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Folder Title:
Arrival Statement--Brussels, Belgium 5/28/89 [OA 6265] [2]

Stack:	Row:	Section:	Shelf:	Position:
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~~NATO~~
US Amb. Glickman & Mrs.
Nato Amb. Keel & Mrs.
EC Amb. Kingon & Mrs.

PM Martens & Mrs.
FM Tindemans
Amb. General Villan XIV -
McGroarty/Dooley *Chief of protocol*
May 17, 1989
2:30 pm
Draft 1

Amb. Gerard Jacques - *Grand Marshal of Court*

PRESIDENTIAL REMARKS: BRUSSELS ARRIVAL STATEMENT
BRUSSELS, BELGIUM
MAY 28, 1989

following PM's remarks

It is a pleasure to be back once again in Brussels, and I am especially pleased that my first visit as President comes as the nations of NATO celebrate 40 years of alliance -- and the longest period of peace Europe has known in the modern age.

Americans and Belgians share the memories of war and hard-won peace in this century. Flanders, the Battle of the Ardennes, Bastogne: those names are part of our history as well as your own -- part of our shared heritage of freedom.

Belgium -- no stranger to conquest and division -- recognized from the first the importance of alliance in the post-war world. Today, as permanent home to NATO and the European Community, Brussels stands at the center of a Europe free, at peace, and prosperous as never before -- a Europe that is steadily moving towards a single market, and unprecedented political and economic opportunities. And in Brussels, the signs of this renaissance of Europe are everywhere.

Belgium has been a good friend and an important ally -- one that has acted with alliance interests in mind. Early in this decade, Belgium was one of five NATO nations that made the difficult decision to base INF systems on its soil. Those deployments gave us the leverage we needed to negotiate the

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206 83

Soviet missiles capable of carrying ^{well over} 3,136 warheads.
1752 missiles

first-ever arms reduction treaty -- and one that secured the removal of three times as many Soviet warheads targeted on Europe. That's the kind of tough-minded approach that shows NATO is at once ready to ensure the common defense, and -- whenever possible -- to reduce arms and underlying tensions with the East. We are honored that ^{the} King has organized a lunch for the NATO heads of government; it will be a great pleasure to discuss the many important issues of the day with His Majesty. I look forward as well to my meeting with Prime Minister Martens, which begins shortly, and my discussions Tuesday with President Delors of the European Community and Secretary General Woerner of NATO.

As we and our NATO partners discuss the future of the alliance, our common security concerns and evolving economic relations, we will look to Belgium for support and reaffirmation of our close, cooperative, and long-standing relationship.

total # INF warheads
not just 5520's
X
Advance
Advance

Memorandum of June 1, data update
~~Understanding of 89~~
6 mos. update as of 6/1/88
data treaty entered into force
809 intermediate range
957 shorter range
1766
just 2 pages 1-2

6926 Eur Press
2492 PA Press

8677 Bummy Daniel
~~1358~~ Arms Control & Strategic Affairs
David Adamson

Jim Reams, Asst for NATO Pol Mil Affairs
647-2881

ACDA - David Sloss
647-7374
Acting Dir Chief for Theater Affairs Div.

INF Treaty - Memorandum of Understanding
~~Treaty Center~~ 12/87
~~AT THE~~

MCGROARTY
DOOLEY

King Baudouin + Q Fabiola
Bow-deo-an Fa-bu-laa³⁵
333-6900 Dunkirk

Suggested Remarks for the President's Arrival in Brussels

It is a pleasure to be back once again in Brussels. On this occasion in particular, as we join with our NATO partners to celebrate an unprecedented 40 years of peace, I am reminded of how well Brussels exemplifies the renaissance of Europe since the Second World War.

Remembering Belgium as one of our original transatlantic *recognized from the first inception of alliance* partners, Americans share with Belgians the memories of war and hard-won peace in this century. *at the heart of center* Belgians have often borne the brunt of aggression on this continent, and, in their history, conquest and division are no strangers. Now, as permanent home to NATO and the European Community, Brussels stands as the *?* (capital) of a Europe on the brink of a single market and great economic and political opportunity.

Belgium has been a good friend and an important ally. As we and our NATO and EC partners discuss the future of the Alliance *?* a single market Europe in the world context, we will look *?* Belgium for support and reaffirmation of our close, cooperative, and long-standing relationship.

- who?

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of the European Community

Thank you.

CREDITS TO BELGIUM:

✓ STATIONED INF.

*? OFFERED TO TAKE
401st Air Wing (AT
Florence)?*



RPM: SUMMIT-5

McGroarty/Dooley
May 17, 1989
2:30 pm
Draft 1

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BRUSSELS, BELGIUM
MAY 28, 1989

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Thank you.


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3:59 - 4:56
1:15 - 5:43

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

- 5/26 Dep. Statement
5/28 Arrival Brussels
5/30 Departure Brussels

~
Dunkirk, 1940

- 5/26 1952 - Peace contract signed
among US, GB + France 
- 5/28, 1940 - Belgium surrendered
to Germany
- 5/30, 1958 Unknown soldiers
from WWII + Korea
buried at Arlington
Nat'l Cemetery

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

LDC 707-5519

US Army Mil Hist Inst.
Carlisle, PA

717-245-3611

John Slonaker

NSC - for Court Guard

Amos Blackwell

Phillip Zellicow

Cond. Rice

(Col.) Don Suida

DES
LH
1924
LH

VOLUME 2

Ankara to Azusa

T H E E N C Y C L O P E D I A
AMERICANA
I N T E R N A T I O N A L E D I T I O N

COMPLETE IN THIRTY VOLUMES
FIRST PUBLISHED IN 1829



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1927

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LAR, Michigan State Univer

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 1871.
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 Réflexions sur l'état act
 venir (1869).



BELGIUM

Belgium preserves the charm of the past in towns such as Bruges, the Venice of the North.

GEORGIA ENGELHARD, MONKMEYER

CONTENTS

Section	Page	Section	Page
1. The People	482	7. Culture	495
2. Land and Natural Resources	484	Painting	496
3. Economy	485	Sculpture and Architecture	496
4. Education	487	Music	496
5. Government	488	Literature	497
6. History	488		



Belgium's Coat of Arms

BELGIUM, bel'jam, is a constitutional monarchy in western Europe. An independent nation since 1830, it combines a highly developed modern economy with a great cultural tradition. A visitor to Brussels, the capital, or to the port of Antwerp is impressed with the country's prosperity and economic vitality as a key member of the European Economic Community (Common Market). On the other hand, in few regions of Europe do the beauty and mystery of the Middle Ages come more alive than in the Belgian cities of Ghent and Bruges.

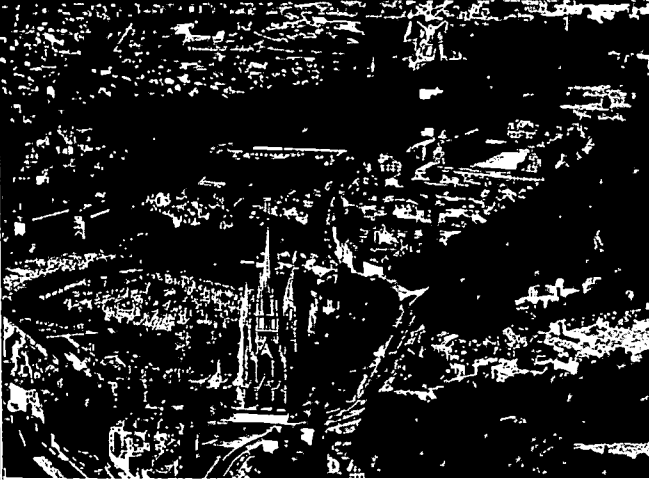
Belgium's history is a microcosm of the history of Europe. The country has been alternately the marketplace and the battlefield of the Continent. Despite its small size, it has experienced the religious and nationality divisions that have racked so many European countries. Its location on main war and trade routes involved it in the dynastic struggles of Burgundians and Habsburgs, Bourbons and Bonapartes.

The jealousies of the great powers allowed the Belgian revolt from the United Netherlands to succeed in 1830, but those jealousies also threatened the nation's continuing existence. Belgium was spared during the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, but its permanently guaranteed neutrality was violated by Germany in 1914. Recovery from World War I and from the havoc

wreaked by the persistent depression of the 1930's was barely accomplished by 1940, when Hitler launched his blitzkrieg through the country, which had just readopted a policy of neutrality.

These experiences have confirmed the Belgians' belief in the necessity of European cooperation. Enthusiasm for integration has been further stimulated by distrust of Communist expansion and by a desire to be part of a larger entity giving Belgium increased leverage and importance in dealing with its North Atlantic Treaty allies in economic and defense matters. Belgium's pride in serving as tutor to the Congo was wounded by the breakaway of the colony in 1960, but the subsequent economic crisis was successfully weathered.

Proximity to the mouths of the Rhine and Meuse rivers and to London and Paris has made Belgium a natural trading center. Long a chief agricultural region of Europe, it was the first of the Continental nations to become highly in-



PHOTOGRAPH © 1962 BY CHARLES E. ROTKIN, FROM "EUROPE: AN AERIAL CLOSE-UP" (LIPPINCOTT)

BRUSSELS' ATOMIUM (in the distance beyond the park) is a permanent symbol of the 1958 Brussel's World's Fair.

dustrialized; despite the ravages of two foreign occupations in the 20th century, it has continued to be a leading exporter of manufactured goods. Since World War II many foreign corporations have established factories and financial centers there.

Belgium's contributions to the advancement of civilization have been far out of proportion to the size of the country. Over the ages Belgium has maintained a rich culture and a high level of prosperity. Paradoxically, this has in part been the result of the country's linguistic division and geographical location, which in other ways have caused so much difficulty. The strongly Roman Catholic Flemings of the northern and western regions have contributed much by their industry and by the artistry of their painters, weavers, and builders. The French-speaking Walloons, who are concentrated in the southeast, led the state in its formative years and have made French culture part of the Belgian heritage.

INFORMATION HIGHLIGHTS

Official Name: Royaume de Belgique; Koninkrijk België.

Head of State: King of the Belgians.

Head of Government: Prime minister.

Legislature: Chambers of Parliament.

Area: 11,779 sq mi (30,507 sq km) in Belgium proper; 2.7 sq mi (7 sq km) in enclave of Baarle-Hertog.

Boundaries: North, North Sea and the Netherlands; east, the Netherlands and Germany; southeast, Luxembourg; south and southwest, France.

Elevations: Highest point—Bostrange, 2,277 feet (695 meters); lowest point—the polders, a few feet below sea level.

Population: 9,428,000 (1964).

Capital: Brussels (Bruxelles; Brussel).

Major Languages: Flemish, French, and German. Flemish and French are official languages of the national administration.

Major Religious Groups: Roman Catholics; Protestants.

Monetary Unit: Belgian franc (100 centimes).

Weights and Measures: Metric system.

Flag: Three vertical stripes—black, yellow, and red.

National Anthem: La Brabançonne (*Après des siècles d'esclavage*).

1. The People

The population of Belgium can be broadly divided into three linguistic groups. A majority are Flemings of Germanic stock who speak a dialect similar to Dutch. The Walloons, of Celtic antecedents, originally spoke dialects that differed markedly from Parisian French. These dialects have now nearly disappeared and have been replaced by a slightly Belgicized version of French, although in the countryside near Mons (Bergen) and Liège (Luik) they still may be heard occasionally. The German-speaking population of Belgium numbers less than 90,000 persons, yet because it is concentrated about Eupen and Malmédy and near the border with Luxembourg, it has been able to win language rights in those areas.

The Linguistic Boundary. The origin of the division of Belgium between Walloon and Flemish is lost in the shadows of the early Middle Ages. Between the 3d and 6th centuries the Salian Franks moved across the Rhine and established their control over the area presently between Boulogne in France, Cologne in West Germany, and the Netherlands' Inland Sea. South of a line that could be drawn from Boulogne to Maastricht in the Netherlands, the Roman influence, first introduced by Julius Caesar, was dominant; and although the Franks eventually conquered Gaul, the populace had become so Latinized that its language was never replaced by the Germanic speech of the Franks. North of the line, the Franks established themselves so thoroughly that their language became that of the people.

The linguistic boundary has remained distinct, with only slight modification, for 1,400 years. Along the Atlantic coast it has moved north to coincide with the Franco-Belgian border. In the interior the line has shifted south, and in the 20th century this shift has been accelerated by the superiority of the Flemish birth rate over that of the French-speaking populace.

The location of the boundary is now established by law. On one side of the legal dividing line all public signs and most advertising are in Flemish; a few yards down the road they are in French. Only in the national capital, Brussels, 20 miles within the Flemish zone, does the law require all official signs and publications to be in both languages. It was estimated that following the revision of the linguistic frontier on Sept. 1, 1963, the Flemish zone had 55.3 percent of the population, and the Walloon, bilingual, and German regions had 32.9, 11.2, and 0.6 percent respectively.

The leading Flemish cities are the medieval trading towns of Ghent (Gent, Gand) and Bruges (Brugge), along with the port of Antwerp (Antwerpen, Anvers). The chief centers of Wallonia are the fortified cities of Namur and Liège.

Bilingualism is frequently found in Belgium, particularly among the Flemings, who until recently have found it necessary to learn French to get ahead. The revolution of 1830 was dominated, as was the government for the ensuing 90 years, by the upper bourgeoisie, which was primarily Walloon. French was therefore the language of administration, of the parliamentary chambers, of the courts, and of military command. Only after expansion of the franchise and the stimulation of the Flemish movement by German occupation authorities during World War I

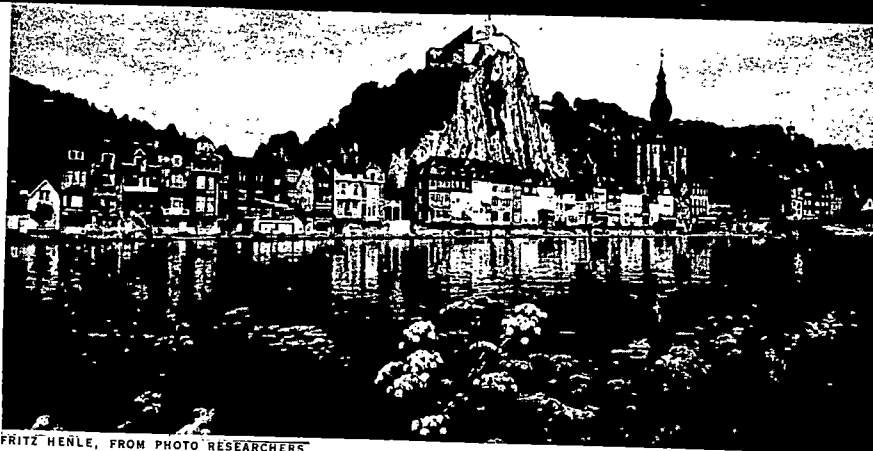
on of Belgium can be broadly divided into three linguistic groups. A major portion of the Germanic stock who speak Dutch. The Walloons, of Celtic origin, finally spoke dialects that developed from Parisian French. These dialects have nearly disappeared and have been replaced by a slightly Belgicized version of French in the countryside near Maastricht (Liège) they still may be heard. The German-speaking population numbers less than 90,000 persons and is concentrated about Eupen and Malmedy near the border with Luxembourg. It is unable to win language rights.

