diameter the dome of the Reading Room exceeds all others, with the exception of the Pantheon of Rome, which is about 2 feet wider. That of St. Peter's at Rome, and of Santa Maria in Florence are each only 139 feet; that of the tomb of Mahomet at Bejapore, 135; of St. Paul's, 112; of St. Sophia, at Constantinople, 107; and of the church of Darmstadt, 105. The new Reading Room contains 1,250,000 cubic feet of space, and the surrounding libraries 750,000. These libraries are 24 feet in height, with the exception of that part which runs round the outside of the Reading Room, which is 32 feet high, the spring of the dome being 24 feet from the floor of the Reading Room, and the ground excavated 8 feet below this level. The whole building is constructed principally of iron. . . . The Reading Room contains ample and comfortable accommodation for 302 readers. There are thirty-five tables: eight are 34 feet long, and accommodate sixteen readers, eight on each side; nine are 30 feet long, and accommodate fourteen readers, seven on each side; two are 30 feet long, and accommodate eight readers each, viz., seven on one side and one on the other — these two tables are set apart for the exclusive use of ladies; sixteen other tables are 6 feet long, and accommodate two readers each — these are fitted up with rising desks of a large size for those readers who may have occasion to consult works beyond the usual dimensions. Each person has allotted to him, at the long tables, a space of 4 feet 3 inches in length by 2 feet 1 inch in depth. He is screened from the opposite occupant by a longitudinal division, which is fitted with a hinged desk graduated on sloping racks, and a folding shelf for spare books. In the space between the two, which is recessed, an inkstand is fixed, having suitable penholders. . . The framework of each table is of iron, forming air-distributing channels, which are contrived so that the air may be delivered at the top of the longitudinal screen division, above the level of the heads of the readers, or, if desired, only at each end pedestal of the tables, all the outlets being under the control of valves. A tubular foot-rail also passes from end to end of each table, which may have a current of warm water through it at pleasure, and be used as a foot-warmer if required. The pedestals of the tables form tubes communicating with the air-chamber below, which is 6 feet high, and occupies the whole area of the Reading Room: it is fitted with hot-water pipes arranged in radiating lines The supply of fresh air is obtained from a shaft 60 feet high. . . . The shelves within the Reading Room contain about 60,000 volumes: the new building altogether will accommodate about 1,500,000 volumes."— *List of the Books of Reference in the Reading Room of the British Museum; preface.*— The number of volumes of printed books in the British Museum in 1893 is reported to have been 1,600,000, the number of manuscripts 50,000 and the maps and charts 200,000.—*Minerva*, 1893–94. —A purchase from the Duke of Bedford, of adjoining land, to the extent of five and a half acres, for the enlargement of the Museum, was announced by the London Times, March 18, 1894. With this addition, the area of ground occupied by the Museum will be fourteen acres.

England: The Bodleian Library.— "Its founder, Sir Thomas Bodley, was a worthy of Devon, who had been actively employed by Queen Elizabeth as a diplomatist, and had returned tired of court life to the University, where long before he had been Fellow of Merton College. He found the ancient library of the University (which, after growing slowly with many vicissitudes from small beginnings, had suddenly been enriched in 1439–46 by a gift of 264 valuable MSS. from Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester) utterly destroyed by Edward VI.'s Commissioners, and the room built for its reception (still called 'Duke Humphrey's library') swept clear even of the readers' desks. His determination to refound the library of the University was actively carried out, and on November 8, 1602, the new institution was formally opened with about 2,000 printed and manuscript volumes. Two striking advantages were possessed by the Bodleian almost from the first. Sir Thomas Bodley employed his great influence at court and with friends to induce them to give help to his scheme, and accordingly we find not only donations of money and books from personal friends, but 240 MSS. contributed by the Deans and Chapters of Exeter and Windsor. Moreover, in 1610, he arranged with the Stationers' Company that they should present his foundation with a copy of every printed book published by a member of the Company; and from that time to this the right to every book published in the kingdom has been continuously enjoyed." —F. Madan, *Books in Manuscript*, p. 84.—In 1891 the Bodleian Library was said to contain 400,000 printed books and 30,000 manuscripts. Under the copyright act of Great Britain, the British Museum, the Bodleian Library, Oxford, the Cambridge University Library, the Advocates Library, Edinburgh, and the Trinity College Library, Dublin, are each entitled to a copy of every work published in the United Kingdom.

England: Rise and Growth of Free Town-Libraries.—In the "Encyclopædia Britannica" (9th ed.) we read, in the article "Libraries," that "the fine old library instituted by Humphrey Chetham in Manchester, in 1653, and which is still 'housed in the old collegiate buildings where Raleigh was once entertained by Dr. Dee, might be said to be the first free library' in England. Two centuries, however, before worthy Chetham had erected his free fountain of knowledge for thirsty souls, a grave fraternity known as the Guild of Kalendars had established a free library, for all comers, in connection with a church yet standing in one of the thoroughfares of Old Bristol. . . . John Leland (temp. Henry VIII.) speaks of the Kalendars as an established body about the year 1170; and when in 1216 Henry III. held a Parliament in Bristol, the deeds of the guild were inspected, and ratified on account of the antiquity and high character of the fraternity ('propter antiquitates et bonitates in eâ Gilda repertas'), and Gualo, the Papal Legate, commended the Kalendars to the care of William de Blois, Bishop of Worcester, within whose diocese Bristol then lay. It was the office of the Kalendars to record local events and such general affairs as were thought worthy of commemoration, whence their name. They consisted of clergy and laity, even women being admitted to their Order. . . . It was ordered by Wolstan, Bishop of Worcester, who in visitation of this part of his diocese, July 10, 1840, examined the ancient rules of the College, that a prior in priest's orders should be chosen by the majority

of the chaplains and lay brethren, without the solemnity of confirmation, consecration or benediction of superiors, and eight chaplains who were not bound by monastic rules, were to be joined with him to celebrate for departed brethren and benefactors every day. By an ordinance of John Carpenter, Bishop of Worcester, A. D. 1464, the Prior was to reside in the college, and take charge of a certain library newly erected at the Bishop's expense, so that every festival day from seven to eleven in the forenoon admission should be freely allowed to all desirous of consulting the Prior, to read a public lecture every week in the library, and elucidate obscure places of Scripture as well as he could to those desirous of his teachings. . . . Lest, through negligence or accident, the books should be lost, it was ordered that three catalogues of them should be kept; one to remain with the Dean of Augustinian Canons, whose 14th-century church is now Bristol Cathedral, another with the Mayor for the time being, and the third with the Prior himself. Unfortunately, they are all three lost . . . This interesting library was destroyed by fire in 1466 through the carelessness of a drunken 'point-maker,' two adjoining houses against the steeple of the church being at the same time burnt down."—J. Taylor, *The First English Free Library and its Founders* (*Murray's Mag.*, *Nov.*, 1891).—"Free town-libraries are essentially a modern institution, and yet can boast of a greater antiquity than is generally supposed, for we find a town-library at Auvergne in 1540, and one at a still earlier date at Aix. Either the munificence of individuals or the action of corporate authorities has given very many of the continental towns freely accessible libraries, some of them of considerable extent. In England the history of town-libraries is much briefer. There is reason to believe that London at an early date was possessed of a common library; and Bristol, Norwich, and Leicester, had each town-libraries, but the corporations proved but careless guardians of their trust, and in each case allowed it to be diverted from the free use of the citizens for the benefit of a subscription library. At Bristol, in 1613, Mr. Robert Redwood 'gave his lodge to be converted into a library or place to put books in for the furtherance of learning.' Some few years after, Tobie Matthew, Archbishop of York, left some valuable books in various departments of literature for free access 'to the merchants and shopkeepers.' . . . The paucity of our public libraries, twenty years ago, excited the attention of Mr. Edward Edwards, to whose labours in this field the country owes so much. Having collected a large amount of statistics as to the comparative number of these institutions in different States, he communicated the result of his researches to the Statistical Society, in a paper which was read on the 20th of March, 1848, and was printed in this 'Journal' in the August following. The paper revealed some unpleasant facts, and showed that, in respect of the provision of public libraries, Great Britain occupied a very unworthy position. In the United Kingdom (including Malta) Mr. Edwards could only discover 29 libraries having more than 10,000 volumes, whilst France could boast 107, Austria 41, Switzerland 13. The number of volumes to every hundred of the population of cities containing libraries, was in Great Britain 43, France 125, Brunswick 2,353. Of the 29 British libraries enumerated by Mr. Edwards, some had only doubtful claims to be considered as public, and only one of them was absolutely free to all comers, without influence or formality. That one was the public library at Manchester, founded by Humphrey Chetham in 1665. The paper read before this Society twenty-two years ago was destined to be productive of great and speedy results. From the reading of it sprang the present system of free town-libraries. The seed was then sown, and it is now fructifying in the libraries which are springing up on every hand. The paper attracted the attention of the late William Ewart, Esq., M. P., and ultimately led to the appointment of a parliamentary committee on the subject of public libraries. The report of this committee paved the way for the Public Libraries Act of 1850."—W. E. A. Axon, *Statistical Notes on the Free Town-Libraries of Great Britain and the Continent* (*Journal of the Statistical Soc.*, *Sept.* 1870, *v.* 33).—The progress of free public libraries in England under the Act of 1850 was not, for a long time, very rapid. "In the 36 years from 1850 onward—that is, down to 1886—133 places had availed themselves of the benefits of the act. That was not a very large number, not amounting quite, upon the average, to four in each of those 36 years. . . . Now, see the change which has taken place. We have only four years, from 1887 to 1890, and in those four years no less than 70 places have taken advantage of the act, so that instead of an average of less than four places in the year, we have an average of more than 17 places."—W. E. Gladstone, *Address at the Opening of the Free Public Library of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields.*—"The Clerkenwell Library Commissioners draw attention to the enormous strides London has made within the last five years in the matter of public libraries. In 1886 four parishes had adopted the Acts; by December, 1891, 29 parishes had adopted them, and there are already 30 libraries and branches opened throughout the County of London, possessing over 250,000 volumes, and issuing over 3,000,000 volumes per annum."—*The Library Journal*, *Feb.*, 1892.—Under a new law, which came into force in 1893, "any local authority (i. e., town council or district board), save in the County of London, may establish and maintain public libraries without reference to the wishes of the rate payers."—*Library Journal*, *October*, 1893 (*v.* 18, *p.* 442).

United States of America: Franklin and the first Subscription Library.—When Franklin's club, at Philadelphia, the Junto, was first formed, "its meetings were held (as the custom of clubs was in that clubbing age) in a tavern; and in a tavern of such humble pretensions as to be called by Franklin an ale-house. But the leathern-aproned philosophers soon removed to a room of their own, lent them by one of their members, Robert Grace. It often happened that a member would bring a book or two to the Junto, for the purpose of illustrating the subject of debate, and this led Franklin to propose that all the members should keep their books in the Junto room, as well for reference while debating as for the use of members during the week. The suggestion being approved, one end of their little apartment was soon filled with books; and there they remained for the common benefit a year.

But some books having been injured, their owners became dissatisfied, and the books were all taken home. Books were then scarce, high-priced, and of great bulk. Folios were still common, and a book of less magnitude than quarto was deemed insignificant. . . . Few books of much importance were published at less than two guineas. Such prices as four guineas, five guineas, and six guineas were not uncommon. Deprived of the advantage of the Junto collection, Franklin conceived the idea of a subscription library. Early in 1731 he drew up a plan, the substance of which was, that each subscriber should contribute two pounds sterling for the first purchase of books, and ten shillings a year for the increase of the library. As few of the inhabitants of Philadelphia had money to spare, and still fewer cared for reading, he found very great difficulty in procuring a sufficient number of subscribers. He says: 'I put myself as much as I could out of sight, and stated it as a scheme of a number of friends, who had requested me to go about and propose it to such as they thought lovers of reading. In this way my affairs went on more smoothly, and I ever after practiced it on such occasions, and from my frequent successes can heartily recommend it.' Yet it was not until November, 1731, at least five months after the project was started, that fifty names were obtained; and not till March, 1732, that the money was collected. After consulting James Logan, 'the best judge of books in these parts,' the first list of books was made out, a draft upon London of forty-five pounds was purchased, and both were placed in the hands of one of the directors who was going to England. Peter Collinson undertook the purchase, and added to it presents of Newton's 'Principia,' and 'Gardener's Dictionary.' All the business of the library Mr. Collinson continued to transact for thirty years, and always swelled the annual parcel of books by gifts of valuable works. In those days getting a parcel from London was a tedious affair indeed. All the summer of 1732 the subscribers were waiting for the coming of the books, as for an event of the greatest interest. . . . In October the books arrived, and were placed, at first, in the room of the Junto. A librarian was appointed, and the library was opened once a week for giving out the books. The second year Franklin himself served as librarian. For many years the secretary to the directors was Joseph Breintnal, by whose zeal and diligence the interests of the library were greatly promoted. Franklin printed a catalogue soon after the arrival of the books, for which, and for other printing, he was exempted from paying his annual ten shillings for two years. The success of this library, thus begun by a few mechanics and clerks, was great in every sense of the word. Valuable donations of books, money and curiosities were frequently made to it. The number of subscribers slowly, but steadily, increased. Libraries of similar character sprung up all over the country, and many were started even in Philadelphia. Kalm, who was in Philadelphia in 1748, says that then the parent library had given rise to 'many little libraries,' on the same plan as itself. He also says that non-subscribers were then allowed to take books out of the library, by leaving a pledge for the value of the book, and paying for a folio eight pence a week, for a quarto six pence, and for all others four pence. 'The subscribers,' he says, 'were so kind to me as to order the librarian, during my stay here, to lend me every book I should want, without requiring any payment of me.' In 1764, the shares had risen in value to nearly twenty pounds, and the collection was considered to be worth seventeen hundred pounds. In 1785, the number of volumes was 5,487; in 1807, 14,457; in 1861, 70,000. The institution is one of the few in America that has held on its way, unchanged in any essential principle, for a century and a quarter, always on the increase, always faithfully administered, always doing well its appointed work. There is every reason to believe that it will do so for centuries to come. The prosperity of the Philadelphia Library was owing to the original excellence of the plan, the good sense embodied in the rules, the care with which its affairs were conducted, and the vigilance of Franklin and his friends in turning to account passing events. Thomas Penn, for example, visited Philadelphia a year or two after the library was founded, when the directors of the library waited upon him with a dutiful address, and received, in return, a gift of books and apparatus. It were difficult to over-estimate the value to the colonies of the libraries that grew out of Franklin's original conception. They were among the chief means of educating the colonies up to Independence. 'Reading became fashionable,' says Franklin; 'and our people having no public amusements to divert their attention from study, became better acquainted with books, and in a few years were observed, by strangers, to be better instructed and more intelligent than people of the same rank generally are in other countries.' . . . What the Philadelphia Library did for Franklin himself, the libraries, doubtless, did for many others. It made him a daily student for twenty years. He set apart an hour or two every day for study, and thus acquired the substance of all the most valuable knowledge then possessed by mankind. Whether Franklin was the originator of subscription libraries, and of the idea of permitting books to be taken to the homes of subscribers, I cannot positively assert. But I can discover no trace of either of those two fruitful conceptions before his time."—J. Parton, *Life and Times of Benjamin Franklin, pp.* 200–203.—"The books were at first kept in the house of Robert Grace, whom Franklin characterizes as 'a young gentleman of some fortune, generous, lively, and witty, a lover of punning and of his friends.' Afterward they were allotted a room in the State-House; and, in 1742, a charter was obtained from the Proprietaries. In 1790, having in the interval absorbed several other associations and sustained a removal to Carpenter's Hall, where its apartment had been used as a hospital for wounded American soldiers, the Library was at last housed in a building especially erected for it at Fifth and Chestnut streets, where it remained until within the last few years. It brought only about eight thousand volumes into its new quarters, for it had languished somewhat during the Revolution and the war of words which attended our political birth. But it had received no injury. . . . Two years after removal to its quarters on Fifth street, the Library received the most valuable gift of books it has as yet had. James Logan, friend and adviser of Penn, . . . had gathered a most important collection of books. Mr. Logan was translator of Cicero's

'Cato Major,' the first classic published in America, besides being versed in natural science. His library comprised, as he tells us, 'over one hundred volumes of authors, all in Greek, with mostly their versions; all the Roman classics without exception; all the Greek mathematicians. . . . Besides there are many of the most valuable Latin authors, and a great number of modern mathematicians.' These, at first bequeathed as a public library to the city, became a branch of the Philadelphia Library under certain conditions, one of which was that, barring contingencies, one of the donor's descendants should always hold the office of trustee. And to-day his direct descendant fills the position, and is perhaps the only example in this country of an hereditary office-holder. . . . In 1869 died Dr. James Rush, son of Benjamin Rush, and himself well known as the author of a work on the human voice, and as husband of a lady who almost succeeded in naturalizing the salon in this country. By his will about one million dollars were devoted to the erection and maintenance of an isolated and fire-proof library-building, which was to be named the Ridgway Library, in memory of his wife. This building was offered to the Philadelphia Company, and the bequest was accepted. That institution had by this time accumulated about one hundred thousand volumes. . . . A building of the Doric order was erected, which with its grounds covers an entire square or block, and is calculated to contain four hundred thousand volumes, or three times as many as the Library at present has, and to this building the more valuable books of the Library were removed in 1878; the fiction and more modern works being placed in another designed in imitation of the old edifice, and nearer the center of the city."—B. Samuel, *The Father of American Libraries* (*Century Mag., May*, 1883). —In 1803, the library of the Philadelphia Library Company contained 171,069 volumes.— **The First Library in New York.**—The New York Society Library is the oldest institution of the kind in the city of New York. "In 1729, the Rev. Dr. Millington, Rector of Newington, England, by his will, bequeathed his library to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. By this society the library of Dr. Millington was presented to the corporation of the city, for the use of the clergy and gentlemen of New-York and the neighbouring provinces. . . . 'In 1754 [as related in Smith's History of New York] a set of gentlemen undertook to carry about a subscription towards raising a public library, and in a few days collected near 600 pounds, which were laid out in purchasing about 700 volumes of new well-chosen books. Every subscriber, upon payment of five pounds principal, and the annual sum of ten shillings, is entitled to the use of these books,—his right, by the articles, is assignable, and for non-compliance with them may be forfeited. The care of this library is committed to twelve trustees, annually elected by the subscribers, on the last Tuesday of April, who are restricted from making any rules repugnant to the fundamental subscription. This is the beginning of a library which, in process of time, will probably become vastly rich and voluminous, and it would be very proper for the company to have a Charter for its security and encouragement.' The library of the corporation above alluded to, appearing to have been mismanaged, and at length entirely disused, the trustees of the New-York Society Library offered to take charge of it, and to deposit their own collection with it, in the City-Hall. This proposal having been acceded to by the corporation, the Institution thenceforward received the appellation of 'The City Library,' a name by which it was commonly known for a long time. A good foundation having been thus obtained, the library prospered and increased. . . . In 1772, a charter was granted to it by the colonial government. The war of the revolution, however, which soon after occurred, interfered with these pleasing prospects; the city fell into the possession of the enemy; the effect on all our public institutions was more or less disastrous, and to the library nearly fatal. An interval of no less than fourteen years, (of which it possesses no record whatever,) here occurs in the history of the society. At length it appears from the minutes, that 'the accidents of the late war having nearly destroyed the former library, no meeting of the proprietors for the choice of trustees was held from the last Tuesday in April, 1774, until Saturday, the 21st December, 1788, when a meeting was summoned.' In 1789, the original charter, with all its privileges, was revived by the legislature of this state; the surviving members resumed the payment of their annual dues, an accession of new subscribers was obtained, and the society, undeterred by the loss of its books, commenced almost a new collection."—*Catalogue of the N. Y. Society Library: Historical Notice.*—**Redwood Library.**—While Bishop Berkeley was residing, in 1729, on his farm near Newport, Rhode Island, "he took an active share in forming a philosophical society in Newport. . . . Among the members were Col. Updike, Judge Scott (a granduncle of Sir Walter Scott), Nathaniel Kay, Henry Collins, Nathan Townsend, the Rev. James Honeyman, and the Rev. Jeremiah Condy. . . . The Society seems to have been very successful. One of its objects was to collect books. It originated, in 1747, the Redwood Library."—A. C. Fraser, *Life and Letters of George Berkeley* (*v. 4 of Works*), *p.* 169. —The library thus founded took its name from Abraham Redwood, who gave £500 to it in 1747. Other subscriptions were obtained in Newport to the amount of £5,000, colonial currency, and a building for the library erected in 1750.

United States of America: Free Public Libraries.—"Mr. Ewart, in his Report of the Select Committee on Public Libraries, 1849, says: 'Our younger brethren, the people of the United States, have already anticipated us in the formation of libraries entirely open to the public.' No free public library, however, was then in operation, in the United States, yet one had been authorized by legislative action. The movements in the same direction in England and the United States seem to have gone on independently of each other; and in the public debates and private correspondence relating to the subject there seems to have been no borrowing of ideas, or scarcely an allusion, other than the one quoted, to what was being done elsewhere. In October, 1847, Josiah Quincy, Jr., Mayor of Boston, suggested to the City Council that a petition be sent to the State legislature asking for authority to lay a tax by which the city of Boston could establish a library free to all its citizens. The Massachusetts legislature, in March, 1848, passed

such an act, and in 1851 made the act apply to all the cities and towns in the State. In 1849 donations of books were made to the Boston Public Library. Late in the same year Mr. Edward Everett made to it the donation of his very complete collection of United States documents, and Mayor Bigelow a gift of $1,000. In May, 1852, the first Board of Trustees, with Mr. Everett as president, was organized, and Mr. Joshua Bates, of London, made his first donation of $50,000 for the use of the library. It was fortunate that the public-library system started where it did and under the supervision of the eminent men who constituted the first board of trustees of the Boston Public Library. Mr. George Ticknor was the person who mapped out the sagacious policy of that library — a policy which has never been improved, and which has been adopted by all the public libraries in this country, and, in its main features, by the free libraries of England. For fifteen years or more Mr. Ticknor gave the subject his personal attention. He went to the library every day, as regularly as any of the employés, and devoted several hours to the minutest details of its administration. Before he had any official relations with it, he gave profound consideration to, and settled in his own mind, the leading principles on which the library should be conducted. . . . Started as the public-library system was on such principles, and under the guidance of these eminent men, libraries sprang up rapidly in Massachusetts, and similar legislation was adopted in other States. The first legislation in Massachusetts was timid. The initiative law of 1848 allowed the city of Boston to spend only $5,000 a year on its Public Library, which has since expended $125,000 a year. The State soon abolished all limitation to the amount which might be raised for library purposes. New Hampshire, in 1849, anticipated Massachusetts, by two years, in the adoption of a general library law. Maine followed in 1854; Vermont in 1865; Ohio in 1867; Colorado, Illinois, and Wisconsin in 1872; Indiana and Iowa in 1873; Texas in 1874; Connecticut and Rhode Island in 1875; Michigan and Nebraska in 1877; California in 1878; Missouri and New Jersey in 1885; Kansas in 1886. . . . The public library law of Illinois, adopted in 1872, and since enacted by other Western States, is more elaborate and complete than the library laws of any of the New England States. . . . The law of Wisconsin is similar to that of Illinois. . . . New Jersey has a public-library law patterned after that of Illinois."—W. F. Poole, *President's Address at the annual meeting of the American Library Association*, 1887 —The State of New York adopted a library law in 1892, under which the creation of free libraries has been promisingly begun. A law having like effect was adopted in New Hampshire in 1891.

United States of America: Library Statistics of 1891.—"As to the early statistics of libraries in this country but little can be found. Prof. Jewett, in his 'Notices of Public Libraries,' published by the Smithsonian Institution in 1850, gave a summary of public libraries, amounting to 694 and containing at that time 2,201,632 volumes. In the census of 1850 an attempt was made to give the number of libraries and the number of volumes they contained, exclusive of school and Sunday school libraries. This number was 1,560; the number of volumes, 2,447,086. In 1856 Mr. Edward Edwards in his summary of libraries gave a much smaller number of libraries, being only 341, but the number of volumes was nearly the same, being 2,871,887, and was also based upon the census of 1850. Mr. William J. Rhees, in his 'Manual of Public Libraries,' which was printed in 1859, gave a list of 2,902 libraries, but of all this number only 1,312 had any report whatever of the number of volumes they contained. From these meager statistics it is seen that the reports do not vary very much, giving about the same number of libraries and number of volumes in them, taking account of the changes that would occur from the different classifications as to what was excepted or omitted as a library. The annual reports of the Bureau from 1870 to 1874 contained limited statistics of only a few hundred libraries, and little more is shown than the fact that there were about 2,000 public libraries of all kinds in the United States. About five years of labor was expended in collecting material for the special report of the Bureau upon public libraries, which was printed in 1876, and this gave a list of 3,649 libraries of over 300 volumes, and the total number of volumes was 12,276,964, this being about the first fairly complete collection of library statistics. In the report of the Bureau for 1884–85, after considerable correspondence and using the former work as a basis, another list of public libraries was published, amounting to 5,388 libraries of over 300 volumes, an increase of 1,869 libraries in ten years, or almost 54 per cent. The number of volumes contained in these libraries at that time was 20,622,076, or an increase of about 66 per cent, and showing that the percentage of increase in the number of volumes was even greater than that of the number of libraries. An estimate of the proportion of smaller libraries under 500 volumes in that list indicates that these smaller libraries included only about 20 per cent of the books, so that this list could be said to fairly show the extent of the libraries at that time. In the report for 1886–87, detailed statistics of the various classes of libraries were given, except those of colleges and schools, which were included in the statistics of those institutions. From the uncertainty of the data and the imperfect records given of the very small libraries, it was deemed best to restrict the statistics to collections of books that might be fairly called representative, and as those having less than 1,000 volumes made but a proportionally small percentage of the whole number of books the basis of 1,000 volumes or over was taken. This list includes the statistics only of libraries of this size and amounted to 1,777 libraries, containing 14,012,370 volumes, and were arranged in separate lists by classes as far as it could be done. . . . The number of libraries and of volumes in each of the seven special classes in the report made in 1887 was as follows: Free public lending libraries, 434; volumes, 3,721,191; free public reference libraries, 153; volumes, 3,075,099; free public school libraries, 93; volumes, 177,560; free corporate lending libraries, 241; volumes 1,727,870; libraries of clubs, associations, etc., 341; volumes, 2,460,334; subscription corporate libraries, 452; volumes, 2,644,929; and circulating libraries proper, 751; volumes, 215,487. The statistics [now] given . . . are for the year 1891, and include only libraries of 1,000 volumes and over, thus differing from the com-

plete report of 1885. . . . There were, in 1891, 3,804 libraries. Of these, 3 contain over 500,000 volumes; 1 between 300,000 and 500,000; 26 between 100,000 and 300,000; 68 between 50,000 and 100,000; 128 between 25,000 and 50,000; 383 between 10,000 and 25,000; 565 between 5,000 and 10,000; and 2,360 between 1,000 and 5,000. . . . The North Atlantic Division contains 1,913 libraries, or 50.3 per cent of the whole number; the South Atlantic, 339, or 8.88 per cent; the South Central, 256, or 6.73 per cent; the North Central, 1,098, or 28.87 per cent, and the Western, 198, or 5.22 per cent. Of the distribution of volumes in the libraries, the North Atlantic Division has 16,605,286 or 53.34 per cent; the South Atlantic, 4,276,894, or 13.71 per cent; the South Central 1,345,708, or 4.03 per cent; the North Central, 7,320,045, or 23.32 per cent; and the Western, 1,593,974, or 5.34 per cent. . . . From [1885 to 1891] the increase in the United States in the number of libraries was from 2,987 to 3,804, an increase of 817, or 27.35 per cent; in the North Atlantic, from 1,543 to 1,913, an increase of 370, or 24 per cent; in the South Atlantic, from 289 to 338, an increase of 49, or 17 per cent; in the South Central, from 201 to 256, an increase of 55, or 27.5 per cent; in the North Central, from 813 to 1,099, an increase of 286, or 35.18 per cent; and in the Western, from 141 to 198, an increase of 57, or 40.43 per cent. These figures show that, comparatively, the largest increase in the number of libraries was in the Western Division, and of the number of volumes the greatest increase was in the North Central Division. The percentage of increase in the whole country was 66.3 for six years, or an average of over 11 per cent each year, which at this rate would double the number of volumes and libraries every nine years. . . . In the United States in 1885 there was one library to each 18,822 of the population, while in 1891 there was one to every 16,462, or a decrease of population to a library of 2,360, or 12.5 per cent; in the North Atlantic Division the decrease was from 10,246 to 9,096, 1,150, or 11.2 per cent; in the South Atlantic, from 28,740 to 26,206, 2,534, or 8.08 per cent; in the South Central, from 48,974 to 42,863, 6,111, or 12.5 per cent; in the North Central, from 24,807 to 20,848, 4,459, or 18 per cent; and in the Western, from 15,557 to 15,290, 277 or 1.8 per cent. The distribution of libraries in the North Atlantic Division shows the smallest average population to a library and the least change in the number, except the Western Division, where the increase of population from immigration has been greater than the increase in the number of libraries. But, generally, the establishment and growth in the size of libraries have been very large in nearly every section. . . . This shows that in 1885 there were in the United States in the libraries of the size mentioned 34 books to every 100 of the population, while in 1891 this number was 50, or an increase of 16 books, or 47 per cent. In the North Atlantic Division the increase was from 66 to 95, an increase of 29 books, or 34 per cent; in the South Atlantic, from 34 to 48, an increase of 14, or 41 per cent; in the South Central, from 9 to 12, an increase of 3, or 33.33 per cent; in the North Central, from 29 to 33, an increase of 13, or 65 per cent; and in the Western, from 43 to 53, an increase of 10, or 23 per cent. These figures show that, comparatively, the largest increase of books to population has been in the great Northwest, over 11 per cent each year. In the whole country there has been an average increase of 7.8 per cent per annum; that is, the increase of the number of books in the libraries of the country has been 7.8 per cent greater than the increase of the population during the past six years."—W. Flint, *Statistics of Public Libraries* (*U. S. Bureau of Ed., Circ. of Information No.* 7, 1893).

United States of America: Massachusetts Free Libraries.—"In 1839 the Hon. Horace Mann, then Secretary of the Board of Education, stated as the result of a careful effort to obtain authentic information relative to the libraries in the State, that there were from ten to fifteen town libraries, containing in the aggregate from three to four thousand volumes, to which all the citizens of the town had the right of access; that the aggregate number of volumes in the public libraries, of all kinds, in the State was about 300,000; and that but little more than 100,000 persons, or one-seventh of the population of the State, had any right of access to them. A little over a half century has passed. There are now 175 towns and cities having free public libraries under municipal control, and 248 of the 351 towns and cities contain libraries in which the people have rights or free privileges. There are about 2,500,000 volumes in these libraries, available for the use of 2,104,224 of the 2,238,943 inhabitants which the State contains according to the census of 1890. The gifts of individuals in money, not including gifts of books, for libraries and library buildings, exceed five and a half million dollars. There are still 103 towns in the State, with an aggregate population of 134,719, which do not have the benefit of the free use of a public library. These are almost without exception small towns, with a slender valuation, and 67 of them show a decline in population in the past five years. The State has taken the initiative in aiding the formation of free public libraries in such towns."—*First Report of the Free Public Library Commission of Massachusetts*, 1891, *pref.*—The second report of the Commissioners, 1892, showed an addition of 36 to the towns which have established free public libraries.

United States of America: The American Library Association.—A distinctly new era in the history of American libraries—and in the history, it may be said, of libraries throughout the English-speaking world,—was opened, in 1876, by the meeting of a conference of librarians at Philadelphia, during the Centennial Exhibition of the summer of that year. The first fruit of the conference was the organization of a permanent American Library Association, which has held annual meetings since, bringing large numbers of the librarians of the country together every year, making common property of their experience, their knowledge, their ideas,—animating them with a common spirit, and enlisting them in important undertakings of coöperative work. Almost simultaneously with the Philadelphia meeting, but earlier, there was issued the first number of a "Library Journal," called into being by the sagacious energy of the same small band of pioneers who planned and brought about the conference. The Library Journal became the organ of the American Library Association, and each was stimulated and sustained by the other. Their combined influence has acted powerfully

upon those engaged in the work of American libraries, to elevate their aims, to increase their efficiency, and to make their avocation a recognized profession, exacting well-defined qualifications. The general result among the libraries of the country has been an increase of public usefulness beyond measure. To this renaissance in the library world many persons contributed; but its leading spirits were Melvil Dewey, latterly Director of the New York State Library; Justin Winsor, Librarian of Harvard University, formerly of the Boston Public Library; the late William F. Poole, LL.D., Librarian of the Newberry Library and formerly of the Chicago Public Library; Charles A. Cutter, lately Librarian of the Boston Athenæum; the late Frederick Leypoldt, first publisher of the "Library Journal," and his successor, R. R. Bowker. The new library spirit was happily defined by James Russell Lowell, in his address delivered at the opening of a free public library in Chelsea, Mass., and published in the volume of his works entitled "Democracy and other Addresses": "Formerly," he said, "the duty of a librarian was considered too much that of a watch-dog, to keep people as much as possible away from the books, and to hand these over to his successor as little worn by use as he could. Librarians now, it is pleasant to see, have a different notion of their trust, and are in the habit of preparing, for the direction of the inexperienced, lists of such books as they think best worth reading. Cataloguing has also, thanks in great measure to American librarians, become a science, and catalogues, ceasing to be labyrinths without a clew, are furnished with finger-posts at every turn. Subject catalogues again save the beginner a vast deal of time and trouble by supplying him for nothing with one at least of the results of thorough scholarship, the knowing where to look for what he wants. I do not mean by this that there is or can be any short cut to learning, but that there may be, and is, such a short cut to information that will make learning more easily accessible."

The organization of the American Library Association led to the formation, in 1877, of the Library Association of the United Kingdom, which was incident to the meeting of an international conference of Librarians held in London.

United States of America: Principal Libraries. — The following are the libraries in the United States which exceeded 100,000 volumes in 1891, as reported in the "Statistics of Public Libraries" published by the Bureau of Education. The name of each library is preceded by the date of its foundation:

1638. Harvard University Library, 292,000 vols.; 278,097 pamps.
1701. Yale College Library, New Haven, 185,000 vols.; 100,000 pamps.
1731. Philadelphia Library Company, 165,487 vols.; 30,000 pamps.
1749. University of Pa., Phila., 100,000 vols.; 100,000 pamps.
1754. Columbia College Library, New York, 135,000 vols.
1789. Library of the House of Representatives, Washington, 125,000 vols.
1800. Library of Congress, Washington, 659,843 vols.; 210,000 pamps.
1807. Boston Athenæum, 178,881 vols.; 70,000 pamps.
1818. New York State Library, Albany, 157,114 vols.
1820. New York Mercantile Library, New York, 239,793 vols.
1821. Philadelphia Mercantile Library, 166,000 vols.; 10,000 pamps.
1826. Maryland State Library, Annapolis, 100,000 vols.
1849. Astor Library, New York, 238,946 vols.; 12,000 pamps.
1852. Boston Public Library, 556,283 vols.
1857. Brooklyn Library, 113,251 vols.; 21,500 pamps.
1857. Peabody Institute, Baltimore, 110,000 vols., 13,500 pamps.
1865. Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, Washington, 104,300 vols.; 161,700 pamps.
1865. Detroit Public Library, 108,720 vols.
1867. Cincinnati Public Library, 156,673 vols.; 18,326 pamps.
1868. Cornell University Library, Ithaca, N. Y., 111,007 vols.; 25,000 pamps.
1872. Chicago Public Library, 175,874 vols.; 25,293 pamps.
1882. Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, 106,663 vols.; 1,500 pamps.
1890. University of Chicago Library, 280,000 vols.
1891. Sutro Library, San Francisco, 200,000 vols.

United States of America: Library Gifts. —A remarkable number of the free public libraries of the United States are the creations of private wealth, munificently employed for the common good. The greater institutions which have this origin are the Astor Library in New York, founded by John Jacob Astor and enriched by his descendants; the Lenox Library in New York, founded by James Lenox; the Peabody Institute, in Baltimore, founded by George Peabody; the Enoch Pratt Free Library, in Baltimore, founded by the gentleman whose name it bears; the Newberry Library, in Chicago, founded by the will of Walter L. Newberry, who died in 1868; the Sutro Library in San Francisco, founded by Adolph Sutro, and the Carnegie Libraries founded at Pittsburg, Allegheny City and Braddock by Andrew Carnegie. By the will of John Crerar, who died in 1889, trustees for Chicago are in possession of an estate estimated at $2,500,000 or $3,000,000, for the endowment of a library which will soon exist. The intention of the late Samuel J. Tilden, former Governor of the State of New York, to apply the greater part of his immense estate to the endowment of a free library in the City of New York, has been partially defeated by contesting heirs; but the just feeling of one among the heirs has restored $2,000,000 to the purpose for which $5,000,000 was appropriated in Mr. Tilden's intent. Steps preparatory to the creation of the library are in progress. The lesser libraries, and institutions including libraries of considerable importance, which owe their origin to the public spirit and generosity of individual men of wealth, are quite too numerous in the country to be catalogued in this place. In addition to such, the bequests and gifts which have enriched the endowment of libraries otherwise founded are beyond computation.

United States of America: Government Departmental Libraries at Washington. — A

remarkable creation of special libraries connected with the departments and bureaus of the national Government, has occurred within a few years past. The more important among them are the following: Department of Agriculture, 20,000 volumes and 15,000 pamphlets; Department of Justice, 21,500 volumes; Department of State, 50,000 volumes; Department of the Interior, 11,500; Navy Department, 24,518; Post Office Department, 10,000; Patent Office Scientific Library, 50,000 volumes and 10,000 pamphlets; Signal Office, 10 540 volumes; Surgeon General's Office, 104,300 volumes and 161,700 pamphlets (reputed to be the best collection of medical literature, as it is certainly the best catalogued medical library, in the world); Treasury Department, 21,000 volumes; Bureau of Education, 45,000 volumes and 120,000 pamphlets; Coast and Geodetic Survey, 12,000 volumes and 4,000 pamphlets; Geological Survey, 30,414 volumes, and 42,917 pamphlets; Naval Observatory, 13,000 volumes and 3,000 pamphlets; United States Senate, 72,592 volumes; United States House of Representatives, 125,000 (both of these being distinct from the great Library of Congress, which contained, in 1891, 659,843 volumes); War Department, 80,000 volumes.

Canada.—"In 1779 a number of the officers stationed at Quebec, and of the leading merchants, undertook the formation of a subscription library. The Governor, General Haldimand, took an active part in the work, and ordered on behalf of the subscribers £500 worth of books from London. The selection was entrusted to Richard Cumberland, the dramatist; and an interesting letter from the Governor addressed to him, describing the literary wants of the town and the class of books to be sent, is now in the Public Archives. A room for their reception was granted in the Bishop's Palace; and as late as 1806, we learn from Lambert's Travels that it was the only library [?] in Canada. Removed several times, it slowly increased, until in 1882 it numbered 4,000 volumes. The list of subscribers having become very much reduced, it was leased to the Quebec Literary Association in 1843. In 1854 a portion of it was burnt with the Parliament Buildings, where it was then quartered; and finally in 1866 the entire library, consisting of 6,990 volumes, were sold, subject to conditions, to the Literary and Historical Society for a nominal sum of $500. . . . Naturally on the organization of each of the provinces, libraries were established in connection with the Parliaments. We have therefore the following: —Nova Scotia, Halifax, 25,319; New Brunswick, Fredericton, 10,850; Prince Ed. Island, Charlottetown, 4,000; Quebec, Quebec, 17,400; Ontario, Toronto, 40,000; Manitoba, Winnipeg, 10,000; Northwest Territory, Regina, 1,480; British Columbia, Victoria, 1,200; Dominion of Canada, Ottawa, 120,000. Total volumes in Parliamentary libraries, 230,249. By far the most important of our Canadian libraries is the Dominion Library of Parliament at Ottawa. Almost corresponding with the Congressional Library at Washington in its sources of income and work, it has grown rapidly during the past ten years, and now numbers 120,000 volumes. Originally established on the union of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada in 1841, it was successively removed with the seat of government from Kingston to Montreal, to Quebec, to Toronto, again to Quebec, and finally to Ottawa. . . . The 38 colleges in Canada are provided with libraries containing 429,470 volumes, or an average of 11,302. The senior of these, Laval College, Quebec, is famous as being, after Harvard, the oldest on the continent being founded by Bishop Laval in 1663. . . . . In 1848 the late Dr. Ryerson, Superintendent of Education from 1844–1876, drafted a school bill which contained provisions for school and township libraries, and succeeded in awakening a deep interest in the subject. . . . In 1854 Parliament passed the requisite act and granted him the necessary funds to carry out his views in the matter. The regulations of the department authorized each county council to establish four classes of libraries — 1. An ordinary common school library in each schoolhouse for the use of the children and ratepayers. 2. A general public lending library available to all the ratepayers in the municipality. 3. A professional library of books on teaching, school organization, language, and kindred subjects, available for teachers only. 4. A library in any public institution under the control of the municipality, for the use of the inmates, or in any county jail, for the use of the prisoners. . . . The proposal to establish the second class was however premature; and accordingly, finding that mechanics institutes were being developed throughout the towns and villages, the Educational Department wisely aided the movement by giving a small grant proportionate to the amount contributed by the members and reaching a maximum of $200, afterwards increased to $400 annually. In 1869 these had grown to number 26; in 1880, 74; and in 1886, 125. The number of volumes possessed by these 125 is 206,146, or an average of 1,650. . . . In the cities, however, the mechanics institute, with its limited number of subscribers, has been found unequal to the task assigned it, and accordingly, in 1882, the Free Libraries Act was passed, based upon similar enactments in Britain and the United States. . . . By the Free Libraries Act, the maximum of taxation is fixed at ½ a mill on the annual assessment. . . . None of the other provinces have followed Ontario in this matter."—J. Bain, *Brief Review of the Libraries of Canada* (*Thousand Islands Conference of Librarians*, 1887). —"The total number of public libraries in Canada of all kinds containing 1,000 or more volumes is 202, and of this number the Province of Ontario alone has 152, or over three-fourths of all, while Quebec has 27 or over one-half of the remaining fourth, the other provinces having from 2 to 6 libraries each. The total number of volumes and pamphlets in all the libraries reported is 1,478,910, of which the Province of Ontario has 863,332 volumes, or almost 60 per cent, while the Province of Quebec has 490,354, or over 33 per cent; Nova Scotia, 48,250 volumes, or 3¼ per cent; New Brunswick, 34,894 volumes, a little over 2⅜ per cent; Manitoba, 31,025 volumes, or 2 1/10 per cent; British Columbia, 10,225 volumes, or not quite 7/10 of 1 per cent; and Prince Edward Island, 5,200 volumes, or over ⅓ of 1 per cent of the total number."—W. Flint, *Statistics* [1891] *of Public Libraries in the U. S. and Canada* (*U. S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information No.* 7, 1893).

Mexico.—The National Library of Mexico contains 155,000 books, besides manuscripts and pamphlets.

