as the Puritans. But Henry adopted many Protestant reforms, including the abolition of monasteries.

### **Donal Mac Arthur, Earl of Glencare 1518 - 1596**

The ancient Greeks and Romans, the peoples of the African kingdoms, the Native Americans, and the ancient Chinese all shared the common belief that the earth was the center of the universe. This belief is called the geocentric theory. In 1543, after 25 years of work, Polish astronomer Nicklaus Copernicus forced men and women to rethink their

place in the solar system. His book, *On the Revolution of the Celestial Spheres*, ventured the revolutionary idea that earth travels around the sun—the heliocentric theory. The book aroused a storm of protest from scientists and the church.

In 1517 the German theologian Martin Luther wrote 95 theses criticizing the contemporary Catholic Church and nailed them to the church door in Wittenberg. Luther did not repudiate the papacy with his theses, but he stressed the spiritual life of the Christian and the need for faith. As a Catholic monk, he had been taught to seek salvation through good works. But for years he lived in despair, seemingly unable to accumulate enough good works to buy God's favor. He came to question whether it was possible for any human being to live up to God's law and win salvation. His life was transformed by his reading of Paul's Epistle to the Romans, I: 17: "*The just shall live by faith.*" Not man's actions, but God's grace would bring salvation.

From that insight sprang the Protestant Reformation. It led Luther to criticize the selling of "indulgences"—payments to the church that would allegedly benefit the benefactor's soul. And although Luther began by thinking of himself as a Catholic reformer, it led him ultimately to form a new church.

Protestantism meant protest against any forms of religion which deified human edifices, even the church itself, rather than God. That insight led French theologian John Calvin to develop the doctrine of predestination, the belief that God had determined from the beginning of time who would be saved and who would be damned. It led to the formation of scores of new denominations, including Congregationalism in England.

After the death of Henry VIII, his son Edward VI adopted more Protestant reforms, died young, and was succeeded by Mary I (called Mary Tudor), who also died young. But during her reign (1553-58), Mary tried to turn England back to Catholicism; in her zeal, she executed hundreds of recalcitrant Protestants, earning herself the nickname Bloody Mary. Mary's persecutions created martyrs, and martyrs often strengthen a cause. When Elizabeth came to the throne in 1558, most of England was willing to embrace Protestantism.

Elizabeth I was the last Tudor ruler of England. During her long reign, she managed to steer a middle course between Catholics and Puritans, providing a stable environment for the growth of English business and trade. In 1588 a jealous rival, Spain, sent a huge fleet to attack England, but the pluck of the English seamen and the luck of stormy seas scattered the Spanish Armada. England's status as a European superpower was confirmed.

During the reign of Elizabeth, the great English writer William Shakespeare began his remarkable career. Many of Shakespeare's plays brim with contentment in all things English. In *Richard II*, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, delivers a stirring speech:

*This royal throne of kings, this scepter'd isle,  
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,*



Then, as they were preparing to die, the wind let up, and the last anchor set, bringing the ship to rest. The amazed Shepard saw that the anchor “cable was let out so far that a little rope held the cable, and the cable the little anchor, and the little anchor [held] the great ship in this great storm.”

The story, though true, was also a parable. For Protestants in the era of the Reformation, faith was like that little anchor. The meaning was this: human beings try to gain salvation by amassing good works—throwing out a big anchor. But salvation comes from God's will, not from human effort. A grain of faith—a small anchor—sustained by God's grace is infinitely more valuable than the effort to buy grace through works.

Because religion and the state were closely associated at that time, Protestantism also led to bloody wars of religion, including the Thirty Years' War, which ravaged Europe from 1618 to 1648. For men like Thomas Shepard, who escaped drowning off the coast of England and later journeyed safely to America, Protestantism encouraged a desire to go to New England and worship freely as a Puritan. The religious unity of Christendom, which had never been complete, was further undermined in the Protestant reformation, making possible the varied forms of modern Christianity.

In 1607 England began to plant colonies in the America. By then James I, who reigned from 1603 to 1625, had ascended to the throne. He was the first of a new royal house, the Stuarts. Less cautious than Elizabeth, he succeeded in alienating the Puritans, some of whom fled to Holland, and then in 1620 to Plymouth in New England. His successor, Charles I, was even harder on the Puritans and provoked a rebellion. During the civil wars that followed, Charles was defeated and beheaded. He was succeeded for a time by the leader of the Puritan forces, Oliver Cromwell. A staunch Puritan, Cromwell had as much difficulty holding England to a Puritan course as Charles had in fostering a more conservative brand of Protestantism. Toward the end of his rule, a frustrated Cromwell told Parliament: “*I would have been glad to have lived under my wood side, and to have kept a flock of sheep, rather than to have undertaken this government.*”

**Donal Mac Arthur, Earl of Glencare 1621 - 1680**

(His estates were confiscated and his title broken by Cromwell.)