Boundary. The origin of the boundary between Walloon and Flemish is in the shadows of the early Middle Ages. In the 3d and 6th centuries the boundary crossed the Rhine and established over the area presently between France, Cologne in West Germany, and the Netherlands Inland Sea. South of this line be drawn from Boulogne in the Netherlands, the Roman Empire was reduced by Julius Caesar, who brought the Franks eventually to the population had become Flemish. The language was never replaced by that of the Franks. North of this line the Franks established themselves and their language became that of the

boundary has remained distinct modification, for 1,400 years. Along the Atlantic coast it has moved westward with the Franco-Belgian border. The line has shifted southward in the century this shift has been due to the superiority of the Flemish birth rate over the French-speaking populace. The boundary is now established on the side of the legal dividing line and most advertising are in French. As you go down the road they are in French. The national capital, Brussels, is in the Flemish zone, does the law courts and publications to be in French. It was estimated that following the linguistic frontier on September 1, 1963, 55.3 percent of the population was Walloon, bilingual, and German. 2.9, 11.2, and 0.6 percent

ish cities are the medieval cities of Gent, Gand) and Bruges. Antwerp is the port of Antwerp (Antwerp) the chief centers of Wallonia are in the south of Namur and Liège. French is frequently found in Belgium, especially in the Flemings, who until recently were necessary to learn French to do business. The population of 1830 was dominated by the bourgeoisie for the ensuing 90 years. The bourgeoisie, which was rich and was therefore the dominant force, of the parliamentary system, and of military commissions of the franchise and the Flemish movement by German cities during World War I.

THE MEUSE RIVER, which here flows past the old citadel in Namur, is bordered in its upper reaches by many châteaux.



FRITZ HEINLE, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

were the Flemings organized and angry enough to demand and obtain concessions. Each alteration of the boundary following a census now leads to controversy in local villages and in the national chambers. The desire of many to serve under military leaders who speak their own language and to fight for soil that is Flemish or Walloon, rather than Belgian, is an indication of how detrimental the issue is to national harmony.

Although the class distinctions that were so marked in the 18th and 19th centuries are less distinct in the 20th, Walloons still hold a preponderant number of the higher positions in the economy and in government. However, the Flemings are winning increased opportunities, and the Flemish movement is gaining in leadership and momentum. Of course, all Walloons are not businessmen or government officials; the majority are farmers, miners, and laborers. The top financial and governmental circle, which includes both Flemings and Walloons, is small, and certain families have been consistently represented in it for nearly a century.

Religion. Both Flemings and Walloons are Roman Catholic, but with markedly different attitudes. Many Walloons give Roman doctrine a liberal interpretation and are not strict in their attendance at Mass. In the Flemish areas of Belgium the churches are crowded, Roman doctrine is strictly adhered to and seldom questioned, and the local clergy have considerable influence within their parishes. On a higher level the archbishop of Mechelin (Malines) enjoys universal respect and is one of the national leaders.

Religious liberty is well established, and the state pays a portion of the salaries of the Roman Catholic, Protestant, Anglican, and Jewish clergy. The Protestant denominations in Belgium are not strong, although they have grown since World War II.

Population Changes. The birthrate among the devoutly Roman Catholic Flemings exceeds that of the Walloons. The over-all rate of national population increase fell from 1.03 percent per year in 1900 to 0.84 percent in 1930 and after 1958 to 0.5 percent or less. The crude rate of births in 1963 was 17.1 per 1,000, while that of deaths was 12.6.

By the census of 1961 the population totaled 9,189,741 persons, approximately 2,500,000 more than in 1900. Belgium is one of the most heavily inhabited countries of Europe, with an estimated population density in 1963 of 304 persons per square kilometer, as compared to 87, 244, and 356 respectively for France, West Germany, and the Netherlands. As a result of losses during the war, women outnumbered men in the 1960's

by approximately 200,000, but births of males were exceeding those of females.

Ways of Life. Many Flemings prefer—or have become accustomed to—a simpler form of life, with a plainer diet and more rough-hewn ways, than the Walloons. Yet while certain distinctions may be drawn between the ways of life of the Fleming and Walloon, the similarities are more important. All relish the innumerable village fairs and the traditional festivals, such as the Mardi Gras held at Binche. The cinema and sports, particularly soccer and bicycle racing, are followed closely, and most Belgians participate fully in what has jokingly been called the national pastime—drinking the many varieties of beer brewed in their country.

The Belgian standard of living is one of the highest in Europe, per capita income is high and increasing, and a large part of the economy is directed toward production for the consumer market. Housing is less crowded than in most of Europe. The pace of life in the cities is hectic, yet the Belgians know how to relax, and they do so at sidewalk cafés and at the restaurants known throughout Europe for the preparation of the Belgians' favorite dishes: mussels, deep-fried potatoes, oysters, endive, and Flemish *waterzooi* (chicken). Household camping along the Meuse and in the Ardennes has become popular.

Although modern informality is making inroads among the student generations, the tradition of the tight family circle and formal relations with others is maintained. The home is still the focus of life. Regionalism is strong, and while they may visit the capital on occasion, many Belgians prefer not to wander far from their place of birth.

2. Land and Natural Resources

In geographical rather than linguistic terms, Belgium is divided into three main areas: Lower Belgium in the west; the central plain; and the Ardennes tableland in the southeast.

Lower Belgium is a flat region bordered by the Netherlands and by the North Sea for approximately 40 miles (64 km). The province of West Flanders in Lower Belgium encompasses 193 square miles (500 sq km) of polders, rich lands reclaimed from the ocean. The Campine (Kempenland) to the north and east has a sandy and less fertile soil; beneath the surface, however, lie important coal deposits. Anthracite coal is Belgium's only major mineral resource; some income is also gained from kaolin, lime, and iron ore.

The central and most populous area of Belgium is a gently undulating plain cut by numerous valleys. It is a fertile region that until

recently has also been Belgium's chief source of coal. The veins in the Borinage zone near Mons have now begun to run out and become uneconomical to mine, resulting in unemployment there and in the nearby metallurgical center of Charleroi, where the ore deposits are also nearing exhaustion. While the Lys (Leie) and the all-important Scheldt (Schelde, Escaut) rivers are assets to the northwest section of Belgium, the center of the country possesses no large natural waterways.

The Ardennes tableland is separated from the central plain by the Sambre and Meuse (Maas) rivers. The gently rolling Herve plateau near Liège and Huy, which has been so accommodating to invading armies, is fertile, but the coal mines near Liège are suffering the same fate as those of the Borinage. To the south the plateau gives way first to the Famenne depression of woods and meadows and then to markedly higher and more rugged terrain, with the limestone cliffs and wooded hills of the Ardennes providing scenery but little opportunity for cultivation.

Although forests cover only 18 percent of the total area of Belgium, approximately 70 percent of the three eastern provinces is wooded, making possible a moderate lumbering industry. The Ardennes is the least settled region of Belgium, and pursuit of the wild boar, which lives in its thickets, is considered high sport.

The area of the Ardennes does not provide sufficiently difficult terrain to block invasion. Belgium's lack of a natural border on all sides but the northwest has had a tragic effect on its history. The highest point in the Ardennes, the Botrange, reaches 2,277 feet (695 meters) above sea level. Most of the region is considerably lower, however.

Belgium deserves the appellation "low country," as the average altitude of the country is 526 feet (160 meters), and the entire northern third is only 60 feet (18 meters) above sea level on the average.

Climate. The sea determines Belgium's climate. Warmed by its influence, which is all the more beneficial thanks to the proximity of the Gulf Stream, Belgium is spared the rigors of the winters that might be expected at 51° north latitude. Some snow falls during the coldest months, but the accumulation is negligible except in the east, where temperatures are a bit lower than at Brussels. The capital experiences a mean temperature of 65° F (18° C) in the summer and 37° (3° C) in winter. As these figures show, Belgium's climate, like its geography, is not one of extremes; temperature variations are moderate, the summers are generally cool, and humidity is constantly present. Rainfall is plentiful (30 to 40 inches, or 76 to 102 cm, per year), even during the fall, the most pleasant season of the year. Precipitation is frequent, coming usually in showers and drizzles, although heavy storms do occur.

3. Economy

The economy of modern Belgium has profited from the country's location near the heart of western Europe's industrial region. Full advantage could not be taken of this situation, however, until the formation of the Benelux economic union at the end of World War II, the European Coal and Steel Community in 1951, and the European Economic Community in 1957.

World War II and Its Aftereffects. The rapidity of the German advance through Belgium in 1940 meant that surprisingly little of its industry was destroyed at that time. Belgium was exploited during the war, and many of its factories deteriorated. The greatest devastation occurred during the Allied advance of 1944. The liberation of the city of Antwerp several weeks before Rotterdam benefited Belgium, as Antwerp was made a chief port of entry for Allied shipping to the Continent. While Belgium's position in the early postwar years was superior to its neighbors, a decade later some of Belgium's antiquated factories and mines were to suffer from the competition of new plants constructed elsewhere.

The 1950's proved disappointing, and a marked recession was experienced in 1958 and 1959. The over-all picture was brightened, however, by the introduction of considerable foreign capital and the construction of a wide variety of modern industries, particularly in the northern regions of the country. An austerity program was necessitated by the breakaway of the Congo colony in 1960 and the subsequent chaos there. Losses were limited reasonably well, and many of the corporations active in the Congo were able to reach profitable arrangements with the new government.

In the 1960's production and exports, long hindered by European tariffs, increased steadily in an atmosphere of confidence. Between 1956 and 1964 the national income expanded by more than 50 percent. To maintain this growth rate and the level of exports, an economic development plan was worked out in close cooperation with private sectors of the economy and approved by Parliament in 1963. A dip in the growth rate at the beginning of 1966 stimulated new legislation designed to attract foreign capital. The 1966 laws made credit easier and provided tax abatements to new industries.

Industry. The largest portion of Belgium's gross national product flows from its industries. The manufacturing industries make the most significant contribution; in the early 1960's it was approximately four times that made by the construction or transportation industries. The role of utilities and mining is a good deal less. The growth of industrial production after World War II was healthy. In the period from 1958 to 1965 it increased by 48 percent, mainly in construction, electricity, and manufacturing.

Much of Belgium's manufacturing is devoted to the processing of imported raw materials. Hence the significance of the European Common Market for Belgium's economic growth. As most of Belgium's ore deposits have been exhausted, its steel industry is dependent on supplies from France, Luxembourg, and Sweden. The sheet and plate metal, industrial steel, and wire produced are used extensively in Belgium's well-established metalworking industry, the most famous plant of which is probably the locomotive- and rail-producing Cockerill works. Processing of imported nonferrous metals, with the exception of copper and to a certain extent zinc, is not undertaken on a large scale. A different example of processing is the assembly of imported automobile parts.

The textile industry is also dependent on sizable imports. Foreign competition has now forced the Belgians to concentrate on highly finished products. The greatest growth has been in the areas of synthetic and jute fiber textiles

and in the manufacture of carpets, nearly 90 percent of which are for export. Linen made from flax grown in the region of Kortrijk (Courtrai) is still highly prized, but quality lace manufacture is declining as younger generations fail to learn the difficult art of its hand weaving.

Belgian glass, much of it produced in the region of Liège, continues to be admired throughout Europe. Increasing attention is being given the production of chemicals, and centers for this purpose have grown up near Antwerp and also about Mons, helping to relieve the unemployment of the Borinage region. The diamond-cutting industry at Antwerp, which draws much of its supply from the Congo, makes Belgium the world's leading exporter of industrial diamonds. Its breweries make Belgium a leading beer producer, particularly of specialty beers that are mostly consumed locally. The extensive consumer service industry, supported by affluent upper and middle classes, ranks next to manufacturing and commerce as the greatest contributor to the gross national product. Mention should also be made of some of the products of Belgium's small but nevertheless noted industries: leatherwork, bookbinding, cement, technical glass, and sporting arms.

Much of Belgium's industry is controlled by six huge trusts. The most important of these is the Société Générale, which was founded in 1822 and which in 1965 owned about 35 percent of the electricity, 40 percent of the coal, 50 percent of the steel, and 65 percent of the nonferrous metal industries in the country. The Groupe Solvay controls chemical manufacture, and Brufina Confinindus has wide holdings in coal, steel, heavy engineering, and electricity. Empain is important in tramways and electrical equipment, as are the Groupe Coppée in coal and steel and the Banque Lambert in petroleum.

The government interferes infrequently with business and has traditionally been sensitive to business interests. The only major instance of subsidization is the mining industry. Following World War II the government did all it could to rehabilitate the coal mining industry, the only extractive industry of size in Belgium. A record output was achieved in 1953, and extensive mod-

ernization continued, but thereafter production declined. The depth and thinness of the already heavily exploited veins and the faulted structure of the strata have made operation of many Borinage mines uneconomical. Further development of the Campine fields is expected to compensate for the Borinage decline. A new source of power is nuclear energy. In 1953 a study center was opened at Mol that conducted important research in the application of nuclear power to industrial uses.

Agriculture. Agriculture no longer plays a great role in the economy as it once did, but nevertheless is extremely important, for wheat food is not raised within the populous country and must be imported, to the detriment of the balance of payments. The amount of land devoted to agriculture has decreased slightly since World War II, yet it continues to meet about 80 percent of the nation's needs. Production has been aided by the trend to larger units in the 1950's and 1960's; many farms are still less than 12 acres in size. Strip farming and intensive cultivation, the result of centuries of land division among families, are still predominant in Belgian farming. The use of modern techniques and fertilizers is spreading.