China.—The Imperial Library.—"It would be surprising if a people like the Chinese, who have the literary instinct so strongly developed, had not at an early date found the necessity of those great collections of books which are the means for carrying on the great work of civilization. China had her first great bibliothecal catastrophe two centuries before the Christian era, when the famous edict for the burning of the books was promulgated. Literature and despotism have never been on very good terms, and the despot of Tsin, finding a power at work which was unfavorable to his pretensions, determined to have all books destroyed except those relating to agriculture, divination and the history of his own house. His hatred to books included the makers of them, and the literati have not failed to make his name execrated for his double murders of men and books. When the brief dynasty of Tsin passed, the Princes of Han showed more appreciation of culture, and in 190 B. C. the atrocious edict was repealed, and the greatest efforts made to recover such literary treasures as had escaped the destroyer. Some classics are said to have been rewritten from the dictation of scholars who had committed them to memory. Some robbers broke open the tomb of Seang, King of Wei, who died B. C. 295, and found in it bamboo tablets containing more than 100,000 peen [bamboo slips]. These included a copy of the Classic of Changes and the Annals of the Bamboo Books, which indeed take their title from this circumstance. This treasure trove was placed in the Imperial Library. So the Shoo-king is said to have been found in a wall where it had been hidden by a descendant of Confucius, on the proclamation of the edict against books. Towards the close of the first century a library had been formed by Lew Heang and his son Lew Hin. . . . Succeeding dynasties imitated more or less this policy, and under the later Han dynasty great efforts were made to restore the library. . . . In the troubles at the close of the second century the palace at Lo-Yang was burned, and the greater part of the books destroyed. . . . Another Imperial collection at Lo-Yang, amounting to 29,945 books, was destroyed A. D. 311. In A. D. 481, Seëy Ling-Yuen, the keeper of the archives, made a catalogue of 4,582 books in his custody. Another catalogue was compiled in 473, and recorded 5,704 books. Buddhism and Taouism now began to contribute largely to the national literature. Amongst the other consequences of the overthrow of the Tse dynasty at the end of the fifth century was the destruction of the royal library of 18,010 books. Early in the next century a collection of 33,106 books, not including the Buddhist literature, was made chiefly, it is said, by the exertions of Jin Fang, the official curator. The Emperor Yuen-te removed his library, then amounting to 70,000 books, to King Chow, and the building was burnt down when he was threatened by the troops of Chow. The library of the later Wei dynasty was dispersed in the insurrection of 531, and the efforts made to restore it were not altogether successful. The later Chow collected a library of 10,000 books, and, on the overthrow of the Tse dynasty, this was increased by a mass of 5,000 mss. obtained from the fallen dynasty. When towards the close of the sixth century the Suy became masters of the empire they began to accumulate books. . . . The Tang dynasty are specially remarkable for their patronage of literature. Early in the eighth century the catalogue extended to 53,915 books, and a collection of recent authors included 28,469 books. Printing began to supersede manuscript in the tenth century, plentiful editions of the classics appeared and voluminous compilations. Whilst the Sung were great patrons of literature, the Leaou were at least lukewarm, and issued an edict prohibiting the printing of books by private persons. The Kin had books translated into their own tongue, for the benefit of the then Mongolian subjects. A similar policy was pursued by the Yuen dynasty, under whom dramatic literature and fiction began to flourish. In the year 1406, the printed books in the Imperial Library are said to have amounted to 300,000 printed books and twice the number of mss. . . . The great Imperial Library was founded by K'in Lung in the last century. In response to an imperial edict, many of the literati and book-lovers placed rare editions at the service of the government, to be copied. The Imperial Library has many of its books, therefore, in mss. Chinese printing, however, is only an imperfect copy of the caligraphy of good scribes. Four copies were made of each work. One was destined for the Wan Yuen Repository at Peking; a second for the Wan-tsung Repository at Kang-ning, the capital of Kiang-su province; a third for the Wan-hwui Repository at Yang-chou-fu, and the fourth for the Wan-lan Repository at Hong-Chou, the capital of Cheh-Kiang. A catalogue was published from which it appears that the library contained from ten to twelve thousand distinct works, occupying 168,000 volumes. The catalogue is in effect an annotated list of Chinese literature, and includes the works which were still wanting to the library and deemed essential to its completion. Dr. D. J. McGowan, who visited the Hong-Chou collection, says that it was really intended for a public library, and that those who applied for permission to the local authorities, not only were allowed access, but were afforded facilities for obtaining food and lodging, 'but from some cause or other the library is rarely or never consulted.' Besides the Imperial, there are Provincial, Departmental and District Libraries. Thus, the examination hall of every town will contain the standard classical and historical books. At Canton and other cities there are extensive collections, but their use is restricted to the mandarins. There are collections of books and sometimes printing presses in connection with the Buddhist monasteries."—W. E. A. Axon, *Notes on Chinese Libraries* (*Library Journal, Jan. and Feb.*, 1880).—For an account of the ancient library of Chinese classics in stone, see EDUCATION, ANCIENT: CHINA.

Japan.—"The Tokyo Library is national in its character, as the Congressional Library of the United States, the British Museum of Great Britain, etc. It is maintained by the State, and by the copyright Act it is to receive a copy of every book, pamphlet, etc., published in the empire. The Tokyo Library was established in 1872 by the Department of Education with about 70,000 volumes. In 1873 it was amalgamated with the library belonging to the Exhibition Bureau and two years later it was placed under the control of the Home Department, while a

new library with the title of Tokyo Library was started by the Education Department at the same time with about 28,000 volumes newly collected. Thus the Tokyo Library began its career on a quite slender basis; but in 1876, the books increased to 68,953, and in 1877 to 71,853. Since that time, both the numbers of books and visitors have steadily increased, so much so that in 1884 the former reached 102,850 and latter 115,986, averaging 359 persons per one day. The library was then open free to all classes; but the presence of too many readers of the commonest textbooks and light literature was found to have caused much hindrance to the serious students. . . . This disadvantage was somewhat remedied by introducing the fee system, which, of course, placed much restriction to the visitors of the library. . . . It is very clear from the character of the library that it is a reference library and not a circulating library. But as there are not any other large and well-equipped libraries in Tokyo, a system of 'lending out' is added, something like that of Königliche Bibliothek zu Berlin, with a subscription of 5 yen (about $5) per annum. . . . The Tokyo Library now contains 97,550 Japanese and Chinese books and 25,559 European books, besides about 100,000 of duplicates, popular books, etc., which are not used. The average number of books used is 337,262 a year. . . . The Library of the Imperial University, which is also under my charge, comprises all the books belonging to the Imperial University of Japan. These books are solely for the use of the instructors, students, and pupils, no admittance being granted to the general public. The library contains 77,991 European books and 101,217 Japanese and Chinese books. As to other smaller libraries of Japan, there are eight public and ten private libraries in different parts of the empire. The books contained in them are 66,912 Japanese and Chinese books and 4,731 European books with 43,911 visitors! Besides these, in most of towns of respectable size, there are generally two or three small private circulating libraries, which contain books chiefly consisting of light literature and historical works popularly treated."—I. Tanaka, *Tokyo Library* (*San Francisco Conference of Librarians*, 1891).

India.—The first free library in a native state of India was opened in 1892, with 10,000 volumes, 7,000 being in English. It was founded by the brother of the Maharajah.—*Library Journal*, *v.* 17, *p.* 395.

LIBURNIANS, The. See Korkyra.

LIBYAN SIBYL. See Sibyls.

LIBYANS, The.—"The name of Africa was applied by the ancients only to that small portion of country south of Cape Bon; the rest was called Libya. The bulk of the population of the northern coast, between Egypt and the Pillars of Hercules, was of the Hamitic race of Phut, who were connected with the Egyptians and Ethiopians, and to whom the name of Libyans was not applied until a later date, as this name was originally confined to some tribes of Arian or Japhetic race, who had settled among the natives. From these nations sprung from Phut descended the races now called Berbers, who have spread over the north of Africa, from the northernmost valleys of the Atlas to the southern limits of the Sahara, and from Egypt to the Atlantic; perhaps even to the Canaries, where the ancient Guanches seem to have spoken a dialect nearly approaching that of the Berbers of Morocco. These Berbers — now called Amazigh, or Shuluh, in Morocco; Kabyles, in the three provinces of Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli; Tibboos, between Fezzan and Egypt; and Tuariks in the Sahara — are the descendants of the same great family of nations whose blood, more or less pure, still runs in the veins of the tribes inhabiting the different parts of the vast territory once possessed by their ancestors. The language they still speak, known through the labours of learned officers of the French army in Africa, is nearly related to that of Ancient Egypt. It is that in which the few inscriptions we possess, emanating from the natives of Libya, Numidia, and Mauritania in olden times, are written. The alphabet peculiar to these natives, whilst under the Carthaginian rule, is still used by the Tuariks. Sallust, who was able to consult the archives of Carthage, and who seems more accurate than any other classical writer on African history, was acquainted with the annals of the primitive period, anterior to the arrival of the Arian tribes and the settlement of the Phœnician colonies. Then only three races, unequally distributed in a triple zone, were to be met with throughout Northern Africa. Along the shore bordering the Mediterranean were the primitive Libyans, who were Hamites, descendants of Phut; behind them, towards the interior, but on the western half only, were the Getulians . . . ; further still in the interior, and beyond the Sahara, were the negroes, originally called by the Greek name 'Ethiopians,' which was afterwards erroneously applied to the Cushites of the Upper Nile. Sallust also learnt, from the Carthaginian traditions, of the great Japhetic invasion of the coast of Africa. . . . The Egyptian monuments have acquainted us with the date of the arrival of these Indo-Europeans in Africa, among whom were the Libyans, properly so called, the Maxyans, and Macæ. It was contemporary with the reigns of Seti I. and Ramses II."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of Ancient Hist. of the East*, *bk.* 6, *ch.* 5 (*v.* 2). — See, also, Numidians; and Amorites.

LICINIAN LAWS, The. See Rome: B. C. 376–367.

LICINIUS, Roman Emperor, A. D. 307–323.

LICTORS.—FASCES.—"The fasces were bundles of rods (virgæ) of elm or birchwood, tied together round the handle of an axe (securis) with (most likely red) straps. The iron of the axe, which was the executioner's tool, protruded from the sticks. The fasces were carried on their left shoulders by the lictors, who walked in front of certain magistrates, making room for them, and compelling all people to move out of the way (summovere), barring Vestals and Roman matrons. To about the end of the Republic, when a special executioner was appointed, the lictors inflicted capital punishment. The king was entitled to twelve fasces, the same number being granted to the consuls. . . . The dictator was entitled to twenty-four lictors. . . . Since 42 B. C. the Flamen Dialis and the Vestals also were entitled to one lictor each. In case a higher official met his inferior in the street, he was saluted by the lictors of the latter withdrawing the axe and lowering the fasces."— E. Guhl and

W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans, sect.* 107, *foot-note.*

LIDUS, OR LEUD, OR LATT, The. See SLAVERY, MEDIÆVAL: GERMANY.

LIÈGE: The Episcopal Principality.—"Liège lies on the borderland of the French and German speaking races. . . . It was the capital of an ecclesiastical principality, whose territory extended some distance up the river and over the wooded ridges and green valleys of the Ardennes. The town had originally sprung up round the tomb of St. Lambert—a shrine much frequented by pilgrims. . . . The Prince Bishop of Liège was the vassal of the emperor, but his subjects had long considered the kings of France their natural protectors. It was in France that they found a market for their manufactures, from France that pilgrims came to the tomb of St. Lambert or to the sylvan shrine of St. Hubert. Difference of language and rivalry in trade separated them from their Dutch-speaking neighbours. We hear, as early as the 10th century, of successful attempts on the part of the people of Liège, supported and directed by their bishops, to subdue the lords of the castles in their neighbourhood. A population of traders, artizans, and miners, were unlikely to submit to the pretensions of a feudal aristocracy. Nor was there a burgher oligarchy, as in many of the Flemish and German towns. Every citizen was eligible to office if he could obtain a majority of the votes of the whole male population. Constitutional limits were imposed on the power of the bishop; but he was the sole fountain of law and justice. By suspending their administration he could paralyse the social life of the State, and by his interdicts annihilate its religious life. Yet the burghers were involved in perpetual disputes with their bishop. When the power of the Dukes of Burgundy was established in the Low Countries, it was to them that the latter naturally applied for assistance against their unruly flock. John the Fearless defeated the citizens with great slaughter in 1408. He himself reckoned the number of slain at 25,000. In 1431 Liège was compelled to pay a fine of 200,000 crowns to the Duke of Burgundy." The Duke—Philip the Good—afterwards forced the reigning bishop to resign in favor of a brother of the Duke of Bourbon, a dissolute boy of eighteen, whose government was reckless and intolerable.—P. F. Willert, *Reign of Lewis XI., pp.* 93–94.

ALSO IN: J. F. Kirk, *Hist. of Charles the Bold, bk.* 1, *ch.* 7.

A. D. 1467-1468.—War with Charles the Bold of Burgundy and destruction of the city. See BURGUNDY: A. D. 1467–1468; also, DINANT.

A. D. 1691.—Bombardment by the French.—The Prince-bishop of Liège having joined the League of Augsburg against Louis XIV., and having received troops of the Grand Alliance into his city, the town was bombarded in May, 1691, by the French General Boufflers. There was no attempt at a siege; the attack was simply one of destructive malice, and the force which made it withdrew speedily.—H. Martin, *Hist. of France: Age of Louis XIV., v.* 2, *ch.* 2.

A. D. 1702.—Reduced by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1702–1704.

A. D. 1792-1793.—Occupation and surrender by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1792 (SEPTEMBER—DECEMBER); and 1793 (FEBRUARY—APRIL).

LIEGNITZ, The Battle of (1241).—On the 9th of April, A. D. 1241, the Mongols, who had already overrun a great part of Russia, defeated the combined forces of Poland, Moravia and Silesia in a battle which filled all Europe with consternation. It was fought near Lignitz (or Liegnitz), on a plain watered by the river Keiss, the site being now occupied by a village called Wahlstadt, i. e., "Field of Battle." "It was a Mongol habit to cut off an ear from each corpse after a battle, so as to have a record of the number slain; and we are told they filled nine sacks with these ghastly trophies," from the field of Lignitz.—H. H. Howorth, *Hist. of the Mongols, pt.* 1, *p.* 144.—See MONGOLS: A. D. 1229–1294.

Battle of (1760).. See GERMANY: A. D. 1760.

LIGERIS, The.—The ancient name of the river Loire.

LIGHT BRIGADE, The Charge of the. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1854 (OCTOBER—NOVEMBER).

LIGII, The. See LYGIANS.

LIGNY, Battle of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1815 (JUNE).

LIGONIA. See MAINE: A. D. 1629–1631; and 1643–1677.

LIGURIAN REPUBLIC, The.—The mediæval republic of Genoa is often referred to as the Ligurian Republic; but the name was distinctively given by Napoleon to one of his ephemeral creations in Italy. See FRANCE: A. D. 1797 (MAY—OCTOBER), and 1804–1805.

LIGURIANS, The.—"The whole of Piedmont in its present extent was inhabited by the Ligurians: Pavia, under the name of Ticinum, was founded by a Ligurian tribe, the Lævians. When they pushed forward their frontier among the Apennines into the Casentino on the decline of the Etruscans, they probably only recovered what had before been wrested from them. Among the inhabitants of Corsica there were Ligurians. . . . The Ligurians and Iberians were anciently contiguous; whereas in aftertimes they were parted by the Gauls. We are told by Scylax, that from the borders of Iberia, that is, from the Pyrenees, to the Rhone, the two nations were dwelling intermixed. . . . But it is far more probable that the Iberians came from the south of the Pyrenees into Lower Languedoc, as they did into Aquitaine, and that the Ligurians were driven back by them. When the Celts, long after, moving in an opposite direction, reached the shore of the Mediterranean, they too drove the Ligurians close down to the coast, and dwelt as the ruling people amongst them, in the country about Avignon, as is implied by the name Celto-Ligurians. . . . Of their place in the family of nations we are ignorant: we only know that they were neither Iberians nor Celts."—G. B. Niebuhr, *Hist. of Rome, v.* 1.—"On the coast of Liguria, the land on each side of the city of Genoa, a land which was not reckoned Italian in early times, we find people who seem not to have been Aryan. And these Ligurians seem to have been part of a race which was spread through Italy and Sicily before the Aryan settlements, and to have been akin to the non-Aryan inhabitants of Spain and southern Gaul, of whom the Basques . . . remain as a remnant."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. Geog. of Europe, ch.* 8.

ALSO IN: I. Taylor, *Origin of the Aryans, ch.* 2, *sect.* 7.—See, also, APPENDIX A, v. 1.

LILLE: A. D. 1583.—Submission to Spain. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1584–1585 LIMITS OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

A. D. 1667.—Taken by the French. See NETHERLANDS (THE SPANISH PROVINCES): A. D. 1667.

A. D. 1668.—Ceded to France. See NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): A. D. 1668.

A. D. 1708.—Siege and capture by Marlborough and Prince Eugene. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1708–1709.

A. D. 1713.—Restoration to France. See UTRECHT: A. D. 1712–1714.

LILLEBONNE, Assembly of.—A general assembly of Norman barons convened by Duke William, A. D. 1066, for the considering of his contemplated invasion of England.—E. A. Freeman, *Norman Conquest, ch.* 13, *sect.* 3 (*v.* 3).

LILLIBULLERO. — "Thomas Wharton, who, in the last Parliament, had represented Buckinghamshire, and who was already conspicuous both as a libertine and as a Whig, had written [A. D. 1688, just prior to the Revolution which drove James II. from the English throne] a satirical ballad on the administration of Tyrconnel [Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel, James' Lord Deputy in Ireland—see IRELAND: A. D. 1685–1688]. In this little poem an Irishman congratulates a brother Irishman, in a barbarous jargon, on the approaching triumph of Popery and of the Milesian race. . . . These verses, which were in no respect above the ordinary standard of street poetry, had for burden some gibberish which was said to have been used as a watchword by the insurgents of Ulster in 1641. The verses and the tune caught the fancy of the nation. From one end of England to the other all classes were constantly singing this idle rhyme. It was especially the delight of the English army. More than seventy years after the Revolution, a great writer delineated, with exquisite skill, a veteran who had fought at the Boyne and at Namur. One of the characteristics of the good old soldier is his trick of whistling Lillibullero. Wharton afterwards boasted that he had sung a King out of three kingdoms. But in truth the success of Lillibullero was the effect, and not the cause, of that excited state of public feeling which produced the Revolution. . . . The song of Lillibullero is among the State Poems. In Percy's Relics the first part will be found, but not the second part, which was added after William's landing."—Lord Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng., ch.* 9, *with foot-note.*

ALSO IN: W. W. Wilkins, *Political Ballads of the 17th and 18th Centuries, v.* 1, *p.* 275.

LILY OF FLORENCE, The. See FLORENCE: ORIGIN AND NAME.

LILYBÆUM: B. C. 368.—Siege by Dionisius.—"This town, close to the western cape of Sicily, appears to have arisen as a substitute for the neighbouring town of Motye (of which we hear little more since its capture by Dionysius in 396 B. C.), and to have become the principal Carthaginian station." Lilybæum was first besieged and then blockaded by the Syracuse tyrant, Dionysius, B. C. 368; but he failed to reduce it. It was made a powerful stronghold by the Carthaginians.—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 83.

B. C. 277.—Siege by Pyrrhus. See ROME: B. C. 282–275.

B. C. 250-241.—Siege by the Romans. See PUNIC WAR, THE FIRST.

LIMA: Founded by Pizarro (1535). See PERU: A. D. 1538–1548.

LIMBURG: Capture by the Dutch (1632). See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1621–1633.

LIMERICK: A. D. 1690-1691.—Sieges and surrender. See IRELAND: A. D. 1689–1691.

A. D. 1691.—The treaty of surrender and its violation. See IRELAND: A. D. 1691.

LIMES, The.—This term was applied to certain Roman frontier-roads. "Limes is not every imperial frontier, but only that which is marked out by human hands, and arranged at the same time for being patrolled and having posts stationed for frontier-defence, such as we find in Germany and in Africa. . . . The Limes is thus the imperial frontier-road, destined for the regulation of frontier-intercourse, inasmuch as the crossing of it was allowed only at certain points corresponding to the bridges of the river boundary, and elsewhere forbidden. This was doubtless effected in the first instance by patrolling the line, and, so long as this was done, the Limes remained a boundary road. It remained so, too, when it was fortified on both sides, as was done in Britain and at the mouth of the Danube; the Britannic wall is also termed Limes."—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 8, *ch.* 4, *foot-note.*

LIMIGANTES, The.—The Limigantes were a tribe occupying, in the fourth century, a region of country between the Danube and the Theiss, who were said to have been formerly the slaves of a Sarmatian people in the same territory and to have overpowered and expelled their masters. The latter, in exile, became dependents of the warlike nation of the Quadi. At the end of a war with the latter, A. D. 357–359, in which they were greatly humbled, the Emperor Constantius commanded the Limigantes to surrender their stolen territory to its former owners. They resisted the mandate and were exterminated.—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 18–19.—The Limigantes were a branch of the Iazyges or Jazyges, a nomadic Sarmatian or Sclavonic people who were settled in earlier times on the Palus Mæotis.

LIMISSO. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN: A. D. 1118–1310.

LIMOGES, Origin of the town. See LEMOVICES.

A. D. 1370.—Massacre by the Black Prince.—A foul crime which stains the name of "the Black Prince." Taking the city of Limoges, in France, after a short siege, A. D. 1370, he ordered a promiscuous massacre of the population, and more than 3,000 men, women and children were slain, while the town was pillaged and burned.—Froissart, *Chronicles* (*trans. by Johnes*), *bk.* 1, *ch.* 288, 290.—See, also, FRANCE: A. D. 1360–1380.

LIMONUM. See POITIERS.

LIMOUSIN, Early inhabitants of the. See LEMOVICES.

LINCOLN, Abraham: Birthday. See HOLIDAYS. . . . . **Debate with Douglas.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1858. . . . . **First Inaugural Address.** See same, 1861 (FEB.—MAR.). . . . . **First Message.** See same, 1861 (MAR.—AP.). . . . **First call for troops.** See same, 1861 (APRIL). . . . . **Proclamation of Blockade.** See same, 1861 (AP.—MAY). . . . . **Suspensions of Habeas Corpus.** See same, 1861-1863. . . . . **Message proposing compensated Emancipation.** See same, 1862 (MAR.). . . . . **Letter to Horace Greeley.** See same, 1862 (AUG.). . . . . **Preliminary Proclamation of Emancipation.** See same, 1862 (SEPT.). . . . . **Final Proclamation of Emancipation.** See same, 1863 (JAN.). . . . . **Letter to General Hooker.** See same, 1863 (JAN.—AP.: VA.). . . . . **Letters to New York and Ohio Democrats.** See same, 1863 (MAY—JUNE). . . . . **Address at Gettysburg.** See same, 1863 (NOV.). . . . . **Proclamation of Amnesty and Message.** See same, 1863 (DEC.). . . . . **Plan of Reconstruction.** See same, 1863-1864 (DEC.—JULY). . . . . **Re-election.** See same, 1864 (MAY—NOV.). . . . . **Hampton Roads Peace Conference.** See same, 1865 (FEB.). . . . . **Second Inaugural Address.** See same, 1865 (MARCH). . . . . **Last Speech.** See same, 1865 (AP. 11). . . . . **At Richmond.** See same, 1865 (AP.: VA.). . . . . **Assassination.** See same, 1865 (AP. 14).

LINCOLN, General Benjamin, in the War of the American Revolution. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1778-1779; 1779 (SEPT.—OCT.); 1780 (FEB.—AUG.).

LINCOLN, Battle of. See LAMBETH, TREATY OF.

LINCOLN, Origin of the city of. See LINDUM.

LINDISWARA, OR LINDESFARAS.—"Dwellers about Lindum," or Lincoln; a name given for a time to the Angles who seized and settled in that English district.

LINDSEY, Kingdom of.—One of the small kingdoms of the Angles in early England.

LINDUM.—The Roman city from which sprang the English city of Lincoln.

LINE OF BATTLE SHIP. See SHIP OF THE LINE.

LINGONES, The.—A Celtic tribe in ancient Gaul.

LINKOPING, Battle of (1598). See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1523-1604.

LION AND THE SUN, The Order of the.—A Persian order, instituted in 1808.

LION OF ST. MARK, The Winged.—The Standard of the Venetian republic. See VENICE: A. D 829.

LIPAN, Battle of (1434). See BOHEMIA: A. D. 1419-1434.

LISBON: Origin and early history. See PORTUGAL: EARLY HISTORY.

A. D. 1147.—Capture from the Moors.—Made the capital of Portugal. See PORTUGAL: A. D. 1095-1325.

A. D. 1755.—The great Earthquake. "On the morning of the 1st of November in this year, at the same period, though in less or greater degree, a far-spreading earthquake ran through great part both of Europe and Barbary. In the north its effects, as usual with earthquakes in that region, were happily slight and few. Some gentle vibrations were felt as far as Dantzick. . . . In Madrid a violent shock was felt, but no buildings, and only two human beings, perished. In Fez and in Morocco, on the contrary, great numbers of houses fell down, and great multitudes of people were buried beneath the ruins. But the widest and most fearful destruction was reserved for Lisbon. Already, in the year 1531, that city had been laid half in ruins by an earthquake. The 1st of November 1755 was All Saints' Day, a festival of great solemnity; and at nine in the morning all the churches of Lisbon were crowded with kneeling worshippers of each sex, all classes, and all ages, when a sudden and most violent shock made every church reel to its foundations. Within the intervals of a few minutes two other shocks no less violent ensued, and every church in Lisbon — tall column and towering spire — was hurled to the ground. Thousands and thousands of people were crushed to death, and thousands more grievously maimed, unable to crawl away, and left to expire in lingering agony. The more stately and magnificent had been the fabric, the wider and more grievous was the havoc made by its ruin. About one fourth, as was vaguely computed, of all the houses in the city toppled down. The encumbered streets could scarce afford an outlet to the fugitives; 'friends,' says an eye-witness, 'running from their friends, fathers from their children, husbands from their wives, because every one fled away from their habitations full of terror, confusion, and distraction.' The earth seemed to heave and quiver like an animated being. The sun was darkened with the clouds of lurid dust that arose. Frantic with fear a headlong multitude rushed for refuge to a large and newly built stone pier which jutted out into the Tagus, when a sudden convulsion of the stream turned this pier bottom uppermost, like a ship on its keel in the tempest, and then engulphed it. And of all the living creatures who had lately thronged it,— full 8,000, it is said,— not one, even as a corpse, ever rose again. From the banks of the river other crowds were looking on in speechless affright, when the river itself came rushing in upon them like a torrent, though against wind and tide. It rose at least fifteen feet above the highest spring tides, and then again subsided, drawing in or dashing to pieces every thing within its reach, while the very ships in the harbour were violently whirled around. Earth and water alike seemed let loose as scourges on this devoted city. 'Indeed every element,' says a person present, 'seemed to conspire to our destruction . . . for in about two hours after the shock fires broke out in three different parts of the city, occasioned from the goods and the kitchen fires being all jumbled together.' At this time also the wind grew into a fresh gale, which made the fires spread in extent and rage with fury during three days, until there remained but little for them to devour. Many of the maimed and wounded are believed to have perished unseen and unheeded in the flames; some few were almost miraculously rescued after being for whole days buried where they fell, without light or food or hope. The total number of deaths was computed at the time as not less than 30,000."—Lord Mahon (Earl Stanhope), *Hist. of Eng.*, 1713-1783, *ch.* 32 (*v.* 4).

A. D. 1807.—Occupied by the French.—Departure of the Royal Family for Brazil. See PORTUGAL: A. D. 1807.

LISLE. See LILLE.

LISSA, Battle of (1866). See ITALY: A. D. 1862–1866.

LIT DE JUSTICE. See BED OF JUSTICE.

LITHUANIA: A. D. 1235.—Formation of the Grand Duchy.—"From 1224 [when Russia was prostrated by the Mongol conquest] to 1487 . . . is a period of obscuration in Russian history, during which Russia is nothing in the Slavonian world. The hour of Russia's weakness was that in which the Lithuanians, formerly a mere chaos of Slavo-Finnish tribes, assumed organization and strength. Uniting the original Lithuanian tribes into one government, and extending his sway over those territories, formerly included in the Russian Empire, which the Mongolian destruction of the Russian power had left without a ruler, a native chief, named Ringold, founded (1235) a new state called the Grand-Duchy of Lithuania. The limits of this state extended from the Baltic coast, which it touched at a single point, across the entire continent, almost to the Black Sea, with Lithuania proper as its northern nucleus, and the populations along the whole course of the Dnieper as its subjects. The Lithuanians, thus made formidable by the extent of their dominion, were at this time still heathens."—*Poland: Her History and Prospects* (*Westminster Rev., January*, 1855), *p.* 119.—See, also, RUSSIA: A. D. 1237–1480.

A. D. 1386.—Union with Poland under the Jagellon kings. See POLAND: A. D. 1333–1572.

LITHUANIANS.—LETTS.—"They and the Slavonians are branches of the same Sarmatian family; so, of course, their languages, though different, are allied. But next to the Slavonic what tongues are nearest the Lithuanic? Not the speech of the Fin, the German, or the Kelt, though these are the nearest in geography. The Latin is liker than any of these; but the likest of all is the ancient sacred language of India—the Sanskrit of the Vedas, Puranas, the Mahabharata, and the Ramayana. And what tongue is the nearest to the Sanskrit? Not those of Tibet and Armenia, not even those of Southern India. Its nearest parallel is the obscure and almost unlettered languages of Grodno, Wilna, Vitepsk, Courland, Livonia, and East Prussia. There is a difficult problem here. . . . The present distribution of the Lithuanian populations is second only in importance to that of the Ugrians. Livonia is the most convenient starting-point. Here it is spoken at present; though not aboriginal to the province. The Polish, German, and Russian languages have encroached on the Lithuanian, the Lithuanian on the Ugrian. It is the Lett branch of the Lithuanian which is spoken by the Letts of Livonia (Liefland), but not by the Liefs. The same is the case in Courland East Prussia lies beyond the Russian empire, but it is not unnecessary to state that, as late as the sixteenth century, a Lithuanian tongue was spoken there. Vilna, Grodno, and Vitepsk are the proper Lithuanian provinces. There, the original proper Lithuanic tongue still survives; uncultivated, and day by day suffering from the encroachment of the Russian, but, withal, in the eyes of the ethnologist, the most important language in Europe."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe, ch.* 6.

LITTLE BIG HORN, Battle of the. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1876.

LITTLE BRETHREN. See BEGUINES, &c.

LITTLE ROCK, Federal occupation of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (AUGUST—OCTOBER: ARKANSAS—MISSOURI).

LITTLE RUSSIA. See RUSSIA, GREAT.

LITTLE YAHNI, Battle of (1877). See TURKS: A. D. 1877–1878.

LITURGIES.—"It was not only by taxation of its members that the [Athenian] State met its financial needs, but also by many other kinds of services which it demanded from them, and which, though not, like the former, producing an income, yet nevertheless saved an expense. Such services are called Liturgies ['i. e., properly, services for the people.'—Footnote]. They are partly ordinary or 'encyclic'—such, that is, as occurred annually, even in times of peace, according to a certain order, and which all bore some relation to worship and to the celebration of festivals—and partly extraordinary, for the needs of war. Among the former class the most important is the so-called Choregia, i. e., the furnishing of a chorus for musical contests and for festivals. . . . A similar though less burdensome Liturgy was the Gymnasiarchy for those feasts which were celebrated with gymnastic contests. The gymnasiarch, as it seems, was compelled to have all who wished to come forward as competitors trained in the gymnasia, to furnish them with board during the time of training, and at the games themselves to furnish the necessary fittings and ornaments of the place of contest. . . . More important and more costly than all these ordinary or encyclic Liturgies was the extraordinary Liturgy of trierarchy, i. e., the equipment of a ship of war."—G. F. Schömann, *Antiq. of Greece: The State, pt.* 3, *ch.* 3.—"The Liturgiæ, which are sometimes considered as peculiar to the Athenians, . . . were common to all democracies at least [in the Greek states], and even to certain aristocracies or oligarchies. . . . The Liturgiæ of the Greeks were distinguished by a much more generous and noble characteristic than the corresponding services and contributions of the present day. They were considered honorable services. . . . Niggardliness in the performance of them was considered disgraceful. The state needed no paid officer, or contractors to superintend or undertake their execution. . . . The ordinary Liturgiæ . . . are principally the choregia, the gymnasiarchia, and the feasting of the tribes [or hestiasis]. . . . The lampadarchy, if not the only kind, was certainly the most important and expensive kind of gymnasiarchy. The race on foot with a torch in the hand was a common game. The same kind of race was run with horses for the first time at Athens in the time of Socrates. The art consisted, besides other particulars, in running the fastest, and at the same time not extinguishing the torch. . . . Since the festivity was celebrated at night, the illumination of the place which was the scene of the contest was necessary. Games of this kind were celebrated specially in honor of the gods of light and fire. . . . The expenses of the feasting of the tribes were borne by a person selected for this purpose from the tribe. . . . The entertainments, the expenses of which were defrayed by means of this liturgia, were different from the great feastings

of the people, the expenses of which were paid from the treasury of the theorica. They were merely entertainments at the festivals of the tribes."—A. Boeckh, *Public Economy of the Athenians (trans. by Lamb), bk. 3, ch. 1 and 21–23.*

ALSO IN: E. G. Bulwer-Lytton, *Athens, bk. 5, ch. 2.*

LITUS, The.—In the Salic law, of the Franks, the litus appears as representing a class in that Germanic nation. He "was no doubt identical with the serf whom Tacitus represents as cultivating the soil, and paying a rent in kind to his lord. That the litus was not free is evident from the mention of his master and the fact that he could be sold; though we find a weregild set upon his life equal to that of a free Roman."—W. C. Perry, *The Franks, ch. 10.*

LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY, The. See STEAM LOCOMOTION ON LAND.

LIVERPOOL MINISTRY, The. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1812–1813.

LIVERY, Origin of the term.—"After an ancient custom, the kings of France, at great solemnities, gave such of their subjects as were at court certain capes or furred mantles, with which the latter immediately clothed themselves before leaving the court. In the ancient 'comptes' (a sort of audits) these capes were called 'livrées' (whence, no doubt, our word livery), because the monarch gave them ('les livrait') himself."—J. F. Michaud, *Hist. of the Crusades, bk. 13.*

LIVERY COMPANIES. See GUILDS, MEDIÆVAL.

LIVERY OF SEIZIN. See FEUDAL TENURES.

LIVINGSTON MANOR, The.—Robert Livingston, "secretary of Albany," son of a Scotch clergyman, began to acquire a landed estate, by purchases from the Indians, soon after his arrival in America, which was about 1674. "The Mohegan tribes on the east side of the Hudson had become reduced to a few old Indians and squaws, who were ready to sell the lands of which they claimed the ownership. Livingston's position as clerk of Indian affairs gave him exceptional opportunities to select and to purchase the best lands in desirable localities. . . . In 1702, Lord Bellomont [then governor of New York] writes, 'I am told Livingston has on his great grant of 16 miles long and 24 broad, but four or five cottages, occupied by men too poor to be farmers, but are his vassals.' After the close of the war [Queen Anne's War], Livingston made more rapid progress in his improvements. He erected flour and timber mills, and a new manor-house." In 1715 Livingston obtained from Governor Hunter a confirmatory patent, under an exact and careful survey of his estate. "Although it does not give the number of acres, the survey computes the area of the manor to contain 160,240 acres. It was now believed to be secure against any attack. . . . Philip, the second proprietor, was not disturbed as to title or limits. He was a merchant, and resided in New York, spending his summers at the Manor House. . . . His son, Robert, succeeded him as the third proprietor, but he had hardly come into possession before he began to be harassed by his eastern neighbors, the people of Massachusetts. . . . Massachusetts, by her charter, claimed the lands lying west of her eastern boundary to the Pacific Ocean. She had long sought to make settlements within the province of New York. Now as her population increased she pushed them westward, and gradually encroached on lands within the limits of a sister province. In April, 1752, Livingston wrote to Governor Clinton, and entered complaint against the trespassers from Massachusetts. A long correspondence between the governors of the two provinces followed, but settled nothing. The trouble continued," for a number of years, and frequent riots were incident to it, in which several men were killed. At length, "the boundary between New York and Massachusetts was finally settled, and the claimants ceased their annoyance. . . . The Revolution was approaching. The public mind was occupied with politics. . . . Land titles ceased to be topics of discussion. The proprietors of the old manor, and all bearing their name, with a few unimportant exceptions, took a decided stand in favor of independence. During the war that followed, and for some years after its close, their title and possession of their broad acres were undisputed. But in 1795 another effort was made to dispossess them. The old methods of riots and arrests were abandoned. The title was now attacked by the tenants, incited and encouraged by the envious and disaffected. A petition, numerously signed by the tenants of the manor, was sent to the Legislature. . . . The committee to which the petition was referred reported adversely, and this was approved by the House on March 23, 1795. . . . After the failure of 1795 to break the title, there was a season of comparative quiet continued for nearly forty years. Then a combination was formed by the tenants of the old manorial estates, including those of large landed proprietors in other parts of the State, termed 'anti-renters.' It was a civil association with a military organization. It was their purpose to resist the payment of rents. The tenants of the Van Rensselaer and the Livingston Manors, being the most numerous, were the projectors and leaders, giving laws and directions. . . . Landlords and officers were intimidated by bands disguised as Indians, and some property was destroyed. The anti-renters carried their grievances into politics, throwing their votes for the party which would give them the most favorable legislation. In 1844, they petitioned the Legislature to set aside as defective the Van Rensselaer title, and put the tenants in legal possession of the farms they occupied. The petition was referred to the Judiciary Committee of the Assembly, the late Judge William Allen being chairman. Anti-renters of known ability were on the committee, and a favorable report was anticipated. But after a long and thorough investigation of the title . . . the committee unanimously reported against the prayer of the petition. This put an end to the combination, and to the anti-rent war, although resistance to the collection of rents in isolated cases, with bloodshed and loss of life, is still [1885] continued. The landlords, however, particularly the Livingstons, were tired of the strife. They adopted measures of compromise, selling to their tenants the lands they occupied at reduced valuations."—G. W. Schuyler, *Colonial New York, v. 1, pp. 243–285.*

ALSO IN: E. P. Cheyney, *Anti-Rent Agitations in N. Y. (Univ. of Penn. Pubs.).*

LIVINGSTONE, David, Explorations of. See AFRICA: A. D. 1840; 1849; and after.

LIVONIA: 12th-13th Centuries.—First introduction of Commerce and Christianity.—"Till the year A. D. 1158 . . . Livonia was well-nigh utterly unknown to the rest of Europe. Some traders of Bremen then visited it, and formed several settlements along the coast. These commercial relations with their western neighbours first opened up the country to missionary enterprise, and in the year A. D. 1186 one of the merchant-ships of Bremen brought to the mouth of the Düna a venerable canon named Meinhard." Meinhard died in 1196, having accomplished little. He was succeeded by a Cistercian abbot named Berthold, who, being driven away by the obstinate pagans, returned wrathfully in 1198, with a crusading army, which Pope Innocent III. had commissioned him to lead against them. This was the beginning of a long and merciless crusading warfare waged against the Livonians, or Liefianders, and against their Prussian and other Sclavonic neighbors, until all were forced to submit to the religious rites of their conquerors and to call themselves Christians. For the furthering of this crusade, Berthold's successor, Albert von Apeldern, of Bremen (who founded the town of Riga), "instituted, in the year A. D. 1201, with the concurrence of the emperor Otho IV. and the approbation of the Pope, the knightly 'Order of the Sword,' and placed it under the special protection of the Virgin Mary. The members of this order bound themselves by solemn vows to hear mass frequently, to abstain from marriage, to lead a sober and chaste life, and to fight against the heathen. In return for these services they were to have and to enjoy whatever lands they might wrest with their swords from their pagan adversaries. . . . Albert von Apeldern made Riga the starting-point of his operations. Thence, aided by Waldemar II. king of Denmark, he directed the arms of his crusaders against Esthonia, and the neighbouring countries of Semgallen and Courland. On these war-wasted districts he succeeded in imposing a nominal form of Christianity." The Order of the Sword was subsequently united with the Teutonic Order, which turned its crusading energies from the Moslems of the Holy Land to the heathendom of the Baltic.—G. F. Maclear, *Apostles of Mediæval Europe.*

Also in: A. Rambaud, *Hist. of Russia, v.* 1, *ch.* 9—See, also, Prussia: 18th Century.

LLANOS. See Pampas.

LLORENS, Battle of (1645). See Spain A. D. 1644–1646.

LLOYD'S. See Insurance.

LOANO, Battle of. See France: A. D. 1795 (June—December).

LOBBY, The.—"'The Lobby' is the name given in America to persons, not being members of a legislature who undertake to influence its members, and thereby to secure the passing of bills. The term includes both those who, since they hang about the chamber, and make a regular profession of working upon the members, are called 'lobbyists,' and those persons who on any particular occasion may come up to advocate, by argument or solicitation, any particular measure in which they happen to be interested. The name, therefore, does not necessarily impute any improper motive or conduct, though it is commonly used in what Bentham calls a dyslogistic sense."—J. Bryce, *The Am. Commonwealth, v.* 1, *app. note (B) to ch.* 16.

LOBOSITZ, OR LOWOSITZ, Battle of. See Germany: A. D. 1756.

LOCH LEVEN, Mary Stuart's captivity at. See Scotland: A. D. 1561-1568.

LOCHLANN.—The Celtic name for Norway, meaning Lakeland.

LOCKE'S CONSTITUTION FOR THE CAROLINAS. See North Carolina: A. D. 1669–1693.

LOCOFOCOS.—"In 1835, in the city and county of New York, a portion of the democrats organized themselves into the 'equal rights' party. At a meeting in Tammany Hall they attempted to embarrass the proceedings of the democratic nominating committee, by presenting a chairman in opposition to the one supported by the regular democrats. Both parties came to a dead lock, and, in the midst of great confusion, the committee extinguished the lights. The equal rights men immediately relighted the room with candles and locofoco matches, with which they had provided themselves From this they received the name of locofocos, a designation which, for a time, was applied to the whole democratic party by the opposition."—W R. Houghton, *Hist. of Am. Politics, p.* 219.

LOCRI.—The city of Locri, or Locri Epizephyrii, an ancient Greek settlement in Southern Italy, was founded by the Locrians as early as B C. 683. The elder Dionysius, tyrant of Syracuse, married a Locrian woman and showed great favor to the city, of which he acquired control; but it suffered terribly from his son, the younger Dionysius, who transferred his residence to Locri when first driven from Syracuse

LOCRIANS, The. See Lokrians

LODGER FRANCHISE. See England: A. D. 1884–1885.

LODI, Battle of. See France. A. D. 1796 (April—October).

LODI, Treaty of (1454). See Milan: A. D. 1447–1454; and Italy: A. D. 1447–1480.

LOEN, OR STADTLOHN, Battle of (1623). See Germany: A. D. 1621–1623.