The English monarchy was restored in 1660 under Charles II, who turned England back to a course of moderate Protestantism. He was succeeded in 1685 by James II, who unwisely tilted too close to the Catholic side of the religious spectrum. In 1688, a rebellion called the Glorious Revolution replaced James with William III and Mary II of the Netherlands, both of whom had Stuart blood. With their deaths the throne passed to Anne, Mary's sister, who was last of the Stuarts. She died in 1714.

**Cormac Mac Arthur, Lord Mount-Chasel 1680 - 1695**

(His estates were confiscated and his title broken by William III.)

Johann Sebastian Bach was born in 1685 in Germany. The most famed member of a notable musical family, Bach was the foremost baroque composer. He is especially

known for his religious music, including *The Passion of St. John* and *The Passion of St. Matthew*. Bach fathered 20 children, several of whom became accomplished musicians.

During the political turmoil of the 17th century, England embraced a political doctrine that strengthened the country for centuries to come, and was passed on to the United States. At various times the Stuart kings had tried to rule without the support of parliament. In reaction, the members of parliament strengthened their claim for representative government, and they made good their claim that they alone had the power to levy taxes. A Bill of Rights adopted in 1689 guaranteed free elections and free parliamentary debates. The bill also restated traditional English rights, including prohibitions against excessive bail or fines and against cruel and unusual punishments. During the 1690s the English philosopher John Locke published several influential essays on government in which he claimed that the power of the rulers is based on the needs of the people. If a ruler abused that power, it was the right of the people to depose that ruler. This was a potent idea in England and her colonies, and in 1776 it found its way into the United States Declaration of Independence.

### **Fingin Mac Arthur**

**1690 - 1750**

In 1692 the famous witchcraft trials were held in Salem, Massachusetts. The episode began when a group of young girls accused others, generally older women, of consorting with the devil. Before the trials were over, 300 men and women had been accused. Twenty people were executed, including a minister who intoned the Lord's Prayer before his death. Soon after the trials, the weight of opinion in Massachusetts turned against the superstition of witchcraft, and no other trials of this sort were held in New England.

### **John Mac Arthur**

**1740 - 1820**

In 1769 Scottish inventor and engineer James Watt patented a steam engine. Others had already built steam engines, but the Watts engine was the first practical design. His first machines were used to pump water from mines. Watts later modified his steam engine so that it could drive machinery. Eventually the steam engine drove textile machinery and powered locomotives.

It is difficult to imagine today how presumptuous the United States seemed in 1776. A group of 13 small colonies had come together to wage war against the most powerful nation in the world, and they had organized their government around democratic principles that seemed preposterous in a world accustomed to aristocracy.

Against all odds the Americans won the Revolutionary War. At the final battle, Yorktown, the British were deflated but retained a sense of humor. They marched to the surrender field with a regimental band playing a popular ditty, "*The World Turned Upside Down*." The song envisioned a multitude of fantastic events, none more fantastic than the revolution itself:

*If buttercups buzzed after the bee,*

*If boats were on land, churches on sea,  
If ponies rode men, and if grass ate the cows,  
And cats should be chased into holes by the mouse,  
If the mommas sold their babies,  
To the Gypsies for half a crown,  
If summer were spring, and the other way round,  
Then all the world would be upside down.*

The American Revolution was remarkable because the colonies defeated their “mother country,” unseasoned militiamen overwhelmed a professional army, and American politicians created a government without a formal aristocracy. It was, however, a revolution that had only just begun with the signing of the Treaty of Paris that ended the war in 1783. Americans declared that “all men are created equal,” but they had not worked out the implications of that radical idea. They freed the slaves in the North, but in the South the institution was too deeply rooted to be abolished so easily. Women, too, were disadvantaged, lacking the right to vote or own property. Indians were not given equal rights with white settlers. Additionally, the first American constitution created a loose confederation of states rather than a powerful central government.

In 1787, Americans met at Philadelphia to draft a new constitution creating a more powerful central government. George Washington was elected the first president of the new nation in 1788. Congress rounded out the Constitution of the United States with a Bill of Rights, adopted in 1789, guaranteeing such fundamental rights as freedom of speech and religion, and establishing bulwarks against tyranny by guaranteeing fair trials and preventing illegal searches. George Washington's presidency also saw the emergence of America's first political party system, a development not anticipated in the Constitution, but fundamental to democratic government as it developed in the United States.