Livestock raising on the pastures of the Campine and Ardennes is the leading agricultural activity, making Belgium nearly self-sufficient in most beef and pork products. Wheat, barley, and oats are grown extensively, yet Belgium must still import grains. Much land, especially in the eastern and central zones, is devoted to potatoes and to the cultivation of fodder and sugar beets. The latter two crops are large and make a significant contribution to the overall agricultural economy. Flax continues to be grown in Flanders, and some experimentation is being done with tobacco. Belgium is noted for greenhouse grapes, endive, and for the quality hops that make its beers so outstanding.

Labor. Only about 6 percent of the population is employed in agriculture, and there has been a continuing slow decrease in the number of farmers. Increments in the labor supply have generally occurred in the manufacturing industries. Most farmers own their own land. Many

BELGIUM is one of the most important flax fiber producers in the world. Flax is grown primarily in the region of Kortrijk (Courtrai). Below, flax is gathered into shocks for curing (left) and processed by "scutching" (right).



FRITZ HENLE, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

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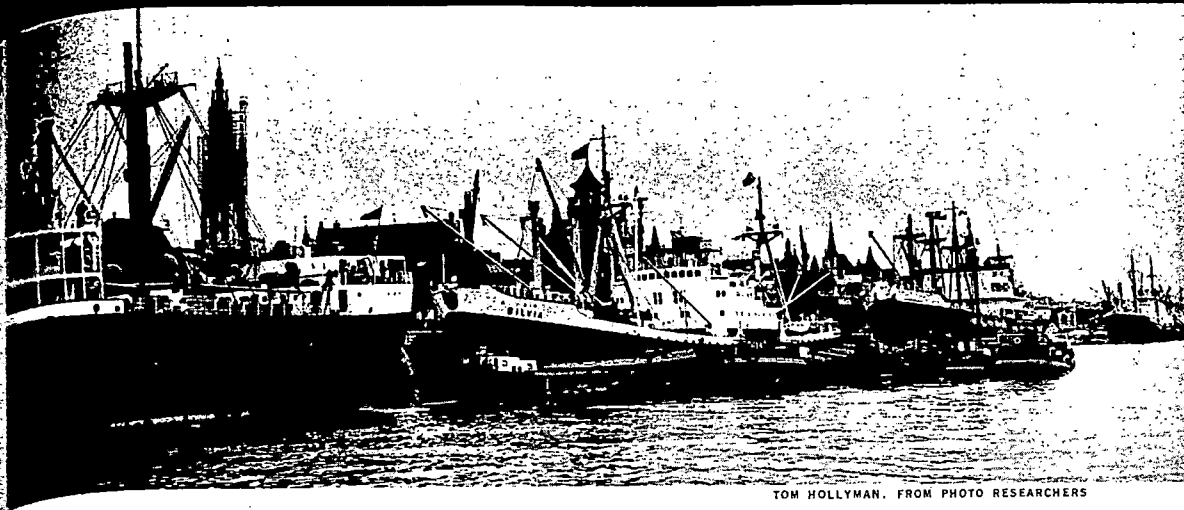
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FRITZ HENLE, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS



TOM HOLLYMAN, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

ANTWERP, which lies 50 miles upstream from the sea on the Scheldt River, is one of the world's busiest ports.

and it necessary to supplement the income gained
 from their small acreage by taking part-time jobs
 in the towns.

In the economic expansion of the first half
 of the 1960's, employment in manufacturing
 went up approximately 12 percent, and over-all
 unemployment dropped in the same period from
 6.3 percent to 2.5 percent. Laborers from abroad,
 especially Italy, have been attracted by these con-
 ditions, yet unemployment has continued to exist
 in the Borinage and West Flanders.

Commerce and Finance. By the mid-1960's,
 while approximately 40 percent of Belgium's total
 production was for export, over 70 percent of its
 industrial output was for that purpose. The
 leading customers of the Belgium-Luxembourg
 Economic Union (BLEU) have for some years
 been the Netherlands and West Germany, while
 BLEU's leading suppliers have been France and
 Germany. Over half of BLEU's trade is now
 with countries of the European Economic Com-
 munity, and this percentage is increasing. Prin-
 cipal imports are textiles, transport equipment,
 nonelectric machinery, petroleum products, chem-
 icals, iron ore, steel, and copper. Much of these
 are processed and in turn exported, especially the
 iron, steel, copper, and textiles.

Brussels is a key financial center of Europe.
 The bank of issue is the National Bank of Bel-
 gium, a joint-stock institution in which the gov-
 ernment has held half the shares since 1948.

Transportation. Income is also gained from
 Belgium's transportation facilities. Antwerp, lo-
 cated 50 miles (80 km) up the Scheldt from the
 sea, is so heavily used for the entry and exit
 of goods from the Continent that it is one of
 the world's leading ports. Other ports are Zee-
 brugge, Brussels, and Ostend. The Société Na-
 tionale des Chemins de Fer Belges, which op-
 erates the rail system, is government-controlled
 with some private participation. Although the
 rail system is the densest in Europe and success-
 fully handles a high-volume freight and passen-
 ger service, as much or more freight is trans-
 ported on the inland waterway system. The
 complex system of canals serves nearly all the
 country. Chief among the waterways are the
 Ghent-Terneuzen Canal; the Roupel Canal, link-
 ing Brussels to the sea; and the famous Albert
 Canal, between Antwerp and Liège.

Sabena, the semiprivate airline controlled by
 the government, has a monopoly on air trans-
 portation in Belgium. It has international air-
 ports at Brussels and Deurne, near Antwerp.

4. Education

Belgium's educational system is highly devel-
 oped despite the ill effects of two major contro-
 versies. The oldest of these concerns the role of
 the church and religious education in the training
 of youth. In 1945 great efforts were made to end
 the century-old "school war." The Socialists and
 Catholics, who made up the two largest parties,
 were aware that their differences on this and on
 other issues were dividing the country seriously.
 Agreement was therefore reached on a far-rang-
 ing bill that was made into law in 1959. It
 acknowledges the right of each school-administer-
 ing authority—national government, commune, or
 church—to devise its own curriculum as long as it
 meets the minimal requirements of the ministry
 of education. Political propaganda is barred from
 the classroom, and proselytizing for state or
 church schools is banned.

The 1959 law established that it is the na-
 tional government's responsibility to see that
 satisfactory schools of all kinds are within reach
 of all children. Attendance from the age of 6 to
 14 has been compulsory since 1914. Salaries,
 pensions, benefits, and all tax-supported subsidies
 generally must be the same for all schools. One
 exception concerns construction of new buildings.
 The national government constructs its own
 schools. Provinces and towns may receive state
 subsidies of 60 percent of the cost of new build-
 ings. Church school construction is not sub-
 sidized, however, on the theory that salaries paid
 to the teaching nuns and monks do not go to
 them personally but to their religious orders,
 which may use the funds for capital construction.
 No subsidies are given to Jewish or Protestant
 institutions.

The second controversy affecting the schools
 concerns the language of instruction. The Flem-
 ings early resented the fact that instruction was
 solely in French, and Flemish schools were grad-
 ually established in Flemish-speaking regions in
 the 19th century. A law of 1932 states that in-
 struction in the schools should be given in the
 language of the region in which the school is
 located. The other national language is to be
 the first modern foreign language taken up for
 study.

The linguistic status of the Belgian univer-
 sities is hotly debated. Flemish demonstrations
 forced the conversion of the University of Ghent
 into a Flemish-language institution in 1930. Many
 courses are given in Flemish at the University of

Louvain, but riots and petitions in the early 1960's did not persuade church authorities to abolish the French section of the university.

Of the four Belgian universities, all of which are known for their high quality, those at Ghent and Liège are state-controlled. The University of Louvain, founded in 1426, is Roman Catholic and by far the largest. Its world-famous library was burned during the invasions of 1914 and 1940, but it remains one of the great libraries of Europe, especially for medieval materials. The Free University of Brussels was founded by the Liberals in 1834 as a counter to Louvain.

Higher liberal arts education is still primarily for the upper and middle classes. For others there are seven commercial colleges, a polytechnical institution, and several agricultural schools, as well as specialized institutions of higher learning. Brussels, Liège, Ghent, Antwerp, and Mons each possesses a royal academy of fine arts and a royal conservatory. There are numerous other schools of music and design and about 165 normal schools.

5. Government

The government of modern Belgium, established by the Constitution of 1831, is a hereditary constitutional monarchy, which, though thoroughly democratic and representative, has traditionally allowed the sovereign much latitude in action. Succession is by the rule of male primogeniture; if there is no male heir, the reigning king designates his successor with Parliament's approval.

A traditional concern of the monarchy is defense, for the king is commander in chief of the armed forces. The king declares war, signs treaties, and makes peace, but only with the approval of Parliament. He can also confer titles and grant pardons. Any act of the king must be countersigned by a minister to have validity.

Legislature. The Parliament, with which the monarch shares legislative power, consists of a Senate and a Chamber of Representatives. Sessions begin each November and are held for at least 40 days. The king, who appoints and dismisses his ministers, may also call and dissolve extraordinary sessions of Parliament. Such dissolution, however, must be followed by new elections within 40 days and a sitting of the new Parliament within two months. The powers of Senate and Chamber are equal; bills may be introduced in either and must receive approval of both before going to the king for signature.

According to the constitutional revision of 1921, some senators are elected directly and others indirectly, and all sit for four years. In the mid-1960's the Senate had 175 members. Those elected directly equal half the number of members of the lower chamber. Each of the nine provincial councils also elects senators, at the ratio of one for every 200,000 inhabitants; with each province sending at least three. In the mid-1960's there were 46 provincial senators. A third category of senators, numbering half those sent by the provinces, is chosen by the Senate itself, an arrangement that assures influential or aging leaders a seat despite the fickleness of the electorate. All senatorial elections, whether direct or indirect, are by the method of proportional representation, as are those for the Chamber of Representatives. Voting is compulsory for citizens over 21 years of age who meet a residential requirement of six months.

Representatives are elected directly from local districts for terms of four years. Their number is determined by the population, and each seat must represent at least 40,000 citizens. According to a law of 1949, the current size of the chamber is 212 deputies. Unlike the senators who must be 40 years of age, deputies may be as young as 25.

Political Parties. Proportional representation has not led to the widespread multiplication of parties that it has produced in other countries, although there are splinter groupings. In the 19th century the traditional parties were the Catholics and the Liberals. With the rise of the Socialist party in the 20th century the Liberals have experienced the same fate as the Catholics in Britain. Squeezed between the left and the right, they have lost electors to both sides and have found it difficult to establish a meaningful middle-ground position. By clinging to policies of former years, particularly their opposition to welfare projects and state aid for church schools, they had become one of the most conservative groupings in post-World War II Belgium. In an effort to obtain a new image and regain popularity, a program more relevant to current problems was devised in 1961, and the party was renamed the Party of Freedom and Progress. A similar step had already been taken by the Catholics, who assumed the name Christian Social party after the war.

Since 1945 the Christian Socialists have generally won a plurality of votes, but often they have been required to make concessions to the Socialists or to form coalition governments with them. The Liberals have sought to win enough seats to control the balance of power.

Minor political groupings range from the Communists on the left to a strange cluster of semifascist groupings on the right. Only a few Communist deputies are elected, and while rightist groups have held demonstrations, they lack sufficient votes to place their members in Parliament.

The linguistic division has led to the creation of Flemish and Walloon wings within the major parties. It has also stimulated the growth of specifically linguistic parties. The Walloons have been slow to form their own groupings, but recently there have appeared organizations determined to protect the rights of Wallonia and the French language. Flemish parties have existed for some time, gaining their main impetus from the formation of the Front party among soldiers during World War I.

6. History

The struggle for unity in domestic matters and independence in international affairs is the theme that runs through Belgian history. As natural as these goals might be, their achievement has been delayed for centuries by internal divisions, particularly those of religion and language, and by the territories' location in a coveted area surrounded by aggressive powers.

The first successful attempt to unify the region following the breakup of the Carolingian empire in the 9th century was made by the dukes of Burgundy. In 1384, Philip the Bold became count of Flanders, since his wife, Marguerite de Male, had inherited the territories from her father. By the reign (1419-1467) of Philip the Good all the principalities in the Lowlands had been brought under the control of the

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house of Burgundy. These territories extended
well beyond the regions that constitute the ma
areas of present-day Belgium (Liège was still
independent bishopric, however). They also
included French Artois, the left bank of the
Rhine in the east, and Zeeland, Holland, Gelder
land, and other lands to the north that now
form the Netherlands. The history of Belgium
is therefore synonymous with the history of the
Lowlands in their entirety until the Dutch res
ult and separation at the end of the 16th and
beginning of the 17th century.

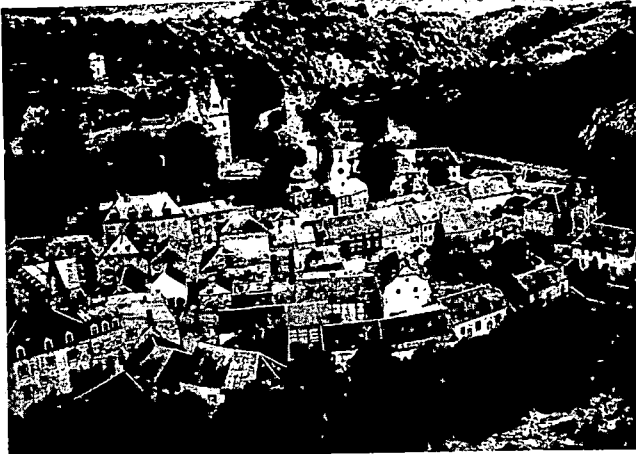
Burgundian Rule. Establishing cohesiveness
among the regions and towns long accustomed
to autonomy was a difficult task. Philip the
Good tactfully balanced the influence of the com
munes, the clergy, and the nobility, yet he did
not hesitate to use force against such adamantly
independent towns as Bruges and Ghent.

Although Philip's moderate success in bring
ing some unity to the government can be partly
attributed to his energy and skill, equal credit
must be given the temper of the times. Belgium
had been torn by warfare for decades, and even
the people of the great communes were wearying
of the strife involved in defending municipal
autonomy and supremacy over neighboring areas.
The rural populations were tired of domination
by the towns and were therefore sympathetic to
Philip's cause. More important, changes were oc
curring in the region's economy. Trade had now
so developed that municipalities were bound to
gether by common interests perhaps stronger
than were realized at the time. Rapidly growing
towns, such as Brussels and Antwerp, which
drew their livelihood primarily from trade rather
than manufacture, were willing enough to sup
port the duke.