LŒTIC COLONIES.—During and after the civil wars of the declining years of the Roman empire, large numbers of Germans were enlisted in the service of the rival factions, and were recompensed by gifts of land, on which they settled as colonists. "They were called Læti, and the colonies lœtic colonies, probably from the German word 'leute,' people, because they were regarded as the people or men of the empire."—P. Godwin, *Hist. of France: Ancient Gaul, bk.* 3, *ch.* 9, *foot-note.*

LOG, The. See Ephah.

LOG CABIN AND HARD CIDER CAMPAIGN. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1840.

LOGAN CROSS ROADS, Battle of. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1862 (January—February: Kentucky—Tennessee).

LOGAN'S WRONGS.—LOGAN'S WAR.—LOGAN'S FAMOUS SPEECH. See Ohio (Valley): A. D. 1774.

LÖGBERG, The. See Thing.

LOGI, The. See Britain: Celtic Tribes.

LOGISTÆ AND EUTHYNI, The.—"In Athens, all accounts, with the exception of those of the generals, were rendered to the logistæ and euthyni. Both authorities, before and after the archonship of Euclid, existed together at the same time. Their name itself shows that the

logistæ were auditors of accounts. The euthyni were in immediate connection with them. . . . The logistæ were the principal persons in the auditing board."—A. Boeckh, *Public Economy of Athens* (*trans. by Lamb*), *bk.* 2, *ch.* 8.

LOGOGRAPHI, The.—The earlier Ionian Greek historians "confined their attention to the circle of myths and antiquities connected with single families, single cities and districts. These were the Ionic 'logographi,' so called because they noted down in easy narrative the remarkable facts that they had collected and obtained by inquiry as to the foundation of the cities, the myths of the prehistoric age, and the natural, political, and social condition of different countries."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece*, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 3 (*v.* 2).

LOGOTHETES.—A class of officers created under Justinian for the administration of the imperial finances in Italy, after its conquest from the Goths. Their functions corresponded with those of a modern auditor, or comptroller.—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and Her Invaders*, *bk.* 5, *ch.* 15 (*v.* 4).

LOGSTOWN.—About the middle of the 18th century, Logstown was "an important Indian village a little below the site of the present city of Pittsburg. Here usually resided Tanacharisson, a Seneca chief of great note, being head sachem of the mixed tribes which had migrated to the Ohio and its branches. He was generally surnamed the half-king, being subordinate to the Iroquois confederacy."—W. Irving, *Life of Washington*, *v.* 1, *ch.* 5.

LOIDIS. See ELMET.

LOJA: Sieges and capture by the Spaniards (1482-1483). See SPAIN: A. D. 1476–1492.

LOJERA, Battle of (1353). See CONSTANTINOPLE: A. D. 1348–1355.

LOKRIANS, The.—"The coast [of Greece, in ancient times] opposite to the western side of Eubœa, from the neighbourhood of Thermopylæ as far as the Bœotian frontier at Anthedon, was possessed by the Lokrians, whose northern frontier town, Alpeni, was conterminous with the Malians. There was, however, one narrow strip of Phokis—the town of Daphnus, where the Phokians also touched the Eubœan sea—which broke this continuity and divided the Lokrians into two sections,—Lokrians of Mount Knemis, or Epiknemidian Lokrians, and Lokrians of Opus, or Opuntian Lokrians. . . . Besides these two sections of the Lokrian name, there was also a third, completely separate, and said to have been colonised from Opus,—the Lokrians surnamed Ozolæ,—who dwelt apart on the western side of Phokis, along the northern coast of the Corinthian Gulf. . . . Opus prided itself on being the mother-city of the Lokrian name."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 8 (*v.* 2).

LOLLARDS, The. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1360–1414: and BEGUINES.—BEGHARDS.

LOLLARDS' TOWER.—When the persecution of the Lollards, or disciples of Wyclif, began in England early in the 15th century, under Henry IV., the prisons were soon crowded, and the Archbishop of Canterbury found need of building an additional tower to his palace at Lambeth for the custody of them. The Lollards' Tower, as it was named, is still standing, with the rings in its walls to which the captives were chained.

LOMBARD BANKERS. See MONEY AND BANKING: MEDIÆVAL.—FLORENTINE.

LOMBARDS, OR LANGOBARDI.—Early history.—"The Langobardi . . . are ennobled by the smallness of their numbers; since, though surrounded by many powerful nations, they derive security, not from obsequiousness, but from their martial enterprise."—Tacitus, *Germany*, *Oxford trans.*, *ch.* 40.—"In the reign of Augustus, the Langobardi dwelt on this side the Elbe, between Luneburg and Magdeburg. When conquered and driven beyond the Elbe by Tiberius, they occupied that part of the country where are now Prignitz, Ruppin, and part of the Middle Marche. They afterward founded the Lombard kingdom in Italy."—*Translator's note to above.*—The etymology which explains the name of the Lombards or Langobardi by finding in it a reference to the length of their beards is questioned by some modern writers. Sheppard ("Fall of Rome") conjectures that the name originally meant "long-spears" rather than "long-beards." Other writers derive the name "from the district they inhabited on the banks of the Elbe, where Börde (or Bord) still signifies 'a fertile plain by the side of a river,' and a district near Magdeburg is still called the lange Börde. According to this view, Langobardi would signify 'inhabitants of the long bord of the river'; and traces of their name are supposed still to occur in such names as Bardengau and Bardewick, in the neighbourhood of the Elbe."—Dr. W. Smith, *Note to Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, *ch.* 42.—From the Elbe the Langobardi moved in time to the Danube. "Here they encountered the Gepidæ, who, . . . after having taken a leading part in the defeat and dispersion of the Huns in the great battle of Netad [A. D. 453], had settled in the plains of Upper Hungary and on the Transylvanian hills. For thirty years these two powerful tribes continued a contest in which both sides sought the assistance of the Greek emperor, and both were purposely encouraged in their rivalry with a view to their common destruction." In 566 the struggle was decided by a tremendous battle in which the Gepidæ were crushed. The Lombards, in this last encounter, had secured the aid of the pretended Avars, then lately arrived on the Danube; but the prestige of the overwhelming victory attached itself to the name of the young Lombard king, Alboin. "In the days of Charlemagne, the songs of the German peasant still told of his beauty, his heroic qualities, and the resistless vigour of his sword. His renown crossed the Alps, and fell, with a foreboding sound, upon the startled ears of the Italians, now experienced in the varied miseries of invasion."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, *lect.* 6.

A. D. 568-573.—Conquests and settlement in Italy.—When the Lombards and the Avars crushed the nation of the Gepidæ (see AVARS), in 566, it was one of the terms of the bargain between them that the former should surrender to the Avars, not only the conquered territory—in Wallachia, Moldavia, Transylvania and part of Hungary—but, also, their own homes in Pannonia and Noricum. No doubt the ambitious Lombard king, Alboin, had thoughts of an easy conquest of Italy in his mind when he assented to so strange an agreement. Fourteen years before, the Lombard warriors had traversed the sunny peninsula in the army of Narses, as friends and allies of the Roman-Greeks. The recollection of its charms, and of its still surviving

wealth, invited them to return. Their old leader, Narses, had been deposed from the exarchate at Ravenna; it is possible that he encouraged their coming. "It was not an army, but an entire nation, which descended the Alps of Friuli in the year 568. The exarch Longinus, who had succeeded Narses, shut himself up within the walls of Ravenna, and offered no other resistance. Pavia, which had been well fortified by the kings of the Ostrogoths, closed its gates, and sustained a siege of four years. Several other towns, Padua, Monzelice, and Mantua, opposed their isolated forces, but with less perseverance. The Lombards advanced slowly into the country, but still they advanced; at their approach, the inhabitants fled to the fortified towns upon the sea coast in the hope of being relieved by the Greek fleet, or at least of finding a refuge in the ships, if it became necessary to surrender the place. . . . The islands of Venice received the numerous fugitives from Venetia, and at their head the patriarch of Aquileia, who took up his abode at Grado; Ravenna opened its gates to the fugitives from the two banks of the Po; Genoa to those from Liguria; the inhabitants of La Romagna, between Rimini and Ancona, retired to the cities of the Pentapolis; Pisa, Rome, Gaeta, Naples, Amalfi, and all the maritime towns of the south of Italy were peopled at the same time by crowds of fugitives."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 11 (*v.* 1). —"From the Trentine hills to the gates of Ravenna and Rome, the inland regions of Italy became, without a battle or a siege, the lasting patrimony of the Lombards. . . . One city, which had been diligently fortified by the Goths, resisted the arms of a new invader; and, while Italy was subdued by the flying detachments of the Lombards, the royal camp was fixed above three years before the western gate of Ticinum, or Pavia. . . . The impatient besieger had bound himself by a tremendous oath that age, and sex, and dignity should be confounded in a general massacre. The aid of famine at length enabled him to execute his bloody vow; but as Alboin entered the gate his horse stumbled, fell, and could not be raised from the ground. One of his attendants was prompted by compassion, or piety, to interpret this miraculous sign of the wrath of Heaven: the conqueror paused and relented. . . . Delighted with the situation of a city which was endeared to his pride by the difficulty of the purchase, the prince of the Lombards disdained the ancient glories of Milan; and Pavia during some ages was respected as the capital of the kingdom of Italy."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 45.

A. D. 573-754.—Their kingdom.—Alboin survived but a short time the conquest of his Italian kingdom. He was murdered in June, 573, at the instigation of his wife, the Gepid princess Rosamond, whose alliance with him had been forced and hateful. His successor, Clef, or Clepho, a chief elected by the assembly of the nation at Pavia, reigned but eighteen months, when he, too, was murdered. After a distracted period of ten years, in which there was no king, the young son of Clepho, named Autharis, came to manhood and was raised to the throne. "Under the standard of their new king, the conquerors of Italy withstood three successive invasions [of the Franks and the Alemanni], one of which was led by Childebert himself, the last of the Merovingian race who descended from the Alps. . . . During a period of 200 years Italy was unequally divided between the kingdom of the Lombards and the exarchate of Ravenna. . . . From Pavia, the royal seat their kingdom [that of the Lombards] was extended to the east, the north, and the west, as far as the confines of the Avars, the Bavarians, and the Franks of Austrasia and Burgundy In the language of modern geography, it is now represented by the Terra Firma of the Venetian republic, Tyrol, the Milanese, Piedmont, the coast of Genoa, Mantua, Parma, and Modena, the grand duchy of Tuscany, and a large portion of the ecclesiastical state from Perugia to the Adriatic. The dukes, and at length the princes, of Beneventum, survived the monarchy, and propagated the name of the Lombards. From Capua to Tarentum, they reigned near 500 years over the greatest part of the present kingdom of Naples."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 45.

A. D. 754-774.—The Fall of their monarchy. —Charlemagne's conquest.—Until 754 the Lombard kings pursued a generally prosperous career of aggrandizement, in Italy. They had succeeded, at the last, in expelling the exarchs of the Eastern Empire from Ravenna and in taking possession of that capital, with much of the territory and many of the cities in central Italy which depended on it. These successes inflamed their determination to acquire Rome, which had practically resumed its independence, and theoretically reconstituted itself a republic, with the Pope, in fact, ruling it as an actual prince. In 753 the Papal chair was filled by Stephen II. and the Lombard throne by King Aistaulf, or Astolphus. The former, being newly threatened by the latter, made a journey to the court of the Frank king, Pippin, to solicit his aid. Pippin was duly grateful for the sanction which the preceding pope had given to his seizure of the Merovingian crown, and he responded to the appeal in a vigorous way. In a short campaign beyond the Alps, in 754, he extorted from the Lombard king a promise to make over the cities of the exarchate to the Pope and to respect his domain. But the promise was broken as soon as made. The Franks were hardly out of Italy before Aistulf was ravaging the environs of Rome and assailing its gates. On this provocation Pippin came back the next year and humbled the Lombard more effectually, stripping him of additional territory, for the benefit of the Pope, taking heavy ransom and tributes from him, and binding him by oaths and hostages to acknowledge the supremacy of the king of the Franks. This chastisement sufficed for nearly twenty years; but in 773 the Pope (now Hadrian) was driven once more to appeal to the Frank monarch for protection against his northern neighbors. Pippin was dead and his great son Charles, or Charlemagne, had quarrels of his own with Lombardy to second the Papal call. He passed the Alps at the head of a powerful army, reduced Pavia after a year-long siege and made a complete conquest of the kingdom, immuring its late king in a cloister for the remainder of his days. He also confirmed, it is said, the territorial "donations" of his father to the Holy See and added some provinces to them. "Thus the kingdom of the Lombards, after a stormy existence of over two hundred years, was

forever extinguished. Comprising Piedmont, Genoa, the Milanese, Tuscany, and several smaller states, it constituted the most valuable acquisition, perhaps, the Franks had lately achieved. Their limits were advanced by it from the Alps to the Tiber; yet, in the disposal of his spoil, the magnanimous conqueror regarded the forms of government which had been previously established. He introduced no changes that were not deemed indispensable. The native dukes and counts were confirmed in their dignities; the national law was preserved, and the distributions of land maintained, Karl receiving the homage of the Lombard lords as their feudal sovereign, and reserving to himself only the name of King of Lombardy."—P. Godwin, *Hist. of France: Ancient Gaul, ch.* 15–16.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 49.—J. I. Mombert, *Charlemagne, bk.* 1, *ch.* 2, *and bk.* 2, *ch.* 2.—J. Bryce, *The Holy Roman Empire, ch.* 4–5.—See, also, PAPACY: A. D. 728–774.

LOMBARDY: A. D. 754.—Charlemagne's reconstitution of the kingdom. See LOMBARDS: A. D. 754–774.

A. D. 961-1039.—The subjection to Germany. See ITALY: A. D. 961–1039.

A. D. 1056-1152.—The rise of the Republican cities. See ITALY: A. D. 1056–1152.

A. D. 1154-1183.—The wars of Frederick Barbarossa against the Communes.—The League of Lombardy. See ITALY: A. D. 1154–1162, to 1174–1183; and FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: MEDIÆVAL LEAGUE OF LOMBARDY.

A. D. 1183-1250.—The conflict with Frederick II. See ITALY: A. D. 1183–1250.

A. D. 1250-1520.—The Age of the Despots. See ITALY: A. D. 1250–1520.

A. D. 1277-1447.—Rise and domination of the Visconti of Milan, and the dissolution of their threatening tyranny. See MILAN: A. D. 1277–1447.

A. D. 1310-1313.—Visit of the Emperor Henry VII.—His coronation with the Iron Crown. See ITALY: A. D. 1310–1313.

A. D. 1327-1330.—Visit and coronation of Louis IV. of Bavaria. See ITALY: A. D. 1313–1330.

A. D. 1360-1391.—The Free Companies and the wars with Florence and with the Pope. See ITALY: A. D. 1343–1393.

A. D. 1412-1422.—Reconquest by Filippo Maria Visconti, third duke of Milan. See ITALY: A. D. 1412–1447.

A. D. 1447-1454.—Disputed succession of the Visconti in Milan.—The duchy seized by Francesco Sforza.—War of Venice, Naples, and other States against Milan and Florence. See MILAN: A. D. 1447–1454.

A. D. 1492-1544.—The struggle for the Milanese territory, until its acquisition by the Spanish crown. See references under MILAN: A. D. 1492–1496, to 1544.

A. D. 1713.—Cession of the duchy of Milan to Austria. See UTRECHT: A. D. 1712–1714.

A. D. 1745-1746.—Occupied by the Spaniards and French and recovered by the Austrians. See ITALY: A. D. 1745; and 1746–1747.

A. D. 1749-1792.—Under Austrian rule, after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. See ITALY: A. D. 1749–1792.

A. D. 1796-1797.—Conquest by Bonaparte.—Creation of the Cisalpine Republic. See FRANCE: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER); 1796–1797 (OCTOBER—APRIL); and 1797 (MAY—OCTOBER).

A. D. 1799.—French evacuation. See FRANCE: A. D. 1799 (APRIL—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1800.—Recovery by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1800–1801 (MAY—FEBRUARY).

A. D. 1805.—The Iron Crown bestowed on Napoleon, as King of Italy. See FRANCE: A. D. 1804–1805.

A. D. 1814.—French evacuation. See ITALY: A. D. 1814.

A. D. 1814-1815.—Restored to Austria.—Formation of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (APRIL—JUNE); VIENNA, THE CONGRESS OF; ITALY: A. D. 1814–1815; and AUSTRIA: A. D. 1815–1846.

A. D. 1848-1849.—The struggle for freedom from Austrian misrule and its failure. See ITALY: A. D. 1848–1849.

A. D. 1859.—Emancipation from the Austrians.—Absorption in the kingdom of Italy. See ITALY: A. D. 1856–1859; and 1859–1861.

LOMBARDY, The iron crown of.—The crown of the Lombard kings was so called because lined with an iron band, believed to have been wrought of the nails used in the Crucifixion J. I. Mombert, *Charles the Great, bk.* 2, *ch.* 2

LOMBOK. See MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.

LONATO, Battle of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER).

LONDINIUM.—The Roman name of the city of London. See LONDON.

LONDON: The origin of the city and its name.—"When Plautius [Aulus Plautius, who, in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, A. D. 43, led the second Roman invasion of Britain, that of Cæsar having been the first] withdrew his soldiers from the marshes they had vainly attempted to cross, he, no doubt, encamped them somewhere in the neighbourhood. I believe the place was London. The name of London refers directly to the marshes, though I cannot here enter into a philological argument to prove the fact. At London the Roman general was able both to watch his enemy and to secure the conquests he had made, while his ships could supply him with all the necessaries he required. When, in the autumn of the year 43, he drew the lines of circumvallation round his camp, I believe he founded the present metropolis of Britain. The notion entertained by some antiquaries that a British town preceded the Roman camp has no foundation to rest upon, and is inconsistent with all we know of the early geography of this part of Britain."—E. Guest, *Origines Celticae, v.* 2, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 13.—"Old as it is, London is far from being one of the oldest of British cities; till the coming of the Romans, indeed, the loneliness of its site seems to have been unbroken by any settlement whatever. The 'dun' was, in fact, the centre of a vast wilderness. . . . We know nothing of the settlement of the town; but its advantages as the first landing-place along the Thames secured for it at once the command of all trading intercourse with Gaul, and through Gaul with the empire at large. So rapid was its growth that only a few years after the landing of Claudius [who joined Aulus Plautius in the

autumn of 43] London had risen into a flourishing port."—J. R. Green, *The Making of England, ch.* 3.—"The derivation of 'Londinium' from 'Llyn-din,' the lake fort, seems to agree best with the situation and the history. The Roman could not frame to pronounce the British word 'Llyn,' a word which must have sounded to his ears very much like 'Clun,' or 'Lun,' and the fact, if it is a fact, that Llyn was turned into Lon, goes to increase the probability that this is the correct derivation of the name. The first founder called his fastness the 'Fort of the Lake,' and this is all that remains of him or it. . . . London was in those days emphatically a Llyn-din, the river itself being more like a broad lake than a stream, and behind the fortress lying the 'great northern lake,' as a writer so late as Fitz-stephen calls it, where is now Moorfields. I take it, it was something very like an island, if not quite—a piece of high ground rising out of lake, and swamp, and estuary."—W. J. Loftie, *Hist. of London, ch.* 1, *and foot-note.*

A. D. 61.—Destruction by the Iceni.—Londinium was one of the Roman towns in Britain destroyed by the Iceni, at the time of the furious insurrection to which they were incited by their outraged queen Boadicea, A. D. 61. It "was crowded with Roman residents, crowded still more at this moment with fugitives from the country towns and villas: but it was undefended by walls, its population of traders was of little account in military eyes, and Suetonius sternly determined to leave it, with all the wealth it harboured, to the barbarians, rather than sacrifice his soldiers in the attempt to save it. . . . Amidst the overthrow of the great cities of southern Britain, not less than 70,000 Roman colonists . . . perished. The work of twenty years was in a moment undone. Far and wide every vestige of Roman civilization was trodden into the soil. At this day the workmen who dig through the foundations of the Norman and the Saxon London, strike beneath them on the traces of a double Roman city, between which lies a mass of charred and broken rubbish, attesting the conflagration of the terrible Boadicea."—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans, ch.* 51.

4th Century.—The Roman Augusta and its walls.—"It is certain that, either under Constantine [the emperor] himself, or under one of his immediate successors, the outer wall was built. Though the building of the Roman wall, which still in a sense defines the city boundaries, is an event in the history of London not second in importance even to its foundation, since it made a mere village and fort with a 'tête du pont' into a great city and the capital of provincial Britain, yet we have no records by which an exact date can be assigned to it. All we know is that in 350 London had no wall: and in 369 the wall existed. The new wall must have taken in an immense tract of what was until then open country, especially along the Watling Street, towards Cheap and Newgate. It transformed London into Augusta; and though the new name hardly appears on the page of history, and never without a reference to the older one, its existence proves the increase in estimation which was then accorded to the place. The object of this extensive circumvallation is not very clear. The population to be protected might very well have been crowded into a much smaller space. . . . The wall enclosed a space of 380 acres, being 5,485 yards in length, or 3 miles and 205 yards. The portion along the river extended from Blackfriars to the Tower."—W. J. Loftie, *Hist. of London, ch.* 2 (*v.* 1).—"The historian Ammianus Marcellinus, who wrote about A. D. 380, in the reign of Gratian, states that Londinium (he calls it Lundinium) was in his days called Augusta. From him we learn that Lupicinus, who was sent by Julian to repress the inroads of the Scots and Picts, made Londinium his head quarters, and there concerted the plan of the campaign. In the reign of Valentinian Britain was again disturbed, not only by the northern barbarians, but also by the Franks and Saxons. Theodosius, who was appointed commander of the legions and cohorts selected for this service, came from Boulogne, by way of Rutupiæ, to Londinium, the same route taken a few years previously by Lupicinus, and there he also matured his plan for the restoration of the tranquillity of the province. It is on this occasion that Marcellinus speaks twice of Londinium as an ancient town, then called Augusta. By the anonymous chorographer of Ravenna it is called Londinium Augusta; and it is in this sense, a cognomen or distinguishing appellation, as applied to a pre-eminent town or capital, that we must probably understand the term as used by Marcellinus in relation to Londinium. . . . The extent of Londinium, from Ludgate on the west to the Tower on the east, was about a mile, and about half a mile from the wall on the north (London Wall) to the Thames, giving dimensions far greater than those of any other Roman town in Britain. These were the limits of the city when the Romans relinquished the dominion of the island."—Chas. Roach Smith, *Illustrations of Roman London, pp.* 11–12.

4th Century.—The growth of the Roman city.—"That London gradually increased in importance beyond the dignity of a commercial city is plain, from the mention of it in the Itinera, which show the number of marching roads beginning and terminating there. . . . London then [in the times of Julian and Theodosius] bore the name of 'Augusta,' or 'Londinium Augusta,' and this title is only applied to cities of pre-eminent importance. The area of Roman London was considerable, and, from discoveries made at different times, appears to have extended with the growth of Roman power. The walls when the Romans left Britain reached from Ludgate, on the west, to the Tower on the east, about one mile in length, and from London Wall to the Thames. . . . It also extended across the river on the Kentish side."—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain, ch.* 15.—"Roman London was built on the elevated ground on both sides of a stream, known in after time by the name of Wallbrook, which ran into the Thames not far from Southwark Bridge. . . . Its walls were identical with those which enclosed the mediæval city of London. . . . The northern and north-eastern parts of the town were occupied with extensive and—to judge by the remains which have been brought to light—magnificent mansions. . . . At the period to which our last chapter had brought us [A. D. 358], the city had extended to the other side of the Thames, and the borough of Southwark stands upon ground which covers the floors of Roman houses and the pavings of Roman streets."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon, ch.* 5.

ALSO IN: C. Roach Smith, *Antiquities of Roman London.*

6th-9th Centuries.—During the Saxon conquest and settlement.—For nearly half a century after its conquest by the East-Saxons (which took place probably about the middle of the 6th century) London "wholly disappears from our view." "We know nothing of the circumstances of its conquest, of the fate of its citizens, or of the settlement of the conquerors within its walls. That some such settlement had taken place, at least as early as the close of the seventh century, is plain from the story of Mellitus, when placed as bishop within its walls [see ENGLAND: A. D. 597–685]; but it is equally plain that the settlement was an English one, that the provincials had here as elsewhere disappeared, and that the ruin of the city had been complete. Had London merely surrendered to the East-Saxons and retained its older population and municipal life, it is hard to imagine how, within less than half a century, its burghers could have so wholly lost all trace of Christianity that not even a ruined church, as at Canterbury, remained for the use of the Christian bishop, and that the first care of Mellitus was to set up a mission church in the midst of a heathen population. It is even harder to imagine how all trace of the municipal institutions to which the Roman towns clung so obstinately should have so utterly disappeared. But more direct proofs of the wreck of the town meet us in the stray glimpses which we are able to get of its earlier topographical history. The story of early London is not that of a settled community slowly putting off the forms of Roman for those of English life, but of a number of little groups scattered here and there over the area within the walls, each growing up with its own life and institutions, gilds, sokes, religious houses, and the like, and only slowly drawing together into a municipal union which remained weak and imperfect even at the Norman Conquest. . . . Its position indeed was such that traffic could not fail to recreate the town; for whether a bridge or a ferry existed at this time, it was here that the traveller from Kent or Gaul would still cross the Thames, and it was from London that the roads still diverged which, silent and desolate as they had become, furnished the means of communication to any part of Britain."—J. R. Green, *The Conq. of Eng., pp.* 149 *and* 452–459.—"London may be said after this time [early in the 9th century] to be no longer the capital of one Saxon kingdom, but to be the special property of whichever king of whichever kingdom was then paramount in all England. When the supremacy of Mercia declined, and that of Wessex arose, London went to the conqueror. In 823, Egbert receives the submission of Essex, and in 827 he is in London, and in 833 a Witan is held there, at which he presides. Such are the scanty notes from which the history of London during the so-called Heptarchy must be compiled. . . . London had to bear the brunt of the attack [of the Danes] at first. Her walls wholly failed to protect her. Time after time the freebooters broke in. If the Saxons had spared anything of Roman London, it must have disappeared now. Massacre, slavery, and fire became familiar in her streets. At last the Danes seemed to have looked on her as their headquarters, and when, in 872, Alfred was forced to make truce with them, they actually retired to London as to their own city, to recruit. To Alfred, with his military experience and political sagacity, the possession of London was a necessity; but he had to wait long before he obtained it. His preparations were complete in 884. The story of the conflict is the story of his life. His first great success was the capture of London after a short siege: to hold it was the task of all his later years."—W. J. Loftie, *Hist. of London, ch.* 3 (*v.* 1).—See, also, ENGLAND: A. D. 477–527.

A. D. 1013-1016.—Resistance to the Danes. See ENGLAND: A. D. 979–1016.

12th Century.—Magnitude and importance of the city.—"We find them [the Londoners] active in the civil war of Stephen and Matilda. The famous bishop of Winchester tells the Londoners that they are almost accounted as noblemen on account of the greatness of their city; into the community of which it appears that some barons had been received. Indeed, the citizens, themselves, or at least the principal of them, were called barons. It was certainly by far the greatest city in England. There have been different estimates of its population, some of which are extravagant; but I think it could hardly have contained less than 80,000 or 40,000 souls within its walls; and the suburbs were very populous."—H. Hallam, *The Middle Ages, ch.* 8, *pt.* 3 (*v.* 3).

14th Century.—Guilds.—Livery Companies. See GUILDS.

A. D. 1381.—In the hands of the followers of Wat Tyler and John Ball. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1381.

16th Century.—In Shakespeare's time.—"The London of those days did not present the gigantic uniformity of the modern metropolis, and had not as yet become wholly absorbed in the whirl of business life. It was not as yet a whole province covered with houses, but a city of moderate size, surveyable from end to end, with walls and gates, beyond which lay pleasant suburbs. . . . Compared with the London of today, it possessed colour and the stamp of originality; for, as in the southern climes, business and domestic operations were carried on in the streets—and then the red houses with their woodwork, high gables, oriel windows and terraces, and the inhabitants in picturesque and gay attire. The upper circles of society did not, as yet, live apart in other districts; the nobility still had their mansions among the burgher class and the working people. Queen Elizabeth might be seen driving in an unwieldy gilt coach to some solemn service in St. Paul's Cathedral, or riding through the city to the Tower, to her hunting grounds, to a review of her troops, or might be seen starting for Richmond or Greenwich, accompanied by a brilliant retinue, on one of her magnificent barges that were kept in readiness close to where the theatres stood. Such a scene, with but little stretch of the imagination, might have led Shakespeare to think of the brilliant picture of Cleopatra on the Cydnus. The Thames was crossed by one bridge only, and was still pure and clear as crystal; swans swam about on it, and gardens and meadows lined its banks where we now have dusty wharfs and warehouses. Hundreds of boats would be skimming up and down the stream, and incessant would be the calls between the boatmen of

'Westward ho!' or 'Eastward ho!' And yet the loungers in the Temple Gardens and at Queenhithe could amuse themselves by catching salmon. In the streets crowds would be passing to and fro; above all, the well-known and dreaded apprentices, whose business it was to attract customers by calling out in front of the shops: 'What d'ye lack, gentles? what d'ye lack? My ware is best! Here shall you have your choice!' &c. Foreigners, too, of every nationality, resident in London, would be met with. Amid all this life every now and again would be seen the perambulation of one or other of the guilds, wedding processions, groups of country folk, gay companies of train-bands and archers. . . . The city was rich in springs and gardens and the inhabitants still had leisure to enjoy their existence; time had not yet come to be synonymous with money, and men enjoyed their gossip at the barbers' and tobacconists' shops; at the latter, instruction was even given in the art of smoking, and in 1614 it is said that there were no less than 7,000 such shops in London. St. Paul's was a rendezvous for promenaders and idle folk; and on certain days, Smithfield and its Fair would be the centre of attraction; also Bartholomew Fair, with its puppet-shows and exhibitions of curiosities, where Bankes and his dancing-horse Morocco created a great sensation for a long time; Southwark, too, with its Paris Garden, attracted visitors to see the bear-baiting; it was here that the famous bear Sackerson put the women in a pleasant state of flutter; Master Slender had seen the bear loose twenty times, and taken it by the chain. No less attractive were the bowling-alleys, the fights at the Cock-pit and the tent-pegging in the tiltyard; and yet all these amusements were even surpassed by the newly-risen star of the theatre. . . . The population of London during the reign of the Bloody Mary is estimated by the Venetian ambassador, Giovanni Micheli, at 150,000, or, according to other MS. reports of his, at 180,000 souls. The population must have increased at an almost inconceivable rate, if we are to trust the reports of a second Venetian ambassador, Marc Antonio Correr, who, in 1610, reckoned the number of inhabitants at 300,000 souls; however, according to Raumer, another Venetian, Molino, estimated the population at 300,000 in 1607. The number of foreigners in London was extremely large, and in 1621 the colony of foreigners of all nations found settled there amounted to no less than 10,000 persons. Commerce, trade, and the industries were in a very flourishing state. The Thames alone, according to John Norden in his MS. description of Essex (1594), gave occupation to 40,000 men as boatmen, sailors, fishermen, and others. Great political and historical events had put new life into the English nation, and given it an important impetus, which manifested itself in London more especially, and exercised a stimulating influence upon literature and poetry. Indeed, it may be said that Shakespeare had the good fortune of having his life cast in one of the greatest historical periods, the gravitating point of which lay principally in London."—K. Elze, *William Shakespeare, ch.* 8.

A. D. 1647.—Outbreak against the Independents and the Army. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1647 (APRIL—AUGUST).

A. D. 1665.—The Great Plague.—"The water supply, it is now generally acknowledged, is the first cause of epidemic disease. In London, at the beginning of the reign of James I., it was threefold. Some water came to public conduits, like those in Cheap, by underground pipes from Tyburn. Some was drawn by water-wheels and other similar means from the Thames, polluted as it was, at London Bridge. A third source of supply was still more dangerous, in all the suburbs, and probably also in most houses in the city itself, people depended on wells. What wells among habitations, and especially filthy habitations, become, we know now, but in the 17th century, and much later, the idea of their danger had not been started. Such being the conditions of existence in London, the plague now and then smouldering for a year or two, now and then breaking out as in 1603, 1625, and 1636, a long drouth, which means resort to half dry and stagnant reservoirs, was sufficient to call it forth in all its strength. The heat of the summer weather in 1665 was such that the very birds of the air were imagined to languish in their flight. The 7th of June, said Pepys, was the hottest day that ever he felt in his life. The deaths from the plague, which had begun at the end of the previous year, in the suburb of St. Giles' in the Fields, at a house in Long Acre, where two Frenchmen had died of it, rose during June from 112 to 268. The entries in the diary are for four months almost continuous as to the progress of the plague. Although it was calculated that not less than 200,000 people had followed the example of the king and court, and fled from the doomed city, yet the deaths increased daily. The lord mayor, Lawrence, held his ground, as did the brave earl of Craven and General Monk, now became duke of Albemarle. Craven provided a burial-ground, the Pest Field, with a kind of cottage-hospital in Soho, but the only remedy that could be devised by the united wisdom of the corporation, fortified by the presence of the duke and the earl, was to order fires in all the streets, as if the weather was not already hot enough. Medical art seems to have utterly broken down. Those of the sick who were treated by a physician, only died a more painful death by cupping, scarifying and blistering. The city rectors, too, who had come back with the king, fled from the danger, as might be expected from their antecedents, and the nonconformist lecturers who remained had overwhelming congregations wherever they preached repentence to the terror-stricken people. . . . The symptoms were very distressing. Fever and vomiting were among the first, and every little ailment was thought premonitory, so that it was said at the time that as many died of fright as of the disease itself. . . . The fatal signs were glandular swellings which ran their course in a few hours, the plague spots turning to gangrene almost as soon as they appeared. The patients frequently expired the same day that they were seized. . . . The most terrible stories of premature burial were circulated. All business was suspended. Grass grew in the streets. No one went about. The rumbling wheels of the cart, and the cry, 'Bring out your dead!' alone broke the stillness of the night. . . . In the first weeks of September the number of fatal cases rose to, 1,500 a day, the bills of mortality recording 24,000 deaths between the 1st and 21st of that month. Then at last it began to decline, but rose again at the beginning of October. A change of weather at length occurred,

and the average declined so rapidly that, by the beginning of November, the number of deaths was reduced to 1,200, and before Christmas came it had fallen to the usual number of former years. In all, the official statements enumerated 97,306 deaths during the year, and, if we add those unrecorded, a very moderate estimate of the whole mortality would place it at the appalling figure of 100,000 at least."—W. J. Loftie, *Hist. of London, ch.* 11 (*v.* 1).

ALSO IN: S. Pepys, *Diary*, 1665.

A. D. 1666.—The Great Fire.—"While the war [with the Dutch] continued without any decisive success on either side, a calamity happened in London which threw the people into great consternation. Fire, breaking out [September 2, 1666] in a baker's house near the bridge, spread itself on all sides with such rapidity that no efforts could extinguish it, till it laid in ashes a considerable part of the city. The inhabitants, without being able to provide effectually for their relief, were reduced to be spectators of their own ruin; and were pursued from street to street by the flames which unexpectedly gathered round them. Three days and nights did the fire advance; and it was only by the blowing up of houses that it was at last extinguished. . . . About 400 streets and 13,000 houses were reduced to ashes. The causes of the calamity were evident. The narrow streets of London, the houses built entirely of wood, the dry season, and a violent east wind which blew; these were so many concurring circumstances which rendered it easy to assign the reason of the destruction that ensued. But the people were not satisfied with this obvious account. Prompted by blind rage, some ascribed the guilt to the republicans, others to the Catholics. . . . The fire of London, though at that time a great calamity, has proved in the issue beneficial both to the city and the kingdom. The city was rebuilt in a very little time, and care was taken to make the streets wider and more regular than before. . . . London became much more healthy after the fire." —D. Hume, *Hist. of Eng., ch.* 64.—"I went this morning [Sept. 7] on foot from Whitehall as far as London Bridge, thro' the late Fleete-street, Ludgate hill, by St. Paules, Cheapeside, Exchange, Bishopsgate, Aldersgate, and out to Moorefields, thence through Cornehill, &c., with extraordinary difficulty, clambering over heaps of yet smoking rubbish, and frequently mistaking where I was. The ground under my feete so hot, that it even burnt the soles of my shoes. . . . At my returne I was infinitely concerned to find that goodly Church St. Paules now a sad ruine. . . . Thus lay in ashes that most venerable church, one of the most ancient pieces of early piety in ye Christian world besides neere 100 more. . . . In five or six miles traversing about I did not see one loade of timber unconsum'd, nor many stones but what were calcin'd white as snow. . . . I then went towards Islington and Highgate, where one might have seen 200,000 people of all ranks and degrees dispers'd and lying along by their heaps of what they could save from the fire, deploring their losse, and tho' ready to perish for hunger and destitution, yet not asking one penny for reliefe, which to me appear'd a stranger sight than any I had yet beheld."—J. Evelyn, *Diary, Sept.* 7, 1666 (*v.* 2).

ALSO IN: S. Pepys, *Diary, Sept.* 2–15, 1666 (*v.* 4).—L. Phillimore, *Sir Christopher Wren, ch.* 6–7.

A. D. 1685.—The most populous capital in Europe.—The first lighting of the streets.—"There is reason to believe that, in 1685, London had been, during about half a century, the most populous capital in Europe. The inhabitants, who are now [1848] at least 1,900.000, were then probably little more than half a million. London had in the world only one commercial rival, now long ago outstripped, the mighty and opulent Amsterdam. . . . There is, indeed, no doubt that the trade of the metropolis then bore a far greater proportion than at present to the whole trade of the country; yet to our generation the honest vaunting of our ancestors must appear almost ludicrous. The shipping which they thought incredibly great appears not to have exceeded 70,000 tons. This was, indeed, then more than a third of the whole tonnage of the kingdom. . . . It ought to be noticed that, in the last year of the reign of Charles II. [1685], began a great change in the police of London, a change which has perhaps added as much to the happiness of the body of the people as revolutions of much greater fame. An ingenious projector, named Edward Heming, obtained letters patent conveying to him, for a term of years, the exclusive right of lighting up London. He undertook, for a moderate consideration, to place a light before every tenth door, on moonless nights, from Michaelmas to Lady Day, and from six to twelve of the clock."—Lord Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng., ch.* 3 (*v.* 1).

A. D. 1688.—The Irish Night.—The ignominious flight of James II. from his capital, on the morning of December 11, 1688, was followed by a wild outbreak of riot in London, which no effective authority existed to promptly repress. To the cry of "No Popery," Roman Catholic chapels and the residences of ambassadors of Roman Catholic States, were sacked and burned. "The morning of the 12th of December rose on a ghastly sight. The capital in many places presented the aspect of a city taken by storm. The Lords met at Whitehall, and exerted themselves to restore tranquillity. . . . In spite, however, of the well-meant efforts of the provisional government, the agitation grew hourly more formidable. . . . Another day of agitation and terror closed, and was followed by a night the strangest and most terrible that England had ever seen." Just before his flight, King James had sent an order for the disbanding of his army, which had been composed for the most part of troops brought over from Ireland. A terrifying rumor that this disbanded Irish soldiery was marching on London, and massacring men, women and children on the road, now spread through the city. "At one in the morning the drums of the militia beat to arms. Everywhere terrified women were weeping and wringing their hands, while their fathers and husbands were equipping themselves for fight. Before two the capital wore a face of stern preparedness which might well have daunted a real enemy, if such an enemy had been approaching. Candles were blazing at all the windows. The public places were as bright as at noonday. All the great avenues were barricaded. More than 20,000 pikes and muskets lined the streets. The late daybreak of the winter solstice found the whole City still in arms. During many years the Londoners retained a vivid recollection of what they called the Irish Night. . . . The

panic had not been confined to London. The cry that disbanded Irish soldiers were coming to murder the Protestants had, with malignant ingenuity, been raised at once in many places widely distant from each other."—Lord Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng., ch.* 10.

A. D. 1780.—The Gordon No-Popery Riots. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1778–1780.

A. D. 1848.—The last Chartist demonstration. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1848.

A. D. 1851.—The great Exhibition. See ENGLAND. A. D. 1851.

LONDON COMPANY FOR VIRGINIA, A. D. 1606-1625.—Charter and undertakings in Virginia. See VIRGINIA: A. D. 1606–1607, and after.

A. D. 1619.—The unused patent granted to the Pilgrims at Leyden. See INDEPENDENTS OR SEPARATISTS: A. D. 1617–1620; and, also, MASSACHUSETTS: A. D. 1620, and 1621.

LONDONDERRY: Origin and Name. See IRELAND: A. D. 1607–1611.

A. D. 1688.—The shutting of the gates by the Prentice Boys. See IRELAND: A. D. 1685–1688.

A. D. 1689.—The Siege.—James II. fled in December, 1688, to France, from the Revolution in England which gave his throne to his daughter Mary, and her husband, William of Orange. He received aid from the French king and was landed in Ireland the following March, to attempt the maintenance of his sovereignty in that kingdom, if no more. Almost immediately upon his arrival he led his forces against Londonderry, where a great part of the Protestants of Ulster had taken refuge, and William and Mary had been proclaimed. "The city in 1689 was contained within the walls; and it rose by a gentle ascent from the base to the summit of a hill. The whole city was thus exposed to the fire of an enemy. There was no moat nor counterscarp. A ferry crossed the river Foyle from the east gate, and the north gate opened upon a quay. At the entrance of the Foyle was the strong fort of Culmore, with a smaller fort on the opposite bank. About two miles below the city were two forts—Charles Fort and Grange Fort. The trumpeter sent by the king with a summons to the obstinate city found the inhabitants 'in very great disorder, having turned out their governor Lundy, upon suspicion.' The cause of this unexpected reception was the presence of 'one Walker, a minister.' He was opposed to Lundy, who thought the place untenable, and counselled the townsmen to make conditions; 'but the fierce minister of the Gospel, being of the true Cromwellian or Cameronian stamp, inspired them with bolder resolutions.' The reverend George Walker and Major Baker were appointed governors during the siege. They mustered 7,020 soldiers, dividing them into regiments under eight colonels. In the town there were about 30,000 souls; but they were reduced to a less burdensome number, by 10,000 accepting an offer of the besieging commander to restore them to their dwellings. There were, according to Lundy's estimation, only provisions for ten days. The number of cannon possessed by the besieged was only twenty. On the 20th of April the city was invested, and the bombardment was begun. . . . No impression was made during nine days upon the determination to hold out; and on the 29th King James retraced his steps to Dublin, in considerable ill humour. The siege went on for six weeks with little change. Hamilton was now the commander of James's forces. The garrison of Londonderry and the inhabitants were gradually perishing from fatigue and insufficient food. But they bravely repelled an assault, in which 400 of the assailants fell. . . . Across the narrow part of the river, from Charles Fort to Grange Fort, the enemy stretched a great boom of fir-timber, joined by iron chains, and fastened on either shore by cables of a foot thick. On the 15th of June an English fleet of thirty sail was descried in the Lough. Signals were given and answered; but the ships lay at anchor for weeks. At the end of June, Baker, one of the heroic governors, died. Hamilton had been superseded in his command by Rosen, who issued a savage proclamation, declaring that unless the place were surrendered by the 1st of July, he would collect all the Protestants from the neighbouring districts, and drive them under the walls of the city to starve with those within the walls. A famished troop came thus beneath the walls of Londonderry, where they lay starving for three days. The besieged immediately threatened to hang all the prisoners within the city. This threat had its effect, and the famished crowd wended back their way to their solitary villages. It is but justice to James to say that he expressed his displeasure at this proceeding."—C. Knight, *Crown Hist. of Eng., ch.* 34.—"The state of the city was, hour by hour, becoming more frightful. The number of the inhabitants had been thinned more by famine and disease than by the fire of the enemy. Yet that fire was sharper and more constant than ever. . . . Every attack was still repelled. But the fighting men of the garrison were so much exhausted that they could scarcely keep their legs. Several of them, in the act of striking at the enemy, fell down from mere weakness. A very small quantity of grain remained, and was doled out by mouthfuls. The stock of salted hides was considerable, and by gnawing them the garrison appeased the rage of hunger. Dogs, fattened on the blood of the slain who lay unburied round the town, were luxuries which few could afford to purchase. The price of a whelp's paw was five shillings and sixpence. Nine horses were still alive, and but barely alive. They were so lean that little meat was likely to be found upon them. It was, however, determined to slaughter them for food. . . . The whole city was poisoned by the stench exhaled from the bodies of the dead and of the half dead. . . . It was no slight aggravation of the sufferings of the garrison that all this time the English ships were seen far off in Lough Foyle." At length, positive orders from England compelled Kirke, the commander of the relieving expedition "to make an attempt which, as far as appears, he might have made, with at least an equally fair prospect of success, six weeks earlier." Two merchant ships, the Mountjoy and the Phœnix, loaded with provisions, and the Dartmouth, a frigate of thirty-six guns, made a bold dash up the river, broke the great boom, ran the gauntlet of forts and batteries, and reached the city at ten o'clock in the evening of the 28th of July. The captain of the Mountjoy

was killed in the heroic undertaking, but Londonderry, his native town, was saved. The enemy continued their bombardment for three days more. "But, on the third night, flames were seen arising from the camp; and, when the first of August dawned, a line of smoking ruins marked the site lately occupied by the huts of the besiegers. . . . So ended this great siege, the most memorable in the annals of the British isles. It had lasted 105 days. The garrison had been reduced from about 7,000 effective men to about 3,000. The loss of the besiegers cannot be precisely ascertained. Walker estimated it at 8,000 men."—Lord Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng., ch.* 12.