In 1783 Joseph Michel and Jacques Etienne Montgolfier became the first human beings to fly. They developed the idea of a hot-air balloon while watching wood chips borne aloft over a fire. If chips could be lifted by heat, so too could a fabric balloon. They built a balloon, heated the air inside with a fire of straw and wood, and soared 1800 m (6000 ft) into the air. A few months later, they demonstrated their machine for King Louis XVI, carrying not only themselves but also a duck, a sheep, and a rooster. Until the invention of the airplane, hot-air balloons provided the only means of human flight.

The election of Thomas Jefferson to the presidency is sometimes called the “Revolution of 1800.” It was the first peaceful transfer of government from one political party to another in a popular election—in this case, from the Federalists to the Democratic-Republicans. Jefferson sought to reinforce America's democratic character by reducing the size of the central government. He favored “a wise and frugal government, which shall restrain men from injuring one another, which shall leave them otherwise free to regulate their own pursuits of industry and improvement, and shall not take from the mouth of labor the bread it has earned.” Jefferson considered farmers the backbone of democracy: “Those who labor in the earth are the chosen people of God,” he wrote, “if

ever He had a chosen people, whose breasts He has made His peculiar deposit for substantial and genuine virtue.” By purchasing Louisiana in 1803, then a region of about 2,100,000 sq km (more than 800,000 sq mi), Jefferson anticipated that he had assured the spread of agrarian democracy.

In 1804 two American explorers, Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, were commissioned to explore the territory west of the Mississippi River acquired by the United States from France in the Louisiana Purchase. They sent regular reports along with plants and animals directly to President Thomas Jefferson, who kept the specimens in the White House. After two seasons of travel the expedition reached the Pacific Ocean, the first to do so across the lands of the present-day United States. Seeing the ocean, William Clark wrote in his diary: “O, the joy!”

The early 19th century brought America's first major war, the War of 1812, which actually lasted from 1812 to 1815. It had its ignominious moments, as when the British occupied and burned Washington. The war was rich, however, in its legacy to American patriotism. Oliver Hazard Perry won a naval victory on Lake Erie and sent a famous message to his superiors: “We have met the enemy, and they are ours.” Another seaman, James Lawrence, mortally wounded, electrified his crew with his dying words: “Don't give up the ship!” During a long and perilous night, Francis Scott Key watched the British bombardment of Baltimore. He looked anxiously to see whether the American flag would dip in surrender, and wrote an anthem describing his experience. It began: “Oh say can you see, by the dawn's early light, what so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming...” Key's poem became the U.S. national anthem in 1931. America's one great victory on land during the war—by Andrew Jackson—came at New Orleans after the Treaty of Ghent had officially ended the conflict. This overwhelming victory stimulated American self-assurance, and helped Jackson, nicknamed “Old Hickory,” win the presidency a few years later.

America's position in the New World was underscored in 1823 with the Monroe Doctrine, set forth in a presidential address by James Madison. It stressed American devotion to representative government and declared that European powers should not establish new colonies in the Americas. The Monroe Doctrine took many forms during the years to come, and it came to be viewed as a mixed blessing by Latin American nations, but in the 19th century, it helped them secure their independence.

### **John Mac Arthur**

**1767 - 1843**

The American Revolution led to the French Revolution, both intellectually and politically. Although France supported the rebels in America, it did so to humiliate its archenemy England, not to foster democracy. But the success of the American Revolution, waged in the name of enlightened ideas, was an inspiration to European reformers, including Marquis de Lafayette, who had fought in it. If America could be transformed, then why not France?

The two revolutions were linked politically by the debts France incurred while fighting in the American Revolution. These debts so weakened the public treasuries that King Louis XVI was forced to seek assistance from the Estates-General, the French parliament. He hoped the parliament would grant him new revenues. Instead they demanded further reforms. The yearning for change, thus revealed, points to the larger causes of the Revolution—causes that would have forced change even if the American Revolution had not occurred. France was ruled by two privileged classes, the clergy and the nobility. Both poor folk and the newly powerful bourgeoisie were unrepresented.

The Estates-General met at Versailles on May 5, 1789, the first time it had convened in 175 years! The assembly's third estate, or commons, pressed for reform. Defying the king, they convened on a tennis court, proclaimed themselves the National Assembly, and announced (in what became known as the Tennis Court Oath) that they would not disband until a constitution was adopted. The king yielded, but he angered the reformers by dismissing a minister they admired. On July 14 they stormed a prison called the Bastille, a hated symbol of royal tyranny.

Events then followed in rapid succession. The revolutionaries organized a new government in Paris and abolished feudal privileges throughout France. Louis tried to accommodate the passion for reform, but soon he himself became the target of popular unrest. He tried to flee France in 1791 with his family, but was arrested and returned to Paris. He was guillotined in 1793. His queen, Marie Antoinette, was executed a few months later. By that time, the Reign of Terror swept France. Thousands of men and women identified with the old regime were killed. As the revolution grew more radical, leaders once thought trustworthy came under suspicion as too conservative, and they too were guillotined. Robespierre, one of the revolution's early leaders, became one of its most famous victims.