While commercial centers grew, many of the
formerly independent wool-cloth-weaving local
ities, such as Ypres and Ghent, declined. Dur
ing the 15th century, English cloth production
increased at such a rate that soon Flemish towns
began to suffer from the reduction of the sup
ply of English raw wool and the competition of
imported English finished goods. New avenues
had to be explored, and it was at this time that
the Belgian linen industry received its initial de
velopment. The great city of Bruges nevertheless
experienced an irremedial setback as the silting
up of the river Zwin closed the nearby port of
Damme. Fate was more kind to Antwerp, as a
series of inundations widened and deepened the
Scheldt, opening the channel to the ocean.

The desire of the dukes to maintain the in
dependence of their holdings led them through a
devious course during the latter part of the Hun
dred Years' War. At first they sided with En
gland and then with France. But the basic prin
ciple of their policy, the maintenance of a balance
of power that would prevent either France or
England from establishing undue influence over
the Lowlands, remained constant.

In 1477, Philip's son, Charles the Bold, was
slain at the siege of Nancy, and the holdings of
Burgundy, now including the prince-bishopric
of Liège, which Charles had ruthlessly subdued,
passed to his daughter Mary. Threatened by re
surgent particularism within Belgium and by
French invasion, Mary strengthened her position
by marrying Archduke Maximilian, the future
emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. This step,
while preventing the disintegration of the Bur
gundian holdings, endangered Belgium's inde



TOM HOLLYMAN, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

DURBUY hugs the banks of the Ourthe River. A tiny town today, its palace bears witness to its former importance.

pendence by tying the country for over two cen
turies to the great Habsburg domain.

Charles V and the Pragmatic Sanction. Until the
close of the reign of Maximilian's successor,
Charles V, the situation was not serious. Charles
and his governors-general were solicitous of the
welfare of the provinces both because they were
the richest portion of the realm and because of
emotional ties. The activities of the Burgundian
dukes had briefly separated the fate of the Low
lands from that of Germany. A continuing sep
aration was now assured by Charles, who, uncer
tain that his son would succeed him as emperor,
wished to make the Lowlands part of the Habs
burg patrimony. In the Transaction of Augsburg
of 1548 he forced the governing body of the em
pire, the Diet, to acknowledge the "circle of Bur
gundy" as an entity and to admit that, although
the circle was to pay the empire a small sum, it
was to be a virtually independent state, free of
imperial jurisdiction and laws. The Pragmatic
Sanction of 1549 solidified the Transaction by
unifying the succession rights of the provinces
and declaring that the 17 provinces were in
separable.

Charles V's reign was a happy epoch for Bel
gium as trade and culture thrived. But, iron
ically, this very period of unity and relative au
tonomy contained the seeds of destruction of
those treasured goals. Despite the emperor's vig
orous efforts to repress the Protestant heresy, the
followers of Calvin became increasingly numer
ous, particularly in the northern provinces. The
religious strife was aggravated by the passage of
the Spanish throne—and thus control of the
Netherlands—to Charles' son Philip II in 1556.
Unlike his father, the new monarch did not hold
much sympathy for the attitudes and wishes of
the inhabitants of the Lowlands or know their
tongues. The Belgians found themselves subject
to rule not from Brussels but from Madrid by a
foreigner rather than by a "national" sovereign.

Philip's policies quickly assured his unpopu
larity in the Lowlands. He did not hesitate to
require the rich provinces to bear the brunt of
the costs of his war with Henry II of France.
The garrisoning of Spanish troops on the popu
lace aroused much opposition; so too did Philip's
economic policy, with its 10-percent turnover
tax. The nobles were angered by the creation
of a secret *consulta* that superseded the council of

state in advising the governor, Marguerite of Parma. The clergy resented the appointment of Philip's agent, Bishop Granvella of Arras, to the influential archbishopric of Malines. Catholics and Protestants alike feared a rigorous application of the anti-Calvinist laws and the establishment of the Inquisition.

Revolt. In 1566 approximately 2,000 Protestant and Catholic leaders joined in the Compromise of Nobles, petitioning that Marguerite administer the religious laws moderately, avoid any inquisition, and summon the States General to consider new rules regarding heretics. Because of a derogatory remark made about the simple dress of the 300 who presented the petition or perhaps because of their motto, "Faithful to the king to beggary," the nobles acquired the party name of *gueux*, or beggars. The unity of their party was ruptured, however, by an outbreak among the lower classes, which led to the sacking of many churches.

Disturbed by the excesses of the iconoclasts, many moderate Catholic leaders rallied to the support of Marguerite, while William of Nassau, prince of Orange, and his Calvinist followers drifted further from allegiance to the throne. Within a short time it was clear that the nobles had lost control and that in the place of a united national movement separate Protestant and Catholic parties were appearing.

The year 1567 witnessed the beginning of civil warfare that eventually resulted in the division of the Lowlands into two states. The dissolution of the Compromise of the Nobles played into the hands of Philip, who sent the duke of Alva to punish the rebels. His persecution of the signers of the Compromise, including the moderates, was organized by the council of Troubles, soon termed the "Council of Blood." The execution of the counts of Egmont and Hoorn brought widespread protest and provided the opposition with martyrs.

Thousands joined the standard of William the Silent, who first retreated to the north, where his greatest support lay, and then fled the country. Marguerite herself resigned her position. Although Alva did establish his control throughout the Low Countries, bands of rebels continued their opposition. Following five years of repression and inordinate taxation, the seizure of the port of Brill by "water beggars" stimulated new revolt, concentrated in the northern provinces. Its success was such that, in 1573, Alva requested his own recall.

The more moderate policies of Alva's successor, Luis de Requesens, only partially meliorated the situation, and the violent sack of Antwerp by Spanish troops shortly after Requesens' death (1576) led to a realliance of Protestant and Catholic groupings. By the Pacification of Ghent of 1576 all 17 provinces united to drive the Spaniards from the lowlands. Roman Catholicism was recognized as the dominant religion of the country, and toleration was established everywhere but in Holland and Zeeland, which were to be Protestant.

Division of the Lowlands. Although the intent was that disputes would be resolved and former animosities forgotten, feelings were too deep. Both groups violated the terms of the Pacification, and the leadership of William was not strong enough to curb the extremists of either faction and win the support of his critics. An organization of Catholic "Malcontents" soon ap-

peared, around which Alexander Farnese, who became governor in 1578, skillfully built his strength in the southern provinces.

In January 1579 the Confederation of Arras was formed by several southern Catholic provinces. Later that month the breach was made definitive by the Union of Utrecht, in which the seven northern provinces (Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Friesland, Overijssel, and Groningen) bound themselves to act together in external matters. Southerners and northerners alike claimed to be acting in the name of unity. The true nature of the situation was finally acknowledged by the Utrecht group when in 1581 it announced its independence of Spain and awarded the hereditary *staathaldership* to William of Orange.

The division of the Low Countries was unfortunate from many points of view and originally undesired even by those who achieved the break. All the inhabitants were caught between traditional respect for legitimacy and the desire to be independent of Spanish domination. The strongest call was for unity, but the firm entrenchment of Spanish troops in the south, if not in the north, implied that unity would have to be established within rather than outside the Spanish empire. The unenlightened policies of Philip, however, had already provoked two attempts at the latter course, which had failed because of distrust among the religious groupings.

William and Farnese would have welcomed unity, but they and more particularly their supporters each demanded it be on their own terms. Without compromise far greater than either religious faction would admit and in the absence of total military victory, separation was the only possible outcome. It was not a lack of patriotism but rather a more positive respect for the Roman faith and a fear of Calvinist extremism that led the southern provinces, or Belgium proper, reluctantly to continue to accept Spanish rule. Even this might not have been the case except for the shrewd conciliatory measures of Farnese, who finally gave the Catholic and Spanish cause a leadership that matched and perhaps excelled that provided the Calvinists by William.

Under Farnese's generalship the Spanish reasserted their authority over Ghent, Brussels, and Antwerp, in each instance allowing Protestants to migrate north. The fall of Antwerp brought English aid to the Republic of the United Provinces, and the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 caused an abatement of Spanish efforts to reconquer the North, as Farnese was forced to turn his attention to battles in France.

The Twelve Years' Truce. In 1609 a 12-year truce halted completely the strife with the Protestant provinces. The pause was needed in Belgium. Long ravaged by war, with its major cities subjected to siege on several occasions and forced to pay heavy taxes and to support Spanish soldiery, it had seen its traditional prosperity decline sharply.

No region suffered more severely than that of Antwerp. The fortunes of war had delivered the port to Spain but had granted control of the mouth of the Scheldt to the United Provinces. The Dutch promptly closed the river, thus cutting off Belgian trade to the benefit of Amsterdam.

With the exception of the brief span from 1815 to 1830, free access to Antwerp has remained a difficult issue in Belgo-Dutch relations.

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Despite this and other hindrances, the economy of Belgium slowly revived. In cultural matters the Catholic Counter Reformation was everywhere triumphant. The intellectual freedom of previous years was forgotten, as humanism retreated and Jesuit methods and views monopolized education and set the moral standard for the country. As most Protestants had by now moved north, stress was placed less on combating heresy than on revitalizing the Roman faith.

Border Adjustments. The hope that peace would be permanently restored was disappointed. At the close of the truce the Spanish resumed the war against the United Provinces, which were by now strengthened by the commercial successes of Holland. Equally disappointing was the death without heir in 1633 of Isabella, daughter of Philip II, who had in 1598 been appointed ruler of the Belgians to satisfy their longing for a national sovereign. The provinces therefore reverted to the Spanish king, Philip IV, and became involved in the confusing latter phases of the Thirty Years' War. Caught between the United Provinces and France, the Belgians fought for the Spanish, from whom they expected more autonomy.

The Treaty of Westphalia (1648) officially acknowledged the division of the 17 provinces and left Belgium in Spanish control. Philip IV continued to resist the annexationist aspirations of Louis XIV, but by the Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659) he was forced to surrender to France much of Artois and 11 strategic cities in the Belgian provinces. Dunkirk went to England. Louis XIV continued his depredations, and the southern border of Belgium was adjusted to his advantage by the treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668) and Nijmegen (1678) and the Truce of Regensburg (1684). The War of the League of Augsburg led to the burning of the center of Brussels, as Belgium served as a main battleground for the great powers. The Treaty of Ryswick (1697) brought peace, minor readjustments in favor of Spain, and a seeming check to French expansion.

The respite was brief, for in 1702 the War of the Spanish Succession again brought French invasion as Louis XIV tried to seize the Lowlands in the name of his son. At first the English sided against the French, but when Charles III of Spain became emperor, the English switched their allegiance in order to preserve a balance of power. The result was the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). The regions of Tournai, Furnes, and Ypres were restored to the Belgian provinces, which as a whole were awarded to the Austrian Hapsburgs as compensation for loss of the Spanish throne. Far more damaging to the autonomy and unity of the southern Lowlands was the Barrier Treaty, concluded the following year by Austria and the United Provinces, which granted the Dutch control of several strongholds from Termonde to Namur as a barrier against future French aggression. Having served as a battleground for dynastic and power struggles for centuries, Belgium now became the officially acknowledged buffer intended to protect other nations from the sufferings of war with which the "cockpit of Europe" was so familiar.

Austrian Rule. With the Scheldt still closed, the economy of the Austrian Netherlands, as this area was now called, languished. Austrian rule, although it took little pains to consult the people, was for the most part benevolent. The enlightened policies and obvious concern of Maria Theresa were appreciated, but the reign of Jo-

seph II proved turbulent. By 1780 the populace had partially forgotten the hardships that had made the generations of the first part of the century willing to settle for the end of strife at the expense of unity and autonomy. Moreover, the economic difficulties caused by the decline of Antwerp could not help but nourish discontent. The spark that provoked revolution was the headlong and dictatorial manner in which Joseph II, unlike his prudent mother, pursued the most radical of the reforms of the Enlightenment.

Certain of his measures irritated the populace by their encroachments on what remained of Belgian autonomy and by their lack of understanding of Belgian mores and traditions. Decrees curbing the influence of the church, authorizing liberty of worship, mixed marriages, and the suppression of monasteries, convents, and episcopal seminaries were unwelcome in a land that had become a stronghold of the Counter Reformation. The bruising of religious sensibilities was matched in the political sphere by a sweeping reorganization of administrative and court structures.

Outraged by these infringements on privileges that had been maintained through decades of foreign rule, many Catholics, led by Henri Charles van der Noot, rose in opposition. They were joined by others, chief among whom was Jean François Vonck, who were inspired by the current unrest in France. The alliance was uneasy, for, although both groups opposed Joseph's rule, they did so for very different reasons.

Brabançonne Revolution and French Occupation. News of the fall of the Bastille in Paris in 1789 stimulated the revolutionaries, as did the encouragement van der Noot received from the Dutch and Prussians. Half-hearted Austrian military efforts, hindered by the defection of Walloon troops, failed to stem the uprising. By December of 1789 the Brabançonne Revolution was triumphant.

Far from being radical, the movement was aristocratic and conservative. The confederative constitution adopted on July 11, 1790, contained no declaration of the rights of man, protected the church, and preserved the rights of the individual provinces. Objects of persecution, many Vonckists fled to France. The rift between the noble and clerical supporters of the old ways and the bourgeois advocates of *liberté, égalité, fraternité* rapidly widened. The ideological quarrel, joined with the regionalism that has always been close to the surface in Belgium, forbade a military effort sufficient to prevent the troops of Leopold II (who succeeded Joseph in February 1790) from retaking the provinces that summer.

Aristocratic revolution from within failed, but radical change was soon brought from without. French victory over the Austrians at Jemappes (Nov. 6, 1792) first opened the provinces to the troops of the French republic. Forced by Austria to withdraw in 1793, they returned two years later, adding to the provinces Flemish Zeeland, thus opening the Scheldt and other former Dutch territories about Maastricht and Venlo (Treaty of The Hague, May 1795). On Oct. 1, 1795, the Belgian provinces were divided into nine departments and officially annexed to France.

Although many of the bourgeoisie originally welcomed the French "liberation," they came to resent inordinate taxation to finance French wars, the secularist spirit of the French Revolution, limitations placed on the use of the Flemish language, and French centralization, the latter of

which was so contrary to both Belgian particularism and independence. Napoleon's peace with Rome, symbolized by the Concordat of 1801, eased the religious issue. Heavy taxation continued, but modest prosperity was reborn with the increase of activity at Antwerp and the growth of textile manufacturing at Ghent.

Only in the last of Napoleon's campaigns were the Low Countries again ravaged by war. Indicative of Belgium's still-important location for the military affairs of the Continent, however, was Napoleon's final defeat at Waterloo, only a few miles south of Brussels.