ALSO IN: W. H. Torriano, *William the Third, ch.* 21.—See, also, IRELAND: A. D. 1689–1691.

LONE JACK, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JULY—SEPTEMBER: MISSOURI—ARKANSAS).

LONE STAR, Order of the. See CUBA: A. D. 1845–1860.

LONE STAR FLAG.—LONE STAR STATE.—On assuming independence, in 1836, the republic of Texas adopted a flag bearing a single star, which was known as 'the flag of the lone Star.' With reference to this emblem, Texas is often called the Lone Star State.

LONG ISLAND: A. D. 1614.—Explored by the Dutch. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1610–1614.

A. D. 1624.—Settlement of Brooklyn. See BROOKLYN.

A. D. 1634.—Embraced in the Palatine grant of New Albion. See NEW ALBION.

A. D. 1650.—Division between the Dutch of New Netherland and the English of Connecticut. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1650.

A. D. 1664.—Title acquired for the Duke of York. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1664.

A. D. 1673.—The Dutch reconquest. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1673.

A. D. 1674.—Annexed to New York. See CONNECTICUT: A. D. 1674–1675.

A. D. 1776.—The defeat of the American army by Lord Howe. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1776 (AUGUST).

LONG KNIVES, The. See YANKEE.

LONG PARLIAMENT. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1640–1641.

LONG WALLS OF ATHENS.—The walls which the Athenians built, B. C. 457, one, four miles long, to the harbor of Phalerum, and others, four and one half miles long, to the Piræus, to protect the communication of their city with its port, were called the Long Walls. The same name had been previously given to the walls built by the Athenians to protect the communication of Megara, then their ally, with its port of Nisæa; and Corinth had, also, its Long Walls, uniting it with the port Lechæum. The Long Walls of Athens were destroyed on the surrender of the city, at the termination of the Peloponnesian War, B. C. 404, and rebuilt, B. C. 393, by Conon, with Persian help. See ATHENS: B. C. 466–454.

LONGJUMEAU, Peace of (1568). See FRANCE: A. D. 1568–1570.

LONGSTREET, General James.—Siege of Knoxville. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (OCTOBER—DECEMBER: TENNESSEE).

LONGUEVILLE, The Duchess de, and the Fronde. See FRANCE: A. D. 1649, to 1651–1653.

LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN, its position, and the battle on it. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER: TENNESSEE); and (OCTOBER—NOVEMBER: TENNESSEE).

LOOM, Cartwright's invention of the power. See COTTON MANUFACTURE.

LOPEZ, The Tyranny of. See PARAGUAY: A. D. 1608–1878.

LOPEZ FILIBUSTERING EXPEDITION (1851). See CUBA: A. D. 1845–1860.

LORD.—"Every Teutonic King or other leader was surrounded by a band of chosen warriors, personally attached to him of their own free choice [see COMITATUS]. . . . The followers served their chief in peace and in war; they fought for him to the death, and rescued or avenged his life with their own. In return, they shared whatever gifts or honours the chief could distribute among them; and in our tongue at least it was his character of dispenser of gifts which gave the chief his official title. He was the 'Hlaford,' the 'Loaf-giver,' a name which, through a series of softenings and contractions, and with a complete forgetfulness of its primitive meaning, has settled down into the modern form of Lord."—E A. Freeman, *Hist. Norman Conq., ch.* 3, *sect.* 2 (*v.* 1).—On the Latin equivalent, 'Dominus,' see IMPERATOR: FINAL SIGNIFICATION.

LORD CHANCELLOR, The. See CHANCELLOR.

LORD DUNMORE'S WAR. See OHIO (VALLEY): A. D. 1774.

LORDS, British House of.—"The ancient National Assembly [of England] gradually ceased to be anything more than an assembly of the 'greater barons,' and ultimately developed into a hereditary House of Lords, the Upper House of the National Parliament. The hereditary character of the House of Lords—now long regarded as fixed and fundamental—accrued slowly and undesignedly, as a consequence of the hereditary descent of the baronial fiefs, practically inalienable, in right of which summonses to the national council were issued."—T. P. Taswell-Langmead, *English Const. Hist., ch.* 7.—"The English aristocracy is a typical example of the way in which a close corporation dies out. Its members are almost always wealthy in the first instance, and their estates have been constantly added to by favour from the Crown, by something like the monopoly of the best Government appointments, and by marriages with wealthy heiresses. They are able to command the field sports and open-air life that conduce to health, and the medical advice that combats disease. Nevertheless, they die out so rapidly that only five families out of nearly six hundred go back without a break, and in the male line, to the fifteenth century. . . . 155 peers were summoned to the first Parliament of James II. In 1825, only 140 years later, only forty-eight of these nobles were represented by lineal descendants in the male line. The family has in several instances been continued by collaterals begging the peerage, which they could not have claimed at law, and in this way the change may seem less than it has really been; but the broad result appears to be that left to itself from 1688, with new creations absolutely forbidden, the

House of Lords would by this time have been practically extinguished. Of Charles II.'s six bastards, who were made dukes, only three have perpetuated the race. Three peerages have been lost to the Howard family, three to the Greys, two to the Mordaunts, two to the Hydes, two to the Gerards, and two to the Lucases. . . . It is in the lower strata of society that we have to seek for the springs of national life."—C. H. Pearson, *National Life and Character, pp.* 70-73.—"The British peerage is something unique in the world. In England there is, strictly speaking, no nobility. This saying may indeed sound like a paradox. The English nobility, the British aristocracy, are phrases which are in everybody's mouth. Yet, in strictness, there is no such thing as an aristocracy or a nobility in England. There is undoubtedly an aristocratic element in the English constitution; the House of Lords is that aristocratic element. And there have been times in English history when there has been a strong tendency to aristocracy, when the lords have been stronger than either the king or the people. . . . But a real aristocracy, like that of Venice, an aristocracy not only stronger than either king or people, but which had driven out both king and people, an aristocracy from whose ranks no man can come down and into whose ranks no man can rise save by the act of the privileged body itself,—such an aristocracy as this England has never seen. Nor has England ever seen a nobility in the true sense, the sense which the word bears in every continental land, a body into which men may be raised by the king, but from which no man may come down, a body which hands on to all its members, to the latest generations, some kind of privilege or distinction, whether its privileges consist in substantial political power, or in bare titles and precedence. In England there is no nobility. The so-called noble family is not noble in the continental sense; privilege does not go on from generation to generation; titles and precedence are lost in the second or third generation; substantial privilege exists in only one member of the family at a time. The powers and privileges of the peer himself are many; but they belong to himself only; his children are legally commoners; his grandchildren are in most cases undistinguishable from other commoners. . . . A certain great position in the state is hereditary; but nobility in the strict sense there is none. The actual holder of the peerage has, as it were, drawn to his own person the whole nobility of the family."—E. A. Freeman *Practical Bearings of European History* (*Lectures to American Audiences*), *pp.* 305-307.—"At the end of 1892 there were 545 members of the House of Lords, made up thus: Peers, 469; Lords of Appeal and Ex-Lords of Appeal, 5; Representative Peers of Scotland, 16; Representative Peers of Ireland, 28; Lords Spiritual, 27. The Lords of Appeal are lawyers of great distinction who are appointed by the Queen and hold office during good behavior. Their number is always about the same. Their work is mainly judicial; but these Law Lords, as they are called, also speak and vote in the deliberative and legislative proceedings of the Upper House. The position of a Lord of Appeal differs from that of an ordinary peer in that his office is not hereditary. As regards the representative peers, those from Ireland, who number 28, are elected for life; those from Scotland, who number 16, are elected at a meeting of Scotch peers, held in Holyrood Palace, Edinburgh, after each General Election, and hold office during the lifetime of a Parliament. The Lords Spiritual include (1) the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, the Bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester; and (2) twenty-two out of the other twenty-nine bishops of the Church of England. The prelates whose titles have been given take their seats in the House immediately on appointment; the other bishops take their seats by order of seniority of consecration. The prelates who are without seats in the House of Lords are known as junior bishops. The Bishop of Sodor and Man has a seat in the House of Lords, but no vote."—E. Porritt, *The Englishman at Home, ch.* 6.—For an account of the transient abolition of the House of Lords in 1649, see ENGLAND: A. D. 1649 (FEBRUARY). See, also, PARLIAMENT, THE ENGLISH; and ESTATES, THE THREE.

LORDS OF ARTICLES. See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1326-1603; and 1688-1690.

LORDS OF THE CONGREGATION. See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1557; and 1558-1560.

LORDS OF THE ISLES. See HEBRIDES: A. D. 1346-1504; and HARLAW, BATTLE OF.

LORDS SPIRITUAL AND TEMPORAL, The. See ESTATES, THE THREE.

LORENZO DE' MEDICI (called The Magnificent), The rule of. See FLORENCE: A. D. 1469-1492.

LORRAINE: A. D. 843-870.—Formation and dissolution of the kingdom.—In the division of the empire of Charlemagne among his three grandsons, made by the treaty of Verdun, A. D. 843, the elder, Lothaire, bearing the title of Emperor, received the kingdom of Italy, and, with it, another kingdom, named, after himself, Lotharingia—afterwards called Lorraine. This latter was so formed as to be an extension northwestwardly of his Italian kingdom, and to stretch in a long belt between the Germanic dominion of his brother Ludwig and the Francia Nova, or France, of his brother Charles. It extended "from the mouth of the Rhine to Provence, bounded by that river on one frontier, by France on the other."—H. Hallam, *The Middle Ages, ch.* 1, *pt.* 1, *note.*—"Between these two states [of the Eastern and Western, or Germanic and Gallic Franks] the policy of the ninth century instinctively put a barrier. The Emperor Lothar, besides Italy, kept a long narrow strip of territory between the dominions of his Eastern and Western brothers. . . . This land, having . . . been the dominion of two Lothars, took the name of Lotharingia, Lothringen, or Lorraine, a name which part of it has kept to this day. This land, sometimes attached to the Eastern kingdom, sometimes to the Western, sometimes divided between the two, sometimes separated from both, always kept its character of a border-land. . . . Lotharingia took in the two duchies of the Ripuarian Lotharingia and Lotharingia on the Mosel. The former contains a large part of the modern Belgium and the neighboring lands on the Rhine, including the royal city of Aachen. Lotharingia on the Mosel answers roughly to the later duchy of that name, though its extent to the East is considerably larger."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical Geog. of Europe, ch.* 6, *sect.* 1.—"Upon the death of the Emperor Lothair [A. D. 855] his

share of the Carlovingian inheritance, the Kingdom acquired by disobedience, violence, deceit and fraud, sustained further partitions: Lothair's piece of the rent garment was clutched and tattered again and again by his nearest of kin, his three sons, and their two uncles, and the sons and the sons' sons of his sons and uncles, till the lineage ended . . . The Emperor Lothair had directed and confirmed the partition of his third of the Carlovingian Empire, appointed to him by the treaty of Verdun." His namesake, his second son, Lothair II., received the kingdom called "Lotharingia, Lothierregne, or Lorraine," and which is defined in the terms of modern geography as follows: "The thirteen Cantons of Switzerland with their allies and tributaries, East or Free Friesland, Oldenburgh, the whole of the United Netherlands, all other territories included in the Archbishopric of Utrecht, the Trois Evêchés, Metz, Toul and Verdun, the electorates of Trèves and of Cologne, the Palatine Bishopric of Liège, Alsace and Franche-Comté, Hainault and the Cambresis, Brabant (known in intermediate stages as Basse-Lorraine, or the Duchy of Lohier), Namur, Juliers and Cleves, Luxemburgh and Limburg, the Duchy of Bar and the Duchy which retained the name of Lorraine, the only memorial of the antient and dissolved kingdom. . . . After King Lothair's death [A. D. 869] nine family competitors successively came into the field for that much-coveted Lotharingia." Charles the Bald, one of the uncles of the deceased king,—he who held the Neustrian or French dominion,—took possession and got himself crowned king of Lotharingia. But the rival uncle, Louis the German, soon forced him (A. D. 870) to a division of the spoils. "The lot of Charles consisted of Burgundy and Provence, and most of those Lotharingian dominions where the French or Walloon tongue was and yet is spoken; . . . he also took some purely Belgic territories, especially that very important district successively known as Basse-Lorraine, the Duchy of Lohier, and Brabant. Modern history is dawning fast upon us. Louis-le-Germanique received Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne, Trèves, Utrecht, Strasburgh, Metz,—indeed nearly all the territories of the Belgic and German tongues."—Sir F. Palgrave, *Hist. of Normandy and Eng.*, *v.* 1, *pp.* 361–370.—See, also, VERDUN, TREATY OF.

A. D. 911-980.—The dukedom established.—The definite separation of the East Franks, who ultimately constituted the Germany of modern history, from the West or Neustrian Franks, out of whose political organization sprang the kingdom of France, took place in 911, when the Franconian duke Conrad was elected king by the Germanic nations, and the rule of the Carolingian princes was ended for them. In this proceeding Lotharingia, or Lorraine, refused to concur. "Nobles and people held to the old imperial dynasty. . . . Opinions, customs, traditions, still rendered the Lotharingians mainly members of Romanized Gaul. They severed themselves from the Germans beyond the Rhine, separated by influences more powerful than the stream." The Lotharingians, accordingly, repudiated the sovereignty of Conrad and placed themselves under the rule of Charles the Simple, the Carolingian king then struggling to maintain his slender throne at Laon. "Twice did King Conrad attempt to win Lotharingia and reunite the Rhine-kingdom to the German realm: he succeeded in obtaining Alsace, but the remainder was resolutely retained by Charles." In 916 this remainder was constituted a duchy, by Charles, and conferred upon Gilbert, son of Rainier, Count of Hainault, who had been the leader of the movement against Conrad and the Germanic nations. A little later, when the Carolingian dynasty was near its end, Henry the Fowler and his son Otho, the great German king who revived the empire, recovered the suzerainty of Lorraine, and Otho gave it to his brother Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne. Under Bruno it was divided into two parts, Upper and Lower Lorraine. Lower Lorraine was subsequently conferred by Otho II. upon his cousin Charles, brother to Lothaire, the last of the French Carolingian kings. "The nature and extent of this same grant has been the subject of elaborate critical enquiry; but, for our purposes, it is sufficient to know, that Charles is accepted by all the historical disputants as first amongst the hereditary Dukes of the 'Basse-Lorraine'; and, having received investiture, he became a vassal of the Emperor." In 980, this disposition of Lower Lorraine was ratified by Lothaire, the French king, who, "abandoning all his rights and pretensions over Lorraine, openly and solemnly renounced the dominions, and granted the same to be held without let or interference from the French, and be subjected for ever to the German Empire."—Sir F. Palgrave, *Hist. of Normandy and Eng*, *bk.* 1, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 1 *and ch.* 4, *pt.* 2.—"Lotharingia retained its Carolingian princes, but it retained them only by definitively becoming a fief of the Teutonic Kingdom. Charles died in prison, but his children continued to reign in Lotharingia as vassals of the Empire. Lotharingia was thus wholly lost to France; that portion of it which was retained by the descendants of Charles in the female line still preserves its freedom as part of the independent Kingdom of Belgium."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. of the Norman Conquest of Eng.*, *ch.* 4, *sect.* 4 (*v.* 1).

A. D. 1430.—Acquisition of the duchy by René, Duke of Anjou and Count of Provence, afterwards King of Naples.—Union with Bar. See ANJOU: A. D. 1206–1442.

A. D. 1476.—Short-lived conquest by Charles the Bold. See BURGUNDY: A. D. 1476–1477.

A. D. 1505-1559.—Rise of the Guises, a branch of the ducal house.—Cession to France of Les Trois Évêchés. See FRANCE: A. D. 1547–1559.

A. D. 1624-1663.—Quarrels and war of Duke Charles IV. with Richelieu and France.—Ruin and depopulation of the duchy.—Its possession by the French.—Early in Richelieu's administration of the French government, the first steps were taken towards the union of Lorraine with France. "Its situation, as well as its wealth and fertility, made it an acquisition specially valuable to that kingdom. . . . Lorraine had long been ruled by the present family of dukes, and in its government more had remained of feudal usages than in the monarchy that had grown up beside it. The character and career of the members of the house of Guise had brought Lorraine into very intimate connection with France, and the closeness of its relations added danger to its position as an independent state. Charles IV. became Duke of Lorraine in 1624 by virtue of

the rights of his cousin and wife, the daughter of the last duke. . . . He soon began to take part in the intrigues of the French Court, and he enrolled himself among the lovers of Mme. de Chevreuse and the enemies of Richelieu. . . . Richelieu had long sought occasion for offence against the Duke Charles. The Duke of Lorraine was bound to do honor to the French king for the Duchy of Bar [which was a fief of the French crown, while Lorraine was an imperial fief], a duty which was often omitted, and the agents of Richelieu discovered that France had ancient and valid claims to other parts of his territory. His relations with France were rendered still more uncertain by his own untrustworthy character. To tell the truth or to keep his agreement were equally impossible for Duke Charles, and he was dealing with a man with whom it was dangerous to trifle. Gustavus Adolphus had invaded Germany, and the Duke of Lorraine was eager in defending the cause of the Emperor. In January, 1632, he was forced to make a peace with France, by which he agreed to make no treaty with any other prince or state without the knowledge and permission of the French king. Charles paid no attention to this treaty, and for all these causes in June, 1632, Louis [XIII.] invaded his dominions. They lay open to the French army, and no efficient opposition could be made. On June 26th Charles was forced to sign a second treaty, by which he surrendered the city and county of Clermont, and also yielded the possession for four years of the citadels of Stenay and Jametz. . . . This treaty made little change in the condition of affairs. Charles continued to act in hostility to the Swedes, to assist Gaston [Duke of Orleans, the rebellious and troublesome brother of Louis XIII., who had married Margaret of Lorraine, the Duke's sister], and in every way to violate the conditions of the treaty he had made. He seemed resolved to complete his own ruin, and he did not have to wait long for its accomplishment. In 1633 Louis a second time invaded Lorraine, and the Swedes, in return for the duke's hostility to them, also entered the province. Charles' forces were scattered and he was helpless, but he was as false as he was weak. He promised to surrender his sister Margaret, and he allowed her to escape. He sent his brother to make a treaty and then refused to ratify it. At last, he made the most disadvantageous treaty that was possible, and surrendered his capital, Nancy, the most strongly fortified city of Lorraine, into Louis' possession until all difficulties should be settled between the king and the duke, which, as Richelieu said, might take till eternity. In January, 1634, Charles pursued his eccentric career by granting all his rights in the duchy to his brother, the Cardinal of Lorraine. The new duke also married a cousin in order to unite the rights of the two branches. . . . Charles adopted the life of a wandering soldier of fortune, which was most to his taste, and commanded the imperial forces at the battle of Nordlingen. He soon assumed again the rights which he had ceded, but his conduct rendered them constantly less valuable. The following years were filled with struggles with France, which resulted in her taking possession of still more of Lorraine, until its duke was entirely a fugitive. Such struggles brought upon its inhabitants a condition of constantly increasing want and misery. . . . It was ravaged by the hordes of the Duke of Weimar and the Swedes [see GERMANY: A. D. 1634–1639], and on every side were pillage and burning and murders. Famine followed, and the horrors perpetrated from it were said to be more than could be described. Richelieu himself wrote that the inhabitants of Lorraine were mostly dead, villages burned, cities deserted, and a century would not entirely restore the country. Vincent de Paul did much of his charitable work in that unhappy province. . . . The duke at last, in 1641, came as a suppliant to Richelieu to ask for his duchy, and it was granted him, but on the condition that Stenay, Dun, Jametz, and Clermont should be united to France, that Nancy should remain in the king's possession until the peace, and that the duke should assist France with his troops against all enemies whenever required. . . . Charles was hardly back in his dominions before he chose to regard the treaty he had made as of no validity, and in July he violated it openly, and shortly took refuge with the Spanish army. . . . Thereupon the French again invaded Lorraine, and by October, 1641, practically the whole province was in their hands. It so continued until 1663." —J. B. Perkins, *France under [Richelieu and] Mazarin, ch.* 5 (*v.* 1) —"The faithfulness with which he [the Duke of Lorraine] adhered to his alliance with Austria, in spite of threatened losses, formed in the end a strong bond of reciprocal attachment and sympathy between the Hapsburgs and the Princes of Lorraine, which, at a later day, became even firmer, and finally culminated in the marriage of Stephen of Lorraine and Maria Theresa."—A. Gindely, *Hist. of the Thirty Years' War, v.* 2, *ch.* 6, *sect.* 3.

A. D. 1648.—Desertion of the cause of the duke in the Peace of Westphalia. See GERMANY: A. D. 1648.

A. D. 1659.—Restored to the duke with some shearing of territory. See FRANCE: A. D. 1659–1661.

A. D. 1679.—Restoration refused by the duke. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

A. D. 1680.—Entire absorption of Les Trois Evêchés in France with boundaries extended by the Chamber of Reannexation. See FRANCE: A. D. 1679–1681.

A. D. 1697.—Restored to the duke by the Treaty of Ryswick. See FRANCE: A. D. 1697.

A. D. 1735.—Ceded to France.—Reversion of Tuscany secured to the former duke. See FRANCE: A. D. 1733–1735

A. D. 1871.—One fifth ceded to the German empire by France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1871 (JANUARY—MAY).

A. D. 1871-1879.—Organization of the government of Alsace-Lorraine as a German imperial province. See GERMANY: A. D. 1871–1879.

LOSANTIVILLE. See CINCINNATI: A. D. 1788.

LOSE-COAT FIELD, Battle of.—In 1470 an insurrection against the government of King Edward IV. broke out in Lincolnshire, England, under the lead of Sir Robert Welles, who raised the Lancastrian standard of King Henry. The insurgents were vigorously attacked by Edward, at a place near Stamford, when the greater part of them "flung away their coats and took to flight, leaving their leader a prisoner in the hands

of his enemies. The manner in which the rebels were dispersed caused the action to be spoken of as the battle of Lose-coat Field."—J. Gairdner, *Houses of Lancaster and York, ch.* 8.—The engagement is sometimes called the Battle of Stamford.

LOST TEN TRIBES OF ISRAEL. See JEWS: KINGDOMS OF ISRAEL AND JUDAH; also, SAMARIA.

LOTHAIRE, King of France, A. D. 954–986.... Lothaire I., King of Italy and Rhineland, 817–855; King of Lotharingia, and titular Emperor, 843–855.....Lothaire II., Emperor, 1133–1137; King of Germany, 1125–1137.

LOTHARINGIA. See LORRAINE.

LOTHIAN. See SCOTLAND: 10–11TH CENTURIES.

LOUIS, King of Portugal, A. D. 1861–1889. ....Louis of Nassau, and the struggle in the Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1562–1566, to 1573–1574.....**Louis I. (called The Pious), Emperor of the West, A. D. 814–840; King of Aquitaine, 781–814; King of the Franks, 814–840.....Louis I. (called The Great), King of Hungary, 1342–1382; King of Poland, 1370–1382.....Louis I., King of Naples, 1382–1384; Count of Provence and Duke of Anjou, 1359–1384.....Louis I., King of Sicily, 1342–1355.....Louis II. (called The Stammerer), King of France, 877–879.....Louis II. (called The German), King of the East Franks (Germany), 843–875.....Louis II., King of Hungary and Bohemia, 1516–1526.....Louis II., King of Naples, 1389–1399; Duke of Anjou and Count of Provence, 1384–1417.** See ITALY: A. D. 1343–1389, and 1386–1414.....**Louis III., King of the Franks (Northern France), 879–882; East Franks (Germany—in association with Carloman), 876–881.....Louis III. (called The Child), King of the East Franks (Germany), 899–910. ....Louis III., King of Provence, 1417–1434. ....Louis III., Duke of Anjou, Count of Provence, and titular King of Naples, 1417–1434. ....Louis IV., King of France, 936–954..... Louis V. (of Bavaria), Emperor, 1327–1347; King of Germany (in rivalry with Frederick III.), 1313–1347; King of Italy, 1327–1347..... Louis V., King of France, 986–987.....Louis VI. (called The Fat), King of France, 1108–1137.....Louis VII., King of France, 1137–1180.....Louis VIII., King of France, 1223–1226.....Louis IX. (called Saint Louis), King of France, 1226–1270.....Louis X. (called Le Hutin, or The Brawler), King of France, 1314–1316; King of Navarre, 1305–1316.....Louis XI., King of France, 1461–1483.....Louis XII., King of France, 1498–1515.....Louis XIII., King of France, 1610–1643.....Louis XIV. (called "The Grand Monarch"), King of France, 1643–1715. ...Louis XV., King of France, 1715–1774.....Louis XVI., King of France, 1774–1793.....Louis XVII., nominal King of France, 1793–1796, during the Revolution; died in prison, aged twelve years..... Louis XVIII., King of France, 1814–1824..... Louis Napoleon Bonaparte.** See NAPOLEON III.....**Louis Philippe, King of France (of the House of Orleans), 1830–1848.**

LOUIS, Saint, Establishments of. See WAGER OF BATTLE.

LOUISBOURG: A. D. 1720-1745.—The fortification of the Harbor. See CAPE BRETON: A. D. 1720–1745.

A. D. 1745.—Surrender to the New Englanders. See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1745.

A. D. 1748.—Restoration to France. See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1745–1748.

A. D. 1757.—English designs against, postponed. See CANADA: A. D. 1756–1757.

A. D. 1758-1760.—Final capture and destruction of the place by the English. See CAPE BRETON ISLAND: A. D. 1758–1760.

LOUISIANA: The aboriginal inhabitants. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY, and PAWNEE (CADDOAN) FAMILY.

A. D. 1629.—Mostly embraced in the Carolina grant to Sir Robert Heath, by Charles I. of England. See AMERICA: A. D. 1629.

A. D. 1682.—Named and possession taken for the king of France, by La Salle. See CANADA: A. D. 1669–1687.

A. D. 1698-1712.—Iberville's colonization.—Separation in government from New France.—Crozat's monopoly.—The French territorial claim.—"The court of France had been engaged in wars and political intrigues, and nothing toward colonizing Louisiana had been effected since the disastrous expedition of La Salle. Twelve years had elapsed, but his discoveries and his unfortunate fate had not been forgotten. At length, in 1698, an expedition for colonizing the region of the Lower Mississippi was set on foot by the French king. It was placed under the command of M. d' Iberville, who had been an experienced and distinguished naval commander in the French wars of Canada, and a successful agent in establishing colonies in Canada, Acadie and Cape Breton. . . . With his little fleet of two frigates, rating 30 guns each, and two smaller vessels, bearing a company of marines and 200 colonists, including a few women and children, he prepared to set sail from France for the mouth of the Mississippi. The colonists were mostly soldiers who had served in the armies of France and had received an honorable discharge. They were well supplied with provisions and implements requisite for opening settlements in the wilderness. It was on the 24th day of September, 1698, that this colony sailed from Rochelle." On the 2d of the following March, after considerable exploration of the coast, west from the Spanish settlement at Pensacola, Iberville found the mouth of the Mississippi, being confirmed in the identification of it by discovery of a letter, in the hands of the Indians, which Tonti had written to La Salle thirteen years before. "Soon afterward, Iberville selected a site and began to erect a fort upon the northeast shore of the Bay of Biloxi, about fifteen miles north of Ship Island. Here, upon a sandy shore, and under a burning sun, upon a pine barren, he settled his colony, about 80 miles northeast from the present city of New Orleans. . . . Having thus located his colony, and protected them [by a fort] from the danger of Indian treachery and hostility, he made other provision for their comfort and security, and then set sail for France, leaving his two brothers, Sauvolle and Bienville, as his lieutenants." The following September an English corvette appeared in the river, intending to explore it, but was warned off by the French, and retired. During the summer of 1699 the colonists suffered terribly from the maladies of the region, and M. Sauvolle, with many others, died. "Early

in December following d'Iberville returned with an additional colony and a detachment of troops, in company with several vessels of war. Up to this time, the principal settlements had been at Ship Island and on the Bay of Biloxi; others had been begun at the Bay of St. Louis and on the Bay of Mobile. These were made as a matter of convenience, to hold and occupy the country; for his principal object was to colonize the banks of the Mississippi itself." Iberville now built a fort and located a small colony at a point about 54 miles above the mouth of the river, and about 88 miles below the present city of New Orleans. The next year, having been joined by the veteran De Tonti with a party of French Canadians from the Illinois, Iberville ascended the river nearly 400 miles, formed a friendly alliance with the Natchez tribe of Indians, and selected for a future settlement the site of the present city of Natchez. "In the spring of 1702 war had been declared by England against France and Spain, and by order of the King of France the headquarters of the commandant were removed to the western bank of the Mobile River. This was the first European settlement within the present State of Alabama. The Spanish settlement at Pensacola was not remote; but as England was now the common enemy, the French and Spanish commandants arranged their boundary between Mobile and Pensacola Bays to be the Perdido River. . . . The whole colony of Southern Louisiana as yet did not number 30 families besides soldiers. Bilious fevers had cut off many of the first emigrants, and famine and Indian hostility now threatened the remainder." Two years later, Iberville was broken in health by an attack of yellow fever and retired to France. After six further years of hardship and suffering, the colony, in 1710, still "presented a population of only 380 souls, distributed into five settlements, remote from each other. These were on Ship Island, Cat Island, at Biloxi, Mobile, and on the Mississippi. . . . Heretofore the settlements of Louisiana had been a dependence on New France, or Canada, although separated by a wilderness of 2,000 miles in extent. Now it was to be made an independent government, responsible only to the crown, and comprising also the Illinois country under its jurisdiction. The government of Louisiana was accordingly placed [1711] in the hands of a governor-general. The headquarters, or seat of the colonial government, was established at Mobile, and a new fort was erected upon the site of the present city of Mobile. . . . In France it was still believed that Louisiana presented a rich field for enterprise and speculation. The court, therefore, determined to place the resources of the province under the influence of individual enterprise. For this purpose, a grant of exclusive privileges, in all the commerce of the province, for a term of 15 years, was made to Anthony Crozat, a rich and influential merchant of France. His charter was dated September 26th, 1712. At this time the limits of Louisiana, as claimed by France, were very extensive. As specified in the charter of Crozat, it was 'bounded by New Mexico on the west, by the English lands of Carolina on the east, including all the establishments, ports, havens, rivers, and principally the port and haven of the Isle of Dauphin, heretofore called Massacre; the River St. Louis, heretofore called Mississippi, from the edge of the sea as far as the Illinois, together with the River St. Philip, heretofore called Missouri, the River St. Jerome, heretofore called Wabash, with all the lands, lakes, and rivers mediately or immediately flowing into any part of the River St. Louis or Mississippi.' Thus Louisiana, as claimed by France at that early period, embraced all the immense regions of the United States from the Alleghany Mountains on the east to the Rocky Mountains on the west, and northward to the great lakes of Canada." — J. W. Monette, *Hist. of the Discovery and Settlement of the Valley of the Mississippi, bk. 2, ch. 5 (v. 1).*

A. D. 1717-1718.—Crozat's failure and John Law's Mississippi Bubble.—The founding of New Orleans.—"Crozat's failure was, in the nature of things, foreordained. His scheme, indeed, proved a stumbling-block to the colony and a loss to himself. In five years (1717) he was glad to surrender his monopoly to the crown. From its ashes sprung the gigantic Mississippi Scheme of John Law, to whom all Louisiana, now including the Illinois country, was granted for a term of years. Compared with this prodigality Crozat's concession was but a plaything. It not only gave Law's Company proprietary rights to the soil, but power was conferred to administer justice, make peace or war with the natives, build forts, levy troops and with consent of the crown to appoint such military governors as it should think fitting. These extraordinary privileges were put in force by a royal edict, dated in September, 1717. The new company [called the Western Company] granted lands along the river to individuals or associated persons, who were sometimes actual emigrants, sometimes great personages who sent out colonists at their own cost, or again the company itself undertook the building up of plantations on lands reserved by it for the purpose. One colony of Alsatians was sent out by Law to begin a plantation on the Arkansas. Others, more or less flourishing, were located at the mouth of the Yazoo, Natchez and Baton Rouge. All were agricultural plantations, though in most cases the plantations themselves consisted of a few poor huts covered with a thatch of palm-leaves. The earliest forts were usually a square earthwork, strengthened with palisades about the parapet. The company's agricultural system was founded upon African slave labor. Slaves were brought from St. Domingo or other of the West India islands. By some their employment was viewed with alarm, because it was thought the blacks would soon outnumber the whites, and might some day rise and overpower them; but we find only the feeblest protest entered against the moral wrong of slavery in any record of the time. Negroes could work in the fields, under the burning sun, when the whites could not. Their labor cost no more than their maintenance. The planters easily adopted what, indeed, already existed among their neighbors. Self-interest stifled conscience. The new company wisely appointed Bienville governor. Three ships brought munitions, troops, and stores of every sort from France, with which to put new life into the expiring colony. It was at this time (February, 1718) that Bienville began the foundation of the destined metropolis of Louisiana. The spot chosen by him was clearly but a fragment of the delta which the river had been for ages silently building of its own mud and driftwood. It had

literally risen from the sea. Elevated only a few feet above sea-level, threatened with frequent inundation, and in its primitive estate a cypress swamp, it seemed little suited for the abode of men, yet time has confirmed the wisdom of the choice. Here, then, a hundred miles from the Gulf, on the alluvial banks of the great river, twenty-five convicts and as many carpenters were set to work clearing the ground and building the humble log cabins, which were to constitute the capital, in its infancy. The settlement was named New Orleans, in honor of the Regent, Orleans, who ruled France during the minority of Louis XV."—S. A. Drake, *The Making of the Great West, pp.* 126–128.

ALSO IN: A. McF. Davis, *Canada and Louisiana (Narrative and Critical Hist. of Am., v.* 5, *ch.* 1).—A. Thiers, *The Mississippi Bubble, ch.* 3–8.—C. Mackay, *Memoirs of Extraordinary Popular Delusions, v.* 1, *ch.* 1.—See, also, FRANCE: A. D. 1717–1720.

A. D. 1719-1750.—Surrendered to the Crown.—Massacre of French by the Natchez, and destruction of that tribe.—Unsuccessful war with the Chickasaws.—"The same prodigality and folly which prevailed in France during the government of John Law, over credit and commerce, found their way to his western possessions; and though the colony then planted survived, and the city then founded became in time what had been hoped,—it was long before the influence of the gambling mania of 1718–19–20 passed away. Indeed the returns from Louisiana never repaid the cost and trouble of protecting it, and, in 1732, the Company asked leave to surrender their privileges to the crown, a favor which was granted them. But though the Company of the West did little for the enduring welfare of the Mississippi valley, it did something; the cultivation of tobacco, indigo, rice, and silk, was introduced, the lead mines of Missouri were opened, though at vast expense and in hope of finding silver; and, in Illinois, the culture of wheat began to assume some degree of stability and of importance. In the neighborhood of the river Kaskaskia, Charlevoix found three villages, and about Fort Chartres, the head quarters of the Company in that region, the French were rapidly settling. All the time, however, during which the great monopoly lasted, was, in Louisiana, a time of contest and trouble. The English, who, from an early period, had opened commercial relations with the Chickasaws, through them constantly interfered with the trade of the Mississippi. Along the coast, from Pensacola to the Rio del Norte, Spain disputed the claims of her northern neighbor: and at length the war of the Natchez struck terror into the hearts of both white and red men. Amid that nation . . . D'Iberville had marked out Fort Rosalie [on the site of the present city of Natchez], in 1700, and fourteen years later its erection had been commenced. The French, placed in the midst of the natives, and deeming them worthy only of contempt, increased their demands and injuries until they required even the abandonment of the chief town of the Natchez, that the intruders might use its site for a plantation. The inimical Chickasaws heard the murmurs of their wronged brethren, and breathed into their ears counsels of vengeance; the sufferers determined on the extermination of their tyrants. On the 28th of November, 1729, every Frenchman in that colony died by the hands of the natives, with the exception of two mechanics: the women and children were spared. It was a fearful revenge, and fearfully did the avengers suffer for their murders. Two months passed by, and the French and Choctaws in one day took 60 of their scalps; in three months they were driven from their country and scattered among the neighboring tribes; and within two years the remnants of the nation, chiefs and people, were sent to St. Domingo and sold into slavery. So perished this ancient and peculiar race, in the same year in which the Company of the West yielded its grants into the royal hands. When Louisiana came again into the charge of the government of France, it was determined, as a first step, to strike terror into the Chickasaws, who, devoted to the English, constantly interfered with the trade on the Mississippi. For this purpose the forces of New France, from New Orleans to Detroit, were ordered to meet in the country of the inimical Indians, upon the 10th of May, 1736, to strike a blow which should be final." D'Artaguette, governor of Illinois, was promptly at the rendezvous, with a large force of Indians, and a small body of French, but Bienville, from the southern province, proved dilatory. After waiting ten days, D'Artaguette attacked the Chickasaws, carried two of their defenses, but fell and was taken prisoner in the assault of a third; whereupon his Indian allies fled. Bienville, coming up five days afterwards, was repulsed in his turn and retreated, leaving D'Artaguette and his captive companions to a fearful fate. "Three years more passed away, and again a French army of nearly 4,000 white, red and black men, was gathered upon the banks of the Mississippi, to chastise the Chickasaws. From the summer of 1739 to the spring of 1740, this body of men sickened and wasted at Fort Assumption, upon the site of Memphis. In March of the last named year, without a blow struck, peace was concluded, and the province of Louisiana once more sunk into inactivity. Of the ten years which followed we know but little that is interesting."—J. H. Perkins, *Annals of the West, pp.* 61–63.

ALSO IN: M. Dumont, *Hist. Memoirs (French's Hist. Coll's of Louisiana, pt.* 5).—C. Gayarre, *Louisiana; its Colonial Hist. and Romance, 2d series, lect.* 5–7.—S. G. Drake, *Aboriginal Races of North Am., bk.* 4, *ch.* 5.

A. D. 1728.—The Casket Girls.—Wives for the colonists.—"In the beginning of 1728 there came a vessel of the company with a considerable number of young girls, who had not been taken, like their predecessors, from houses of correction. The company had given to each of them a casket containing some articles of dress. From that circumstance they became known in the colony under the nickname of the 'filles à la cassette', or 'the casket girls.' . . . Subsequently, it became a matter of importance in the colony to derive one's origin from the casket girls, rather than from the correction girls."—C. Gayarre, *Louisiana; its Colonial Hist. and Romance, p.* 396.

A. D. 1755.—Settlement of exiled Acadians. See NOVA SCOTIA: A. D. 1755.

A. D. 1763.—East of the Mississippi, except New Orleans, ceded to Great Britain, and west of the Mississippi, with New Orleans, to Spain. See SEVEN YEARS WAR.

A. D. 1766-1768.—Spanish occupation and the revolt against it.—The short-lived republic of New Orleans.—"Spain accepted Louisiana [west of the Mississippi, with New Orleans] with reluctance, for she lost France as her bulwark, and, to keep the territory from England, assumed new expenses and dangers. Its inhabitants loved the land of their ancestry; by every law of nature and human freedom, they had the right to protest against the transfer of their allegiance." Their protests were unavailing, however, and their appeals met the response: "France cannot bear the charge of supporting the colony's precarious existence." In March, 1766, Antonio de Ulloa arrived at New Orleans from Havana, to take possession for the Spanish king. "Ulloa landed with civil officers, three capuchin monks, and 80 soldiers. His reception was cold and gloomy. He brought no orders to redeem the seven million livres of French paper money, which weighed down a colony of less than 6,000 white men. The French garrison of 300 refused to enter the Spanish service, the people to give up their nationality, and Ulloa was obliged to administer the government under the French flag by the old French officers, at the cost of Spain. In May of the same year, the Spanish restrictive system was applied to Louisiana; in September, an ordinance compelled French vessels having special permits to accept the paper currency in pay for their cargoes, at an arbitrary tariff of prices. . . . The ordinance was suspended, but not till the alarm had destroyed all commerce. Ulloa retired from New Orleans to the Balise. Only there, and opposite Natchez, and at the river Iberville, was Spanish jurisdiction directly exercised. This state of things continued for a little more than two years. But the arbitrary and passionate conduct of Ulloa, the depreciation of the currency with the prospect of its becoming an almost total loss, the disputes respecting the expenses incurred since the session of 1762, the interruption of commerce, a captious ordinance which made a private monopoly of the traffic with the Indians, uncertainty of jurisdiction and allegiance, agitated the colony from one end to the other. It was proposed to make of New Orleans a republic, like Amsterdam or Venice, with a legislative body of 40 men, and a single executive. The people of the country parishes crowded in a mass into the city, joined those of New Orleans, and formed a numerous assembly, in which Lafrénière, John Milhet, Joseph Milhet, and the lawyer Doucet were conspicuous. . . . On the 25th of October, 1768, they adopted an address to the superior council, written by Lafrénière and Caresse, rehearsing their griefs; and, in their petition of rights, they claimed freedom of commerce with the ports of France and America and the expulsion of Ulloa from the colony. The address, signed by 500 or 600 persons, was adopted the next day by the council . . . ; when the French flag was displayed on the public square, children and women ran up to kiss its folds, and it was raised by 900 men, amid shouts of 'Long live the king of France! we will have no king but him.' Ulloa retreated to Havana, and sent his representations to Spain. The inhabitants elected their own treasurer and syndics, sent envoys to Paris, . . . and memorialized the French monarch to stand as intercessor between them and the Catholic king, offering no alternative but to be a colony of France or a free commonwealth." —G. Bancroft, *Hist. of the U. S. (Author's last revision)*, *v.* 3, *pp.* 316–318.