In 1799 an army officer named Napoleon Bonaparte seized power in a coup d'etat called 18 Brumaire, for its date in the new French calendar. Napoleon created a new kind of army, drawing on the services of able-bodied Frenchmen. Within a few years he had conquered all of Western Europe, except Portugal and Britain. Like German dictator Adolf Hitler a century later, Napoleon overreached himself by trying to conquer Russia in 1812. Weakened by defeat in the east, he was overwhelmed in 1814 by a coalition of Swedish, Prussian, Austrian, and English troops. Exiled to Elba, he escaped and gathered his followers in 1815 for a return to power. But at Waterloo he met his final defeat. He was then exiled to a more remote island, Saint Helena, off the coast of Africa. There he died in 1821.

Although the Bourbon dynasty was restored in 1815, France was transformed by the Revolution. It became a modern bureaucratic state dominated by the bourgeoisie. In 1830 the July Revolution replaced the Bourbons with Louis Philippe, the last king of France. He tried to project a bourgeois image, receiving his crown from “the people” and favoring the tricolor of the French Revolution over the traditional Bourbon flag. But during his reign the right to vote was still restricted to 200,000 male property holders, a

small fraction of France's 32 million citizens. In 1848 the February Revolution replaced the monarchy with a republican government.

The French Revolution was a step towards replacing entrenched aristocratic forms of government with more open, elective systems. Along with the American Revolution, it inspired reformers throughout the western world. English poet William Wordsworth summarized the exhilaration of the early Revolutionary era with these words: "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive, but to be young was very heaven!"

In 1830, the world's first important railroad opened between Liverpool and Manchester in England. The first American-built train was operated by the South Carolina Canal and Railroad Company which also began operations in 1830. Soon railroads were operating throughout the Western world. The Orient Express began service from Paris to Istanbul in 1833.

In 1838 the Cherokee Indians were forcibly removed from their homeland in the Appalachian Mountains. They had previously signed treaties with the United States government stipulating that if they lived peaceably and adopted "civilized" ways, they would be allowed to remain in the eastern United States. In response the Cherokees had adopted a constitution modeled on the American government, and one of their leaders, Sequoyia, had developed an alphabet for the Cherokee language. During the 1830s, however, land hunger overcame principle, and 18,000 to 20,000 Cherokees were conducted by the U.S. Army to Oklahoma. About 4000 Indians died along the route, which came to be known as the Trail of Tears.

The Industrial Revolution was at its height in the early 1840s. At the beginning of the 18th century a series of innovations made possible the building of the world's first mechanized factories. In 1733 English inventor John Kay invented the flying shuttle, and in 1764 British inventor James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny. Both inventions were used in textile manufacturing. Scottish inventor James Watt's steam engine, patented in 1769, provided the power to drive machinery, including textile factories and—in the next century—the locomotive.

Although the British tried to keep a monopoly on their marvelous machinery, other countries soon learned the secrets of industrial manufacture. In New England, textile mills sprung up in places like Lowell, Massachusetts. During the 19th century Americans overtook the British as the industrial leaders. American inventor Eli Whitney's cotton gin made it possible to produce cotton more efficiently, thus helping provide the raw material for the textile industry—and in the process; it reinforced the demand for slaves in the South. Whitney also pioneered the use of interchangeable parts in the manufacture of guns. Formerly, each gun had been manufactured separately with its own unique trigger, firing pan, stock and other parts. Whitney showed that you could manufacture each part separately to exact specifications and then easily replace broken parts.

During the 19th century a transportation revolution accompanied and helped along the Industrial Revolution. Villages and farms in remote parts of Europe and America were

linked to a national and global economy by toll roads, canals, steamships, and railroads. Soon the innovations were taken to Africa and Asia as well. Each new invention created a market for others. Railroads, for example, stimulated the iron industry. Improved iron manufacture facilitated the construction of skyscrapers and automobiles. American automobile manufacturer Henry Ford developed assembly-line production techniques.

The Industrial Revolution began by making old products more quickly and inexpensively—though not always of higher quality. As time passed, it led to entirely new kinds of products, such as washing machines, radios, and television sets. An American philosopher, Henry David Thoreau, asked where it was all leading to. Living near Boston in a cabin on the shores of Walden Pond, he surveyed the world in the 1840s and asked whether all of this inventiveness was not merely “an improved means to an unimproved end.” But even Thoreau admitted that there was something exciting about the trains that sped by on the tracks near his cabin.

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