The United Netherlands. Deliverance from the French yoke did not bring independence, for, to the surprise of the Belgians, the regions of St.-Vith, Eupen, and Malmédy were given to Prussia, and the provinces themselves were awarded to William of Holland. Austria, exhausted by the war and more interested in protecting itself to the south than in struggling with the rebellious Belgians, parted with the provinces in return for compensation in Italy. Britain was desirous that Antwerp, the pistol Napoleon had "pointed at the breast of England," not be in the control of any great power, and all the members of the victorious coalition wished to prevent France from expanding again. The powers meeting at the Congress of Vienna in 1815 therefore resurrected the concept of a buffer state. It was inconceivable that two separate small states could halt France, and it was decided to reconstitute the Netherlands by uniting Belgium and the United Provinces.

The venture of the United Netherlands proved an unhappy one. Although the agricultural and industrial economy of Belgium complemented the commercial economy of the Dutch and although Antwerp and Ghent again prospered, old divisive factors—especially those of language and religion—continued to operate. William I, ruler of the United Netherlands, tended to treat the Belgians as second-class citizens of annexed territories rather than as equal partners within the union. In signing the Treaty of Eight Articles with the powers, the king had promised to grant Belgium full equality, political liberty, and freedom of religion, but his actions frequently violated that treaty in spirit if not in letter.

To avoid a long constitutional struggle, William decided to add a few amendments to the Fundamental Law, adopted in the North in 1813, and to persuade the Belgians to accept the amended law as their own. The amendment required by the Treaty of Eight Articles establishing freedom of religion was ferociously attacked by the Belgian clergy, who wished to prevent any inroads by Calvinism. Belgian liberals criticized the proposed constitution because it granted Belgium only half the seats in the two-chamber States General, although the Belgian population outnumbered the Dutch by approximately 3,400,000 to 2,000,000. On the other hand, although the Dutch national debt was almost 2 billion florins compared to Belgium's 30 million, the Belgians were required to assume the burden of half the combined liabilities of the new state. Unwilling to make concessions on these and other points and supported by the powers on the religious issue, William forced the Fundamental Law on the Belgians.

The French-oriented liberal middle class was further irritated by new taxes, William's commercial policies, exclusion of Belgians from top

posts, and the ruling that all civil servants in the Flemish region use Dutch. Conservative Catholic opposition increased as William tried to remove the schools from Roman Catholic control. The king thus achieved what most men thought impossible—an alliance between Belgian liberals and Catholics.

Belgian Revolution. The universal disapproval that met the government's repression of the liberal journalist Louis de Potter led to the formation of the Union of Opposition in 1828. But although anti-Dutch sentiment increased, it was not until news of the July Revolution of 1830 in Paris reached Brussels that an uprising appeared likely. On August 25 disturbances were sparked by a performance of the inspiringly patriotic opera by Auber, *La muette de Portici*.

William at first dealt with the revolt gently, sending the popular Prince of Orange to Brussels. Although the prince himself entered the city, barricades and the attitude of the crowd persuaded him not to bring in his troops. Following his return to The Hague, the moderate Committee of Public Safety was formed. Radical elements from Wallonia and France, however, continued to drift into Brussels, and on September 20 the Hôtel de Ville was stormed and the committee disbanded.

This action provoked a show of force from William. After three days of heavy fighting in the park before the Brussels palace, the Dutch were forced to withdraw on September 27. Two days before, the revolutionaries had formed a provisional government that cut across all party lines. On October 4 that government proclaimed the nation's independence, and a month later an elected national congress met to draft a constitution and choose a head of state.

Although the northerners were still capable of asserting military authority over the south, they were held in check by interested foreign powers, particularly France and Britain. The British maneuvered to prevent any Dutch action that might stimulate intervention by the new French regime of Louis Philippe. The result of British diplomacy was an ambassadorial conference which, under the leadership of Lord Palmerston, served as midwife to the birth of a fully independent Belgium. For although the delegates believed, when the London Conference first convened, that their main task would be to modify the government of the Low Countries and uphold William's sovereignty, by December 2, rival ambitions and fear that any other solution, such as partition, would bring general war had required them to recognize the principle of Belgian independence.

The Constitution. Important in this development were the speed and thoroughness with which the Belgians defined their break with the Dutch. The provisional government proclaimed a full gamut of liberties and abolished the state police and the secrecy of public accounts and judicial proceedings even before the national congress met. Election to the congress was by direct ballot, and the franchise was expanded. The constitution created by the congress confirmed these steps and was notably democratic, although the franchise, liberal for the times, was awarded only to men of property, thus assuring the rule of the middle class.

A key issue involved the form of government. The establishment of a republic might bring foreign intervention, and as its proponents were

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a minority, a constitutional monarchy was decided upon. The powers were shocked by a declaration that excluded all members of the house of Nassau from Belgium, thus preventing the election of the prince of Orange. When the congress had the audacity to elect the duke of Nemours, second son of Louis Philippe, several powers protested what they considered the passing of Belgium to France. The French king was forced to decline the throne for his son.

The Belgians elected Leopold of Saxe-Coburg monarch on June 4, 1831. The widower of British Crown Princess Charlotte, he was acceptable to the British; when he indicated willingness to marry into the family of Louis Philippe, French objections were withdrawn.

Boundary Settlements. Leopold's election did much to further Belgium's negotiations with the powers. According to the Bases of Separation established by the London Conference in January 1831, Belgium would accept the boundary of 1790 as its border with the northern provinces. This stimulated the greatest opposition, and the congress rejected the January arrangement. After much negotiation, Leopold persuaded the London Conference to adopt a program of 18 articles more favorable to Belgium, which left certain territorial matters to further discussion.

This arrangement was not pleasing to the Dutch. On August 4, scarcely two weeks after Leopold had entered Belgium, they launched a vigorous attack. Overwhelmed in the Ten Days Campaign, Belgium appealed to the French, whose troops forced the Dutch to withdraw. The demonstrable inability of the new country to defend itself weakened its case, and the result was a new set of 24 articles proclaimed by the London Conference. These were more favorable to the Dutch than the previous set, but they awarded to Belgium the Walloon section of Luxembourg—about 60 percent of the duchy. Convinced that further resistance to the London Conference might provoke partition, Belgium signed the accord on Nov. 15, 1831.

It was not until 1839 that the Dutch king acquiesced. The treaty signed by the powers in April of that year, confirming the modified terms of the 24 articles and establishing Belgium as a legitimate member of the European polity, was later to become famous as the "scrap of paper" that the German chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg denounced in 1914 at the outbreak of World War I. The object of his scorn was the clause guaranteeing the permanent neutrality of the Belgian state. Designed to prevent Belgium from becoming the pawn of any great power, the clause was unique in European diplomatic history up to that time and was to be the dominating influence on the small country's foreign policy for the next 80 years.

Economic and Political Development. After independence the economic basis of the country shifted from agriculture to industry, towns became cities, and foodstuffs were replaced by manufactured goods as Belgium's main export. With access to the sea assured by treaty, Antwerp grew steadily, becoming one of Europe's busiest ports.

Political issues lay dormant for several years after the revolution as the Belgians closed ranks behind the king they revered for his strong leadership. It is significant that in 1848, when much of Europe was experiencing rebellion, no indigenous revolt occurred in Belgium. This demon-



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GERMAN TROOPS paraded through the streets of Brussels only 17 days after invading Belgium in World War I.

strated the success of the 1830 revolution, the democratic nature of the new constitution, which had already turned the governing of the country over to the middle classes, and the economic prosperity of the state.

The union of parties that had made possible the revolution did disintegrate in 1847, as some of the old differences regarding the role of the church in the state were revived. The Liberals called for the laicization of instruction and at times demanded a complete secularization of the schools. The Catholic party opposed this view and usually proved more conservative. An important exception to the latter pattern was expansion of the franchise. The Liberals, who believed that the government should be in the hands of propertied men, were reluctant to expand the electorate. The Catholics, who had considerable support among laboring and agricultural groups, took a broader view. Until 1884 the Liberals maintained their dominance, but in that year opposition to their policy favoring secular public schools brought the Catholics to power. The latter remained in tenuous control until they succeeded in 1893 in establishing universal male suffrage combined with a system of plural voting. From then until the outbreak of World War I the Catholics kept firm hold on the cabinet.

Colonization. Many parliamentarians questioned the economic advantages of colonization and feared the dangers of competing with the great powers. Leopold II, who had acceded to the throne in 1865, desired a greater arena for his activities than tiny Belgium afforded. Therefore he undertook his quest for adventure and riches on his own in the Congo. When the Congo Free State was established in 1885, it had no official connection with Belgium save for its ruler. Nevertheless, in the eyes of Europe and the United States the Congo state was viewed as a Belgian affair, and the Brussels politicians soon found their country sharply criticized because of Leopold's colonial policies. With the view of curbing Leopold's actions and mollifying their accusers, the chambers in 1907 forced the monarch to approve Belgian annexation of the colony, almost 80 times the size of the mother country.

World War I. Belgium's vulnerable position in Europe, the obvious coveting of its colony by the



UNITED PRESS INTERNATIONAL

BRUSSELS, which succumbed to Hitler's blitzkrieg in 1940, was freed by Belgian and British troops on Sept. 3, 1944.

great powers, and the mixture of coolness and excessive friendliness emanating from both the Entente Cordiale (Britain, France, and Russia) and the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy) led its politicians to take precautionary measures. On his deathbed in 1909, Leopold II signed Belgium's first compulsory military service law.

Despite military preparations, Belgian troops were unable to check the sudden German attack launched on Aug. 4, 1914. King Albert I, nephew and successor of Leopold II, appealed to the guarantors of the treaty of 1839. British and French aid was neither prompt enough nor sufficient in quantity to rescue Belgium immediately; all but a thin coastal strip fell to the invader.

The country suffered throughout the war, as its factories, mines, and agriculture were utilized by the occupation troops and systematically despoiled to the advantage of factories and mines in Germany. The lot of the population would have been worse were it not for the Commission for Relief in Belgium, established by the American Herbert Hoover, which shipped over 5 million metric tons of supplies into the occupied regions.

Interwar Period. Because of the declarations of the Entente during the war and their own heroic resistance, the Belgians expected generous treatment at the peace conference. Although the areas of St.-Vith, Eupen, Malmédy, and Moresnet were given them and Britain yielded to pressure and allowed the former German territories of Ruanda-Urundi in Africa to pass under Belgian protectorship, the Belgians were bitter over the denial of their aspiration for Flemish Zeeland and the duchy of Luxembourg. Disappointed also by what they considered an inadequate share of reparations and slighting treatment by the Big Four (Britain, the United States, France, and Italy), the Belgians adopted a policy of activism. Since permanent neutrality had been discredited, a military accord was reached with France. Vigorous efforts were undertaken to collect reparations due from Germany, culminating in the 1923-1925 Franco-Belgian occupation of the Ruhr Valley in Germany. Attempts to obtain a bilateral treaty with Britain failed, but the conclusion of the Locarno accords in 1925 gave Belgium what it desired: the guarantee of French and British aid in the event of future German aggression.

As serious as were Belgium's external problems following the war, the domestic ones were more so. There was economic unrest, and the monopoly of the nation's government by the middle classes was now challenged by the Socialists. Although the Belgian Labor party had been in building since 1885, it had never controlled a cabinet post until the war, when a national union cabinet was formed. The impact of the war and of the Russian revolution, and the leadership of Émile Vandervelde now made the Labor party a factor to be considered. Plural voting was abolished in 1919, and thenceforth Socialists were frequently members of the government.

More dangerous to the unity of the country was the unrest in Flanders. The German occupation authorities during World War I had nurtured Flemish nationalism. After the war the Flemings became increasingly convinced that they were being relegated to second-class citizenship. They clamored for equality for their language and conversion of the University at Ghent from a French- to a Flemish-speaking institution. King Albert recognized the need for concessions and supervised their implementation. Peace was restored until the middle of the 1930's, when controversy broke out over a proposed military budget. Sufferings caused by the depression earlier in the decade still lingered. Various disgruntled splinter parties were appearing, the most notable of which was the Fascist Rexist party, led by Léon Degrelle. Each of the three major parties was torn by divisive Flemish and Walloon factions, and when the government proposed a military bill sorely needed to meet the threat posed by Hitler, the defection of the Flemish deputies in 1936 brought legislative progress to a standstill.

A prime goal of the Flemings was abrogation of the secret military accord with France, which they viewed as a symbol of Walloon domination. Many Belgians of both extractions feared the accord would force them into war at a Parisian whim, and the government had been attempting for several years to negotiate the accord's termination. Leopold III, who had come to the throne in 1934, saw the need for some gesture to reestablish unity within his country and called for a foreign policy that would be "exclusively Belgian." The military accord was soon renounced, and Belgium returned to the neutrality that earlier had so eagerly abandoned.

World War II. The failure of the powers to stem Mussolini in Ethiopia, Hitler's rearmament, and the remilitarization of the Rhineland had done much to persuade Belgium that neutrality might be the best method of avoiding Hitler's aggression. Extensive military preparations were of no avail, however, against the blitzkrieg Hitler launched on May 10, 1940. The surrender of the Belgian army 18 days later was criticized by the Allies, but there was little else the Belgians could do.

The Nazi occupation was brutal. Resistance leaders were dealt with summarily, and many Jews lost their lives. King Leopold, with the intention of meliorating the occupation by judicious representations and more importantly of providing a focal point for national unity, declined his ministers' urging to go into exile and remained at his palace at Laeken. Throughout the war controversy swirled about this decision. A particularly sharp break developed between the king and Paul Henri Spaak, the Socialist leader, who

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Postwar Issues. Peace in 1945 brought an end... only the military conflict. Within Belgium... were hostilities developed between the Wal... loons and the Flemings, some of whom had not... recognised their collaboration with the German in... leaders. Punishment of the few did not meet the... larger issue, which was further complicated by... the royal question. The Flemings supported... Leopold strongly, while many Walloons de... manded his abdication. After a voluntary exile... and a plebiscite and parliamentary vote in his... favor in 1950, the king was nevertheless forced... in the following year to turn his powers over to... his son Baudouin in the face of unrelenting So... cialist demonstrations that threatened to tear the... nation asunder.