Also in: M. Thompson, *Story of Louisiana*, *ch.* 4.—C. Gayarré, *Hist. of Louisiana: French Domination*, *v.* 2, *lect.* 3–6.

A. D. 1769.—Spanish authority established by "Cruel O'Reilly."—"It was the fate of the Creoles — possibly a climatic result — to be slack-handed and dilatory. Month after month followed the October uprising without one of those incidents that would have succeeded in the history of an earnest people. In March, 1769, Foucault [French intendant] covertly deserted his associates, and denounced them, by letter, to the French cabinet. In April the Spanish frigate sailed from New Orleans. Three intrepid men (Loyola, Gayarre, and Navarro), the governmental staff which Ulloa had left in the province, still remained, unmolested. Not a fort was taken, though it is probable not one could have withstood assault. Not a spade was struck into the ground, or an obstruction planted, at any strategic point, throughout that whole 'Creole' spring time which stretches in its exuberant perfection from January to June. . . . One morning toward the end of July, 1769, the people of New Orleans were brought suddenly to their feet by the news that the Spaniards were at the mouth of the river in overwhelming force. There was no longer any room to postpone choice of action. Marquis, the Swiss captain, with a white cockade in his hat (he had been the leading advocate for a republic), and Petit, with a pistol in either hand, came out upon the ragged, sunburnt grass of the Place d'Armes and called upon the people to defend their liberties. About 100 men joined them; but the town was struck motionless with dismay; the few who had gathered soon disappeared, and by the next day the resolution of the leaders was distinctly taken, to submit. But no one fled. . . . Lafrénière, Marquis, and Milhet descended the river, appeared before the commander of the Spaniards, and by the mouth of Lafrénière in a submissive but brave and manly address presented the homage of the people. The captain-general in his reply let fall the word seditious. Marquis boldly but respectfully objected. He was answered with gracious dignity and the assurance of ultimate justice, and the insurgent leaders returned to New Orleans and to their homes. The Spanish fleet numbered 24 sail. For more than three weeks it slowly pushed its way around the bends of the Mississippi, and on the 18th of August it finally furled its canvas before the town. Aubry [commanding the small force of French soldiers which had remained in the colony under Spanish pay] drew up his French troops with the colonial militia at the bottom of the Place d'Armes, a gun was fired from the flagship of the fleet, and Don Alexandro O'Reilly, accompanied by 2,600 chosen Spanish troops, and with 50 pieces of artillery, landed in unprecedented pomp, and took formal possession of the province. On the 21st, twelve of the principal insurrectionists were arrested. . . . Villeré [a planter, of prominence] either 'died raving mad on the day of his arrest,' as stated in the Spanish official report, or met his end in the act of resisting the guard on board the frigate where he had been placed in confinement. Lafrénière [former attorney-general and leader of the revolt], Noyan [a young ex-captain of

cavalry], Caresse [a merchant], Marquis, and Joseph Milhet [a merchant] were condemned to be hanged. The supplications both of colonists and Spanish officials saved them only from the gallows, and they fell before the fire of a file of Spanish grenadiers." The remaining prisoners were sent to Havana and kept in confinement for a year. "'Cruel O'Reilly'—the captain-general was justly named. . . . O'Reilly had come to set up a government, but not to remain and govern. On organizing the cabildo [a feebly constituted body—'like a crane, all feathers,' 'which, for the third part of a century, ruled the pettier destinies of the Louisiana Creoles'], he announced the appointment of Don Louis de Unzaga, colonel of the regiment of Havana, as governor of the province, and yielded him the chair. But under his own higher commission of captain-general he continued for a time in control. He established in force the laws of Castile and the Indies and the use of the Spanish tongue in the courts and the public offices. . . . Spanish rule in Louisiana was better, at least, than French, which, it is true, scarcely deserved the name of government. As to the laws themselves, it is worthy of notice that Louisiana 'is at this time the only State, of the vast territories acquired from France, Spain, and Mexico, in which the civil law has been retained, and forms a large portion of its jurisprudence.' On the 29th of October, 1770, O'Reilly sailed from New Orleans with most of his troops, leaving the Spanish power entirely and peacefully established. The force left by him in the colony amounted to 1,200 men. He had dealt a sudden and terrible blow; but he had followed it only with velvet strokes."—G. W. Cable, *The Creoles of Louisiana, ch.* 10-11.

Also in: G. E. Waring, Jr., and G. W. Cable, *Hist. and Present Condition of New Orleans* (*U. S. Tenth Census, v.* 19).

A. D. 1779-1781.—Spanish reconquest of West Florida. See Florida: A. D. 1779-1781.

A. D. 1785-1800.—The question of the Navigation of the Mississippi, in dispute between Spain and the United States.—Discontent of settlers in Kentucky and Tennessee.—Wilkinson's intrigues.—"Settlers in considerable numbers had crossed the mountains into Kentucky and Tennessee while the war of Independence was in progress. . . . At once it became a question of vital importance how these people were to find avenues of commerce with the outer world. . . . Immigration to the interior must cross the mountains; but the natural highway for commerce was the Mississippi River. If the use of this river were left free, nothing better could be desired. Unfortunately it was not free. The east bank of the river, as far south as the north boundary of Florida [which included some part of the present states of Alabama and Mississippi, but with the northern boundary in dispute—see Florida: A. D. 1783-1787], was the property of the United States, but the west bank, together with the island of Orleans, was held by Spain. That power, while conceding to the people of the United States the free navigation of the Mississippi as far down as the American ownership of the left bank extended, claimed exclusive jurisdiction below that line, and proposed to exact customs duties from such American commerce as should pass in or out of the mouth of the river. This pretension if yielded to would place all that commerce at the mercy of Spain, and render not merely the navigation of the river of little value, but the very land from which the commerce sprung. It was inconceivable that such pretensions should be tolerated if successful resistance were possible, but the settlers were able to combat it on two grounds, either of which seemed, according to recognized rules of international law, conclusive. First, As citizens of the country owning one of the banks on the upper portion of the stream, they claimed the free navigation to the sea with the privilege of a landing place at its mouth as a natural right; and they were able to fortify this claim—if it needed support—with the opinions of publicists of acknowledged authority. Second, They claimed under the treaty of 1768 between Great Britain and France, whereby the latter, then the owner of Louisiana, had conceded to the former the free navigation of the Mississippi in its whole breadth and length, with passage in and out of its mouth, subject to the payment of no duty whatsoever. . . . Thus both in natural right and by treaty concession the claim of the American settlers seemed incontrovertible, and perhaps it may fairly be said that the whole country agreed in this view. When Mr. Jay, while the war of independence was still in progress, was sent to Spain to negotiate a treaty of amity and assistance, he was specially charged with the duty to see that the free navigation of the Mississippi was conceded. All his endeavors to that end, however, resulted in failure, and he was compelled to return home with the American claim still disputed. In 1785 the negotiation was transferred to this country, and Mr. Jay renewed his effort to obtain concessions, but without avail. The tenacity with which Spain held to its claim was so persistent that Congress in its anxiety to obtain a treaty of commerce finally instructed Mr. Jay on its behalf to consent that for twenty-five years the United States should forbear to claim the right in dispute. The instruction was given by the vote of the seven Northern States against a united South; and the action was so distinctly sectional as to threaten the stability of the Union. . . . In the West the feeling of dissatisfaction was most intense and uncompromising. The settlers of Kentucky already deemed themselves sufficiently numerous and powerful to be entitled to set up a state government of their own, and to have a voice in the councils of the Confederation. . . . In Tennessee as well as in Kentucky settlements had been going on rapidly; and perhaps in the former even more distinctly than in the latter a growing indifference to the national bond was manifest. . . . One of the difficult questions which confronted the new government, formed under the Federal constitution, was how to deal with this feeling and control or remove it. Spanish levies on American commerce were in some cases almost prohibitory, reaching fifty or seventy-five per cent. ad valorem, and it was quite out of the question that hardy backwoodsmen trained to arms should for any considerable time submit to pay them. If the national government failed to secure their rights by diplomacy, they would seek redress in such other way as might be open to them. . . . Among the most prominent of the Kentucky settlers was Gen. James Wilkinson, who had gone there as a merchant in 1784. He was shortly found advocating, though somewhat covertly, the setting up of an

independent State Government. In 1787 he opened trade with New Orleans, and endeavored to impress upon the Spanish authorities the importance of an amicable understanding with the settlers in the Ohio valley. His representations for a time had considerable effect, and the trade was not only relieved of oppressive burdens, but Americans were invited to make settlements within Spanish limits in Louisiana and West Florida. A considerable settlement was actually made at New Madrid under this invitation. But there is no reason to believe that genuine good feeling inspired this policy; the purpose plainly in view was to build up a Spanish party among the American settlers and eventually to detach them from the United States. But the course pursued was variable, being characterized in turn by liberality and by rigor. Wilkinson appears to have been allowed special privileges in trade, and this, together with the fact that he was known to receive a heavy remittance from New Orleans, begat a suspicion that he was under Spanish pay; a suspicion from which he was never wholly relieved, and which probably to some extent affected the judgment of men when he came under further suspicion in consequence of equivocal relations with Aaron Burr. In 1789 a British emissary made his appearance in Kentucky, whose mission seemed to be to sound the sentiments of the people respecting union with Canada. He came at a bad time for his purposes; for the feeling of the country against Great Britain was then at its height, and was particularly strong in the West, where the failure to deliver up the posts within American limits was known to have been influential in encouraging Indian hostilities. The British agent, therefore, met with anything but friendly reception. . . . Meantime Spain had become so far complicated in European wars as to be solicitous regarding the preservation of her own American possessions, then bordered by a hostile people, and at her suggestion an envoy was sent by the United States to Madrid, with whom in October 1795 a treaty was made, whereby among other things it was agreed that Spain should permit the people of the United States for the term of three years to make use of the port of New Orleans as a place of deposit for their produce and merchandise, and to export the same free from all duty or charge except for storage and incidental expenses. At the end of the three years the treaty contemplated further negotiations, and it was hoped by the American authorities that a decisive step had been taken towards the complete recognition of American claims. The treaty, however, was far from satisfying the people of Kentucky and Tennessee, who looked upon the assent of Spain to it as a mere makeshift for the protection of her territory from invasion. Projects for taking forcible possession of the mouth of the Mississippi continued therefore to be agitated. . . . The schemes of Don Francisco de Miranda for the overthrow of Spanish authority in America now became important. Miranda was of Spanish-American birth, and had been in the United States while the war of Independence was pending and formed acquaintance among the American officers. Conceiving the idea of liberating the Spanish colonies, he sought assistance from England and Russia, but when the French Revolution occurred he enlisted in the French service and for a time held important military positions. Driven from France in 1797 he took up his old scheme again, looking now to England and America for the necessary assistance. Several leading American statesmen were approached on the subject, Hamilton among them; and while the relations between France and the United States seemed likely to result in war, that great man, who had no fear of evils likely to result from the extension of territory, listened with approval to the project of a combined attack by British and American forces on the Spanish Colonies, and would have been willing, with the approval of the government, to personally take part in it. President Adams, however, frowned upon the scheme, and it was necessarily but with great reluctance abandoned. And now occurred an event of highest interest to the people of the United States. Spain, aware of her precarious hold upon Louisiana, in 1800 retroceded it to France."—T. M. Cooley, *The Acquisition of Louisiana* (*Indiana Hist. Soc. Pamphlets, no. 8*).

Also in: W. H. Safford, *The Blennerhassett Papers, ch.* 5.—H. Marshall, *Hist. of Kentucky, v.* 1, *ch.* 12-15.—J. H. Monette, *Discovery and Settlement of the Valley of the Mississippi, bk.* 5, *ch.* 6 (*v.* 2).—J. M. Brown, *The Political Beginnings of Kentucky.*—T. M. Green *The Spanish Conspiracy.*

A. D. 1798-1803.—The last days of Spanish rule.—The great domain transferred to France, and sold by Napoleon to the United States.—The bounds of the purchase.—"During the years 1796-97 the Spanish authorities exhausted every means for delaying a confirmation of the boundary line as set forth in the treaty of 1783. By one pretext and another, they avoided the surrender of the Natchez territory and continued to hold the military posts therein. Not until the 23d of March, 1798, was the final step taken by which the Federal Government was permitted to occupy in full the province of Mississippi. . . . Soon after this we find the newly made territory of Mississippi occupied by a Federal force, and, strange to say, with Gen. Wilkinson in command. The man who but lately had been playing the rôle of traitor, spy, insurrectionist and smuggler, was now chief commander on the border and was building a fort at Loftus Heights just above the boundary line. The new governor of Louisiana [Gayoso de Lemos], seeing the hope of detaching Kentucky and Tennessee fall dead at his feet, finally turned back to the old policy of restricting immigration and of discriminating against Protestants. By the treaty signed at Madrid in 1795, it had been stipulated that the citizens of the United States should not only have free navigation of the Mississippi River, but that they should also have the right to deposit in New Orleans all their produce during the space of three years. This limit, it was agreed, was to be extended by the Spanish Government, or, instead of an extension of time, a new point on the island of New Orleans was to be designated for depot. But at the expiration of the three years Morales, the Spanish intendant at New Orleans, declined to permit further deposits there, and refused to designate another place in accordance with the stipulation. This action aroused the people of the West; a storm of resentment broke forth and the government of the United States was forced to make a threatening demonstration in the direction of Louisiana.

Three regiments of the regular army were at once dispatched to the Ohio. The people flew to arms. Invasion appeared imminent." But the Spanish authorities gave way, and a new intendant at New Orleans "received from his Government orders to remove the interdict issued by Gayoso and to restore to the Western people the right of deposit at New Orleans. These orders he promptly obeyed, thus reviving good feelings between his province and the United States. Trade revived; immigration increased. . . . The deluge of immigration startled the Spaniards. They saw to what it was swiftly tending. A few more years and this tide would rise too high to be resisted and Louisiana would be lost to the king, lost to the holy religion, given over to freedom, republicanism and ruin. . . . On the 18th of July . . . [1802] the king ordered that no more grants of land be given to citizens of the United States. This effectually killed the commerce of the Mississippi River, and the indignation of the Western people knew no bounds. . . . Rumors, apparently well founded, were afloat that the irresistible genius of Napoleon was wringing the province from Spain and that this meant a division of the territories between France and the United States. To a large majority of Louisiana's population these were thrillingly welcome rumors. The very thought of once more becoming the subjects of France was enough to intoxicate them with delight. The treaty of Ildefonso, however, which had been ratified at Madrid on the 21st of March, 1801, had been kept a secret. Napoleon had hoped to occupy Louisiana with a strong army, consisting of 25,000 men, together with a fleet to guard the coast; but his implacable and ever watchful foe, England, discovered his design and thwarted it. But by the terms of the treaty, the colony and province of Louisiana had gone into his hands. He must take possession and hold it, or he must see England become its master. Pressed on every side at that time by wars and political complications and well understanding that it would endanger his power for him to undertake a grand American enterprise, he gladly opened negotiations with the United States looking to the cession of Louisiana to that Government. . . . Napoleon had agreed with Spain that Louisiana should not be ceded to any other power. . . . Diplomacy very quickly surmounted so small an obstacle. . . . The treaty of cession was signed on the 30th of April, 1803, the United States agreeing to pay France 60,000,000 francs as the purchase price of the territory. . . . In addition, the sum due American citizens . . . was assumed by the United States. The treaty of April was ratified by Napoleon in May, 1803, and by the Senate of the United States in October. . . . Pausing to glance at this strange transaction, by which one republic sells outright to another republic a whole country without in the least consulting the wishes of the inhabitants, whose allegiance and all of whose political and civil rights are changed thereby, we are tempted to wonder if the republic of the United States could to-day sell Louisiana with the same impunity that attended the purchase! She bought the country and its people, just as she might have bought a desert island with its goats."—M. Thompson, *The Story of Louisiana, ch.* 6, *with foot-note.*—"No one could say what was the southwest boundary of the territory acquired; whether it should be the Sabine or the Rio del Norte; and a controversy with Spain on the subject might at any time arise. The northwest boundary was also somewhat vague and uncertain, and would be open to controversy with Great Britain. [That] the territory extended west to the Rocky Mountains was not questioned, but it might be claimed that it extended to the Pacific. An impression that it did so extend has since prevailed in some quarters, and in some public papers and documents it has been assumed as an undoubted fact. But neither Mr Jefferson nor the French, whose right he purchased, ever claimed for Louisiana any such extent, and our title to Oregon has been safely deduced from other sources. Mr. Jefferson said expressly: 'To the waters of the Pacific we can found no claim in right of Louisiana.'"—Judge T. M. Cooley, *The Acquisition of Louisiana* (*Indiana Hist. Soc. Pamphlets, no.* 3).—"By the charter of Louis XIV., the country purchased to the north included all that was contiguous to the waters that flowed into the Mississippi. Consequently its northern boundary was the summit of the highlands in which its northern waters rise. By the tenth article of the treaty of Utrecht, France and England agreed to appoint commissioners to settle the boundary, and these commissioners, as such boundary, marked this summit on the 49th parallel of north latitude. This would not carry the rights of the United States beyond the Rocky Mountains. The claim to the territory beyond was based upon the principle of continuity, the prolongation of the territory to the adjacent great body of water. As against Great Britain, the claim was founded on the treaty of 1763, between France and Great Britain, by which the latter power ceded to the former all its rights west of the Mississippi River. The United States succeeded to all the rights of France. Besides this, there was an independent claim created by the discovery of the Columbia River by Gray, in 1792, and its exploration by Lewis and Clarke. All this was added to by the cession by Spain, in 1819, of any title that it had to all territory north of the 42d degree."—Rt. Rev. C. F. Robertson, *The Louisiana Purchase* (*Papers of Am. Hist. Ass'n, v.* 1, *p.* 259).—As its southwestern and southeastern boundaries were eventually settled by treaty with Spain [see FLORIDA: A. D. 1819–1821], the Louisiana purchase embraced 2,300 sq. miles in the present state of Alabama, west of the Perdido and on the gulf, below latitude 31° north; 3,600 sq. miles in the present state of Mississippi, south of the same latitude; the whole of the present states of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, and the Dakotas; Minnesota, west of the Mississippi; Kansas, all but the southwest corner; the whole of the Indian Territory, and so much of Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana as lies on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains. If it is held that the French claim was good to the Pacific, then we may say that we owe the remainder of Montana, with Idaho, Oregon and Washington to the same great purchase.—T. Donaldson, *The Public Domain, p.* 105.—On the constitutional and political aspects of the Louisiana purchase, see UNITED STATES: A. D. 1803.—Detailed accounts of the interesting circumstances and incidents connected with the negotiation at Paris will be found in the following works:—

H. Adams, *Hist. of the U. S.: First Administration of Jefferson, v.* 2, *ch.* 1-3.—D. C. Gilman, *James Monroe, ch.* 4.—B. Marbois, *Hist. of Louisiana, pt.* 2.—*Am. State Papers: Foreign Relations, v.* 2, *pp.* 506-583.

A. D. 1804-1805.—Lewis and Clark's exploration of the northwestern region of the purchase, to the Pacific. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1804-1805.

A. D. 1804-1812.—The purchase divided into the Territories of Orleans and Louisiana.—The first named becomes the State of Louisiana; the second becomes the Territory of Missouri.—"On the 26th of March, 1804, Congress passed an act dividing the province into two parts on the 33d parallel of latitude, the present northern boundary of Louisiana, and establishing for the lower portion a distinct territorial government, under the title of the territory of Orleans. The act was to go into effect in the following October. One of its provisions was the interdiction of the slave-trade. . . . The labors of the legislative council began on the 4th of December. A charter of incorporation was given by it to the city of New Orleans."—G. E. Waring, Jr., and G. W. Cable *Hist. and Present Condition of New Orleans* (*U. S Tenth Census, v.* 19), *pp* 32-33.—"All north of the 33d parallel of north latitude was formed into a district, and styled the District of Louisiana. For judicial and administrative purposes this district, or upper Louisiana as we shall continue to call it, was attached to the territory of Indiana." But in March, 1805, Congress passed an act "which erected the district into a territory of the first or lowest grade, and changed its title from the District to the Territory of Louisiana." Seven years later, in June 1812, the Territory of Orleans (the lower Louisiana of old) having been received into the federal Union as the State of Louisiana, the territory which bore the ancient name was advanced by act of Congress "from the first to the second grade of territories, and its name changed to Missouri"—L. Carr, *Missouri, ch.* 5.

A. D. 1806-1807.—Burr's Filibustering conspiracy. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1806-1807.

A. D. 1812.—The Territory of Orleans admitted to the Union as the State of Louisiana.—"The population of the Territory of Orleans had been augmented annually by emigration from the United States. According to the census of 1810, the whole territory, exclusive of the Florida parishes, contained an aggregate of 76,550 souls. Of this number, the city of New Orleans and its precincts contained 24,552 persons, leaving 52,000 souls for the remainder of the territory. Besides these, the inhabitants of the Florida parishes amounted, probably, to not less than 2,500, including slaves. . . . Congress, by an act approved February 11th, 1811, . . . authorized the election of a convention to adopt a Constitution, preparatory to the admission of the Territory into the Union as an independent state. The convention, consisting of 60 delegates from the original parishes, met according to law, on the first Monday in November, and concluded its labors on the 22d day of January following, having adopted a Constitution for the proposed new 'State of Louisiana.'. . . The Constitution was accepted by Congress, and the State of Louisiana was formally admitted into the Union on the 8th day of April, 1812, upon an equal footing with the original states, from and after the 30th day of April, it being the ninth anniversary of the treaty of Paris. A few days subsequently, a 'supplemental act' of Congress extended the limits of the new state by the addition of the Florida parishes [see FLORIDA: A. D. 1810-1813]. This gave it the boundaries it has at present."—J. W. Monette, *Discovery and Settlement of the Valley of the Mississippi, bk.* 5, *ch.* 15 (*v.* 2).

A. D. 1813-1814.—The Creek War. See UNITED STATES OF AM: A. D. 1813-1814 (AUGUST—APRIL).

A. D. 1815.—Jackson's defense of New Orleans. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1815 (JANUARY).

A. D. 1861 (January).—Secession from the Union. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JANUARY—FEBRUARY).

A. D. 1862 (April).—Farragut's capture of New Orleans. See UNITED STATES OF AM. A. D. 1862 (APRIL: ON THE MISSISSIPPI).

A. D. 1862 (May—December).—New Orleans under General Butler. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MAY—DECEMBER: LOUISIANA).

A. D. 1862 (June).—Appointment of a Military Governor. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MARCH—JUNE).

A. D. 1864.—Reconstruction of the state under President Lincoln's plan. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D 1863-1864 (DECEMBER—JULY).

A. D. 1864.—The Red River Expedition. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MARCH—MAY: LOUISIANA).

A. D. 1865.—President Johnson's recognition of the reconstructed state government. See UNITED STATES OF AM.. A. D. 1865 (MAY—JULY).

A. D. 1865-1867.—The first Reconstruction experiment.—The Riot at New Orleans.—Establishment of military rule.—"In 1865 the returned Confederates, restored to citizenship by the President's amnesty proclamation [see UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1865 (MAY—JULY)], soon got control of almost all the State [as reorganized under the constitution framed and adopted in 1864]. The Legislature was in their hands, as well as most of the State and municipal offices; so, when the President, on the 20th of August, 1866, by proclamation, extended his previous instructions regarding civil affairs in Texas so as to have them apply to all the seceded States, there at once began in Louisiana a system of discriminative legislation directed against the freedmen, that led to flagrant wrongs in the enforcement of labor contracts, and in the remote parishes to numbers of outrages and murders. To remedy this deplorable condition of things, it was proposed, by those who had established the government of 1864, to remodel the constitution of the State; and they sought to do this by reassembling the convention, that body before its adjournment having provided for reconvening under certain conditions, in obedience to the call of its president. Therefore, early in the summer of 1866, many members of this convention met in conference at New Orleans, and decided that a necessity existed for reconvening the delegates, and a proclamation was issued accordingly by B. K. Howell, President pro tempore. Mayor

John T. Monroe and the other officials of New Orleans looked upon this proposed action as revolutionary, and by the time the convention assembled (July 30) such bitterness of feeling prevailed that efforts were made by the mayor and city police to suppress the meeting. A bloody riot followed, resulting in the killing and wounding of about 160 persons. I happened [the writer is General Sheridan, then in command of the Military Division of the Gulf] to be absent from the city at the time, returning from Texas, where I had been called by affairs on the Rio Grande. On my way up from the mouth of the Mississippi I was met on the night of July 30 by one of my staff, who reported what had occurred, giving the details of the massacre — no milder term is fitting — and informing me that, to prevent further slaughter, General Baird, the senior military officer present, had assumed control of the municipal government. On reaching the city I made an investigation, and that night sent [a brief report, which was followed, on the 6th of August, by an extended account of the facts of the riot, containing the following statements]: . . . 'The convention assembled at 12 M. on the 30th, the timid members absenting themselves because the tone of the general public was ominous of trouble. . . . About 1 P. M. a procession of say from 60 to 130 colored men marched up Burgundy Street and across Canal Street toward the convention, carrying an American flag. These men had about one pistol to every ten men, and canes and clubs in addition. While crossing Canal Street a row occurred. . . . On arrival at the front of the Institute [where the convention was held] there was some throwing of brickbats by both sides. The police, who had been held well in hand, were vigorously marched to the scene of disorder. The procession entered the Institute with the flag, about 6 or 8 remaining outside. A row occurred between a policeman and one of these colored men, and a shot was again fired by one of the parties, which led to an indiscriminate fire on the building through the windows by the policemen. This had been going on for a short time, when a white flag was displayed from the windows of the Institute, whereupon the firing ceased, and the police rushed into the building. From the testimony of wounded men, and others who were inside the building, the policemen opened an indiscriminate fire upon the audience until they had emptied their revolvers, when they retired, and those inside barricaded the doors. The door was broken in, and the firing again commenced, when many of the colored and white people either escaped throughout the door or were passed out by the policemen inside; but as they came out the policemen who formed the circle nearest the building fired upon them, and they were again fired upon by the citizens that formed the outer circle. Many of those wounded and taken prisoners, and others who were prisoners and not wounded, were fired upon by their captors and by citizens. The wounded were stabbed while lying on the ground, and their heads beaten with brickbats. . . . Some were killed and wounded several squares from the scene.' . . . Subsequently a military commission investigated the subject of the riot, taking a great deal of testimony. The commission substantially confirmed the conclusions given in my despatches, and still later there was an investigation by a select committee of the House of Representatives. . . . A list of the killed and wounded was embraced in the committee's report, and among other conclusions reached were the following: . . . 'This riotous attack upon the convention, with its terrible results of massacre and murder, was not an accident. It was the determined purpose of the mayor of the city of New Orleans to break up this convention by armed force.' . . . The committee held that no legal government existed in Louisiana, and recommended the temporary establishment of a provisional government therein." In the following March the Military Reconstruction Acts were passed by Congress — see UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1867 (MARCH) — and General Sheridan was assigned to the command of the fifth military district therein defined, consisting of Louisiana and Texas. — P. H. Sheridan, *Personal Memoirs, v. 2, ch. 10–11.*

ALSO IN: *Rept. of Select Com. on New Orleans Riot, 39th Congress, 2d Sess., H. R. Rept., No. 16.*

A. D. 1868. — Reconstruction complete. — Restored representation in Congress. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1868–1870.

LOUISVILLE, Ky.: Threatened by the Rebel Army under Bragg. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JUNE—OCTOBER: TENNESSEE—KENTUCKY).

LOUVAIN: A. D. 1635. — Unsuccessful siege by the French. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1635–1638.

A. D. 1706. — Taken by Marlborough and the Allies. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1706–1707.

LOUVAIN, Battle of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (FEBRUARY—APRIL).

LOUVRE, The. — "The early history of the Louvre is involved in great obscurity. The name of its founder and the period of its erection are alike unknown; the first notice of it we meet with upon record is in the 7th century, when Dagobert kept here his horses and hounds. The kings [Merovingeans] called 'fainéans' often visited it, when after dinner they rode in a sort of coach through the forest, which covered this side of the river, and in the evening returned in a boat, fishing by the way, to the city, where they supped and slept. There is no mention of this royal dwelling under the second, nor even under the third race of kings, till the reign of Philip Augustus. About the year 1204, that prince converted it into a kind of citadel, surrounded with wide ditches and flanked with towers. . . . The walls erected by Philip Augustus did not take in the Louvre, but after having remained outside of Paris more than six centuries, it was enclosed by the walls begun in 1367, under Charles V., and finished in 1383, under Charles VI. . . . Charles IX., Henry III., Henry IV., and Louis XIII., inhabited the Louvre and added to its buildings. Nothing remains of the old château of Philip Augustus, which Charles V. repaired; the most ancient part now in existence is that called 'le Vieux Louvre,' begun by Francis I. in 1539, and finished by Henry II. in 1548."—*Hist. of Paris (London, 1827), ch. 2 (v. 2).*—"The origin of the word Louvre is believed to be a Saxon word, 'Leowar' or 'Lower,' which meant a fortified camp. . . . Francis I. did little more than decide the fate of

the old Louvre by introducing the new fashion. His successors went on with the work; and the progress of it may be followed, reign after reign, till the last visible fragment of the Gothic castle had been ruthlessly carted away. . . . Vast as is the Louvre that we know, it is as nothing in comparison with the prodigious scheme imagined by Richelieu and Louis XIII.; a scheme which, though never carried out, gave a very strong impulse to the works, and ensured the completion of the present building, at least in a subsequent reign. . . . Happily for the Louvre Louis XIV. interested himself in it before he engulfed his millions at Marly and Versailles."—P. G. Hamerton, *Paris in Old and Present Times, ch.* 6.

LOVEJOY, Murder of. See SLAVERY.

LOVERS, War of the. See FRANCE: A. D. 1578–1580.

LOW ARCHIPELAGO, The. See POLYNESIA.

LOW CHURCH. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1689 (APRIL—AUGUST).

LOW COUNTRIES, The. See NETHERLANDS.

LOWLANDS OF SCOTLAND. See SCOTCH HIGHLAND AND LOWLAND.

LOWOSITZ, OR LOBOSITZ, Battle of. See GERMANY: A. D. 1756.

LOYALISTS, American. See TORIES OF THE AM. REV.

LOYALTY ISLANDS. See MELANESIA

LOYOLA. See JESUITS: A. D. 1540–1556.

LUBECK: Origin and rise.—"Near the mouth of the river Trave there had long existed a small settlement of pirates or fishermen. The convenience of the harbour had led to this settlement and it had been much frequented by Christian merchants. The unsettled state of the country, however, afforded them little security, and it had been often taken and plundered by the Pagan freebooters. When Henry acquired the dominion of the soil [Henry the Lion, Duke of Saxony, who subdued the heathen Wendish tribe of the Oborites, A. D. 1165, and added their country to his dominions] he paid particular attention to this infant establishment, and under the shadow of his power the city of Lubeck (for so it became) arose on a broad and permanent basis. He made it . . . the seat of a bishop; he also established a mint and a custom-house, and by the grant of a municipal government, he secured the personal, while he prepared the way for the political, rights of its burghers. The ancient name of the harbour was Wisby, and by a proclamation addressed to the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Russians, he invited them to frequent it, with an assurance that the ways should be open and secure by land and water. . . . This judicious policy was rewarded by a rapid and large increase to the wealth and commerce of Lubeck."—Sir A. Halliday, *Annals of the House of Hanover, v.* 1. *pp.* 229–230.—See, also, HANSA TOWNS.

A. D. 1801–1803.—One of six free cities which survived the Peace of Luneville. See GERMANY: A. D. 1801–1803.

A. D. 1806.—Battle of French and Prussians. See GERMANY: A. D. 1806 (OCTOBER).

A. D. 1810.—Annexation to France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1810 (FEBRUARY—DECEMBER).

A. D. 1810–1815.—Loss and recovery of autonomy as a "free city." See CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY: and VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

A. D. 1866.—Surrender of free privileges.—Entrance into the Zollverein. See GERMANY: A. D. 1888.

LUBECK, Treaty of. See GERMANY: A. D. 1627–1629.

LUCANIANS, The. See SABINES; also, SAMNITES.

LUCCA: The founding of the city. See MUTINA AND PARMA.

8th Century.—The seat of Tuscan government. See TUSCANY: A. D. 685–1115.

A. D. 1248–1278.—In the wars of the Guelfs and Ghibellines. See FLORENCE: A. D. 1248–1278.

A. D. 1284–1293.—War with Pisa. See PISA: A. D. 1063–1293.

A. D. 1314–1328.—The brief tyranny of Uguccione della Faggiuola, and the longer despotism of Castruccio Castracani.—Erected into an imperial duchy. See ITALY: A. D. 1313–1330.

A. D. 1335–1341.—Acquired by Mastino della Scala of Verona.—Sold to Florence.—Taken by Pisa. See FLORENCE: A. D. 1341–1343.

A. D. 1805.—Conferred on the sister of Napoleon. See FRANCE: A. D. 1804–1805.

A. D. 1814–1860.—After the fall of Napoleon Lucca was briefly occupied by the Neapolitans; then, in the new arrangements, figured for some time as a distinct duchy, afterwards became part of Tuscany, until its absorption in the kingdom of Italy.

LUCENA, Battle of (1483). See SPAIN: A. D. 1476–1492.

LUCERES, The. See ROME: BEGINNING AND NAME.

LUCHANA, Battle of (1836). See SPAIN: A. D. 1833–1846.

LUCIUS II., Pope, A. D. 1144–1145.....
Lucius III., Pope, 1181–1185.

LUCKA, Battle of (1308). See GERMANY: A. D. 1273–1308.

LUCKNOW, The siege of See INDIA: A. D. 1857 (MAY—AUGUST), and 1857–1858 (JULY—JUNE).

LUCOTECIA. See LUTETIA.

LUD.—Ancient Lydia.

LUDDITES, Rioting of the. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1812–1813.

LUDI.—LUDI CIRCENSES, ETC.—"Public games (Ludi) formed an important feature in the worship of the gods [in ancient Rome], and in the earlier ages were always regarded as religious rites; so that the words Ludi, Feriae and Dies Festi are frequently employed as synonymous. Games celebrated every year upon a fixed day were denominated Ludi Stati. Such were the Ludi Romani s. Magni, held invariably on the 21st of September; the Megalesia on 4th April; the Floralia on 28th April, and many others. . . . Another classification of Ludi was derived from the place where they were exhibited and the nature of the exhibition . . . . : 1. Ludi Circenses, chariot races and other games exhibited in a circus. 2. Ludi Scenici, dramatic entertainments exhibited in a theatre. 3. Munera Gladiatoria, prize-fights; which were

usually exhibited in an amphitheatre."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman Antiq., ch.* 10.

LUDI MAXIMI ROMANI. See ROMAN CITY FESTIVAL.

LUDI SÆCULARES, The. See SECULAR GAMES.

LUDOVICO (called Il Moro), Duke of Milan, A. D. 1494–1500.

LUDWIG. See LOUIS.

LUGDUNENSIS AND LUGDUNUM. See LYONS: UNDER THE ROMANS.

LUGUVALLIUM.—The Roman military station at the western extremity of the Roman wall in Britain; the site of the modern city of Carlisle.—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain, ch.* 8.

LUITPERTUS, King of the Lombards, A. D. 700–701.

LUKETIA. See LUTETIA.

LUNA: Destruction by the Northmen. See NORMANS: A. D. 849–860.

LUND, Battle of (1676). See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1644–1697.

LUNDY, Benjamin, and the rise of the Abolitionists. See SLAVERY, NEGRO: A. D. 1828–1832.

LUNDY'S LANE, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1814 (JULY—SEPTEMBER).

LÜNEBURG, Duchy of. See SAXONY: THE OLD DUCHY; and A. D. 1178–1183.

LUNEBURG HEATH, Battle of (A. D. 880). See EBBSDORF.

LUNEVILLE, The Treaty of (1801). See GERMANY: A. D. 1801–1803.

LUPERCAL.—LUPERCALIA.—The Lupercal was the wolf cave in which, according to Roman legend, the twins, Romulus and Remus, were nursed by a she-wolf. It was supposed to be situated at the foot of the Palatine Hill. "The Lupercal is described by Dionysius as having once been a large grotto, shaded with thick bushes and large trees, and containing a copious spring of water. This grotto was dedicated to Lupercus, an ancient Latin pastoral divinity, who was worshipped by shepherds as the protector of their flocks against wolves. A festival was held every year, on the 15th of February, in the Lupercal, in honour of Lupercus; the place contained an altar and a grove sacred to the god. . . . Gibbon tells us the festival of the Lupercalia, whose origin had preceded the foundation of Rome, was still celebrated in the reign of Anthemus, 472 A.D."—H. M. Westropp, *Early and Imperial Rome, p.* 35.—"At the Lupercalia youths ran through the streets dressed in goats' skins, beating all those they met with strips of goats' leather."—W. Ihne, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 1, *ch.* 13.

LURIS. See GYPSIES.

LUSIGNAN, House of. See JERUSALEM: A. D. 1149–1187, 1192–1229, and 1291; also, CYPRUS: A. D. 1191, and 1192–1489.

LUSITANIA.—THE LUSITANIANS.—The Lusitani or Lusitanians were the people who resisted the Roman conquest of Spain most obstinately—with even more resolution than their neighbors and kinsmen, the Celtiberians. In 153 B. C. they defeated a Roman army, which lost 6,000 men. The following year they inflicted another defeat, on the prætor Mummius, who lost 9,000 of his soldiers. Again, in 151, the prætor Galba suffered a loss of 7,000 men at their hands. But, in 150, Galba ravaged the Lusitanian country so effectually that they sued for peace. Pretending to arrange terms of friendship with them, this infamous Roman persuaded three large bands of the Lusitanians to lay down their arms, which being done he surrounded them with his troops and massacred them in cold blood. One of the few who escaped was a man named Viriathus, who became thenceforth the leader of his surviving countrymen in a guerrilla warfare which lasted for ten years, and which cost the Romans thousands of men. In the end they could not vanquish Viriathus, but basely bribed some traitors in his own camp to murder him. The Roman province which was afterwards formed out of the country of the Lusitanians, and which took their name, has been mistakenly identified with the modern kingdom of Portugal, which it coincided with only in part.—W. Ihne, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 5, *ch.* 6.—See PORTUGAL: EARLY HISTORY.—On the settlement of the Alans, see SPAIN: A. D. 409–414.

LUSTRUM.—"After the [Roman] Censors had concluded the various duties committed to their charge, they proceeded in the last place to offer up, on behalf of the whole Roman people, the great expiatory sacrifice called Lustrum, and this being offered up once only in the space of five years, the term Lustrum is frequently employed to denote that space of time."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman Antiq., ch.* 5.

LUTETIA. See PARIS, BEGINNING OF.

LUTHER, Martin, and the Reformation. See PAPACY: A. D. 1516–1517, 1517, 1517–1521, 1521–1522, 1522–1525, 1525–1529, 1530–1531; also, GERMANY: A. D. 1530–1532. . . . . **On education.** See EDUCATION, RENAISSANCE: GERMANY.

LUTHERAN CHURCH, The.—The church of the Reformation in Germany, founded by Luther (see PAPACY: A. D. 1516–1517, and after), was planted at an early day among the Dutch and the Swedes, and the germs of its growth in America first had life in their colonies on the Hudson and the Delaware. It was not, however, until considerable bodies of German immigrants had made homes in Pennsylvania, Georgia and the Carolinas, that the Lutheran Church in America acquired a really organized existence, and its history as a distinct religious body may be said to date from the arrival of Pastor Heinrich Muhlenberg at Philadelphia, in 1742. With the great German migration to America in the last half-century it has grown to be one of the most important Christian bodies in the United States, not embraced in a single organization, but in several, united substantially by a common faith. —H. E. Jacobs, *Hist. of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in the U. S.*

LUTTER, Battle of (1626). See GERMANY: A. D. 1624–1626.

LÜTZEN, Battle of (1632).—Death of Gustavus Adolphus. See GERMANY: A. D. 1631–1632.

LÜTZEN, OR GROSS GÖRSCHEN, Battle of (1813). See GERMANY: A. D. 1813 (APRIL—MAY).

LUXEMBURG, The House of: Its aggrandizement in the Empire, in Bohemia, Hungary, and Brandenburg. See GERMANY: A. D. 1308–1313, and 1347–1493; also, HUNGARY: A. D. 1301–1442; and BRANDENBURG: A. D. 1168–1417.

LUXEMBURG: A. D. 1713.—Ceded to Holland. See UTRECHT: A. D. 1712–1714.

A. D. 1795.—Siege and capture by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1795 (JUNE—DECEMBER).

A. D. 1867.—Separated from Germany and formed into a neutral state. See GERMANY: A. D. 1866–1870.

LUZON. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

LUZZARA, Battle of (1702). See ITALY: A. D. 1701–1713.

LYCEUM, The Athenian. See ACADEMY THE ATHENIAN; and GYMNASIA, GREEK; also, ATHENS: A. D. 529.

LYCIAN LEAGUE, The.—"Probably the best constructed Federal Government that the ancient world beheld. The account given by Strabo, our sole authority, is so full, clear, and brief, that I cannot do better than translate it. The 'ancestral constitution of the Lykian League' is described by the great geographer in these words: 'There are three and twenty cities which have a share in the suffrage, and they come together from each city in the common Federal Assembly, choosing for their place of meeting any city which they think best. And, among the cities, the greatest are possessed of three votes apiece, the middle ones of two, and the rest of one; and in the same proportion they pay taxes, and take their share of other public burthens. . . . And, in the Federal Assembly, first the Lykiarch is chosen and then the other Magistrates of the League, and bodies of Federal Judges are appointed; and formerly they used to consult about war, and peace, and alliance; this now, of course, they cannot do, but these things must needs rest with the Romans.' . . . On the practical working of this constitution Strabo bestows the highest praise. Lykia was, in his day, a Roman dependency, but it retained its own laws and internal government."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. of Federal Govt., ch.* 4, *sect.* 4.

LYCIANS, The.—The people who occupied in ancient times the extreme southern peninsula of Asia Minor. "The ancients knew of no unmixed population in this district. The Phœnicians explored the Lycian Taurus as well as the Cilician; and by land also Semitic tribes seem to have immigrated out of Syria and Cilicia; and these tribes formed the tribe of the Solymi. Another influx of population was conducted to this coast by means of the Rhodian chain of islands: men of Crete came across, who called themselves Termili or Trameli, and venerated Sarpedon as their Hero. After an arduous struggle, they gradually made themselves masters of the land encircled by sea and rock. . . . From the mouth of the Xanthus the Cretans entered the land. There Leto had first found a hospitable reception; in Patara, near by, arose the first great temple of Apollo, the god of light, or Lycius, with the worship of whom the inhabitants of the land became subsequently to such a degree identified as to receive themselves from the Greeks on whose coasts they landed the same name as the god, viz., Lycians. . . . We know that the Lycians, in courage and knowledge of the sea fully the equals of the most seafaring nation of the Archipelago, from a desire of an orderly political life, renounced at an early period the public practice of piracy, which their neighbours in Pisidia and Cilicia never relinquished. Their patriotism they proved in heroic struggles, and in the quiet of home developed a greater refinement of manners, to which the special honour in which they held the female sex bears marked testimony."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece, bk.* 1, *ch.* 3 (*v.* 1).

LYCURGUS, Constitution of. See SPARTA: THE CONSTITUTION.

LYDIANS, The.—"On the western coast of Asia Minor the nation of the Lydians, which possessed the vallies of the Hermus and Mæander, had early arrived at a monarchy and a point of civilization far in advance of the stages of primitive life . . . When the Greeks forced the Phenicians from the islands of the Ægean sea, and then, about the end of the eleventh and beginning of the tenth century, B. C., landed on the western coast of Asia Minor, the Lydians were not able any more than the Teucrians and Mysians in the North, or the Carians in the South, to prevent the establishment of the Greeks on their coasts, the loss of the ancient native sanctuaries at Smyrna, Colophon, Ephesus, and the founding of Greek cities in their land on the mouths of the Lydian rivers, the Hermus and the Cayster, though the Greek emigrants came in isolated expeditions over the sea. It was on the Lydian coasts that the most important Greek cities rose: Cyme, Phocæa, Smyrna, Colophon, Ephesus, Priene, Myus, and Miletus were on the land of the Carians."—M. Duncker, *Hist. of Antiquity, bk.* 4, *ch.* 17.—"On the basis of a population related to the Phrygians and Armenians arose the nation of the Lydians, which through its orginal ancestor, Lud, would appear in Eastern tradition also to be reckoned as a member of the Semitic family. As long as we remain unacquainted with the spoken and written language of the Lydians, it will be impossible to define with any accuracy the mixture of peoples which here took place. But, speaking generally, there is no doubt of the double relationship of this people, and of its consequent important place in civilization among the groups of the nations of Asia Minor. The Lydians became on land, as the Phœnicians by sea, the mediators between Hellas and Anterior Asia. . . . The Lydians are the first among the nations of Asia Minor of whom we have any intimate knowledge as a political community."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece, bk.* 1, *ch.* 3 (*v.* 1).—The first, perhaps legendary, dynasty of Lydia, called the Atyadæ, was followed by one called the Herakleidæ by the Greeks, which is said to have ruled over 500 years. The last king of that family, Kandaules, was murdered, about B. C. 715, by Gyges, who founded the dynasty of the Mermnadæ, under whom the Lydian dominion was extended over most of Asia Minor, and its kings contended on fairly equal terms with the power of the Medes. But their monarchy was overthrown by Cyrus, B. C. 546, and the famous Crœsus, last of their line, ended his days as an attendant and counselor of the Persian king.—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 17 *and* 32.—Recent discoveries tend to the conclusion that the primitive inhabitants of Lydia were of a race to which the Hittites belonged.—A. H. Sayce, *ed., Ancient Empires of the East, app.* 4.—See, also, ASIA MINOR: B. C. 724–539; and PERSIA: B. C. 549–521.

LYGIANS, The.—"Of all the invaders of Gaul [in the reign of Probus, A. D. 277] the most formidable were the Lygians, a distant people who reigned over a wide domain on the frontiers of Poland and Silesia. In the Lygian

nation the Arii held the first rank by their numbers and fierceness. 'The Arii' (it is thus that they are described by the energy of Tacitus) 'study to improve by art and circumstances the innate terrors of their barbarism. Their shields are black, their bodies are painted black. They choose for the combat the darkest hour of the night.' . . . Yet the arms and discipline of the Romans easily discomfited these horrid phantoms. The Lygii were defeated in a general engagement, and Semno, the most renowned of their chiefs, fell alive into the hands of Probus. That prudent emperor, unwilling to reduce a brave people to despair, granted them an honourable capitulation and permitted them to return in safety to their native country. But the losses which they suffered in the march, the battle, and the retreat, broke the power of the nation; nor is the Lygian name ever repeated in the history either of Germany or of the empire."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 12.—"Lygii appears to have been the generic name of the Slavonians on the Vistula. They are the same people as those called Lekhs by Nestor, the Russian chronicler of the twelfth century. These Lekhs are the ancestors of the Poles. See Latham, The Germania of Tacitus, p. 158."—W. Smith, *Note to above, from Gibbon.*—"The Ligii were a widely-spread tribe, comprehending several clans. Tacitus names the Harii [or Arii], Helvecones, Manimi, Elisii, and Nahanarvali. Their territory was between the Oder and Vistula, and would include the greater part of Poland, and probably a portion of Silesia."—Church and Brodribb *Geog. Notes to the Germany of Tacitus.*—"The Elysii are supposed to have given name to Silesia."—*Note to the Oxford Trans. of Tacitus: Germany, ch.* 43.

LYKIANS, The. See LYCIANS.

LYMNE, in Roman times. See PORTUS LEMANIS.

LYON, General Nathaniel: Campaign in Missouri, and death. See MISSOURI: A. D. 1861 (FEBRUARY—JULY); and UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JULY—SEPTEMBER: MISSOURI).

LYONS: Under the Romans.—Minutius Plancus, Roman governor of Gallia Comata, or the Gaul of Cæsar's conquest, founded, B. C. 43, a city called Lugdunum, at the confluence of the Rhone and the Saone. A few years later, under Augustus, it was made the capital of a province to which it gave its name—Lugdunensis—and which comprised the whole of central Gaul, between the Loire and the Seine with the Armorican peninsula. In time the name Lugdunum became softened and shorn to Lyons. "Lyons, which stood on the west side of the Rhone, not so near the confluence of the Sâone as now, appears to have been settled by fugitive Romans driven out of Vienne by another party. It grew with as marvelous a rapidity as some of our western cities, for in fifteen years it swelled from a simple colony into a metropolis of considerable splendor. . . . Lugdun appears to have been a Keltic designation, and, as the 'g' in that speech took the sound of 'y' and 'd' was silent, we can easily see how the name became Lyon."—P. Godwin, *Hist. of France: Ancient Gaul, bk.* 2, *ch.* 5, *with foot-note.*—"Not having originated out of a Celtic canton, and hence always with a territory of narrow limits, but from the outset composed of Italians and in possession of the full Roman franchise, it [Lyons] stood forth unique in its kind among the communities of the three Gauls—as respects its legal relations, in some measure resembling Washington in the North American federation. . . . Only the governor of the middle or Lugudunensian province had his seat there; but when emperors or princes stayed in Gaul they as a rule resided in Lyons. Lyons was, alongside of Carthage, the only city of the Latin half of the empire which obtained a standing garrison, after the model of that of the capital. The only mint for imperial money which we can point to with certainty, for the earlier period of the empire, is that of Lyons. Here was the headquarters of the transit-dues which embraced all Gaul; and to this as a centre the Gallic network of roads converged. . . . Thus Lugudunum rapidly rose into prosperity. . . . In the later period of the empire, no doubt, it fell behind Treves."—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 8, *ch.* 3.

A. D. 500.—Under the Burgundians. See BURGUNDIANS: A. D. 500.

10th Century.—In the kingdom of Arles. See BURGUNDY: A. D 843–933.

12th Century.—"The Poor Men of Lyons." See WALDENSES.

A. D. 1685-1698.—Loss in the silk weaving industry by the Huguenot exodus. See FRANCE: A. D. 1681–1698.

A. D. 1793-1794.—Revolt against the Revolutionary government at Paris.—Siege and capture and fearful vengeance by the Terrorists. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (JUNE), (JULY—DECEMBER); and 1793–1794 (OCTOBER—APRIL).

A. D. 1795.—Reaction against the Reign of Terror.—The White Terror. See FRANCE: A. D. 1794–1795 (JULY—APRIL).

LYONS, Battle of (A. D. 197). See ROME: A. D. 192–284.

LYSIMACHUS, and the wars of the Diadochi. See MACEDONIA: B. C. 323–316, to 297–280.

LYTTON, Lord, The Indian administration of. See INDIA: A. D. 1876, 1877; and AFGHANISTAN: A. D. 1869–1881.

M.

MAARMORS. See MORMAERS.

MACÆ, The. See LIBYANS.

McALLISTER, Fort, The storming of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (NOVEMBER—DECEMBER: GEORGIA).

MACALO, Battle of (1427). See ITALY: A. D. 1412–1447.

MACBETH, King of Scotland: A. D. 1039–1054.

MACCABEES, The. See JEWS: B. C. 166–40.—Knights of. See INSURANCE.

MACCIOWICE, Battle of (1794). See POLAND: A. D. 1793–1796.

McCLELLAN, General George B.—Campaign in West Virginia. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JUNE—JULY: WEST VIRGINIA).....**Appointment to chief command.—Organization of the Army of the Potomac.**

See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JULY—NOVEMBER).....Protracted inaction through the winter of 1861-62. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861-1862 (DECEMBER—MARCH: VIRGINIA).....Peninsular campaign. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MARCH—MAY: VIRGINIA), (JULY—AUGUST: VIRGINIA).....During Gen. Pope's campaign. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JULY—AUGUST: VIRGINIA), to (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER, VIRGINIA).....Antietam Campaign, and removal from command. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (SEPTEMBER: MARYLAND); and (OCTOBER—DECEMBER: VIRGINIA).....Defeat in Presidential election. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MAY—NOVEMBER).

MACDONALD, Marshal.—Campaigns of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1798-1799 (AUGUST—APRIL) 1799 (APRIL—SEPTEMBER); GERMANY: A. D. 1809 (JULY—SEPTEMBER); 1813 (APRIL—MAY), (AUGUST), (OCTOBER), (OCTOBER—DECEMBER); and RUSSIA: A. D. 1812 (JUNE—SEPTEMBER).

MACDONOUGH, Commodore Thomas, and his victory on Lake Champlain. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1814 (SEPTEMBER).

McDOWELL, General Irwin. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JULY: VIRGINIA); and 1862 (MAY—JUNE: VIRGINIA)

MACE, as a symbol of authority, The.—"The club or mace, formed originally of hard wood, and the latter, subsequently either wholly or in part of metal, would naturally be adopted as one of the earliest weapons of primitive man, but it soon came to be regarded as a symbol of authority. . . . In the Middle Ages the mace was a common weapon with ecclesiastics, who, in consequence of their tenures, frequently took the field, but were, by a canon of the Church, forbidden to wield the sword. It strikes me as not improbable that in this custom we have the origin of the use of the mace as a symbol of authority by our cathedral and other ancient religious bodies. . . . In all probability its use by lay corporations may be traced to the corps of sergeants-at-mace, instituted as a body-guard both by Philip Augustus of France and our own Richard I., whilst with the Crusaders in Palestine. We learn that when the former monarch was in the Holy Land he found it necessary to secure his person from the emissaries of a sheik, called 'the Old Man of the Mountain,' who bound themselves to assassinate whomsoever he assigned. 'When the king,' says an ancient chronicler, 'heard of this he began to reflect seriously, and took counsel how he might best guard his person. He therefore instituted a guard of serjeants-à-maces who night and day were to be about his person in order to protect him.' These sergens-à-maces were 'afterwards called sergeants-at-arms, for Jean Bouteiller . . . , who lived in the time of Charles VI., that is, at the conclusion of the fourteenth century tells us, "The sergens d'armes are the mace-bearers that the king has to perform his duty, and who carry maces before the king; these are called sergeants-at-arms because they are sergeants for the king's body."' We learn further that Richard I. of England soon imitated the conduct of the French king, but he seems to have given his corps of sergeants-at-arms a more extensive power. Not only were they to watch round the king's tent in complete armour, with a mace, a sword, a bow and arrows, but were occasionally to arrest traitors and other offenders about the court, for which the mace was deemed a sufficient authority. . . . Hence, in all probability, was derived the custom of the chief magistrate of a municipality, who, as such, is the representative of the sovereign, being attended by his mace-bearer, as a symbol of the royal authority thus delegated to him."—W. Kelly, *The Great Mace* (*Royal Hist. Soc. Trans.*, *v.* 3).

MACEDONIA AND MACEDONIANS, The.—"The Macedonians of the fourth century B. C. acquired, from the ability and enterprise of two successive kings, a great perfection in Greek military organization, without any of the loftier Hellenic qualities. Their career in Greece is purely destructive, extinguishing the free movement of the separate cities, and disarming the citizen-soldier to make room for the foreign mercenary whose sword was unhallowed by any feelings of patriotism — yet totally incompetent to substitute any good system of central or pacific administration. But the Macedonians of the seventh and sixth centuries B. C. are an aggregate only of rude inland tribes, subdivided into distinct petty principalities, and separated from the Greeks by a wider ethnical difference even than the Epirots; since Herodotus, who considers the Epirotic Molossians and Thesprotians as children of Hellen, decidedly thinks the contrary respecting the Macedonians. In the main, however, they seem at this early period analogous to the Epirots in character and civilization. They had some few towns, but they were chiefly village residents, extremely brave and pugnacious. . . . The original seats of the Macedonians were in the regions east of the chain of Skardus (the northerly continuation of Pindus) — north of the chain called the Cambunian mountains, which connects Olympus with Pindus, and which forms the north-western boundary of Thessaly; but they did not reach so far eastward as the Thermaic Gulf. . . . The Macedonian language was different from Illyrian, from Thracian, and seemingly also from Paeonian. It was also different from Greek, yet apparently not more widely distinct than that of the Epirots; so that the acquisition of Greek was comparatively easy to the chiefs and people. . . . The large and comparatively productive region covered by the various sections of Macedonians, helps to explain that increase of ascendency which they successively acquired over all their neighbours. It was not however until a late period that they became united under one government. At first, each section — how many we do not know — had its own prince or chief. The Elymiots, or inhabitants of Elymeia, the southernmost portion of Macedonia, were thus originally distinct and independent; also the Orestæ, in mountain-seats somewhat north-west of the Elymiots. . . . The section of the Macedonian name who afterwards swallowed up all the rest and became known as 'The Macedonians' had their original centre at Ægæ or Edessa — the lofty, commanding and picturesque site of the modern Vodhena."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 25 (*v.* 8).

B. C. 508.—Subjection to Persia. See PERSIA: B. C. 521-493.

B. C. 383-379.—Overthrow of the Olynthian Confederacy by Sparta. See GREECE: B. C. 388-379.

B. C. 359-358.—Accession and first proceedings of King Philip.—His acquisition of Amphipolis. See GREECE: B. C. 359-358.

B. C. 353-336.—Philip's conquest of Thessaly.—Intervention in the Sacred War.—Victory at Chæronea.—Mastery of Greece.—Preparation to invade Persia.—Assassination. See GREECE: B. C. 357-336.

B. C. 351-348.—War with the Olynthian Confederacy.—Destruction of Olynthus. See GREECE: B. C. 351-348

B. C. 340.—Philip's unsuccessful siege of Byzantium. See GREECE: B. C. 340.

B. C. 336-335.—Alexander's campaigns at the north.—Revolt and destruction of Thebes. See GREECE: B. C. 336-335.

B. C. 334-330.—Invasion and conquest of the Persian empire by Alexander the Great.—Philip of Macedonia fell under the hand of an assassin in the midst of his preparations (B. C. 336) for the invasion of the Persian Empire. He was succeeded by his son, Alexander, who applied himself first, with significant energy, to the chastisement of the troublesome barbarians on his northern frontier, and to the crushing of revolt in Greece (see GREECE: B. C. 336-335). He had not yet been a year on the throne "when he stood forth a greater and more powerful sovereign than his father, with his empire united in the bonds of fear and admiration, and ready to carry out the long premeditated attack of the Greeks on the dominion of the Great king. . . . He had indeed a splendid army of all branches, heavy infantry, light infantry, slingers and archers, artillery such as the ancients could produce without gunpowder, and cavalry, both Thessalian and Macedonian, fit for both skirmishing and the shock of battle. If its numbers were not above 40,000, this moderate force was surely as much as any commander could handle in a rapid campaign with long marches through a hostile country. . . . After a Homeric landing on the coast near Ilium, and sacrifices to the Ilian goddess at her ancient shrine, with feasts and games, the king started East to meet the Persian satraps, who had collected their cavalry and Greek mercenary infantry on the plain of Zeleia behind the river Granicus (B. C. 334). Here he fought his first great battle, and showed the nature of his tactics. He used his heavy infantry, divided into two columns or phalanxes as his left wing, flanked by Thessalian cavalry, to threaten the right of the enemy, and keep him engaged while he delivered his main attack. Developing this movement by a rapid advance in echelonned squadrons thrown forward to the right, threatening to outflank the enemy, he induced them to spread their forces towards their left wing, and so weaken their left centre. No sooner had he succeeded in this than he threw his heavy cavalry on this weak point, and after a very severe struggle in crossing the river, and climbing its rugged banks he completely broke the enemy's line. . . . He did not strike straight into Asia, for this would have left it possible for Mentor and Memnon, the able Rhodians who commanded on the coast for Darius, either to have raised all Asia Minor against him, or to have transferred the war back to Macedon. . . . So then he seized Sardis, the key of all the highroads eastwards; he laid siege to Halicarnassus, which made a very long and stubborn resistance, and did not advance till he had his rear safe from attack. Even with all these precautions, the Persian fleet, under Memnon, was producing serious difficulties, and had not that able general died at the critical moment (B. C. 333), the Spartan revolt, which was put down the following year in Greece, would have assumed serious proportions. Alexander now saw that he could press on, and strike at the headquarters of the enemies' power—Phœnicia and the Great king himself. He crossed the difficult range of the Taurus, the southern bulwark of the Persian Empire, and occupied Cilicia. Even the sea was supposed to have retreated to allow his army to pass along a narrow strand under precipitous cliffs. The Great king was awaiting him with a vast army—grossly exaggerated, moreover, in our Greek accounts—in the plain of Syria, near Damascus. Foolish advisers persuaded him, owing to some delay in Alexander's advance, to leave his favourable position, where the advantage of his hosts of cavalry was clear. He therefore actually crossed Alexander, who had passed on the sea side of Mount Amanus, southward, and occupied Issus on his rear. The Macedonian army was thus cut off from home, and a victory necessary to its very existence. The great battle of Issus was fought on such narrow ground, between the sea and the mountains, that neither side had room for outflanking its opponent, except by occupying the high ground on the inland side of the plain (B. C. 333). This was done by the Persians, and the banks of a little river (the Pinarus) crossing their front were fortified as at the Granicus. Alexander was obliged to advance with a large reserve to protect his right flank. As usual he attacked with his right centre, and as soon as he had shaken the troops opposed to him, wheeled to the left, and made straight for the king himself, who occupied the centre in his chariot. Had Darius withstood him bravely and for some time, the defeat of the Macedonians' left wing would probably have been complete, for the Persian cavalry on the coast, attacking the Thessalians on Alexander's left wing, were decidedly superior, and the Greek infantry was at this time a match for the phalanx. But the flight of Darius, and the panic which ensued about him, left Alexander leisure to turn to the assistance of his hard-pressed left wing, and recover the victory. . . . The greatness of this victory completely paralyzed all the revolt prepared in his rear by the Persian fleet. Alexander was now strong enough to go on without any base of operation, and he boldly (in the manifesto he addressed to Darius after the battle) proclaimed himself King of Persia by right of conquest, who would brook no equal. Nevertheless, he delayed many months (which the siege of Tyre [see TYRE: B. C. 332] cost him, B. C. 332), and then, passing through Jerusalem, and showing consideration for the Jews, he again paused at the siege of Gaza [see GAZA: B. C. 332], merely, we may suppose, to prove that he was invincible, and to settle once for all the question of the world's mastery. He delayed again for a short while in Egypt [see EGYPT: B. C. 332], when he regulated the country as a province under his sway, with kindness towards the inhabitants, and respect for their religion, and founded Alexandria; nay, he even here made his first essay in claiming divinity; and then, at last, set out to conquer the Eastern provinces of Darius' empire. The great decisive battle in the plains of

Mesopotamia (B. C. 331)—it is called either Arbela or Gaugamela—was spoken of as a trial of strength, and the enormous number of the Persian cavalry, acting on open ground, gave timid people room to fear; but Alexander had long since found out, what the British have found in their many Eastern wars, that even a valiant cavalry is helpless, if undisciplined, against an army of regulars under a competent commander. . . . The Macedonian had again, however, failed to capture his opponent, for which he blamed Parmenio. . . . So then, though the issue of the war was not doubtful, there was still a real and legitimate rival to the throne, commanding the sympathies of most of his subjects. For the present, however, Alexander turned his attention to occupying the great capitals of the Persian empire—capitals of older kingdoms, embodied in the empire. . . . These great cities, Babylon in Mesopotamia, Susa (Shushan) in Elam, Persepolis in Persia proper, and Ecbatana in Media, were all full of ancient wealth and splendour, adorned with great palaces, and famed for monstrous treasures. The actual amount of gold and silver seized in these hoards (not less than £30,000,000 of English money, and perhaps a great deal more) had a far larger effect on the world than the discovery of gold and silver mines in recent times. Every adventurer in the army became suddenly rich; all the means and materials for luxury which the long civilization of the East had discovered and employed, were suddenly thrown into the hands of comparatively rude and even barbarous soldiers. It was a prey such as the Spaniards found in Mexico and Peru, but had a far stronger civilization, which must react upon the conquerors. And already Alexander showed clear signs that he regarded himself as no mere Macedonian or Greek king, but as the Emperor of the East, and successor in every sense of the unfortunate Darius. He made superhuman efforts to overtake Darius in his retreat from Ecbatana through the Parthian passes to the northern provinces—Balkh and Samarcand. The narrative of this famous pursuit is as wonderful as anything in Alexander's campaign. He only reached the fleeing Persian as he was dying of the wounds dealt him by the traitor Bessus, his satrap in Bactria, who had aspired to the crown (B. C. 330) Alexander signally executed the regicide, and himself married the daughter of Darius—who had no son—thus assuming, as far as possible, the character of Darius' legitimate successor."—J. P. Mahaffy, *The Story of Alexander's Empire, ch.* 2-3.

ALSO IN: C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 49-50 (*v.* 6).—E. S. Creasy, *Fifteen Decisive Battles: Arbela.*—T. A. Dodge, *Alexander, ch.* 18-31.

B. C. 330-323.—Alexander's conquest of Afghanistan, Bactria and Sogdiana.—His invasion of India.—His death at Babylon.—His character and aims.—"After reducing the country at the south of the Caspian, Alexander marched east and south, through what is now Persia and Afghanistan. On his way he founded the colony of Alexandria Arion, now Herat, an important military position on the western border of Afghanistan. At Prophthasia (Furrah), a little further south, he stayed two months. . . . Thence he went on eastwards and founded a city, said to be the modern Candahar, and then turned north and crossed the Hindo Koosh mountains, founding another colony near what is now Cabul. Bessus had intended to resist Alexander in Bactria (Balkh), but he fled northwards, and was taken and put to death. Alexander kept on marching northwards, and took Mara Kanda, now Samarcand, the capital of Bokhara (B. C. 329). He crossed the river Jaxartes (Sir), running into the sea of Aral, and defeated the Scythians beyond it, but did not penetrate their country. He intended the Jaxartes to be the northern frontier of his empire. . . . The conquest of Sogdiana (Bokhara) gave Alexander some trouble, and occupied him till the year B. C. 327. In B. C. 327 Alexander set out from Bactria to conquer India [see INDIA, B. C. 327-312]. . . . Alexander was as eager for discovery as for conquest; and from the mouth of the Indus he sent his fleet, under the admiral Nearchus, to make their way along the coast to the mouth of the Euphrates. He himself marched westwards with the army through the deserts of Beloochistan, and brought them after terrible sufferings, through thirst, disease, and fatigue, again to Persepolis (B. C. 324). From this he went to Susa, where he stayed some months, investigating the conduct of his satraps, and punishing some of them severely. Since the battle of Arbela, Alexander had become more and more like a Persian king in his way of living, although he did not allow it to interfere with his activity. He dressed in the Persian manner, and took up the ceremonies of the Persian court. The soldiers were displeased at his giving up the habits of Macedonia, and at Susa he provoked them still more by making eighty of his chief officers marry Persian wives. The object of Alexander was to break down distinctions of race and country in his empire, and to abolish the great gulf that there had hitherto been between the Greeks and the Asiatics. He also enrolled many Persians in the regiments which had hitherto contained none but Macedonians, and levied 30,000 troops from the most warlike districts of Asia, whom he armed in the Macedonian manner. Since the voyage of Nearchus, Alexander had determined on an expedition against Arabia by sea, and had given orders for ships to be built in Phœnicia, and then taken to pieces and carried by land to Thapsakus on the Euphrates. At Thapsakus they were to be put together again, and so make their way to Babylon, from which the expedition was to start. In the spring of B. C. 323, Alexander set out from Susa for Babylon. On his journey he was met by embassies from nearly all the States of the known world. At Babylon he found the ships ready: fresh troops had arrived, both Greek and Asiatic; and the expedition was on the point of starting, when Alexander was seized with fever and died (June, B. C. 323). He was only thirty-two years old."—C. A. Fyffe, *Hist. of Greece* (*Primer*), *ch.* 7.—"Three great battles and several great sieges made Alexander master of the Persian empire. And it is worth remark that the immediate results of the three battles, Granikos, Issos, and Gaugamela, coincide with lasting results in the history of the world. The victory of the Granikos made Alexander master of Asia Minor, of a region which in the course of a few centuries was thoroughly hellenized, and which remained Greek, Christian, and Orthodox, down to the Turkish invasions of the 11th century. The territory which Alexander thus won,

the lands from the Danube to Mount Taurus, answered very nearly to the extent of the Byzantine Empire for several centuries, and it might very possibly have been ruled by him, as it was in Byzantine times, from an European centre. The field of Issos gave him Syria and Egypt, lands which the Macedonian and the Roman kept for nearly a thousand years, and which for ages contained, in Alexandria and Antioch, the two greatest of Grecian cities. But Syria and Egypt themselves never became Greek; when they became Christian, they failed to become Orthodox, and they fell away at the first touch of the victorious Saracen. Their government called for an Asiatic or Egyptian capital, but their ruler might himself still have remained European and Hellenic. His third triumph at Gaugamela gave him the possession of the whole East; but it was but a momentary possession: he had now pressed onward into lands where neither Grecian culture, Roman dominion, nor Christian theology proved in the end able to strike any lasting root. . . . He had gone too far for his original objects. Lasting possession of his conquests beyond the Tigris could be kept only in the character of King of the Medes and Persians. Policy bade him put on that character. We can also fully believe that he was himself really dazzled with the splendour of his superhuman success. . . . His own deeds had outdone those which were told of any of his divine forefathers or their comrades; Achilleus, Herakles, Theseus, Dionysos, had done and suffered less than Alexander. Was it then wonderful that he should seriously believe that one who had outdone their acts must come of a stock equal to their own? Was it wonderful if, not merely in pride or policy, but in genuine faith, he disclaimed a human parent in Philip, and looked for the real father of the conqueror and lord of earth in the conqueror and lord of the heavenly world? We believe then that policy, passion, and genuine superstition were all joined together in the demand which Alexander made for divine, or at least for unusual, honours. He had taken the place of the Great King, and he demanded the homage which was held to be due to him who held that place Such homage his barbarian subjects were perfectly ready to pay; they would most likely have had but little respect for a king who forgot to call for it. But the homage which to a Persian seemed only the natural expression of respect for the royal dignity, seemed to Greeks and Macedonians an invasion of the honour due only to the Immortal Gods . . . He not only sent round to all the cities of Greece to demand divine honours, which were perhaps not worth refusing, but he ordered each city to bring back its political exiles. This last was an interference with the internal government of the cities which certainly was not warranted by Alexander's position as head of the Greek Confederacy. And, in other respects also, from this unhappy time all the worst failings of Alexander become more strongly developed. . . . The unfulfilled designs of Alexander must ever remain in darkness; no man can tell what might have been done by one of such mighty powers who was cut off at so early a stage of his career. That he looked forward to still further conquests seems beyond doubt. The only question is, Did his conquests, alike those which were won and those which were still to be won, spring from mere ambition and love of adventure, or is he to be looked on as in any degree the intentional missionary of Hellenic culture? That such he was is set forth with much warmth and some extravagance in a special treatise of Plutarch; it is argued more soberly, but with true vigour and eloquence, in the seventh volume of Bishop Thirlwall. Mr. Grote denies him all merit of the kind."—E. A. Freeman, *Alexander* (*Hist. Essays, series* 2).

Also in: C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 51–55 (*v.* 6–7).

B. C. 323-322.—Revolt in Greece.—The Lamian War.—Subjugation of Athens. See Greece: B. C. 323–322.

B. C. 323-316.—The Partition of the Empire of Alexander.—First Period of the Wars of the Diadochi or Successors of Alexander.—Alexander "left his wife Roxana pregnant, who at the end of three months brought into the world the rightful heir to the sceptre, Alexander; he left likewise an illegitimate son, Hercules; a bastard half-brother, Arrhidæus; his mother, the haughty and cruel Olympias, and a sister, Cleopatra, both widows; the artful Eurydice, (daughter to Cyane, one of Philip's sisters,) subsequently married to the king, Arrhidæus; and Thessalonica, Philip's daughter, afterwards united to Cassander of Macedonia. The weak Arrhidæus, under the name of Philip, and the infant Alexander, were at last proclaimed kings, the regency being placed in the hands of Perdiccas, Leonnatus, and Meleager; the last of whom was quickly cut off at the instigation of Perdiccas." The provinces of the Empire which Alexander had conquered were now divided between the generals of his army, who are known in history as the Diadochi, that is, the Successors. The division was as follows: "Ptolemy son of Lagus received Egypt [see Egypt: B. C. 323–30]; Leonnatus, Mysia; Antigonus, Phyrgia, Lycia, and Pamphylia; Lysymachus, Macedonian Thrace; Antipater and Craterus remained in possession of Macedonia. . . . The remaining provinces either did not come under the new division [see Seleucidae], or else their governors are unworthy of notice."—A. H. L. Heeren, *Manual of Ancient History, p.* 222.—Meantime, "the body of Alexander lay unburied and neglected, and it was not until two years after his death that his remains were consigned to the tomb. But his followers still shewed their respect for his memory by retaining the feeble Arrhidæus on the throne, and preventing the marriage of Perdiccas with Cleopatra, the daughter of Philip; a union which manifestly was projected to open a way to the throne. But while this project of marriage occupied the attention of the regent, a league had secretly been formed for his destruction; and the storm burst forth from a quarter whence it was least expected. . . . The barbarous tribes of the Cappadocians and Paphlagonians . . . asserted their independence after the death of Alexander, and chose Ariarathes for their leader. Perdiccas sent against them Eumenes, who had hitherto fulfilled the peaceful duties of a secretary; and sent orders to Antigonus and Leonatus, the governors of Western Asia, to join the expedition with all their forces. These commands were disobeyed, and Perdiccas was forced to march with the royal army against the insurgents. He easily defeated these undisciplined troops, but sullied

his victory by unnecessary cruelty. On his return he summoned the satraps of Western Asia to appear before his tribunal, and answer for their disobedience. Antigonus, seeing his danger, entered into a league with Ptolemy the satrap of Egypt, Antipater the governor of Macedon, and several other noblemen, to crush the regency. Perdiccas, on the other hand, leaving Eumenes to guard Lower Asia, marched with the choicest divisions of the royal army against Ptolemy, whose craft and ability he dreaded even more than his power. Antipater and Craterus were early in the field; they crossed the Hellespont with the army that had been left for the defence of Macedon. . . . Seduced by . . . false information, they divided their forces; Antipater hastening through Phrygia in pursuit of Perdiccas, while Craterus and Neoptolemus marched against Eumenes. They encountered him in the Trojan plain, and were completely defeated. . . . Eumenes sent intelligence of his success to Perdiccas; but two days before the messenger reached the royal camp the regent was no more. His army, wearied by the long siege of Pelusium, became dissatisfied; their mutinous dispositions were secretly encouraged by the emissaries of Ptolemy . . and Perdiccas was murdered in his tent (B. C. 321). . . . In the meantime a brief struggle for independence had taken place in Greece, which is commonly called the Lamian war [see GREECE: B. C. 323-322]. . . . As soon as Ptolemy had been informed of the murder of Perdiccas, he came to the royal army with a large supply of wine and provisions. His kindness and courteous manners so won upon these turbulent soldiers, that they unanimously offered him the regency; but he had the prudence to decline so dangerous an office. On his refusal, the feeble Arrhidæus and the traitor Python were appointed to the regency, just as the news arrived of the recent victory of Eumenes. This intelligence filled the royal army with indignation. . . . They hastily passed a vote proclaiming Eumenes and his adherents public enemies. . . . The advance of an army to give effect to these decrees was delayed by a new revolution. Eurydice, the wife of Arrhidæus, a woman of great ambition and considerable talent for intrigue, wrested the regency from her feeble husband and Python, but was stripped of power on the arrival of Antipater, who reproached the Macedonians for submitting to the government of a woman; and, being ably supported by Antigonus and Seleucus, obtained for himself the office of regent. No sooner had Antipater been invested with supreme power than he sent Arrhidæus and Eurydice prisoners to Pella, and entrusted the conduct of the war against Eumenes to the crafty and ambitious Antigonus. . . . Eumenes was unable to cope with the forces sent against him: having been defeated in the open field, he took shelter in Nora, a Cappadocian city, and maintained a vigorous defence, rejecting the many tempting offers by which Antigonus endeavoured to win him to the support of his designs (B. C. 318). The death of Antipater produced a new revolution in the empire; and Eumenes in the meantime escaped from Nora, accompanied by his principal friends. . . . Antipater, at his death, bequeathed the regency to Polysperchon, excluding his son Cassander from power on account of his criminal intrigues with the wicked and ambitious Eurydice. Though a brave general, Polysperchon had not the qualifications of a statesman; he provoked the powerful resentment of Antigonus by entering into a close alliance with Eumenes; and he permitted Cassander to strengthen himself in southern Greece, where he seized the strong fortress of Munychia. . . . Polysperchon, unable to drive Cassander from Attica, entered the Peloponnesus to punish the Arcadians, and engaged in a fruitless siege of Megalopolis. In the meantime Olympias, to whom he had confided the government of Macedon, seized Arrhidæus and Eurydice, whom she had murdered in prison. Cassander hasted, at the head of all his forces, to avenge the death of his mistress: Olympias, unable to meet him in the field, fled to Pydna; but the city was forced to surrender after a brief defence, and Olympias was immediately put to death. Among the captives were Roxana the widow, Alexander Ægus the posthumous son, and Thessalonica the youngest daughter, of Alexander the Great. Cassander sought and obtained the hand of the latter princess, and thus consoled himself for the loss of his beloved Eurydice. By this marriage he acquired such influence, that Polysperchon did not venture to return home, but continued in the Peloponnesus, where he retained for some time a shadow of authority over the few Macedonians who still clung to the family of Alexander. In Asia, Eumenes maintained the royal cause against Antigonus, though deserted by all the satraps, and harassed by the mutinous dispositions of his troops, especially the Argyraspides, a body of guards that Alexander had raised to attend his own person, and presented with the silver shields from which they derived their name. After a long struggle, both armies joined in a decisive engagement; the Argyraspides broke the hostile infantry, but learning that their baggage had in the meantime been captured by the light troops of the enemy, they mutinied in the very moment of victory, and delivered their leader, bound with his own sash, into the hands of his merciless enemy (B. C. 315). The faithful Eumenes was put to death by the traitorous Antigonus, but he punished the Argyraspides for their treachery."—W. C. Taylor, *The Student's Manual of Ancient History, ch.* 11, *sect.* 3.

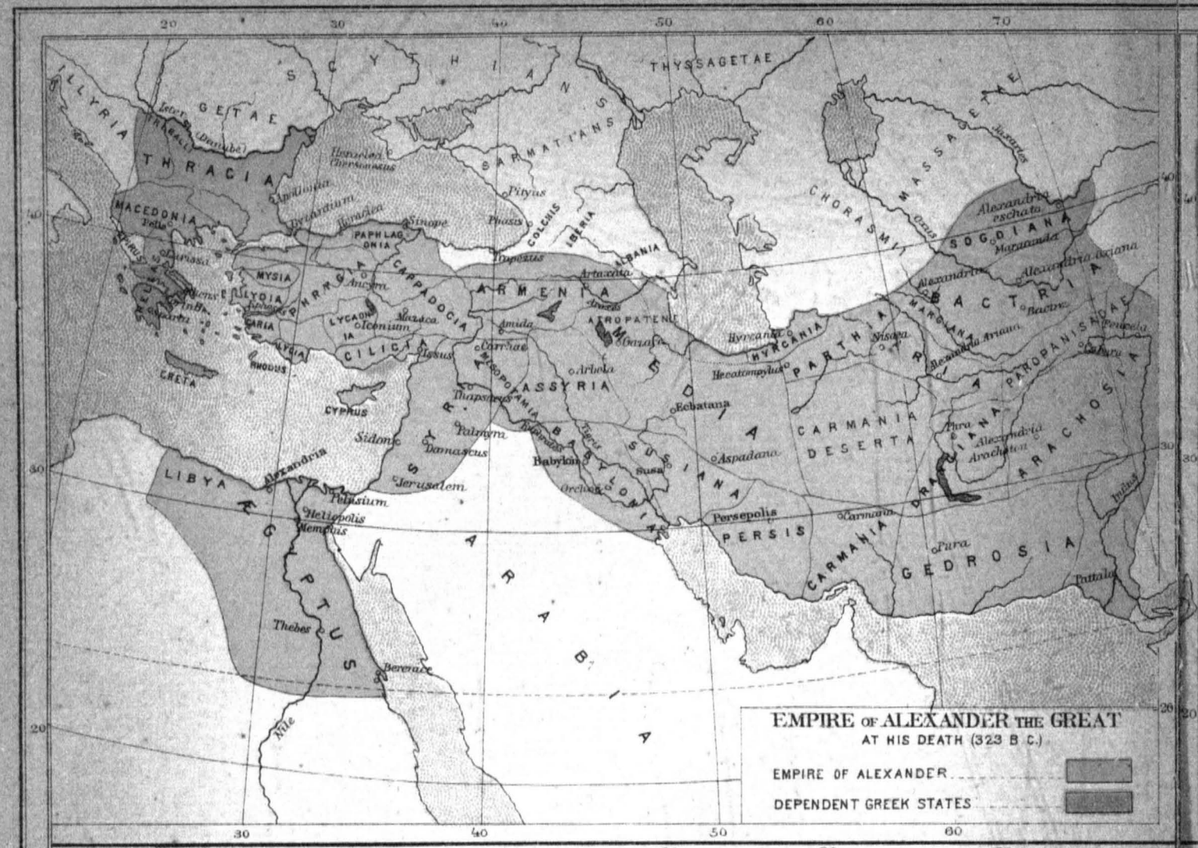
ALSO IN: P. Smith, *Hist. of the World: Ancient, ch.* 17 (*v.* 2).—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 96 (*v.* 12).—See, also, GREECE: B. C. 321-312.

B. C. 315-310.—The first league and war against Antigonus.—Extermination of the heirs of Alexander.—"Antigonus was now unquestionably the most powerful of the successors of Alexander the Great. As master of Asia, he ruled over those vast and rich lands that extended from India to the Mediterranean Sea. . . . Although nearly seventy years old, and blind in one eye, he still preserved the vigor of his forces. . . . He was fortunate in being assisted by a son, the famous Demetrius, who, though possessed of a very passionate nature, yet from early youth displayed wonderful military ability. Above all, the prominent representatives of the royal family had disappeared, and there remained only the youthful Alexander, Herakles, the illegitimate son of Alexander the Great, who had no lawful claim whatever to the sovereignty, and two daughters of Philip, Kleopatra, who lived at Sardis, and Thessalonike, whom Kassander had recently married—none of

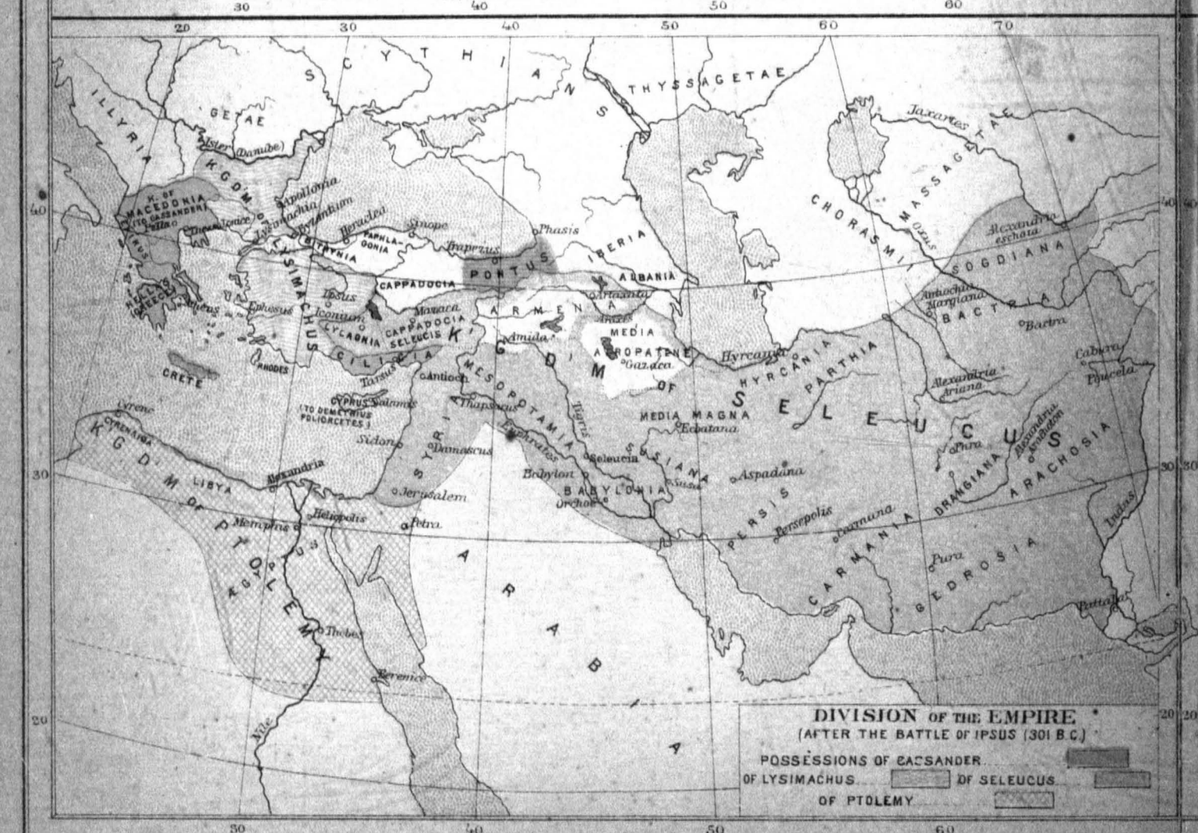
whom were sufficiently strong to assert their rights to the throne. Thus Antigonus seemed indeed destined to become vicar and master of the entire Alexandrian kingdom, and to restore the unity of the empire. But not only was this union not realized, but even the great realm which Antigonus had established in Asia was doomed to inevitable destruction. The generals who possessed the various satrapies of the empire could not bear his supremacy, and accordingly entered into a convention, which gradually ripened into an active alliance against him. The principal organ of this movement was Seleukus, who, having escaped to Ptolemy of Egypt, first of all persuaded the latter to form an alliance—which Kassander of Macedonia and Lysimachus of Thrace readily joined—against the formidable power of Antigonus. The war lasted for four years, and was carried on in Asia, Europe, and Africa. Its fortunes were various [the most noteworthy event being a bloody defeat inflicted upon Demetrius the son of Antigonus, by Ptolemy, at Gaza, in 312], but the result was not decisive. . . . In 311 B. C. a compact was made between Antigonus on one side, and Kassander, Ptolemy, and Lysimachus on the other, whereby 'the supreme command in Europe was guaranteed to Kassander, until the maturity of Alexander, son of Roxana; Thrace being at the same time assured to Lysimachus, Egypt to Ptolemy, and the whole of Asia to Antigonus. It was at the same time covenanted by all that the Hellenic cities should be free.' Evidently this peace contained the seeds of new disputes and increasing jealousies. The first act of Kassander was to cause the death of Roxana and her child in the fortress of Amphipolis, where they had been confined; and thus disappeared forever the only link which apparently maintained the union of the empire, and a ready career now lay open to the ambition of the successors. Again, the name of Seleukus was not even mentioned in the peace, while it was well known at the time it was concluded that he had firmly established his rule over the eastern satrapies of Asia. . . . The troops also of Antigonus, notwithstanding the treaty, still remained in Hellas, under command of his nephew Ptolemy. Ptolemy of Egypt, therefore, accusing Antigonus of having contravened the treaty by garrisoning various Hellenic cities, renewed the war and the triple alliance against him." A series of assassinations soon followed, which put out of the way the young prince Herakles, bastard son of Alexander the Great, and Kleopatra, the sister of Alexander, who was preparing to wed Ptolemy of Egypt when Antigonus brought about her murder, to prevent the marriage. Another victim of the jealousies that were rife among the Diadochi was Antigonus' nephew Ptolemy, who had deserted his uncle's side, but who was killed by the Egyptian Ptolemy. "For more than ten years . . . Antigonus, Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Kassander successively promised to leave the Greeks independent, free, and unguarded; but the latter never ceased to be guarded, taxed, and ruled by Macedonian despots. We may, indeed, say that the cities of Hellas never before had suffered so much as during the time when such great promises were made about their liberty. The Ætolians alone still possessed their independence. Rough, courageous, warlike, and fond of freedom, they continued fighting against the Macedonian rule."—T. T. Timayenis, *Hist. of Greece, pt. 9, ch. 5 (v. 2)*.