Other issues were resolved more amicably, as... the franchise was extended to women in 1948... and the Socialists and Catholics reached agree... ment in 1958 regarding the percentage of the... costs of church schools that could be supported... by national taxes. Many of the lingering animosi... ties of the royal issue were forgotten in the crisis... connected with the establishment of Congolese... independence in 1960. The colony's demand for... preparation caught Belgian leaders by surprise... and indeed in terms of economic, educational... and political preparation the colony was far from... ready to operate on its own. Nevertheless, in... order to avoid a problem similar to that Algeria... had recently posed to France, a hasty turnover... of government to the Congolese was permitted... The subsequent chaos in the Congo was com... pounded by the tenacity with which certain Belg... ian financial and industrial organizations, such... as the Société Générale and the Union Minière... du Haut-Katanga tried to maintain a controlling... interest in Katanga and other regions. It is true... that their actions at first upheld rather than dis... rupted order, but the companies soon came in... conflict with the central Congolese government... and the United Nations.

The intervention of the United Nations... shocked all levels of the Belgian population, and... the hitherto warm appreciation of the interna... tional organization of which Belgium was a... charter member cooled. The austerity program... instituted by the government to compensate for... the economic loss caused by the separation of the... colony was only partially successful. The winter... of 1960-1961 witnessed severe Socialist-led strikes... and demonstrations, which centered in Liège.

The economic condition of Belgium greatly... improved in the early 1960's. Belgium's increas... ing prosperity was in part attributable to the... Belgium-Netherlands-Luxembourg (Benelux) eco... nomic union, created after the war, and more im... portantly to the European Common Market, of... which Brussels became the chief financial and... negotiating center. Led by Spaak, the Belgians... became important members of the North Atlantic... Treaty Organization (NATO). In 1967 the Su... preme Headquarters of the military arm of NATO... was transferred from Rocquencourt, France, to... Casteau, in southwestern Belgium.

But the linguistic controversy continued to... rage. Frequent modifications of the linguistic... boundary in favor of the growing number of... Flemings did not satisfy their demands and... stimulated fears among Walloons. Administrative... autonomy was increasingly established for the... two regions of Belgium.



TOM HOLLYMAN, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

The CHÂTEAU DE LAERNE, like others near Ghent, recalls the prosperity of Flanders under Burgundian rule.

Thus, despite centuries of warfare and end... less attempts to reach compromise on religious... political, and ethnic matters, the Belgians found... themselves in the latter half of the 20th century... prosperous and independent—indeed more free of... foreign tutelage than ever before—but still... searching for the long-desired goal of unity.

JONATHAN E. HELMREICH, *Allegheny College*

7. Culture

The Flemish, of Germanic blood, and the... Walloons, with Latin ties, have been less at odds... in cultural endeavors than the linguistic situation... would seem to indicate. They both look back on... a common inheritance from the Flemish masters... in the plastic arts. Their painters share a love of... color and of the picturesque. Many writers of... Flemish background used French as their me... dium with superb results. Flemish (which is a... dialect of Dutch that differs from Dutch no more... than American differs from English), on the... other hand, is now experiencing a dynamic liter... ary expansion in Belgium.

Belgium's artistic output has coincided with... the years of its greatest economic expansion, for... example, the Burgundian period. The 15th centu... ry was especially rich in painting, music, archi... tecture, and literature. By the end of the 17th... century, artistic production was nearly at a stand... still. After 1830, with Belgian independence, a... rebirth of the arts began and gathered momen... tum toward the close of the century. The 20th... century has witnessed ever-increasing cultural... activity.

It is somewhat difficult to define "Belgian... art." This is not only because Paris and other... foreign capitals have long attracted Belgian ar... tists but also because independent Belgium dates... only from 1830. The linguistic division also in... troduces an element of confusion. Thus, some of... the artists discussed below might also be called... for example, "Dutch writers" or "French com... posers." All of them, however, either were born... within the boundaries of present-day Belgium or... made important contributions there.

PAINTING

The term "Flemish painting" is applied not only to Flanders but also to neighboring countries and provinces. Few Flemish paintings predate the 15th century, although a painters' guild had existed in Ghent since 1331. The great period of Flemish painting occurred between the 15th and 17th centuries. Craftsmen, illuminators and designers of tapestries, jewelers, lacemakers, and wrought-iron craftsmen also flourished during the same period.

The Flemish primitive painters, the most famous of whom are probably the van Eyck brothers, were inspired by the Gothic sculptors and manuscript illuminators, such as Pol de Limbourg (*Book of Hours of the Duke de Berry*). Jan van Eyck's best-known work is the *Adoration of the Mystic Lamb* altarpiece in Ghent, completed in 1432. His art is characterized by realistic detail and brilliant coloring. His oil-painting technique dominated Europe over the succeeding century. The other leading 15th-century painters of Belgium also followed in his path: the Master of Flémalle; Roger van der Weyden (or Rogier de la Pasture); Dirk Bouts, easily recognized for his elongated and rigid figures; Hugo van der Goes, a very original artist whose types are distinctive; and Hans Memling, who, though born in Mainz, settled in Bruges, where he came under the influence of van der Weyden. Gerard David was influenced by Memling and by the Italian school, which also influenced Memling. The effect of the Italian Renaissance shows clearly in the paintings of Quentin Massys (*Matsys*). He gave considerable importance to landscape, an emphasis that was to continue with Joachim Patinir.

The traditions of the Flemish school were carried on into the 16th century in spite of the considerable concessions made to the Italians. Pieter Brueghel the Elder, who was not generally appreciated in his time, was an exception to the general rule of Italianization. His profoundly original works are full of intense animation.

In the 17th century Peter Paul Rubens and his baroque school evaded a direct Italian influence. He painted religious and pagan scenes as well as landscapes and portraits. A student of Rubens, Anthony Van Dyck, lived for a while in England. He was a technician especially known for his portraits. Another student, Jacob Jordaens, was an outstanding colorist. Rubens was followed by other, less imposing artists, including David Teniers, Adriaen Brouwer, and the animal specialist Frans Snyders.

The 18th century showed little interest in painting. Romanticism in the 19th century was represented by Gustav Wappers, Louis Gallait, and Hendrik Seys. An impressionist school produced Rik Wouters, who was also a sculptor.

In the 20th century, James Ensor, the father of Flemish expressionism, was very influential with his experimental forms. Prominent also were Théo van Rysselberghe and the expressionists Constant Permeke, Gustave van de Woestijne, Fritz van den Berghe, Gustave de Smet, Floris Jespers, and Jean Brusselmans.

The surrealists René Magritte and Paul Delvaux enjoy international renown. The generation of painters of the 1920's included Jozef Vinck, Julien Creytens, Jacques Maes, and Henri Wolvens. During the mid-century period, such painters as Rik Slabbinck, Jan Cox, Marc Mendelson, G. Bertrand, and Luc Peire appeared. In the

1960's the abstract painters Octave Landuyt, Burssens, Maurice Wijkaert, and Serge van Camp typified the continual vigorous movement in Belgian painting. See also FLEMISH PAINTING.

SCULPTURE AND ARCHITECTURE

Claus Sluter and Claus van de Werve were the outstanding sculptors of the 14th century, but they did their work in Burgundy under Philip the Bold and Philip the Good. A period of Italian influence followed, but it did not dominate certain 17th century sculptors who were influenced by the Rubens school of painting: Lucas Fayd'herbe, Jean Delcour, François Desquesnoy, and Arnold Quellyn.

In the 19th century the realist movement produced Constantin Meunier, painter turned sculptor at the end of the century, who specialized in genre subjects. Later prominent sculptors included Georges Minne, Victor Rousseau, Henri Puvrez, and Charles Leplae. Jozef Cantré, Robert Massart, and Oscar Jespers were influential Belgian sculptors in the mid-20th century.

The new generation of abstract sculptors includes Rik Poot, Roel D'Haese, Jan Dries, Marcel Arnould, and Roger Bonduel.

The oldest Belgian churches belong to the Romanesque period (900-1150). Of these the most remarkable examples are St. Quentin at Tournai and St. Vincent at Soignies. Most of the architectural vestiges of the Middle Ages remaining today are from the subsequent Gothic period. Damage in both world wars was considerable, but many cities, jewels of architecture, were spared. The Grand Place of Brussels, the cities of Bruges and Ghent, and the many monuments of Antwerp and Liège are all architectural marvels surviving from other ages.

Cornelis de Vriendt was the master of the 16th century Flemish Renaissance style who designed, notably, the Antwerp town hall. Early in the 20th century Victor Horta and Henry van de Velde, leader of the art nouveau movement in architecture, were especially important.

MUSIC

While Flanders produced the most outstanding works of painting, it was Walloon territory, Hainaut and Liège, that produced the musical genius of the country. The musical contribution of Belgium to European culture is less well known than its painting but no less remarkable. The art of modern music was born on what is now Belgian soil. Colomban, abbot of St.-Trond (Sint-Truiden), is often credited with one of the oldest pieces of music known, the *Complainte pour la mort de Charlemagne* (9th century). Other Belgian composers of the period were trained in St.-Trond at the cathedral school.

Later centers of musical training were located at Tournai, under Hucbald, and at Liège, under Jean Ciconia, Arnold de Lantins, and Jean Brabant. By 1450, Guillaume Dufay had made the region of Hainaut the center, if not the birthplace, of polyphonic music. Gilles Binchois (15th century), one of the earliest experimenters with counterpoint, helped to liberate music from primitive harmony with its sterile abstractions. Henceforth, voices in concert would interweave their melodic curves, supporting each other, parting and rejoining. Jean Ockeghem (d'Okeghem) developed the supple and complicated interplay of voices much as his contemporary Jean Lemaire de Belges was to do in the field of poetry.

The romantic revolution and Belgian independence coincided (1830). Belgian letters from 1830 to 1880 generally took the path of utilitarian rather than of artistic aesthetics. At least one poet of the period, André van Hasselt, deserves mention. Illustrative of the national awareness is the great novel of the epoch, *La légende d'Ulenspiegel et de Lamme Goedzak en pays de Flandre et d'ailleurs*, written by Charles de Coster and published in 1867. This "epic of the Flemish people" is written in archaic language. Its hero, Till Eulenspiegel (Tyll Ulenspiegel) typifies the spirit of Flanders during the fight against the Spanish—ribaldry, a love of liberty, and a disdain for bigotry. Lamme, Till's partner, represents the love for maternal things, and Nele, his fiancée, represents the heart of the country.

More than 25 literary reviews and papers appeared between 1814 and 1884. The country underwent a great awakening of letters under the patronage of the bourgeoisie. The leaders of the generation of 1880 were Octave Pirmez, a writer of classic prose, and, especially, Max Waller, who founded the review *La Jeune Belgique*. The period of utilitarian art had ended. The Parnassians and Symbolists united, and the group had for its motto "Be Ourselves." Around Max Waller were Iwan Gilkin and Albert Giraud, both poets. They were later joined by Emile Verhaeren, Valère Gille, Georges Eekhoud, Georges Rodenbach, Maurice Maeterlinck, Charles Van Lerberghe, Grégoire Le Roy, and Max Elskamp.

The naturalistic novels of Camille Lemonnier shocked Belgian critics with their violence. He later became more poetic and with his colorful style and vehement lyricism produced some of his best works. Georges Eekhoud described the effects of industrialization on the Antwerp area in the bitter novel *La nouvelle Carthage* (1888).

Maurice Maeterlinck, a symbolist poet of great feeling, was also a dramatist of considerable influence on the theater of the West. His most important plays, *La princesse Maleine*, *Pelléas et Mélisande*, and *L'oiseau bleu* (*The Blue Bird*), won him the Nobel Prize in 1911. He was also a prolific writer of essays.

Apart from the *Jeune Belgique* group there existed several Walloon regionalist novelists, such as Hubert Krains, Edmond Glesener, and Jean Tousseul. The poetic works of the end of the 19th century have generally survived better than the drama, essays, or novels.

French Literature in Belgium in the 20th Century. The best poet at the turn of the century was Emile Verhaeren. Influenced by Walt Whitman, his Symbolist writings bore a social message. He introduced Flemish characteristics into French poetry. Another poet, Odilon Jean Périer, showed great promise, but he met an untimely death at the age of 21 in 1928. A veteran of World War I, Maurice Gauchez wrote novels on his wartime experiences and also poetry. The most original poet of the post-World War I period was Marcel Thiry, who combined war experiences with a taste for the exotic. Certain poetesses also merit mention: Lucienne Desnoues, Anne-Marie Kegels, and Renée Brock. At mid-century the most important name in poetry was Henri Michaux, a surrealist specializing in black humor.

Poets of the postwar period include Robert Goffin, Armand Bernier, Liliane Wouters, Gérard Prevot, Jean Tordeur, and Arthur Haulot.

The novel at mid-century was represented by Georges Verrès, André Baillon, and especially

Charles Plisnier, Franz Hellens, and Georges Simenon. Plisnier was the first foreigner to win the Goncourt Prize in France. He represented the restoration of traditional poetic values. Franz Hellens, a doctor and a symbolist poet, is best known for his novels about the mysteries of Flanders. Georges Simenon, from Liège, began writing detective stories in 1930. The "Maigret" series is justly famous for this prolific author's penetrating psychology. His novels were limited to one genre, as is witnessed by *Le train* (1961), a work dealing with the psychology of war refugees.

Marie Gevers was a realist novelist who described the land and people of the Antwerp area. Another feminine novelist deserving mention is Maud Frère. Françoise Mallet-Joris, winner of the Prix Fémina in 1965, is a technician of psychological realism. Her best-known work is *Le rempart des béguines* (1951). Other mid-century novelists include Alexis Curvers, Stanislas d'Ottemont, Daniel Gillès, and Francis Walder, winner of the Goncourt Prize in 1958.

Modern Belgian drama in French is represented by Fernand Crommelynck, whose *Coccyus magnifique* (1921) won him fame on the Parisian stage. Michel de Ghelderode showed both expressionist and mystic influence in his plays, which include *Hop Signor*, *Escorial*, and *Pantagléise*. In the 1960's José André Lacour and Georges Sion showed great promise.

Flemish Literature in Belgium to the 20th Century. It was in Flanders that the literature of the Dutch language was born and flourished during the Middle Ages. The great works of the early period include the *Sint Servatius Legende* (about 1170), written by the Limburger Heinrich von Veldeke, and *Beatrijs*, a legend concerning the nun Beatrice who returned to secular life and whose place in the convent was kept by the Virgin herself. Maître Nivard of Ghent wrote a satirical animal epic, *Ysengrimus*, predecessor of the Renard series. A related work, the *Reinaert* of Maître Willem, is also an animal epic, a parody of the heroics of aristocratic literature. This type of parody was to be adapted by most of the great cultures of Europe.

In about 1250, Jacob van Maerlant began his didactic verse work, the *Spiegel historiel* (*The Mirror of History*), which was to earn him the title of "father of Dutch poetry." There exist also dramatized poems, such as *Esmoreit*, *Lancelot*, and *Floriant*, but the greatest and the most influential work was the symbolic *Elckerlijc* (*Everyman*), which gave birth to English and German versions of the Everyman theme.

Two mystic writers stand out during the Middle Ages: Jan van Ruysbroeck (the Admirable), a monk who lived in the forest of Groenendaal and who wrote long discourses on the way to grace, and the nun Hadewijch, who wrote poetry.

Chambers of rhetoric were established in Flanders during the 15th century. These were literary groups in which the local bourgeoisie participated. The introduction of printing in 1413 by Thierry Maertens at Alost led to a number of printing establishments springing up at Louvain, Bruges, and Brussels, not to mention the famous shop of Christophe Plantin at Antwerp.

The Reformation brought several writers to the fore. Marnix van Sint Aldegonde wrote his bitter attack on the church: *Den biëncorf der II. Roomsche Kercke* (1569; *The Bee Hive of the Holy Romish Church*). Others, including Anna

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50, Jacob van Maerlant began his work, the *Spiegel historial* (*The Mirror*), which was to earn him the title of "father of Dutch poetry." There are many poems, such as *Esmoreit, Lancet*, but the greatest and the most famous was the symbolic *Elckerlijc*, which gave birth to English as well as of the Everyman theme. The writers stand out during the Middle Ages: Ruysbroeck (the Admirable) lived in the forest of Groenenaken; long discourses on the way to heaven; Hadewijch, who wrote poetry of rhetoric were established in the 15th century. These were in which the local bourgeoisie participated; introduction of printing in 1475; the town of Alost led to a number of settlements springing up at Louvain-la-Neuve, not to mention the famous Philippe Plantin at Antwerp.

Antwerp brought several writers: J. van Sint Aldegonde wrote his book about the church: *Den biëncorf der Heilige Kerk* (1569; *The Bee Hive of the Church*). Others, including Anna

and Cornelius Crul, supported the Catholicism. The political and religious struggles led to the separation of the southern Netherlands from the north at the end of the 16th century, and produced an intellectual apathy in the country, and Flemish literature disappeared until the 19th century.

The wave of nationalism released by the independence of the country in 1830 stimulated the exploitation of historic themes. The first great Flemish novel of the century, *De leeuw van Vlaenderen* (*The Lion of Flanders*) was written by Hendrik Conscience and published in 1838. This opened the way for a flood of other novels, among them the works of the realist novelist Virgile Loveling. The first daily newspaper in Flemish dates from this period. In poetry Albert Rodenbach typified romantic nationalism. From the utilitarian art of the historical novel the Flemings moved to the novel of idealized contemporary customs and from there, eventually, to the art-for-art's-sake ideals of the generation of 1880.

Guido Gezelle was the greatest Flemish poet of the 19th century. A priest with a Gothic spirit, he rose to great heights of lyricism in his poems about the ceremonies of the church and about the Flemish countryside. Also a linguist, he translated Longfellow's *Hiawatha* into Flemish (1888).

Flemish Literature in Belgium in the 20th Century. In the 1890's the new writers rallied around the liberal review *Van nu en straks* (*Today and Tomorrow*). The leader of the movement was August Vermeylen, an internationalist, author of *De wandelende Jood* (1906; *The Wandering Jew*). Naturalist writers included Cyriel Buysse and Herman Teirlinck, whose *Het ivoren aapje* (1909; *The Ivory Monkey*) demonstrates his powers in the domain of the psychological novel. There was also Stijn Streuvels, a nephew of Gezelle, an epic novelist whose love of his native soil and its inhabitants is demonstrated in *Werkmensen* (1927; *Workmen*). The great lyric poet Karel van de Woestijne concentrated on self-analysis. He was a true humanist and a great poet, possessing great metaphysical depth.

A true flowering of letters had taken place in Flanders before World War I. The war brought on a search for new experience and greater interest in lyricism, in the interior life, and in the community of men. The review *Ruimte* (*Space*) represented those who espoused their new ways of thinking. Flemish expressionism, a representative of European avant-garde letters, exalted the instincts and espoused *élan vital* (vital force). It revolted against intellectualism and against society itself. Its language was sober, governed by the idea. The poets of the movement include Paul van Ostayen, who wrote *Bezette stad* (1921; *The Occupied City*), Wies Moens, Gaston Burskens, and Jan-Albert Goris (pseud. Marnix Gijzen), whose masterpiece is *Het boek van Joachim van Babylon* (1948).

A traditionalist school continued to find its values in rural society. Among its writers were Felix Timmermans, espousing a pantheistic joy of life (*Boerenpsalm*, 1935; *Farmer's Song*), Ernest Claes, and Maurits Sabbe.

Several powerful novelists carried on the humanist tradition: Maurice Roelants (*Komen en gaan*, 1927; *Come and Go*), who utilized the style of the French analytic novel; Gerard Walchap (*De verloren zoon*), whose vitalist novel

showed the influence of the Spanish Miguel de Unamuno's tragic sentiment of existence; and Willem Elsschot (*Het dwaallicht*, 1946), who was a predecessor of later experimental novelists. The writers of the post-World War II period included the esoteric Raymond Brulez and the sensitive poet Maurice Gilliams. Certain writers of the prewar era, especially Teirlinck and Gijzen, were still active.

At mid-century among the most important writers was Johan Daisne, a prolific novelist whose "magic realism" was based on the tension between the worlds of dream and reality. Hubert Lampo (*Terugkeer naar Atlantis*, 1953; *Return to Atlantis*) wrote novels touching on the supernatural. A social novelist, Piet van Aken (*Klinkaart*, 1954) was influenced by American novelists. He was the student of Filip de Pillecyn, who excelled in depicting the interior life. Louis Paul Boon was inspired by historical subjects in his novels of social protest. His style is brutal; he favors the malcontent in society, protests against the decline of man, and calls for revolt. *De bende van Jan de Lichte* (1957; *The Band of John the Light*) is an interpretation for modern times of the life of a Flemish bandit.

An experimentalist difficult to classify, Hugo Claus has an international reputation. He is a realist in sexual description and is hostile to established order. His best novel, *De verwondering* (1948; *The Surprise*), deals with the resurrection of fascism. His theatrical work began in 1953 with *Een bruid in de morgen* (*A Bride in the Morning*).

Other contemporary experimentalist writers include Paul De Wispelaere, Yvo Michiels, the poet Paul Snoek, and Jan Walravens. The cold-war generation of Belgian writers is characterized by synthesis, search, and doubt—somewhat analogous to the Lost Generation of the 1920's. In Flanders it has shown extreme variety and richness.

ROBERT A. MEININGER, *University of Nebraska*

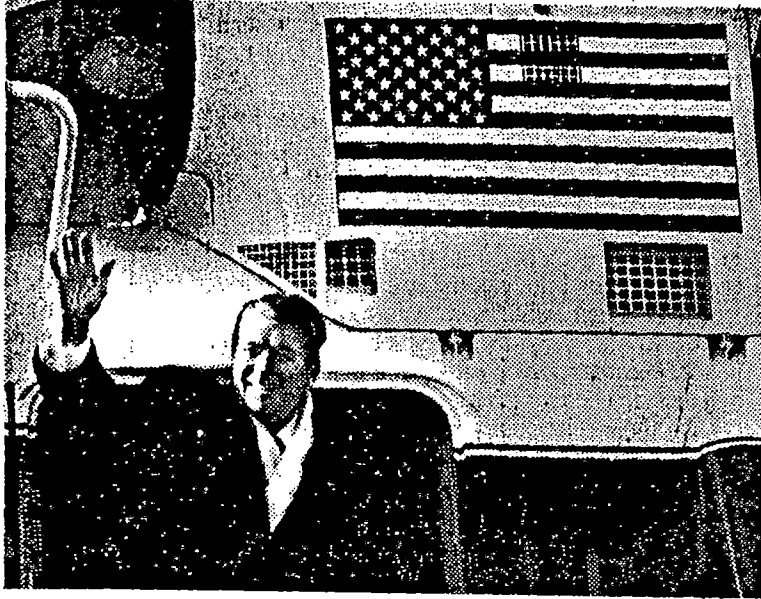
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<u>COUNTRY VISITED</u>	<u>DATE OF VISIT</u>	<u>PRESIDENT</u>
Barbados: Bridgetown	1982 April 8-11	Reagan
Belgium: Brussels, Charleroi, Malines, Louvain	1919 June 18-19	Wilson
Belgium: Antwerp, Brussels	1945 July 15	Truman
Belgium: Brussels	1969 February 23-24	Nixon
Belgium: Brussels	1974 June 25-26	Nixon
Belgium: Brussels	1975 May 28-30	Ford
Belgium: Brussels	1978 January 6	Carter
Brazil: Rio de Janeiro	1928 December 21-23	Hoover (E)
Brazil: Rio de Janeiro	1936 November 27	Roosevelt, F.D.
Brazil: Belem	1943 January 12	Roosevelt, F.D.
Brazil: Natal	1943 January 28	Roosevelt, F.D.
Brazil: Rio de Janeiro	1947 September 1-7	Truman

ALL THE PRESIDENT'S TRAVELS

PRESIDENT REAGAN'S TRIPS ABROAD



1981

Mexico, Jan. 5: met with President Jose Lopez Portillo.

Canada, March 10-11: met with Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau.

Canada, July 19-21: Economic Summit.

Mexico, Oct. 21-24: International Meeting on Cooperation and Development.

1982

Jamaica, April 7: met with Prime Minister Edward Seaga, Gov. Gen. Florizel Glasspole.

Barbados, April 8: met with officials from Barbados, Antigua, Barbuda, Dominica, St. Kitts-Nevis, St. Vincent and the Grenadines.

France, June 3-6: Economic Summit; also met with President Francois Mitterrand, Prime Minister Pierre Mauroy, Paris Mayor Jacques Chirac.

Italy, June 7: met with Pope John Paul II in the Vatican and with Italian government officials in Rome.

Britain, June 8-9: met with Queen Elizabeth II, Prince Philip and Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher.

West Germany, June 10-11: met with President Karl Carstens, Chancellor Helmut Schmidt and NATO Secretary General Josef Luns of the Netherlands.

Mexico, Oct. 8: met with president-elect Miguel de la Madrid.

Central and South America, Nov. 30-Dec. 4: visited Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Honduras and met with officials in each country.

1983

Mexico, Aug. 14: met with President de la Madrid.

Japan, Nov. 9-12: met with Emperor Hirohito, Prime Minister Yasuhiro Nakasone.

South Korea, Nov. 12-14: met with President Chun Doo Hwan.

1984

China, April 26-May 1: met with senior leader Deng Xiaoping, President Li Xiannian, Premier Zhao Ziyang, General Secretary Hu Yaobang.

Ireland, June 1-4: met with Prime Minister Garret FitzGerald.

Britain, June 4-10: Economic Summit.

France, June 6: visited Normandy, met with President Mitterrand.

1985

Canada, March 17-18: met with Prime Minister Brian Mulroney.

West Germany, May 1-6: Economic Summit; also visited Bitburg war cemetery.

Spain, May 6-8: met with King Juan Carlos and Queen Sofia, Prime Minister Felipe Gonzalez.

France, May 8: met with European Parliament President Pierre Pflimlin.

Portugal, May 8-10: met with President Antonio Eanes, Prime Minister Mario Soares.

Switzerland, Nov. 16-20: first meeting with a Soviet leader, General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev; also met with Swiss President Kurt Furgler.

Belgium, Nov. 29: reported on U.S.-Soviet summit to officials from NATO countries.

1986

Mexico, Jan. 3: met with President de la Madrid.

Grenada, Feb. 20: met with officials from Grenada, Antigua, Barbados, Dominica, Jamaica, St. Kitts-Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad-Tobago.

Indonesia, April 20-May 2: met with officials from Indonesia, the Philippines, Brunei, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand.

Japan, May 2-7: Economic Summit.

Iceland, Oct. 10-11: second meeting with General Secretary Gorbachev.

1987

Canada, April 5-6: met with Prime Minister Brian Mulroney.

Italy, June 6-10: met with Pope John Paul II at the Vatican; Economic Summit in Venice.

West Germany, June 12: met with Chancellor Helmut Kohl, Preident Richard von Weizsaecker, Bundestag President Philip Jenninger and West Berlin Mayor Eberhard Diepgen.

1988

Mexico, Feb. 13: met with President de la Madrid.

Belgium, March 1-3: met with Belgian officials and representatives from the NATO countries.

SOURCE: The White House

PRESIDENT REAGAN'S TRIPS ABROAD (cont.)

1988

Finland, May 25-28

Soviet Union, May 29-June 2: fourth meeting with General Secretary
Gorbachev

Great Britain, June 2-3: met with Prime Minister Thatcher

Canada, June 19-21: Economic Summit in Toronto

WW I

Mons ^{mean} (fortress) - Aug-Sep 1914 Brit army routed
 Antwerp Aug-Oct 1914
 Ypres Nov 1914, May 1915, Jul₃₁-Nov₁₀ 1917, April 1918
 Passchendaele
 - June 7, 1917
 Messines (part of) → first use of mustard gas by Germans

WW II

Eben Emael May 1940
(fortress)

~~Sept 1944~~
 Ardennes Dec 1944 - Jan 1945
 Bastogne Am. Airborne - major Am. accomplishment
 St. Vith 100th (Am.) routed

AD. They probably originated as a Turkic tribe of Central Asia and arrived in the European steppe west of the Volga River with the Huns c. AD 370; retreating with the Huns, they resettled c. 460 in an arc of country north and east of the Sea of Azov. In the 6th century the Bulgars, sometimes in alliance with the Slavs of the Black Sea coast, continually attacked the Danubian provinces of the Byzantine Empire until, in the 560s, they were themselves threatened by the Avars, who were then advancing from Asia into central Europe. The Avars destroyed one Bulgarian tribe, but the rest saved themselves by submitting, for two decades, to another horde of Turkic newcomers, most of whom then retreated back into Asia.

Unified under a single ruler, Kurt, or Kubrat (reigned 605-665), the Bulgars constituted a powerful khanate known to the Byzantines as Great Bulgaria, with the Kuban River as its southern frontier. After Kurt's death his five sons split the people into five hordes. One of these five, remaining on the coast of the Sea of Azov, was absorbed into the new empire of the Khazars (q.v.); another migrated to central Europe and was merged with the Avars; and another disappeared into service under the Lombards in Italy. Two of the five hordes, however, had longer futures.