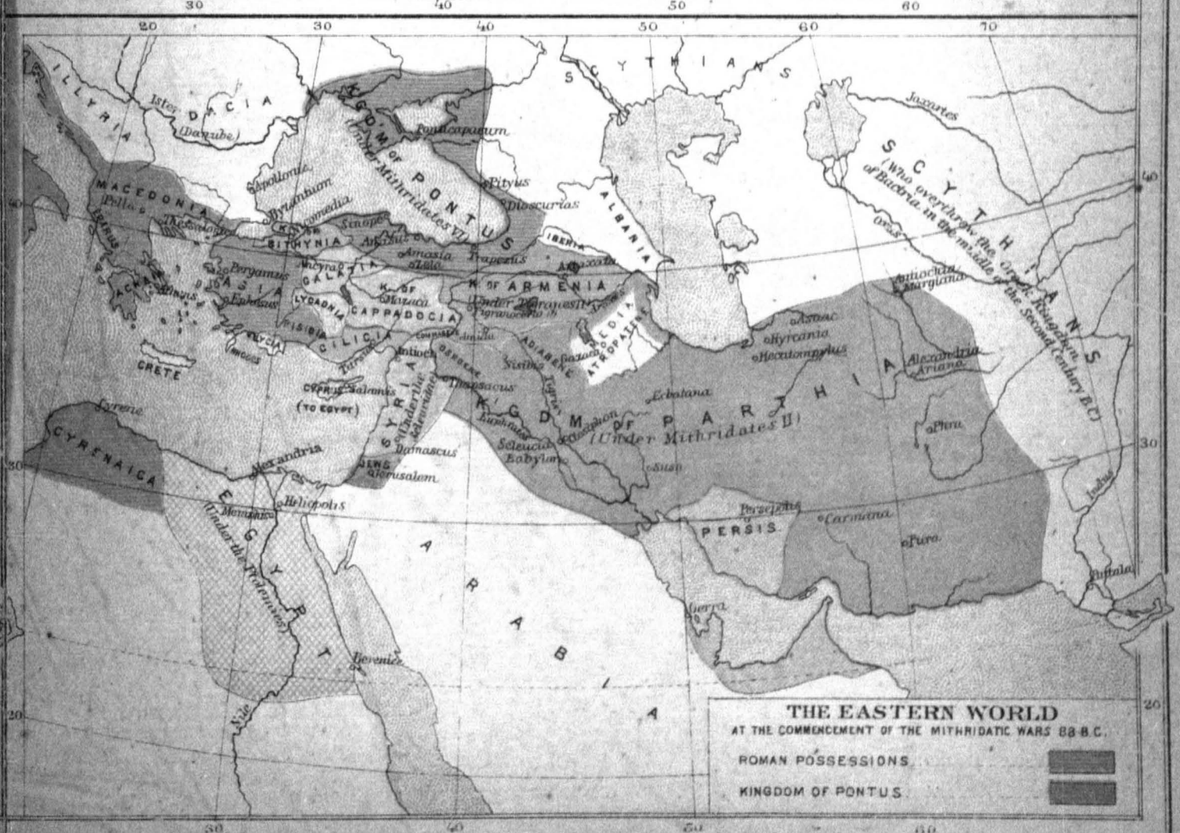
ALSO IN: J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's Empire, ch. 5-6*.

B. C. 310-301.—Demetrius Poliorcetes at Athens.—His siege of Rhodes.—The last combination against Antigonus.—His defeat and death at Ipsus.—Partition of his dominions.—After the war which was renewed in 310 B. C. had lasted three years, "Antigonus resolved to make a vigorous effort to wrest Greece from the hands of Cassander and Ptolemy, who held all the principal towns in it. Accordingly, in the summer of 307 B. C., he despatched his son Demetrius from Ephesus to Athens, with a fleet of 250 sail, and 5,000 talents in money. Demetrius, who afterwards obtained the surname of 'Poliorcetes,' or 'Besieger of Cities,' was a young man of ardent temperament and great abilities. Upon arriving at the Piræus, he immediately proclaimed the object of his expedition to be the liberation of Athens and the expulsion of the Macedonian garrison. Supported by the Macedonians, Demetrius the Phalerean had now ruled Athens for a period of more than ten years. . . . During the first period of his administration he appears to have governed wisely and equitably, to have improved the Athenian laws, and to have adorned the city with useful buildings. But in spite of his pretensions to philosophy, the possession of uncontrolled power soon altered his character for the worse, and he became remarkable for luxury, ostentation, and sensuality. Hence he gradually lost the popularity which he had once enjoyed. . . . The Athenians heard with pleasure the proclamations of the son of Antigonus; his namesake, the Phalerean, was obliged to surrender the city to him, and to close his political career by retiring to Thebes. . . . Demetrius Poliorcetes then formally announced to the Athenian assembly the restoration of their ancient constitution, and promised them a large donative of corn and ship-timber. This munificence was repaid by the Athenians with the basest and most abject flattery [see GREECE: B. C. 307-197]. . . . Demetrius Poliorcetes did not remain long at Athens. Early in 306 B. C. he was recalled by his father, and, sailing to Cyprus, undertook the siege of Salamis. Ptolemy hastened to its relief with 140 vessels and 10,000 troops. The battle that ensued was one of the most memorable in the annals of ancient naval warfare, more particularly on account of the vast size of the vessels engaged. Ptolemy was completely defeated; and so important was the victory deemed by Antigonus, that on the strength of it he assumed the title of king, which he also conferred upon his son. This example was followed by Ptolemy, Seleucus, and Lysimachus. Encouraged by their success at Cyprus, Antigonus and Demetrius made a vain attempt upon Egypt, which, however, proved a disastrous failure. By way of revenge, Demetrius undertook an expedition against Rhodes, which had refused its aid in the attack upon Ptolemy. It was from the memorable siege of Rhodes that Demetrius obtained his name of Poliorcetes. . . . After a year spent in the vain attempt to take the town, Demetrius was forced to retire and grant the Rhodians peace [see RHODES: B. C. 305-304]. Whilst Demetrius was thus employed, Cassander had made great progress in reducing Greece. He had taken Corinth


EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT
AT HIS DEATH (323 B.C.)
EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER
DEPENDENT GREEK STATES


THE EASTERN WORLD
(AFTER THE BATTLE OF MAGNESIA (190 B.C.)
MACEDONIA
GREEK STATES
ROMAN POSSESSIONS


DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE
(AFTER THE BATTLE OF IPSUS (301 B.C.)
POSSESSIONS OF CASSANDER
OF LYSIMACHUS
OF SELEUCUS
OF PTOLEMY


THE EASTERN WORLD
AT THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE MITHRIDATIC WARS 88 B.C.
ROMAN POSSESSIONS
KINGDOM OF PONTUS

and was besieging Athens, when Demetrius entered the Euripus. Cassander immediately raised the siege, and was subsequently defeated in an action near Thermopylæ. When Demetrius entered Athens he was received as before with the most extravagant flatteries. He remained two or three years in Greece, during which his superiority over Cassander was decided, though no great battle was fought. In the spring of 301 B. C. he was recalled by his father Antigonus, who stood in need of his assistance against Lysimachus and Seleucus. In the course of the same year the struggle between Antigonus and his rivals was brought to a close by the battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus was killed, and his army completely defeated. Antigonus had attained the age of 81 at the time of his death. Demetrius retreated with the remnant of the army to Ephesus, whence he sailed to Cyprus, and afterwards proposed to go to Athens; but the Athenians, alienated by his ill-fortune at Ipsus, refused to receive him."—W. Smith, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 45.—"After the battle [of Ipsus] it remained for the conquerors to divide the spoil. The dominions of Antigonus were actually in the hands of Seleucus and Lysimachus, and they alone had achieved the victory. It does not appear that they consulted either of their allies on the partition, though it seems that they obtained the assent of Cassander. They agreed to share all that Antigonus had possessed between themselves. It is not clear on what principle the line of demarcation was drawn, nor is it possible to trace it. But the greater part of Asia Minor was given to Lysimachus. The portion of Seleucus included not only the whole country between the coast of Syria and the Euphrates, but also, it seems, a part of Phrygia and of Cappadocia. Cilicia was assigned to Cassander's brother Pleistarchus. With regard to Syria however a difficulty remained. The greater part of it had . . . been conquered by Ptolemy: Tyre and Sidon alone were still occupied by the garrisons of Antigonus. Ptolemy had at least as good a right as his ally to all that he possessed. . . . Seleucus however began to take possession of it, and when Ptolemy pressed his claims returned an answer, mild in sound, but threatening in its import . . . : and it appears that Ptolemy was induced to withdraw his opposition. There were however also some native princes [Ardoates in Armenia, and Mithridates, son of Ariobarzanes, in Pontus—see MITHRIDATIC WARS] who had taken advantage of the contests between the Macedonian chiefs to establish their authority over extensive territories in the west of Asia. . . . So far as regards Asia, the battle of Ipsus must be considered as a disastrous event. Not because it transferred the power of Antigonus into different hands, nor because it would have been more desirable that he should have triumphed over Seleucus. But the new distribution of territory led to calamitous consequences, which might perhaps otherwise have been averted. If the empire of Seleucus had remained confined between the Indus and the Euphrates, it might have subsisted much longer, at least, as a barrier against the inroads of the barbarians, who at last obliterated all the traces of European civilisation left there by Alexander and his successors. But shortly after his victory, Seleucus founded his new capital on the Orontes, called, after his father, Antiochia, peopling it with the inhabitants of Antigonia. It became the residence of his dynasty, and grew, while their vast empire dwindled into the Syrian monarchy. For the prospects of Greece, on the other hand, the fall of Antigonus must clearly be accounted an advantage, so far as the effect was to dismember his territory, and to distribute it so that the most powerful of his successors was at the greatest distance. It was a gain that Macedonia was left an independent kingdom, within its ancient limits, and bounded on the north by a state of superior strength. It does not appear that any compact was made between Cassander and his allies as to the possession of Greece. It was probably understood that he should keep whatever he might acquire there."—C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 59 (*v.* 7).

ALSO IN: B. G. Niebuhr, *Lects. on Ancient Hist., lect.* 86-87 (*v.* 3).

B. C. 297-280.—Death of Casander.—Intrigues of Ptolemy Keraunos.—Overthrow and death of Lysimachus.—Abdication and death of Ptolemy.—Murder of Seleucus.—Seizure of the Macedonian crown by Keraunos.—"Casander died of disease (a rare end among this seed of dragon's teeth) in 297 B. C., and so the Greeks were left to assert their liberty, and Demetrius to machinate and effect his establishment on the throne of Macedonia, as well as to keep the world in fear and suspense by his naval forces, and his preparations to reconquer his father's position. Lysimachus, Seleucus, and Ptolemy were watching one another, and alternating in alliance and in war. All these princes, as well as Demetrius and Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, were connected in marriage; they all married as many wives as they pleased, apparently without remonstrance from their previous consorts. So the whole complex of the warring kings were in close family relations. . . . Pyrrhus was now a very rising and ambitious prince; if not in alliance with Demetrius, he was striving to extend his kingdom of Epirus into Macedonia, and would doubtless have succeeded, but for the superior power of Lysimachus. This Thracian monarch, in spite of serious reverses against the barbarians of the North, who took both him and his son prisoners, and released them very chivalrously, about this time possessed a solid and secure kingdom, and moreover an able and righteous son, Agathocles, so that his dynasty might have been established, but for the poisonous influence of Arsinoe, the daughter of Ptolemy, whom he, an old man, had married in token of an alliance after the battle of Ipsus. . . . The family quarrel which upset the world arose in this wise. To seal the alliance after Ipsus, old king Ptolemy sent his daughter Arsinoe to marry his rival and friend Lysimachus, who, on his side, had sent his daughter, another Arsinoe, in marriage to the younger Ptolemy (Philadelphus). This was the second son of the great Ptolemy, who had chosen him for the throne in preference to his eldest son, Keraunos, a man of violent and reckless character, who accordingly left the country, and went to seek his fortune at foreign courts. Meanwhile the old Ptolemy, for safety's sake, installed his second son as king of Egypt during his own life, and abdicated at the age of 83 [B. C. 283], full of honours, nor did he leave the court, where he appeared as a subject before his son as king. Keraunos naturally visited, in the first instance, the Thracian court, where he

and was besieging Athens, when Demetrius entered the Euripus. Cassander immediately raised the siege, and was subsequently defeated in an action near Thermopylæ. When Demetrius entered Athens he was received as before with the most extravagant flatteries. He remained two or three years in Greece, during which his superiority over Cassander was decided, though no great battle was fought. In the spring of 301 B. C. he was recalled by his father Antigonus, who stood in need of his assistance against Lysimachus and Seleucus. In the course of the same year the struggle between Antigonus and his rivals was brought to a close by the battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus was killed, and his army completely defeated. Antigonus had attained the age of 81 at the time of his death. Demetrius retreated with the remnant of the army to Ephesus, whence he sailed to Cyprus, and afterwards proposed to go to Athens; but the Athenians, alienated by his ill-fortune at Ipsus, refused to receive him."—W. Smith, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 45.—"After the battle [of Ipsus] it remained for the conquerors to divide the spoil. The dominions of Antigonus were actually in the hands of Seleucus and Lysimachus, and they alone had achieved the victory. It does not appear that they consulted either of their allies on the partition, though it seems that they obtained the assent of Cassander. They agreed to share all that Antigonus had possessed between themselves. It is not clear on what principle the line of demarcation was drawn, nor is it possible to trace it. But the greater part of Asia Minor was given to Lysimachus. The portion of Seleucus included not only the whole country between the coast of Syria and the Euphrates, but also, it seems, a part of Phrygia and of Cappadocia. Cilicia was assigned to Cassander's brother Pleistarchus. With regard to Syria however a difficulty remained. The greater part of it had . . . been conquered by Ptolemy: Tyre and Sidon alone were still occupied by the garrisons of Antigonus. Ptolemy had at least as good a right as his ally to all that he possessed. . . . Seleucus however began to take possession of it, and when Ptolemy pressed his claims returned an answer, mild in sound, but threatening in its import . . . : and it appears that Ptolemy was induced to withdraw his opposition. There were however also some native princes [Ardoates in Armenia and Mithridates, son of Ariobarzanes, in Pontus—see MITHRIDATIC WARS] who had taken advantage of the contests between the Macedonian chiefs to establish their authority over extensive territories in the west of Asia. . . . So far as regards Asia, the battle of Ipsus must be considered as a disastrous event. Not because it transferred the power of Antigonus into different hands, nor because it would have been more desirable that he should have triumphed over Seleucus. But the new distribution of territory led to calamitous consequences, which might perhaps otherwise have been averted. If the empire of Seleucus had remained confined between the Indus and the Euphrates, it might have subsisted much longer, at least, as a barrier against the inroads of the barbarians, who at last obliterated all the traces of European civilisation left there by Alexander and his successors. But shortly after his victory, Seleucus founded his new capital on the Orontes, called, after his father, Antiochia, peopling it with the inhabitants of Antigonia. It became the residence of his dynasty, and grew, while their vast empire dwindled into the Syrian monarchy. For the prospects of Greece, on the other hand, the fall of Antigonus must clearly be accounted an advantage, so far as the effect was to dismember his territory, and to distribute it so that the most powerful of his successors was at the greatest distance. It was a gain that Macedonia was left an independent kingdom, within its ancient limits, and bounded on the north by a state of superior strength. It does not appear that any compact was made between Cassander and his allies as to the possession of Greece. It was probably understood that he should keep whatever he might acquire there."—C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 59 (*v.* 7).

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not only had a half sister (Arsinoe) queen, but where his full sister, Lysandra, was married to the crown prince, the gallant and popular Agathocles; but Keraunos and the queen conspired against this prince; they persuaded old Lysimachus that he was a traitor, and so Keraunos was directed to put him to death. This crime caused unusual excitement and odium all through the country, and the relations and party of the murdered prince called on Seleucus to avenge him. He did so, and advanced with an army against Lysimachus, whom he defeated and slew in a great battle, somewhere not far from the field of Ipsus. It was called the plain of Coron (B. C. 281). Thus died the last but one of Alexander's Companions, at the age of 80, he, too, in battle. Ptolemy was already laid in his peaceful grave (B. C. 283) There remained the last and greatest, the king of Asia, Seleucus. He, however, gave up all his Asiatic possessions from the Hellespont to the Indus to his son Antiochus, and meant to spend his last years in the home of his fathers, Macedonia; but as he was entering that kingdom he was murdered by Keraunos, whom he brought with him in his train. This bloodthirsty adventurer was thus left with an army which had no leader, in a kingdom which had no king; for Demetrius' son, Antigonus, the strongest claimant, had not yet made good his position. All the other kings, whose heads were full with their newly acquired sovranties, viz , Antiochus in Asia and Ptolemy II. in Egypt, joined with Keraunos in buying off the dangerous Pyrrhus [king of Epirus—see Rome: B. C. 282–275], by bribes of men, money, and elephants, to make his expedition to Italy, and leave them to settle their affairs. The Greek cities, as usual, when there was a change of sovran in Macedonia, rose and asserted what they were pleased to call their liberty, so preventing Antigonus from recovering his father's dominions. Meanwhile Keraunos established himself in Macedonia; he even, like our Richard, induced the queen, his step-sister, his old accomplice against Agathocles, to marry him! but it was only to murder her children by Lysimachus, the only dangerous claimants to the Thracian provinces. The wretched queen fled to Samothrace, and thence to Egypt, where she ended her guilty and chequered career as queen of her full brother Ptolemy II. (Philadelphus), and was deified during her life! Such then was the state of Alexander's Empire in 280 B. C. All the first Diadochi were dead, and so were even the sons of two of them, Demetrius and Agathocles. The son of the former was a claimant for the throne of Macedonia, which he acquired after long and doubtful struggles. Antiochus, who had long been regent of the Eastern provinces beyond Mesopotamia, had come suddenly, by his father's murder, into possession of so vast a kingdom, that he could not control the coast of Asia Minor, where sundry free cities and dynasts sought to establish themselves. Ptolemy II. was already king of Egypt, including the suzerainty of Cyrene, and had claims on Palestine and Syria. Ptolemy Keraunos, the double-dyed villain and murderer, was in possession of the throne of Macedonia, but at war with the claimant Antigonus. Pyrrhus of Epirus was gone to conquer a new kingdom in the West. Such was the state of things when a terrible new scourge [the invasion of the Gauls] broke over the world."—J. P. Mahaffy, *The Story of Alexander's Empire, ch.* 7.

Also in: C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 60 (*v.* 8).

B. C. 280-279.—Invasion by the Gauls.—Death of Ptolemy Keraunos. See Gauls: B. C. 280–279.

B. C. 277-244.—Strife for the throne.—Failures of Pyrrhus.—Success of Antigonus Gonatus.—His subjugation of Athens and Corinth.—"On the retirement of the Gauls, Antipater, the nephew of Cassander, came forward for the second time, and was accepted as king by a portion, at any rate, of the Macedonians. But a new pretender soon appeared upon the scene. Antigonus Gonatus, the son of Demetrius Poliorcetes, who had maintained himself since that monarch's captivity as an independent prince in Central or Southern Hellas, claimed the throne once filled by his father, and, having taken into his service a body of Gallic mercenaries, defeated Antipater and made himself master of Macedonia. His pretensions being disputed by Antiochus Soter, the son of Seleucus, who had succeeded to the throne of Syria, he engaged in war with that prince, crossing into Asia and uniting his forces with those of Nicomedes, the Bithynian king, whom Antiochus was endeavouring to conquer. To this combination Antiochus was forced to yield: relinquishing his claims, he gave his sister, Phila, in marriage to Antigonus, and recognised him as king of Macedonia. Antigonus upon this fully established his power, repulsing a fresh attack of the Gauls. . . . But he was not long left in repose. In B. C. 274, Pyrrhus finally quitted Italy, having failed in all his schemes, but having made himself a great reputation. Landing in Epirus with a scanty force, he found the condition of Macedonia and of Greece favourable to his ambition. Antigonus had no hold on the affections of his subjects, whose recollections of his father, Demetrius, were unpleasing The Greek cities were, some of them, under tyrants, others occupied against their will by Macedonian garrisons. Above all, Greece and Macedonia were full of military adventurers, ready to flock to any standard which offered them a fair prospect of plunder. Pyrrhus, therefore, having taken a body of Celts into his pay, declared war against Antigonus, B. C. 273, and suddenly invaded Macedonia. Antigonus gave him battle, but was worsted, owing to the disaffection of his soldiers, and being twice defeated became a fugitive and a wanderer. The victories of Pyrrhus, and his son Ptolemy, placed the Macedonian crown upon the brow of the former, who might not improbably have become the founder of a great power, if he could have turned his attention to consolidation, instead of looking out for fresh conquests. But the arts and employments of peace had no charm for the Epirotic knight-errant. Hardly was he settled in his seat when, upon the invitation of Cleonymus of Sparta, he led an expedition into the Peloponnese, and attempted the conquest of that rough and difficult region. Repulsed from Sparta, which he had hoped to surprise, he sought to cover his disappointment by the capture of Argos; but here he was still more unsuccessful. Antigonus, now once more at the head of an army, watched the city, prepared to dispute its occupation, while the lately threatened Spartans hung upon the invader's rear. In a

desperate attempt to seize the place by night, the adventurous Epirote was first wounded by a soldier and then slain by the blow of a tile, thrown from a housetop by an Argive woman, B. C. 271. On the death of Pyrrhus the Macedonian throne was recovered by Antigonus, who commenced his second reign by establishing his influence over most of the Peloponnese, after which he was engaged in a long war with the Athenians (B. C. 268 to 263), who were supported by Sparta and by Egypt [see ATHENS: B. C. 288–263]. These allies rendered, however, but little help; and Athens must have soon succumbed, had not Antigonus been called away to Macedonia by the invasion of Alexander, son of Pyrrhus. This enterprising prince carried, at first, all before him, and was even acknowledged as Macedonian king; but ere long Demetrius, the son of Antigonus, having defeated Alexander near Derdia, re-established his father's dominion over Macedon, and, invading Epirus, succeeded in driving the Epirotic monarch out of his paternal kingdom. The Epirots soon restored him; but from this time he remained at peace with Antigonus, who was able once more to devote his undivided attention to the subjugation of the Greeks. In B. C. 263 he took Athens, and rendered himself complete master of Attica; and, in B. C. 244, . . . he contrived by a treacherous stratagem to obtain possession of Corinth. But at this point his successes ceased. A power had been quietly growing up in a corner of the Peloponnese [the Achaian League—see GREECE: B. C. 280–146] which was to become a counterpoise to Macedonia, and to give to the closing scenes of Grecian history an interest little inferior to that which had belonged to its earlier pages."—G. Rawlinson, *Manual of Ancient Hist., pp.* 261–263.

ALSO IN: B. G. Niebuhr, *Lect's on Ancient Hist., lect.* 100–102.

B. C. 214-168.—The Roman conquest.—Extinction of the kingdom. See GREECE: B. C. 214–146.

B. C. 205-197.—Last relations with the Seleucid empire. See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224–187.

Slavonic occupation. See SLAVONIC PEOPLES: 6–7TH CENTURIES.

MACEDONIAN DYNASTY, The. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: A. D. 820–1057.

MACEDONIAN PHALANX. See PHALANX, MACEDONIAN.

MACEDONIAN WARS, The. See GREECE: B. C. 214–146.

MACERATA, Battle of (1815). See ITALY (SOUTHERN): A. D. 1815.

McHENRY, Fort, The bombardment of, by the British. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1814 (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER).

MACHICUIS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: PAMPAS TRIBES.

MACHINE, Political. See STALWARTS.

MACK, Capitulation of, at Ulm. See FRANCE: A. D. 1805 (MARCH—DECEMBER).

MACKENZIE, William Lyon, and the Canadian Rebellion. See CANADA: A. D. 1837; and 1837–1838.

MACKINAW (MICHILIMACKINAC): Discovery and first Jesuit Mission. See CANADA: A. D. 1634–1673.

Rendezvous of the Coureurs de Bois. See COUREURS DE BOIS.

A. D. 1763.—Captured by the Indians. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

McKINLEY'S TARIFF ACT, The. See TARIFF LEGISLATION (UNITED STATES): A. D. 1890.

McLEOD CASE, The. See CANADA: A. D. 1840–1841.

MacMAHON, Marshal, President of the French Republic, A. D. 1873–1879. See FRANCE: A. D. 1871–1876; and 1875–1889.

MACON, Fort, Seizure and Recapture of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1860–1861 (DEC.—FEB.); 1862 (JAN.—APRIL: N. CAROLINA).

McPHERSON, General: Death in the Atlanta Campaign. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (MAY: GEORGIA); and (MAY—SEPTEMBER: GEORGIA).

McRAE, Fort, Seizure of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1860–1861 (DEC.—FEB.).

MACUSHI, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: CARIBS AND THEIR KINDRED.

MADAGASCAR.—"The earliest geographical document in which the island of Madagascar is found indicated is said by M. Grandidier to be the globe of Martin Behain (1492). . . . Madagascar is often conveniently spoken of as the Great African Island. . . . It is, geographically speaking, an African island, as it lies near to the great continent, and may, indeed, in very remote ages have been part of it. But its people are not on the whole an African people; and much in its flora and fauna indicates a very long separation from the neighbouring continent. Particularly noticeable is the fact that Madagascar has no lions, elephants, deer, or antelopes, which are abundant in Africa. . . . The people of Madagascar, usually spoken of as the Malagasy, are doubtless of mixed origin. That a large African element exists among them cannot be doubted, but speaking generally they are not Africans, but belong to the same family as the Malays and Malayo-Polynesians. Substantially the same language exists throughout the entire island; and there is not more difference between the dialects than such as exists . . . between the talk of a countryman from Lancashire and another from Somersetshire. . . . The chief tribes in the island are the Hova, the Betsileo, the Bara, the Tankay, the Sihanaka, the Betsimisaraka, the Talmoro, the Taisaka, the Taifasy, the Tanosy, the Sakalava, the Tankarama. To these might be added many other tribal names of less importance, if we intended to make our list complete. The Hova are the inhabitants of the central province of Imerina. . . . The Hova are the ruling tribe, and they are essentially a Malayan people with a smaller admixture of foreign blood than any other tribe. They are lighter in colour and quicker in intellect than the other tribes. They have many estimable qualities, and one may form pleasant friendships and enjoy social intercourse with them. They are keen traders, and will go long distances in pursuit of profitable transactions. They have also in some rough fashion managed to make their power as rulers felt throughout nearly the whole of Madagascar. Their rule is oppressive, and they are both hated and feared by the subject races; but they are a progressive people, ready to assimilate much

of our civilization, and, since their acceptance of Christianity, they have come under influences that are fitting them to take the lead. . . . As far back as tradition will carry us there existed in Madagascar a kind of feudalism. Villages were usually built on the hill tops, and each hill top had its own chieftain, and these petty feudal chiefs were constantly waging war with one another. The people living on these feudal estates paid taxes and rendered certain services to their feudal lords. Each chief enjoyed a semi-independence, for no strong overlord existed. Attempts were made from time to time to unite these petty chieftaincies into one kingdom, but no one tribe succeeded in making itself supreme till the days of Radama I. [1810–1828]. . . . By allying himself closely with England, Radama obtained arms and military instructors, and carried war into distant provinces. He ultimately succeeded in conquering many of the tribes, and his reign marks the beginning of a new era in Madagascar. Indeed, only from his days could Madagascar in any sense be regarded as a political unit. . . . For three reigns, i. e., from the accession of Rasoherina in 1863, the 'Mpanjaka' [sovereign] has been a woman, and has been the wife of the prime minister. A general impression exists in England that this is an old Malagasy custom; but such is not the case. The arrangement is quite a recent one. The present prime minister (not being of royal blood) is content to be 'mpanapaka,' or ruler; and while all public honour is shown to the queen and her authority is fully acknowledged, those behind the scenes would wish us to believe that the queen is supreme only in name. . . . In the 17th century the French occupied Fort Dauphine, at the south-east extremity of the island, and also formed establishments at Foule Point and other places on the east coast. The lives of many Frenchmen were sacrificed in the attempt to maintain these positions, and finally they were all but abandoned. In the Napoleonic wars, when Great Britain seized Mauritius and Bourbon, she also acquired whatever possessions and rights France possessed in Madagascar. And although, when peace was reestablished after the battle of Waterloo, Bourbon was restored to France, all French rights and possessions in Madagascar were retained by Great Britain. Later on, in the time of Radama I. (1810–1828), when a treaty of friendship was entered into between him and Governor Farquhar in 1817, all these claims were finally renounced, and Radama was acknowledged King of Madagascar. The French, however, never altogether abandoned the idea that Madagascar in some sense belonged to them. A work was published in 1859 entitled 'Madagascar; a French Possession from the year 1642,' showing how there still lingered in the minds of many the idea that, as a result of these early establishments, France still possessed some claims on the island. Later on France acquired by treaty with local chiefs the islands of St. Mary (1821), near the eastern coast, and Nosibè (1841) on the north-west. . . . From the accession of Radama II. there have been constant difficulties between the French and Malagasy governments. . . . In the year 1868 a treaty of friendship was entered into by the two governments, and Queen Rasoherina was recognized as Queen of Madagascar. This seemed to be the final abandonment of all French claims. It did not, however, end the difficulties. . . . In 1883, because the Malagasy would not yield to certain demands made by the French, war broke out. . . . In 1886 a treaty of peace was concluded, which, while reserving to the Hova the control of all domestic affairs, gave to the French a privileged position in regard to foreign affairs. . . . The large bay of Diego Suarez, on the north-east of Madagascar (sometimes known as British Sound) was also ceded to France. This treaty was seen at the time to contain ambiguous phrases capable of very different interpretations, and as a matter of fact the French authorities and the Hova prime minister have never agreed as to its meaning, and much controversy and diplomatic discussion has arisen during the last eight years as to the exact extent of French rights in Madagascar."—W. E. Cousins, *Madagascar of Today.*—"By the Anglo-French Agreement of August 5, 1890, the protectorate of France over Madagascar was recognized by Great Britain; but the native government steadily refuses to recognize any protectorate by France, and will not issue any 'exequatur' to foreign consuls through the French resident. The native government retains absolute independence in all domestic legislation and control of the other tribes."—*The Statesman's Year-Book*, 1895, *p.* 516.

MADEIRA ISLAND, Discovery of.—In the year 1419, Joham Gonçalvez Zarco and Tristam Vaz, "seeing from Porto Santo something that seemed like a cloud, but yet different (the origin of so much discovery, noting the difference in the likeness), built two boats, and, making for this cloud, soon found themselves alongside a beautiful island, abounding in many things, but most of all in trees, on which account they gave it the name of Madeira (wood)."—A. Helps, *Spanish Conquest, bk.* 1, *ch.* 1.

MADISON, James, and the framing and adoption of the Federal Constitution. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1787; 1787–1789.

. . . . Presidential election and administration. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1808, to 1817.

MADRAS: A. D. 1640.—The founding of the city. See INDIA: A. D. 1600–1702.

A. D. 1746-1748.—Taken by the French.—Restored to England. See INDIA: A. D. 1748–1752.

A. D. 1758-1759.—Unsuccessful siege by the French. See INDIA: A. D. 1758–1761.

MADRID: A. D. 1560.—Made the capital of Spain by Philip II. See SPAIN: A. D. 1559–1568.

A. D. 1706-1710.—Taken and retaken by the French and Austrian claimants of the crown. See SPAIN: A. D. 1706; and 1707–1710.

A. D. 1808.—Occupied by the French.—Popular insurrection. See SPAIN: A. D. 1807–1808.

A. D. 1808.—Arrival of Joseph Bonaparte, as king, and his speedy flight. See SPAIN: A. D. 1808 (MAY—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1808 (December).—Recovery by the French.—Return of King Joseph Bonaparte. See SPAIN: A. D. 1808 (SEPTEMBER—DECEMBER).

A. D. 1812.—Evacuation by the French.—Occupation of the city by Wellington and his army. See SPAIN: A. D. 1812 (JUNE—AUGUST).

A. D. 1823.—Again occupied by the French. See SPAIN: A. D. 1814–1827.

MADRID, The Treaty of (1526). See FRANCE: A. D. 1525-1526.

MADURA.—An island lying close to Java and politically united with it.

MÆATÆ, The.—A name given by the Romans to tribes in Scotland between the Forth and the Clyde, next to "the wall."

MÆOTIS PALUS.—The ancient Greek name of what is now called the Sea of Azov.

MAESTRICHT: A. D. 1576.—The Spanish Fury. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1575-1577.

A. D. 1579.—Spanish siege, capture and massacre. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1577-1581.

A. D. 1632.—Siege and capture by the Dutch. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1621-1633.

A. D. 1673.—Siege and capture by Vauban and Louis XIV. See NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): A. D. 1672-1674.

A. D. 1676.—Unsuccessfully besieged by William of Orange. See NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): A. D. 1674-1678.

A. D. 1678.—Restored to Holland. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

A. D. 1748.—Taken by the French and restored to Holland. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1746-1747; and AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, CONGRESS AND TREATY.

A. D. 1793.—Siege by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (FEBRUARY—APRIL).

A. D. 1795.—Ceded to France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1794-1795 (OCTOBER—MAY).

MAFIA. See NEW ORLEANS: A. D. 1891.

MAFRIAN. See JACOBITE CHURCH.

MAGADHA, The kingdom of. See INDIA: B. C. 327-382; and 382——.

MAGALHAES ISLANDS. See MICRONESIA.

MAGDALA, Capture of (1868). See ABYSSINIA: A. D. 1854-1889.

MAGDEBURG: A. D. 1631.—Siege, sack, and massacre. See GERMANY: A. D. 1630-1631.

MAGELLAN, Voyage of. See AMERICA: A. D. 1519-1524.

MAGENTA, Battle of (1859). See ITALY: A. D. 1856-1859.

MAGESÆTAS, The. See ENGLAND: A. D. 547-633.

MAGIANS.—MAGI.—The priesthood of the ancient Iranian religion—the religion of the Avesta and of Zarathrustra, or Zoroaster—as it existed among the Medes and Persians. In Eastern Iran the priests were called Athravas. In Western Iran "they are not called Athravas, but Magush. This name is first found in the inscription which Darius caused to be cut on the rock-wall of Behistun; afterwards it was consistently used by Western writers, from Herodotus to Agathias, for the priests of Iran."—M. Duncker, *Hist. of Antiquity, bk.* 7, *ch.* 8 (*v.* 5).—"The priests of the Zoroastrians, from a time not long subsequent to Darius Hystaspis, were the Magi. This tribe, or caste, originally perhaps external to Zoroastrianism, had come to be recognised as a true priestly order; and was entrusted by the Sassanian princes with the whole control and direction of the religion of the state. Its chief was a personage holding a rank but very little inferior to the king. He bore the title of 'Tenpet' 'Head of the Religion,' or 'Movpetan Movpet,' 'Head of the Chief Magi.'"—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy, ch.* 28.—"To the whole ancient world Zoroaster's lore was best known by the name of the doctrine of the Magi, which denomination was commonly applied to the priests of India, Persia, and Babylonia. The earliest mention of them is made by the prophet Jeremiah (xxxix. 3), who enumerated among the retinue of King Nebuchadnezzar at his entry into Jerusalem, the 'Chief of the Magi' ('rab mag' in Hebrew), from which statement we may distinctly gather that the Magi exercised a great influence at the court of Babylonia 600 years B. C. They were, however, foreigners, and are not to be confounded with the indigenous priests. . . . The name Magi occurs even in the New Testament. In the Gospel according to St. Matthew (ii. 1), the Magi (Greek 'magoi,' translated in the English Bible by 'wise men') came from the East to Jerusalem, to worship the new-born child Jesus at Bethlehem. That these Magi were priests of the Zoroastrian religion, we know from Greek writers."—M. Haug, *Essays on the Religion of the Parsis*, 1.—See, also, ZOROASTRIANS.

MAGNA CARTA. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1215.

MAGNA GRÆCIA.—"It was during the height of their prosperity, seemingly, in the sixth century B. C., that the Italic Greeks [in southern Italy] either acquired for, or bestowed upon, their territory the appellation of Magna Græcia, which at that time it well deserved; for not only were Sybaris and Kroton then the greatest Grecian cities situated near together, but the whole peninsula of Calabria may be considered as attached to the Grecian cities on the coast. The native Œnotrians and Sikels occupying the interior had become hellenised, or semi-hellenised, with a mixture of Greeks among them—common subjects of these great cities."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 22.—On the Samnite conquest of Magna Græcia—see SAMNITES.

MAGNANO, Battle of (1799). See FRANCE: A. D. 1798-1799 (AUGUST—APRIL).

MAGNATÆ, The. See IRELAND, TRIBES OF EARLY CELTIC INHABITANTS.

MAGNESIA.—The eastern coast of Thessaly was anciently so called. The Magnetes who occupied it were among the people who became subject to the Thessalians or Thesprotians, when the latter came over from Epirus and occupied the valley of the Peneus.—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 3.—Two towns named Magnesia in Asia Minor were believed to be colonies from the Magnetes of Thessaly. One was on the south side of the Mæander; the other, more northerly, near the river Harmus.—The same, *ch.* 13.

MAGNESIA, Battle of (B. C. 190). See SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 224-187.

MAGNUS I., King of Denmark, A. D. 1042-1047.....Magnus I. (called The Good), King of Norway, 1035-1047.....Magnus I., King of Sweden, 1275-1290.....Magnus II., King of Norway, 1066-1069.....Magnus II., King of Sweden, 1319-1350, and 1356-1363; and VII. of Norway, 1319-1343.....Magnus III., King of Norway, 1093-1103.....Magnus IV., King of Norway, 1130-1134.....Magnus V., King of Norway, 1162-1186.....Magnus VI., King of Norway, 1263-1280.

MAGYARS, The. See HUNGARIANS.

MAHARAJA. See RAJA.

MAHDI, Al, Caliph, A. D. 775–785.

MAHDI, The.—"The religion of Islam acknowledges the mission of Jesus, but not His divinity. Since the Creation, it teaches, five prophets had appeared before the birth of Mahomet—Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus—each being greater than his predecessor, and each bringing a fuller and higher revelation than the last. Jesus ranks above all the prophets of the old dispensation, but below those of the new, inaugurated by Mahomet. In the final struggle He will be but the servant and auxiliary of a more august personage—the Mahdi. The literal meaning of the word Mahdi is not, as the newspapers generally assert, 'He who leads,' a meaning more in consonance with European ideas, but 'He who is led.' . . . If he leads his fellow-men it is because he alone is the 'well-guided one,' led by God—the Mahdi. The word Mahdi is only an epithet which may be applied to any prophet, or even to any ordinary person; but used as a proper name it indicates him who is 'well-guided' beyond all others, the Mahdi 'par excellence,' who is to end the drama of the world, and of whom Jesus shall only be the vicar. . . . The Koran does not speak of the Mahdi, but it seems certain that Mahomet must have announced him. . . . The idea of the Mahdi once formed, it circulated throughout the Mussulman world: we will follow it rapidly in its course among the Persians, the Turks, the Egyptians, and the Arabs of the Soudan; but without for an instant pretending to pass in review all the Mahdis who have appeared upon the prophetic stage; for their name is Legion."—J. Darmesteter, *The Mahdi, Past and Present, ch.* 1–2.—See, also, ISLAM; ALMOHADES; and EGYPT: A. D. 1870–1883, and 1884–1885.

MAHDIYA: Taken by the Moorish Corsair, Dragut, and retaken by the Spaniards (1550). See BARBARY STATES: A. D. 1543–1560.

MAHMOUD I., Turkish Sultan, A. D. 1730–1754.....Mahmoud II., Turkish Sultan, 1808–1839.....Mahmoud, the Afghan, Shah of Persia, 1722–1725.....Mahmoud, the Gaznevide, The Empire of. See TURKS: A. D. 999–1183.

MAHOMETAN CONQUEST AND EMPIRE.