Kurt's son Bezmer, or Bat-Bayan, avoided the Khazars by leading his horde far to the north, where it eventually occupied an ill-defined country around the confluence of the Volga and Kama rivers. Subdivided there into three groups (probably through mergers with indigenous peoples or with other immigrants), the horde maintained itself in prosperity for some 600 years. These Volga Bulgars formed not so much a state as a semi-nomadic confederation, but they had two cities, Bulgar and Suvar, which profited as transshipment points in the trade between the fur-selling Ugrians and Russians of the far north and the southern civilizations—Byzantium, the Muslim Caliphate of Baghdad, and Turkistan. The Volga Bulgars were converted to Islam c. 922. In 1237 they were made subject to the Mongol Golden Horde, and though Bulgar flourished for a long time afterward, the people gradually lost their identity and were mingled with the Russians.

The fifth product of the breakup of Great Bulgaria was the horde that Kurt's son Asparukh led westward across the Dniester River into the southeastern Balkans. There, about 679, encroaching on Byzantine territory, they set up the so-called First Bulgarian Empire—the state from which today's diminished Bulgaria derives its name. In the 7th century the eastern Balkans were inhabited by Vlachs (Romanized Dacians) and also very largely by recently arrived Slavs; the conquering Bulgars were soon permeated by Vlach and, even more thoroughly, by Slavic elements. At the same time, their conquests were carrying them deeper into the ambit of Byzantine Christianity. Territorial expansion under Krum (khan c. 802-814) and under Pressian (836-852) was followed by the formal conversion of the Bulgars to Christianity, under Khan Boris I (see Boris I of Bulgaria). The new church's liturgy was in a Slavic language.

Boris I's son Symeon (see Symeon the Great), who was acknowledged even by the Roman Church as tsar, or emperor, of the Bulgars, brought the first empire to its acme as a Balkan power, even though he had to give up the lands north of the Danube to fresh invaders from the Eurasian steppe. As invasions of the Balkan Peninsula from the north continued intermittently over the next four centuries, the Turkic element in the Bulgars' ethnic makeup was somewhat reinforced against the Slavic by strains derived from the Pechenegs, Kipchaks, and Cumans—all Turkic peoples.

The First Bulgarian Empire was destroyed by a Byzantine offensive of 971-972 against Tsar Boris II. Likewise a Bulgarian state set up by Tsar Samuel (q.v.) in Macedonia from

980, with dominions stretching westward to the Adriatic, was overthrown by the Byzantines in 1014 (and the emperor Basil II got his epithet "Bulgar Slayer," Bulgaroctonus).

An anti-Byzantine revolt of the Balkan peoples in 1185 produced the Second Bulgarian Empire, and by 1241 the Bulgar tsars of the House of Asen (1185-1280) were supreme in lands from the Danube to the Aegean (except eastern Thrace and Thessaly) and from the Adriatic to the Black Sea (see Asen). But Mongol attacks from the north, Serbian encroachment on the west, and internal rivalry among the successors of the Asens eroded this second empire, and in 1396 all that remained of it fell to the Ottoman Turks, who were overrunning the Balkans from the south.

Throughout the long period of direct Ottoman rule (1396-1878) the Bulgars' obstinate Christianity prevented their being merged completely with the Muslim Turks, while their retention of a Slavic language kept them from absorption by the Greeks predominant in the Eastern Orthodox Church as recognized by the Ottomans.

In 1878 an autonomous Bulgarian principality under Ottoman suzerainty was established. It was declared independent, as a tsardom or kingdom, in 1908. In the settlement after World War I, Bulgaria lost some territory. In March 1941 the Germans occupied Bulgaria, and in 1947 a Communist regime took power. See also Balkans, history of the.

- Balkan settlement and territorial expansion 2:617g
- Basil II territorial conflict 2:749c
- Boris I's reign and accomplishments 3:43d
- medieval kingdoms map 12:141
- medieval literary traditions 10:1127h
- rivalry with Byzantine Empire 3:557f
- Roman-Byzantine diocesan contentions 14:291b
- Soviet Union nationalities distribution 17:337c; table 338

Bulgarus (d. on or before Jan. 1, 1167, Bologna, Italy), jurist, most renowned of the famous "four doctors" of the law school at the University of Bologna, where the medieval study of Roman law, as codified (6th century AD) under the Byzantine emperor Justinian I, reached its peak. His skill at exposition led to his being compared to St. John Chrysostom, and he was often referred to as "Golden Mouth" (the meaning of Chrysostom). He has been erroneously called Bulgarinus, properly the name of a 15th-century jurist.

According to popular tradition, all four doctors (Bulgarus, Martinus Gosia, Hugo da Porta Ravennate, and Jacobus de Voragine) were pupils of Irnerius, the first of the great Bolognese legal glossators, but, although Bulgarus may have studied under Irnerius, this seems unlikely to be true of the other three. Bulgarus and Martinus Gosia headed opposing factions at Bologna; Martinus adapted the law to what his adversaries called the "equity of the purse" (*aequitas bursalis*), whereas Bulgarus adhered more closely to the letter of the law. Bulgarus and his successors, including Joannes Bassianus, Azzone, and Franciscus Accursius, ultimately prevailed, and Bulgarus himself served as adviser to the Holy Roman emperor Frederick I Barbarossa. His most important book, *De regulis iuris* ("On the Rule of Law"), is the earliest extant legal gloss from the Bolognese school.

Bulge, Battle of the, or BATTLE OF THE ARDENNES (Dec. 16, 1944-Jan. 16, 1945), the last German offensive on the Western Front during World War II; an unsuccessful attempt to push the Allies back from German home territory. The name "Battle of the Bulge" was appropriated from Winston Churchill's optimistic description, in May 1940, of the resistance that he mistakenly supposed was being offered to the Germans' breakthrough in that area just before the Anglo-French collapse; the Germans were in fact overwhelmingly successful. The "bulge" refers to the wedge that they drove into the Allied lines.

After their invasion of Normandy in June 1944, the Allies moved rapidly across northern France into Belgium during the summer, but lost momentum in the autumn. In mid-December, Allied commander Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower's 48 divisions, distributed along a 600-mile front between the North Sea and Switzerland, were caught unprepared by a German counterthrust in the hilly and wooded Ardennes region of southern Belgium. While Allied aircraft were hampered by bad weather, Gen. Gerd von Rundstedt's 5th and 6th Panzer Armies launched two parallel attacks with the eventual aim of retaking the great port of Antwerp. The 5th Army under Gen. Hasso von Manteuffel, bypassing Bastogne (which was held throughout the offensive by the U.S. 101st Airborne Division) advanced by Dec. 24 to within four miles (six kilometres) of the Meuse River. This was the farthest point of the German drive, which was halted by Christmas by a combination of inadequate supplies and Allied resistance. Gen. George S. Patton's 3rd Army relieved Bastogne on the 26th, and on Jan. 3 the U.S. 1st Army began a counteroffensive. The Germans made an orderly withdrawal between January 8 and 16, having used more of their resources than they could afford on this last desperate attempt to regain the initiative in the West.

•tactics, implementation, and result 19:1010c

bulging, in geology, mass movement of rock material caused by heavy weights on soft rock strata that crop out in valley walls; such material is squeezed out and deformed; it flows as a plastic and the disturbance may extend down tens of metres. Folds and small faults may form at the foot of the slope where the rock material is under stress. *Major ref.* 6:64f

Bulgya, Aleksandr A.: see Fadeyev, Aleksandr Aleksandrovich.

Buli, also known as OLI, African people of the Luba cultural area of the Congo. •figure carving style 1:274g

Buli, Master of, African artist of the Luba tribe, originally presumed to be the sole creator of a group of sculptures, almost identical



Luba stool with male and female caryatids, "long-faced style of Buli," wood; in the Museum für Völkerkunde, Berlin

By courtesy of the Museum für Völkerkunde, Berlin

stylistically and differing from other Luba carvings, produced in Buli (a village and a district in Katanga). Subsequently, it has been determined that the sculptures constitute the production of a workshop rather than of a single master; hence the designation "long-faced style of Buli" is now more commonly used. The Buli style is highly distinctive: the long face has a pointed chin; a wide, rather thin-lipped mouth; a narrow nose with sharply defined wings; and a high, rounded forehead with prominent arches over the half-

closed eyes, bones below ward to an e limbs are the sculpture, but and schematiz and male figu on the male b Most example ed by carved head and fing

Bulimina, g Foraminifera •fossil protists

Bulkeley, Ri —d. Dec. 7, British soldier political lead Scotia.

Bulkeley join in 1727, rising In 1742-47 h Whitehall, ar Scotia with th In 1757 Bulke a post he held He became e 1758. The fol member of t became its ck 1775, he serv miralty. He w provincial mil ber 1791-May nor of Nova S

bulkhead, up partitions of •ship spacing 1

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This is a spec ticity.

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McGroarty/Dooley
May 16, 1989
4:30 pm
Draft 1

PRESIDENTIAL REMARKS: BRUSSELS ARRIVAL STATEMENT
BRUSSELS, BELGIUM
MAY 26, 1989

It is a pleasure to be back once again in Brussels, and I am especially pleased that my first visit as President comes as the nations of NATO celebrate 40 years of alliance -- and the longest period of peace Europe has known in the modern age.

Americans and Belgians share the memories of war and hard-won peace in this century. The Ardennes campaign, the Battle of the Bulge, Bastogne: those names are part of our history as well as your own -- part of our shared heritage of freedom.

Belgium -- no stranger to conquest and division -- recognized from the first the importance of alliance in the post-war world. Today, as permanent home to NATO and the European Community, Brussels stands at the center of a Europe free, at peace, and prosperous as never before -- a Europe that is steadily moving towards a single market, and unprecedented political and economic opportunities. And in Brussels, the signs of this renaissance of Europe are everywhere.

Belgium has been a good friend and an important ally -- one that has acted with alliance interests in mind. Early in this decade, Belgium was one of five NATO nations that made the difficult decision to base INF systems on its soil. Those deployments gave us the leverage we needed to negotiate the

first-ever arms reduction treaty -- and one that secured the removal of three times as many Soviet warheads targeted on Europe. That's the kind of tough-minded approach that shows NATO is at once ready to ensure the common defense, and -- whenever possible -- to reduce arms and underlying tensions with the East.

As we and our NATO partners discuss the future of the alliance, our common security concerns and evolving economic relations, we will look to Belgium for support and reaffirmation of our close, cooperative, and long-standing relationship.

We are honored that King (?) has organized a lunch for the NATO heads of government; it will be a great pleasure to discuss the many important issues of the day with His Majesty. I look forward as well to my meeting with Prime Minister Martens, which begins shortly, and later today to discussions with President Delors of the European Community and Secretary General Woerner of NATO.

delete And there is much to discuss. I am convinced that we are entering an era of opportunity -- one in which our shared history and heritage, our common culture and values, will prove the foundation of a world community of democracies....

Thank you.

Peggy

REMARKS: BRUSSELS ARRIVAL STATEMENT
BRUSSELS, BELGIUM
MAY 28, 1989

IT IS A PLEASURE TO BE BACK ONCE AGAIN IN BRUSSELS, AND I AM ESPECIALLY PLEASED THAT MY FIRST VISIT AS PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES COMES AS THE NATIONS OF NATO CELEBRATE 40 YEARS OF ALLIANCE -- AND THE LONGEST PERIOD OF PEACE AND FREEDOM EUROPE HAS KNOWN IN THE MODERN AGE.

- 2 -

AMERICANS AND BELGIANS SHARE THE MEMORIES OF WAR AND HARD-WON PEACE IN THIS CENTURY. FLANDERS, THE BATTLE OF THE ARDENNES, BASTOGNE: THOSE NAMES ARE PART OF OUR HISTORY AS WELL AS YOUR OWN -- PART OF OUR SHARED HERITAGE OF FREEDOM, AND THE SACRIFICES IT REQUIRES.

BELGIUM -- NO STRANGER TO CONQUEST AND DIVISION -- RECOGNIZED FROM THE FIRST THE IMPORTANCE OF ALLIANCE IN THE POST-WAR WORLD.

- 3 -

TODAY, AS PERMANENT HOME TO NATO AND THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY, BRUSSELS STANDS AT THE CENTER OF A EUROPE FREE, AT PEACE, AND PROSPEROUS AS NEVER BEFORE -- A EUROPE THAT IS STEADILY MOVING TOWARDS A SINGLE MARKET, AND UNPRECEDENTED POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES. IN BRUSSELS, THE SIGNS OF THIS EUROPEAN RENAISSANCE ARE EVERYWHERE.

- 4 -

BELGIUM HAS BEEN A GOOD FRIEND AND A VALUED ALLY -- ONE THAT HAS ALWAYS ACTED WITH ALLIANCE INTERESTS IN MIND. EARLY IN THIS DECADE, BELGIUM WAS ONE OF FIVE NATO NATIONS THAT MADE THE DIFFICULT DECISION TO BASE INF SYSTEMS ON ITS SOIL. THOSE DEPLOYMENTS GAVE US THE LEVERAGE WE NEEDED TO NEGOTIATE THE FIRST-EVER NUCLEAR ARMS REDUCTION TREATY.

- 6 -

I LOOK FORWARD AS WELL TO MY MEETING WITH PRIME MINISTER MARTENS, MY DISCUSSIONS WITH PRESIDENT DELORS OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY AND SECRETARY GENERAL WOERNER OF NATO.

THE FUTURE OF NATO DEPENDS ON THE ALLIANCE'S ABILITY TO DEAL WITH OUR ENDURING SECURITY CONCERNS AND OUR EVOLVING ECONOMIC RELATIONSHIP.

- 5 -

THAT'S THE KIND OF COURAGEOUS AND REALISTIC APPROACH THAT EXPLAINS NATO'S SUCCESS. NATO IS AT ONCE READY TO ENSURE THE COMMON DEFENSE, AND, WHEN SOVIET ACTIONS -- NOT JUST WORDS -- WARRANT IT, TO REDUCE ARMS AND SEEK TO DIMINISH TENSIONS WITH THE EAST.

I AM LOOKING FORWARD TO IMPORTANT DISCUSSIONS WITH KING BAUDOUIN [BOW-DWIN] AND THE NATO HEADS OF GOVERNMENT.

- 7 -

WE LOOK TO BELGIUM TO CONTINUE TO PLAY ITS IMPORTANT
ROLE IN OUR CLOSE AND COOPERATIVE TRANS-ATLANTIC
PARTNERSHIP.

THANK YOU.

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