A. D. 609-632.—The Mission of the Prophet.—Mahomet (the usage of Christendom has fixed this form of the name Mohammad) was born at Mecca, on or about the 20th day of August, A. D. 570. He sprang from "the noblest race in Mecca and in Arabia [the tribe of Koreish and the family of Hashem]. To his family belonged the hereditary guardianship of the Kaaba and a high place among the aristocracy of his native city. Personally poor, he was raised to a position of importance by his marriage with the rich widow Khadijah, whose mercantile affairs he had previously conducted. In his fortieth year he began to announce himself as an Apostle of God, sent to root out idolatry, and to restore the true faith of the preceding Prophets, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus. Slowly and gradually he makes converts in his native city; his good wife Khadijah, his faithful servant Zeyd, are the first to recognize his mission; his young cousin, the noble Ali, the brave and generous and injured model of Arabian chivalry, declares himself his convert and Vizier; the prudent, moderate and bountiful Abu-Bekr acknowledges the pretensions of the daring innovator. Through mockery and persecution the Prophet keeps unflinchingly in his path; no threats, no injuries, hinder him from still preaching to his people the unity and the righteousness of God, and exhorting to a far purer and better morality than had ever been set before them. He claims no temporal power, no spiritual domination; he asks but for simple toleration, for free permission to win men by persuasion into the way of truth. . . . As yet at least his hands were not stained with blood, nor his inner life with lust."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. and Conquests of the Saracens, lect.* 2.—After ten years of preaching at Mecca, and of a private circulation and repetition of the successive Suras or chapters of the Koran, as the prophet delivered them, Mahomet had gained but a small following, while the opposition to his doctrines and pretensions had gained strength. But in A. D. 620 (he being then fifty years of age) he gained the ear of a company of pilgrims from Medina and won them to his faith. Returning home, they spread the gospel of Islam among their neighbors, and the disciples at Medina were soon strong enough in numbers to offer protection to their prophet and to his persecuted followers in Mecca. As the result of two pledges, famous in Mahometan history, which were given by the men of Medina to Mahomet, in secret meetings at the hill of Acaba, a general emigration of the adherents of the new faith from Mecca to Medina took place in the spring of the year 622. Mahomet and his closest friend, Abu Bakr, having remained with their families until the last, escaped the rage of the Koreish, or Coreish, only by a secret flight and a concealment for three days in a cave on Mount Thaur, near Mecca. Their departure from the cave of Thaur, according to the most accepted reckoning, was on the 20th of June, A. D. 622. This is the date of the Hegira, or flight, or emigration of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina. The Mahometan Era of the Hegira, "though referring 'par excellence' to the flight of the Prophet, . . . is also applicable to all his followers who emigrated to Medina prior to the capture of Mecca; and they are hence called Muhâjirin, i. e., the Emigrants, or Refugees. We have seen that they commenced to emigrate from the beginning of Moharram (the first month of the Hegira era) two months before." The title of the Muhâjirin, or Refugees, soon became an illustrious one, as did that of the Ansar, or Allies, of Medina, who received and protected them. At Medina Mahomet found himself strongly sustained. Before the year of his flight ended, he opened hostilities against the city which had rejected him, by attacking its Syrian caravans. The attacks were followed up and the traffic of Mecca greatly interfered with, until January, 624, when the famous battle of Bedr, or Badr, was fought, and the first great

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victory of the sword of Islam achieved. The 300 warriors of Bedr formed "the peerage of Islam." From this time the ascendancy of Mahomet was rapidly gained, and assumed a political as well as a religious character. His authority was established at Medina and his influence spread among the neighboring tribes. Nor was his cause more than temporarily depressed by a sharp defeat which he sustained, January, 625, in battle with the Koreish at Ohod. Two years later Medina was attacked and besieged by a great force of the Koreish and other tribes of Arabs and Jews, against the latter of whom Mahomet, after vainly courting their adhesion and recognition, had turned with relentless hostility. The siege failed and the retreat of the enemy was hastened by a timely storm. In the next year Mahomet extorted from the Koreish a treaty, known as the Truce of Hodeibia, which suspended hostilities for ten years and permitted the prophet and his followers to visit Mecca for three days in the following year. The pilgrimage to Mecca was made in the holy month, February, 629, and in 630 Mahomet found adherents enough within the city and outside of it to deliver the coveted shrine and capital of Arabia into his hands. Alleging a breach of the treaty of peace, he marched against the city with an army of 10,000 men, and it was surrendered to him by his obstinate opponent, Abu Sofiân, who acknowledged, at last, the divine commission of Mahomet and became a disciple. The idols in the Kaaba were thrown down and the ancient temple dedicated to the worship of the one God. The conquest of Mecca was followed within no long time by the submission of the whole Arabic peninsula. The most obstinate in resisting were the great Bedouin tribe of the Hawazin, in the hill country, southeast of Mecca, with their kindred, the Bani Thackif. These were crushed in the important battle of Honein, and their strong city of Tayif was afterwards taken. Before Mahomet died, on the 8th June, A. D. 632, he was the prince as well as the prophet of Arabia, and his armies, passing the Syrian borders, had already encountered the Romans, though not gloriously, in a battle fought at Muta, not far from the Dead Sea.—Sir W. Muir, *Life of Mahomet.*

Also in: E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 50.—J. W. H. Stobart, *Islam and its Founder, ch.* 8-9.—W. Irving, *Mahomet and his Successors, ch.* 6-39.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Arabs, pt.* 1, *ch.* 1-8.—See, also, Islam, and Era, Mahometan.

A. D. 632-639.—Abu Bekr.—Omar.—The founding of the Caliphate.—Conquest of Syria.—The death of Mahomet left Islam without a head. The Prophet had neither named a successor (Khalif or Caliph), nor had he instituted a mode in which the choice of one should be made. His nephew and son-in-law—"the Bayard of Islam," the lion-hearted Ali—seemed the natural heir of that strangely born sovereignty of the Arab world. But its elders and chiefs were averse to Ali, and the assembly which they convened preferred, instead, the Prophet's faithful friend, the venerable Abu Bekr. This first of the caliphs reigned modestly but two years, and on his death, July, A. D. 634, the stern soldier Omar was raised to the more than royal place. By this time the armies of the crescent were already far advanced beyond the frontiers of Arabia in their fierce career of conquest. No sooner had Abu Bekr, in 632, set his heel on some rebellious movements, which threatened his authority, than he made haste to open fields in which the military spirit and ambitions of his unquiet people might find full exercise. With bold impartiality he challenged, at once, and alike, the two dominant powers of the eastern world, sending armies to invade the soil of Persia, on one hand, and the Syrian provinces of the Roman empire, on the other. The invincible Khaled, or Caled, led the former, at first, but was soon transferred to the more critical field, which the latter proved to be. "One of the fifteen provinces of Syria, the cultivated lands to the eastward of the Jordan, had been decorated by Roman vanity with the name of 'Arabia'; and the first arms of the Saracens were justified by the semblance of a national right." The strong city of Bosra was taken, partly through the treachery of its commander, Romanus, who renounced Christianity and embraced the faith of Islam. From Bosra the Moslems advanced on Damascus, but suspended the siege of the city until they had encountered the army which the Emperor Heraclius sent to its relief. This they did on the field of Aiznadin, in the south of Palestine, July 30, A. D. 634, when 50,000 of the Roman-Greeks and Syrians are said to have perished, while but 470 Arabs fell. Damascus was immediately invested and taken after a protracted siege, which Voltaire has likened to the siege of Troy, on account of the many combats and stratagems—the many incidents of tragedy and romance—which poets and historians have handed down, in some connection with its progress or its end. The ferocity of Khaled was only half restrained by his milder colleague in command, Abu Obeidah, and the wretched inhabitants of Damascus suffered terribly at his hands. The city, itself, was spared and highly favored, becoming the Syrian capital of the Arabs. Heliopolis (Baalbec) was besieged and taken in January, A. D. 636; Emessa surrendered soon after. In November, 636, a great and decisive battle was fought with the forces of Heraclius at Yermuk, or Yermouk, on the borders of Palestine and Arabia. The Christians fought obstinately and well, but they were overwhelmed with fearful slaughter. "After the battle of Yermuk the Roman army no longer appeared in the field; and the Saracens might securely choose, among the fortified towns of Syria, the first object of their attack. They consulted the caliph whether they should march to Cæsarea or Jerusalem; and the advice of Ali determined the immediate siege of the latter. . . . After Mecca and Medina, it was revered and visited by the devout Moslems as the temple of the Holy Land, which had been sanctified by the revelation of Moses, of Jesus, and of Mahomet himself." The defense of Jerusalem, notwithstanding its great strength, was maintained with less stubbornness than that of Damascus had been. After a siege of four months, in the winter of A. D. 637, the Christian patriarch or bishop of Jerusalem, who seems to have been first in authority, proposed to give up the Holy City, if Omar, the caliph, would come in person from Medina to settle and sign the terms of surrender. Omar deemed the prize worthy of this concession and made the long journey, travelling as simply as the humblest pilgrim and entering Jerusalem on foot.

After this, little remained to make the conquest of all Syria complete. Aleppo was taken, but not easily, after a siege, and Antioch, the splendid seat of eastern luxury and wealth, was abandoned by the emperor and submitted, paying a great ransom for its escape from spoliation and the sword. The year 639 saw Syria at the feet of the Arabs whom it had despised six years before, and the armies of the caliph were ready to advance to new fields, east, northwards, and west.—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 51.

Also in: W. Irving, *Mahomet and His Successors, v.* 2, *ch.* 8-23.—S. Ockley, *Hist. of the Saracens: Abubeker.*—Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the Early Caliphate, ch.* 2, 11, 19-21.—See, also, Jerusalem: A. D. 637; and Tyre: A. D. 638.

A. D. 632-651.—Conquest of Persia.—During the invasion of Syria, Abu Bekr, the first of the Caliphs, sent an expedition towards the Euphrates, under command of the redoubtable Khaled (633). The first object of its attack was Hira, a city on the western branch of the Euphrates, not far from modern Kufa. Hira was the seat of a small kingdom of Christian Arabs tributary to Persia and under Persian protection and control. Its domain embraced the northern part of that fertile tract between the desert and the Euphrates which the Arab writers call Sawad; the southern part being a Persian province of which the capital, Obolla, was the great emporium of the Indian trade. Hira and Obolla were speedily taken and this whole region subdued. But, Khaled being then transferred to the army in Syria, the Persians regained courage, while the energy of the Moslems was relaxed. In an encounter called the Battle of the Bridge, A. D. 635, the latter experienced a disastrous check; but the next year found them more victorious than ever. The great battle of Cadesia (Kadisiyeh) ended all hope in Persia of doing more than defend the Euphrates as a western frontier. Within two years even that hope disappeared. The new Arab general, Sa'ad Ibn Abi Wakas, having spent the interval in strengthening his forces, and in founding the city of Busrah, or Bassora, below the junction of the Euphrates and Tigris, as well as that of Kufa, which became the Moslem capital, advanced into Mesopotamia, A. D. 637, crossing the river without opposition. The Persian capital, Ctesiphon, was abandoned to him so precipitately that most of its vast treasures fell into his hands. It was not until six months later that the Persians and Arabs met in battle, at Jalula, and the encounter was fatal to the former, 100,000 having perished on the field. "By the close of the year A. D. 637 the banner of the Prophet waved over the whole tract west of Zagros, from Nineveh almost to Susa." Then a brief pause ensued. In 641 the Persian king Isdigerd — last of the Sassanian house — made a great, heroic effort to recover his lost dominions and save what remained. He staked all and lost, in the final battle of Nehavend, which the Arabs called "Fattah-hul-Futtuh," or "Victory of Victories." "The defeat of Nehavend terminated the Sassanian power. Isdigerd indeed, escaping from Rei, and flying continually from place to place, prolonged an inglorious existence for the space of ten more years — from A. D. 641 to A. D. 651; but he had no longer a kingdom. Persia fell to pieces on the occasion of 'the victory of victories,' and made no other united effort against the Arabs. Province after province was occupied by the fierce invaders; and, at length, in A. D. 651, their arms penetrated to Merv, where the last scion of the house of Babek had for some years found a refuge. . . . The order of conquest seems to have been the following: — Media, Northern Persia, Rhagiana, Azerbijan, Gurgan, Tabaristan, and Khorassan in A. D. 642; Southern Persia, Kerman, Seistan, Mekran, and Kurdistan in A. D. 643; Merv, Balkh, Herat, and Kharezm in A. D. 650 or 652."—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy, ch.* 26, *and foot-notes*

Also in: W. Irving, *Mahomet and his Successors, v.* 2, *ch.* 25-34.—Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the Early Caliphate, ch.* 10-18, 25-26.

A. D. 640-646.—Conquest of Egypt.—"It was in the nineteenth or twentieth year of the Hegira [A. D. 640 or 641] that Amru having obtained the hesitating consent of the Caliph, set out from Palestine for Egypt. His army, though joined on its march by bands of Bedouins lured by the hope of plunder, did not at the first exceed 4,000 men. Soon after he had left, Omar, concerned at the smallness of his force, would have recalled him; but finding that he had already gone too far to be stopped, he sent heavy reinforcements, under Zobeir, one of the chief Companions, after him. The army of Amru was thus swelled to an imposing array of from 12,000 to 16,000 men, some of them warriors of renown. Amru entered Egypt by Arish, and overcoming the garrison at Faroma [ancient Pelusium], turned to the left and so passed onward through the desert, reaching thus the easternmost of the seven estuaries of the Nile. Along this branch of the river he marched by Bubastis towards Upper Egypt," — and, so, to Heliopolis, near to the great ancient city of Misr, or Memphis. Here, and throughout their conquest of Egypt, the Moslem invaders appear to have found some goodwill towards them prevailing among the Christians of the Jacobite sect, who had never become reconciled to the Orthodox Greeks. Heliopolis and Memphis were surrendered to their arms after some hard fighting and a siege of no long duration. "Amru lost no time in marching upon Alexandria so as to reach it before the Greek troops, hastily called in from the outlying garrisons, could rally there for its defence. On the way he put to flight several columns which sought to hinder his advance; and at last presented himself before the walls of the great city, which, offering (as it still does) on the land side a narrow and well-fortified front, was capable of an obstinate resistance. Towards the sea also it was open to succour at the pleasure of the Byzantine Court. But during the siege Heraclius died, and the opportunity of relief was supinely allowed to slip away." In the end Alexandria capitulated and was protected from plunder (see Libraries, Ancient: Alexandria), paying tribute to the conquerors. "Amru, it is said, wished to fix his seat of government at Alexandria, but Omar would not allow him to remain so far away from his camp, with so many branches of the Nile between. So he returned to Upper Egypt. A body of the Arabs crossed the Nile and settled in Ghizeh, on the western bank — a movement which Omar permitted only on condition that a strong fortress was constructed there to prevent the possibility of their being surprised and cut off. The headquarters of the

army were pitched near Memphis. Around them grew up a military station, called from its origin Fostat, or 'the Encampment.' It expanded rapidly into the capital of Egypt, the modern Cairo. . . . This name 'Cahira,' or City of the Victory, is of later date [see below: A. D. 908–1171]. . . . Zobeir urged Amru to enforce the right of conquest, and divide the land among his followers. But Amru refused; and the Caliph, as might have been expected, confirmed the judgment. 'Leave the land of Egypt,' was his wise reply, 'in the people's hands to nurse and fructify.' As elsewhere, Omar would not allow the Arabs to become proprietors of a single acre. Even Amru was refused ground whereupon to build a mansion for himself. . . . So the land of Egypt, left in the hands of its ancestral occupants, became a rich granary for the Hejaz, even as in bygone times it had been the granary of Italy and the Byzantine empire. . . . Amru, with the restless spirit of his faith, soon pushed his conquests westward beyond the limits of Egypt, established himself in Barca, and reached even to Tripoli. . . Early in the Caliphate of Othman [A. D. 646] a desperate attempt was made to regain possession of Alexandria. The Moslems, busy with their conquests elsewhere, had left the city insufficiently protected. The Greek inhabitants conspired with the Court, and a fleet of 300 ships was sent under command of Manuel, who drove out the garrison and took possession of the city. Amru hastened to its rescue. A great battle was fought outside the walls: the Greeks were defeated, and the unhappy town was subjected to the miseries of a second and a longer siege. It was at last taken by storm and given up to plunder. . . . The city, though still maintaining its commercial import, fell now from its high estate. The pomp and circumstance of the Moslem Court were transferred to Fostat, and Alexandria ceased to be the capital of Egypt."—Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the Early Caliphate, ch.* 24, *with foot-note.*

Also in: E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 51.—W. Irving, *Mahomet and his Successors, v.* 2, *ch.* 24 *and* 35.

A. D. 644.—Assassination of Caliph Omar.—The death of Omar, the second of the Caliphs, was a violent one. "It occurred in November, A. D. 644. One day a slave who worked for his master at the carpenter's bench came to see the Commander of the Faithful, and complained to him of being overworked, and badly treated by the citizen that owned him. Omar listened attentively, but arriving at the conclusion that the charges were false, sternly dismissed the carpenter to his bench. The man retired, vowing to be revenged. The following day was Friday, 'the day of the Assembly.' Omar, as usual, went to lead the prayers of the assembly in the great mosque. He opened his mouth to speak. He had just said 'Allah,' when the keen dagger of the offended slave was thrust into his back, and the Commander of the Faithful fell on the sacred floor, fatally wounded. The people, in a perfect frenzy of horror and rage, fell upon the assassin, but with superhuman strength he threw them off, and rushing about in the madness of despair he killed some and wounded others, and finally turning the point of his dagger to his own breast, fell dead. Omar lingered several days in great agony, but he was brave to the end. His dying words were, 'Give to my successor this parting bequest, that he be kind to the men of this city, Medina, which gave a home to us, and to the Faith. Tell him to make much of their virtues, and to pass lightly over their faults.' Bid him also treat well the Arab tribes, for verily they are the backbone of Islam. Moreover, let him faithfully fulfil the covenants made with the Christians and the Jews! O Allah! I have finished my course! To him that cometh after me, I leave the kingdom firmly established and at peace!' Thus perished one of the greatest Princes the Mohammedans were ever to know. Omar was truly a great and good man, of whom any country and any creed might be proud."—J. J. Pool, *Studies in Mohammedanism, pp.* 58–59.

A. D. 647-709. — Conquest of northern Africa.—"While Egypt was won almost without a blow, Latin Africa [northern Africa beyond Egypt] took sixty years to conquer. It was first invaded under Othman in 647, but Carthage was not subdued till 698, nor was the province fully reduced for eleven years longer. And why? Doubtless because Africa contained two classes of inhabitants, not over-friendly to each other, but both of whom had something to lose by a Saracenic conquest. The citizens of Carthage were Roman in every sense, their language was Latin, their faith was orthodox; they had no wrongs beyond those which always afflict provincials under a despotism; wrongs not likely to be alleviated by exchanging a Christian despot at Constantinople for an infidel one at Medina or Damascus. Beyond them, in the inland provinces, were the native Moors, barbarians, and many of them pagans; they had fought for their rude liberty against the Cæsars, and they had no intention of surrendering it to the Caliphs. Romans and Moors alike long preferred the chances of the sword to either Koran or tribute; but their ultimate fate was different. Latin civilization and Latin Christianity gradually disappeared by the decay and extermination of their votaries. The Moors, a people not unlike the Arabs in their unconverted state, were at last content to embrace their religion, and to share their destinies and their triumphs. Arabs and Moors intermingled went on to further conquests; and the name of the barbarian converts was more familiarly used in Western Europe to denote the united nation than the terrible name of the original compatriots of the Prophet."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. and Conquests of the Saracens, lect.* 3.—"In their climate and government, their diet and habitation, the wandering Moors resembled the Bedoweens of the desert. With the religion they were proud to adopt the language, name, and origin of Arabs; the blood of the strangers and natives was insensibly mingled; and from the Euphrates to the Atlantic the same nation might seem to be diffused over the sandy plains of Asia and Africa. Yet I will not deny that 50,000 tents of pure Arabians might be transported over the Nile and scattered through the Libyan desert; and I am not ignorant that five of the Moorish tribes still retain their barbarous idiom, with the appellation and character of 'white' Africans."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 51.—"By 647 the Barbary coast was overrun up to the gates of Roman Carthage; but the wild Berber population was more difficult to subdue than the luxurious subjects of the Sasanids of Persia or the

Greeks of Syria and Egypt. Kayrawan was founded as the African capital in 670; Carthage fell in 698, and the Arabs pushed their arms as far as the Atlantic. From Tangier they crossed into Spain in 710."—S. Lane-Poole, *The Mohammadan Dynasties, p.* 5.

ALSO IN: W. Irving, *Mahomet and his Successors, v.* 2, *ch.* 35, 44, 54–55.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Arabs, pt.* 1, *ch.* 1–3.—See, also, CARTHAGE: A. D. 698; and MOROCCO.

A. D. 661.—Accession of the Omeyyads.—Abu Bekr, the immediate successor of Mahomet, reigned but two years, dying August, A. D. 634. By his nomination, Omar was raised to the Caliphate, and ruled Islam until 644, when he was murdered by a Persian slave. His successor was Othman, who had been the secretary of the Prophet. The Caliphate of Othman was troubled by many plots and increasing disaffection, which ended in his assassination, A. D. 656. It was not until then that Ali, the nephew and son-in-law of Mahomet, was permitted to take the Prophet's seat. But the dissensions in the Moslem world had grown more bitter as the fields of ambitious rivalry were widened, and the factions opposed to Ali were implacable. "Now begins the tragic tale of the wrongs and martyrdoms of the immediate family of the Prophet. The province of Syria was now ruled by the crafty Moawiyah, whose father was Abu-Sofian, so long the bitterest enemy of Mahomet, and at last a tardy and unwilling proselyte. . . . Such was the parentage of the man who was to deprive the descendants of the Apostle of their heritage. Moawiyah gave himself out as the avenger of Othman; Ali was represented as his murderer, although his sons, the grandsons of the Prophet, had fought, and one of them received a wound, in the defence of that Caliph. . . . Ayesha, too, the Mother of the Faithful, Telha and Zobeir, the Prophet's old companions, revolted on their own account, and the whole of the brief reign of Ali was one constant succession of civil war." Syria adhered to Moawiyah. Ayesha, Zobeir and Telha gained possession of Bussorah and made that city their headquarters of rebellion. They were defeated there by Ali in a great battle, A. D. 656, called the Battle of the Camel, because the litter which bore Ayesha on the back of a camel became the center of the fight. But he gained little from the success; nor more from a long, indecisive battle fought with Moawiyah at Siffin, in July, A. D. 657. Amru, the conqueror of Egypt, had now joined Moawiyah, and his influence enlisted that great province in the revolt. At last, in 661, the civil war was ended by the assassination of Ali. His eldest son, Hassan, who seems to have been a spiritless youth, bargained away his claims to Moawiyah, and the latter became undisputed Caliph, founding a dynasty called that of the Ommiades, or Omeyyads (from Ommiah, or Omeyya, the great grandfather of Moawiyah), which occupied the throne for almost a century — not at Medina, but at Damascus, to which city the Caliphate was now transferred. "In thus converting the Caliphate into an hereditary monarchy he utterly changed its character. It soon assumed the character of a common oriental empire. . . . The Ommiads were masters of slaves instead of leaders of freemen; the public will was no longer consulted, and the public good as little; the Commander of the Faithful sank into an earthly despot, ruling by force, like any Assyrian conqueror of old. The early Caliphs dwelt in the sacred city of Medina, and directed the counsels of the Empire from beside the tomb of the Prophet. Moawiyah transferred his throne to the conquered splendours of Damascus; and Mecca and Medina became tributary cities to the ruler of Syria. At one time a rival Caliph, Abdallah, established himself in Arabia; twice were the holy cities taken by storm, and the Kaaba itself was battered down by the engines of the invaders. . . . Such a revolution however did not effect itself without considerable opposition. The partizans of the house of Ali continued to form a formidable sect. In their ideas the Vicarship of the Prophet was not to be, like an earthly kingdom, the mere prize of craft or of valour. It was the inalienable heritage of the sacred descendants of the Prophet himself. . . . This was the origin of the Shiah sect, the assertors of the rights of Ali and his house."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. and Conquests of the Saracens, lect.* 3.

ALSO IN: Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the Early Caliphate, ch.* 31–46.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam Under the Arabs, pt.* 3.—S. Lane-Poole, *The Mohammadan Dynasties, pp.* 9–11.

A. D. 680.—The Tragedy at Kerbela.—When Ali, or Aly, the nephew and son-in-law of Mahomet, had been slain, A. D. 661, and the Caliphate had been seized by Moawiyah, the first of the Ommiades, "the followers of 'Aly proclaimed his elder son, Hasan, Khalif; but this poor-spirited youth was contented to sell his pretensions to the throne. . . . On his death, his brother Hoseyn became the lawful Khalif in the eyes of the partisans of the House of 'Aly, who ignored the general admission of the authority of the 'Ommiades.' . . . For a time Hoseyn remained quietly at Medina, leading a life of devotion, and declining to push his claims. But at length an opportunity for striking a blow at the rival House presented itself, and Hoseyn did not hesitate to avail himself of it. He was invited to join an insurrection which had broken out at Kufa [A. D. 680], the most mutinous and fickle of all the cities of the empire; and he set out with his family and friends, to the number of 100 souls, and an escort of 500 horsemen, to join the insurgents. As he drew nigh to Kufa, he discovered that the rising had been suppressed by the 'Ommiade' governor of the city, and that the country round him was hostile instead of loyal to him. And now there came out from Kufa an army of 4,000 horse, who surrounded the little body of travellers [on the plain of Kerbela], and cut them off alike from the city and the river. . . . A series of single combats, in which Hoseyn and his followers displayed heroic courage, ended in the death of the Imam and the men who were with him, and the enslaving of the women and children."—S. Lane-Poole, *Studies in a Mosque, ch.* 7.—"The scene [of the massacre of Hosein and his band] . . . is still fresh as yesterday in the mind of every Believer, and is commemorated with wild grief and frenzy as often as the fatal day, the Tenth of the first month of the year [tenth of Moharram—Oct. 10], comes round. . . . The tragedy of Kerbala decided not only the fate of the Caliphate, but of Mahometan kingdoms long after the Caliphate had waned and disappeared. . . . The tragedy is yearly represented on the stage as a religious

ceremony"—in the "Passion Play" of the Moharram Festival.—Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the Early Caliphate, ch. 49, with foot-note.*—See, also, ISLAM.

A. D. 668-675.—First repulse from Constantinople. See CONSTANTINOPLE: A. D. 668-675.

A. D. 710.—Subjugation of the Turks.—"After the fall of the Persian kingdom, the river Oxus divided the territories of the Saracens and of the Turks. This narrow boundary was soon overleaped by the spirit of the Arabs; the governors of Chorassan extended their successive inroads; and one of their triumphs was adorned with the buskin of a Turkish queen, which she dropped in her precipitate flight beyond the hills of Bochara. But the final conquest of Transoxana, as well as of Spain, was reserved for the glorious reign of the inactive Walid; and the name of Catibah, the camel-driver, declares the origin and merit of his successful lieutenant. While one of his colleagues displayed the first Mahometan banner on the banks of the Indus, the spacious regions between the Oxus, the Jaxartes, and the Caspian sea were reduced by the arms of Catibah to the obedience of the prophet and of the caliph. A tribute of two millions of pieces of gold was imposed on the infidels; their idols were burned or broken; the Mussulman chief pronounced a sermon in the new mosch [mosque] of Carizme; after several battles the Turkish hordes were driven back to the desert; and the emperors of China solicited the friendship of the victorious Arabs. To their industry the prosperity of the province, the Sogdiana of the ancients, may in a great measure be ascribed; but the advantages of the soil and climate had been understood and cultivated since the reign of the Macedonian kings. Before the invasion of the Saracens, Carizme, Bochara, and Samarcand were rich and populous under the yoke of the shepherds of the North."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 51

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Hist. and Conquests of the Saracens, lect.* 3.

A. D. 711-713.—Conquest of Spain. See SPAIN: A. D. 711-718.

A. D. 715-732.—The repulse from Gaul.—"The deeds of Musa [in Africa and Spain] had been performed 'in the evening of his life,' but, to borrow the words of Gibbon, 'his breast was still fired with the ardor of youth, and the possession of Spain was considered as only the first step to the monarchy of Europe. With a powerful armament by sea and land, he was preparing to pass the Pyrenees, to extinguish in Gaul the declining kingdoms of the Franks and Lombards, and to preach the unity of God on the altar of the Vatican. Thence, subduing the barbarians of Germany, he proposed to follow the course of the Danube from its source to the Euxine Sea, to overthrow the Greek or Roman empire of Constantinople, and, returning from Europe to Asia, to unite his new acquisitions with Antioch and the provinces of Syria.' This vast enterprise . . . was freely revolved by the successors of Musa. In pursuance of it, El Haur, the new lieutenant of the califs, assailed the fugitive Goths in their retreats in Septimania (715-718). El Zamah, who succeeded him, crossed the mountains, and, seizing Narbonne, expelled the inhabitants and settled there a colony of Saracens (719). The following year they passed the Rhone, in order to extend their dominion over Provence, but, repelled by the dukes and the militia of the country, turned their forces toward Toulouse (721). Eudo, Duke of Aquitain, bravely defending his capital, brought on a decisive combat. . . . El Zamah fell. The carnage among his retreating men then became so great that the Arabs named the passage from Toulouse to Carcassone the Road of Martyrs (Balat al Chouda). Supporting their terrible reverses with the characteristic resignation of their race and faith, the Arabs were still able to retain a hold of Narbonne and of other fortresses of the south, and, after a respite of four years, spent in recruiting their troops from Spain and Africa, to resume their projects of invasion and pillage in Gaul (725). Under the Wali Anbessa, they ascended the Rhone as far as the city of Lyons, devastating the towns and the fields. . . . When, . . . at the close of his expeditions, Anbessa perished by the hands of the Infidels, all the fanaticism of the Mussulman heart was aroused into an eager desire for revenge. His successor, Abd-el-Rahman, a tried and experienced general, energetic and heroic as he was just and prudent, . . . entered into elaborate preparations for the final conquest of Gaul. For two years the ports of Syria, Egypt, and Africa swarmed with departing soldiery, and Spain resounded with the calls and cries to arms (727-729)." The storm broke first on Aquitaine, and its valiant Duke Eudes, or Eudo, rashly meeting the enemy in the open field, in front of Bordeaux, suffered an irretrievable defeat (May, 731). Bordeaux was stormed and sacked, and all Aquitaine was given up to the ravages of the unsparing Moslem host. Eudes fled, a helpless fugitive, to his enemies the Franks, and besought the aid of the great palace-mayor, Karl Martel, practical sovereign of the Frankish kingdoms, and father of the Pippin who would soon become king in name as well as in fact. But, not for Aquitaine, only, but for all Gaul, all Germany, —all Christendom in Europe,—Karl and his Franks were called on to rally and do battle against the sons of the desert, whose fateful march of conquest seemed never to end. "'During all the rest of the summer, the Roman clarions and the German horns sounded and groaned through all the cities of Neustria and Austrasia, through the rustic palaces of the Frankish leudes, and in the woody gaus of western Germany.' . . . Meanwhile, Abd-el-Rahman, laden with plunder and satiated with blood, had bent his steps toward the southwest, where he concentrated his troops on the banks of the Charente. Enriched and victorious as he was, there was still an object in Gaul which provoked alike the cupidity and the zeal of his followers. This was the Basilica of St. Martin of Tours, the shrine of the Gallic Christians, where the richest treasures of the Church were collected, and in which the profoundest veneration of its members centred. He yearned for the pillage and the overthrow of this illustrious sanctuary, and, taking the road from Poitiers, he encountered the giants of the North in the same valley of the Vienne and Clain where, nearly three hundred years before, the Franks and the Wisigoths had disputed the supremacy of Gaul. There, on those autumn fields, the Koran and the Bible—Islamism and Christianity—Asia and Europe—stood face to face, ready to grapple in a deadly

and decisive conflict. . . . Trivial skirmishes from time to time kept alive the ardor of both hosts, till at length, at dawn on Saturday, the 11th of October [A. D. 732], the signal for a general onset was given. With one loud shout of Allah-Akbar (God is great), the Arab horsemen charged like a tempest upon their foe, but the deep columns of the Franks did not bend before the blast. 'Like a wall of iron,' says the chronicler, 'like a rampart of ice, the men of the North stood unmoved by the frightful shock.' All day long the charges were renewed." Still the stout Franks held their ground, and still the indomitable warriors of Islam pressed upon them, until late in the afternoon, when the latter were thrown into confusion by an attack on their rear. Then Karl and his men charged on them and their lines were broken — their rout was bloody and complete. When night put an end to the slaughter, the Franks slept upon their arms, expecting that the dreaded Saracens would rally and resume the fight. But they vanished in the darkness. Their leader, the brave Abd-el-Rahman had fallen in the wild melée and no courage was left in their hearts. Abandoning everything but their horses and their arms, they fled to Narbonne. "Europe was rescued, Christianity triumphant, Karl the hero forever of Christian civilization."—P. Godwin, *Hist. of France: Ancient Gaul, ch.* 14.—The booty found by the Franks in the Moslem camp "was enormous; hard-money, ingots of the precious metals, melted from jewels and shrines; precious vases, rich stuffs, subsistence stores, flocks and herds gathered and parked in the camp. Most of this booty had been taken by the Moslemah from the Aquitanians, who now had the sorrow of seeing it greedily divided among the Franks." — H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, bk.* 6, *ch.* 1 (*v.* 2).

ALSO IN: E. S. Creasy, *Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World, ch.* 7.

A. D. 715-750.—Omeyyads and Abbassides.—The dividing of the Caliphate.—The tragic death of Hosein and his companions at Kerbela kindled a passion which time would not extinguish in the hearts of one great party among the Moslems. The first ambitious leader to take advantage of the excitement of it, as a means of overthrowing the Omeyyads, was Abdallah ibn Zobeir, who, posing first as the "Protector of the Holy House" of Ali, soon proclaimed himself Caliph and maintained for thirteen years a rival court at Mecca. In the war which raged during a great part of those years, Medina was taken by storm and given over to pillage, while the holy city of Mecca withstood a siege of forty days, during which the sacred Caaba was destroyed. Zobeir fell, at last, in a final battle fought under the walls of Mecca. Meantime, several changes in the caliphate at Damascus had taken place and the throne was soon afterwards [A. D. 705] occupied by the Caliph Welid, whose reign proved more glorious than that of any other prince of his house. "Elements of disorder still remained, but under the wise and firm sceptre of Welid they were held in check. The arts of peace prevailed; schools were founded, learning cultivated, and poets royally rewarded; public works of every useful kind were promoted, and even hospitals established for the aged, lame, and blind. Such, indeed, at this era, was the glory of the court of Damascus that Weil, of all the Caliphs both before and after, gives the precedence to Welid. It is the fashion for the Arabian historians to abuse the Omeyyads as a dissolute, intemperate, and godless race; but we must not forget that these all wrote more or less under Abbasside inspiration. . . . After Welid, the Omeyyad dynasty lasted six-and-thirty years. But it began to rest on a precarious basis. For now the agents of the house of Hashim, descendants of the Prophet and of his uncle Abbas, commenced to ply secretly, but with vigour and persistency, their task of canvass and intrigue in distant cities, and especially in the provinces of the East. For a long time, the endeavour of these agitators was directed to the advocacy of the Shiya right; that is to say, it was based upon the Divine claim of Aly, and his descendants in the Prophet's line, to the Imamate or leadership over the empire of Islam. . . . The discomfiture of the Shiyas paved the way for the designing advocates of the other Hashimite branch, namely, that of the house of Abbas, the uncle of the Prophet. These had all along been plotting in the background, and watching their opportunity. They now vaunted the claims of this line, and were barefaced enough to urge that, being descended from the uncle of Mahomet through male representatives, they took precedence over the direct descendants of the Prophet himself, because these came through Fatima in the female line. About the year 130 of the Hegira, Abul Abbas, of Abasside descent, was put forward in Persia, as the candidate of this party, and his claim was supported by the famous general Abu Muslim. Successful in the East, Abu Muslim turned his arms to the West. A great battle, one of those which decide the fate of empires, was fought on the banks of the Zab [A. D. 750]; and, through the defection of certain Kharejite and Yemen levies, was lost by the Omeyyad army. Merwan II., the last of his dynasty, was driven to Egypt, and there killed in the church of Bussir, whither he had fled for refuge. At the close of the year 132 [Aug. 5, A. D. 750], the black flag, emblem of the Abbassides, floated over the battlements of Damascus. The Omeyyad dynasty, after ruling the vast Moslem empire for a century, now disappeared in cruelty and bloodshed. . . . So perished the royal house of the Omeyyads. But one escaped. He fled to Spain, which had never favoured the overweening pretensions of the Prophet's family, whether in the line of Aly or Abbas. Accepted by the Arab tribes, whose influence in the West was paramount, Abd al Rahman now laid the foundation of a new Dynasty and perpetuated the Omeyyad name at the magnificent court of Cordova. . . . Thus, with the rise of the Abbassides, the unity of the Caliphate came to an end. Never after, either in theory or in fact, was there a successor to the Prophet, acknowledged as such over all Islam. Other provinces followed in the wake of Spain. The Aghlabite dynasty in the east of Africa, and, west of it, the Edrisites in Fez, both of Alyite descent; Egypt and Sicily under independent rulers; the Tahirite kings in Persia, their native soil; these and others, breaking away from the central government, established kingdoms of their own. The name of Caliph, however it might survive in the Abbasside lineage, or be assumed by less legitimate pretenders, had now altogether lost its virtue and significance."—Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the Early Caliphate, ch.* 50.

ALSO IN: S. Lane-Poole, *The Mohammadan Dynasties, pp.* 12-14.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam Under the Arabs, pt.* 8.

A. D. 717-718.—Second repulse from Constantinople. See CONSTANTINOPLE: A. D. 717-718.

A. D. 752-759.—Final expulsion from southern Gaul.—During the year of his coronation (A. D. 752) Pippin, or Pepin the Short—the first of the Carolingians to assume the Frankish crown—having taken measures to reduce Aquitaine to obedience, was diverted, on his march towards that country, into Septimania. The discord prevailing among the Moslems, who had occupied this region of Gaul for more than thirty years, "opened the prospect of an easy conquest. With little fighting, and through the treachery of a Goth named Ansemond, who commanded at Beziers, Agde, Maguelonne, and Nismes, under an Arabian wali, he was enabled to seize those strong-holds, and to leave a part of his troops to besiege Narbonne, as the first step toward future success." Then Pippin was called away by war with the Saxons and in Brittany, and was occupied with other cares and conflicts, until A. D. 759, when he took up and finished the task of expelling the Saracens from Gaul. "His troops left in occupation of Septimania (752) had steadily prosecuted the siege of Narbonne. . . . Not till after a blockade of seven years was the city surrendered, and then through the treason of the Christians and Goths who were inside the walls, and made secret terms with the beleaguerers. They rose upon the Arabs, cut them in pieces, and opened the gates to the Franks. A reduction of Elne, Caucoliberis, and Carcassone followed hard upon that of Narbonne. . . . In a little while the entire Arab population was driven out of Septimania, after an occupation of forty years; and a large and important province (equivalent nearly to the whole of Languedoc), held during the time of the Mérovingians by the Wisigoths, was secured to the possession of the Franks. The Arabs, however, though expelled, left many traces of their long residence on the manners and customs of Southern Gaul."—P. Godwin, *Hist. of France: Ancient Gaul, ch.* 15.

A. D. 756-1031.—The Omeyyad caliphs of Cordova.—When the struggle of the house of Abbas with the house of Omeyya, for the throne of the caliphate at Damascus, was ended by the overthrow of the Omeyyads (A. D. 750), the wretched members of the fallen family were hunted down with unsparing ferocity. "A single youth of the doomed race escaped from destruction. After a long series of romantic adventures, he found his way into Spain [A. D. 756]; he there found partizans, by whose aid he was enabled to establish himself as sovereign of the country, and to resist all the attempts of the Abbassides to regain, or rather to obtain, possession of the distant province. From this Abderrahman [or Abdalrahman] the Ommiad proceeded the line of Emirs and Caliphs of Cordova, who reigned in splendour in the West for three centuries after their house had been exterminated in their original possessions. . . . When the Ommiad Abdalrahman escaped into Spain . . . the peninsula was in a very disordered state. The authority of the Caliphs of the East was nearly nominal, and governors rose and fell with very little reference to their distant sovereign. . . . The elevation of Abdalrahman may have been the result, not so much of any blind preference of Ommiads to Abbassides, as of a conviction that nature designed the Iberian peninsula to form an independent state. But at that early period of Mahometan history an independent Mahometan state could hardly be founded, except under the guise of a rival Caliphate. . . . And undoubtedly nothing is more certain than that the Ommiads of Cordova were in every sense a rival dynasty to the Abbassides of Bagdad. The race of Moawiyah seem to have decidedly improved by their migration westward. The Caliphs of Spain must be allowed one of the highest places among Mahometan dynasties. In the duration of their house and in the abundance of able princes which it produced, they yield only to the Ottoman Sultans, while they rise incomparably above them in every estimable quality. . . . The most splendid period of the Saracen empire in Spain was during the tenth century. The great Caliph Abdalrahman Annasir Ledinallah raised the magnificence of the Cordovan monarchy to its highest pitch. . . . The last thirty years of the Ommiad dynasty are a mere wearisome series of usurpations and civil wars. In 1031 the line became extinct, and the Ommiad empire was cut up into numerous petty states. From this moment the Christians advance, no more to retreat, and the cause of Islam is only sustained by repeated African immigrations."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. and Conquests of the Saracens, lect.* 4-5.

ALSO IN: H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, bk.* 6, *ch.* 5; *bk.* 7, *ch.* 1-4; *bk.* 8, *ch.* 1.

A. D. 763.—The Caliphate transferred to Bagdad.—"The city of Damascus, full as it was of memorials of the pride and greatness of the Ommiade dynasty, was naturally distasteful to the Abbassides. The Caliph Mansur had commenced the building of a new capital in the neighbourhood of Kufa, to be called after the founder of his family, Hashimiyeh. The Kufans, however, were devoted partisans of the descendants of Ali. . . . The growing jealousy and distrust between the two houses made it inadvisable for the Beni Abbas to plant the seat of their empire in immediate propinquity to the head-quarters of the Ali faction, and Mansur therefore selected another site [about A. D. 768]. This was Bagdad, on the western bank of the Tigris [fifteen miles above Medain, which was the ancient Seleucia and Ctesiphon]. It was well suited by nature for a great capital. The Tigris brought commerce from Diyar Bekr on the north, and through the Persian Gulf from India and China on the east; while the Euphrates, which here approaches the Tigris at the nearest point, and is reached by a good road, communicated directly with Syria and the west. The name Bagdad is a very ancient one, signifying 'given or founded by the deity,' and testifies to the importance of the site. The new city rapidly increased in extent and magnificence, the founder and his next two successors expending fabulous sums upon its embellishment, and the ancient palaces of the Sassanian kings, as well as the other principal cities of Asia, were robbed of their works of art for its adornment."—E. H. Palmer, *Haroun Alraschid, Caliph of Bagdad, ch.* 2.—"Baghdad, answering to its proud name of 'Dar al Salam,' 'The City of Peace,' became for

a time the capital of the world, the centre of luxury, the emporium of commerce, and the seat of learning."—Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the Early Caliphate, ch.* 50.

A. D. 815-945.—Decline and temporal fall of the Caliphate at Bagdad.—"It was not until nearly the close of the first century after the Hejira that the banners of Islam were carried into the regions beyond the Oxus, and only after a great deal of hard fighting that the oases of Bokhara and Samarkand were annexed to the dominions of the khalif. In these struggles, a large number of Turks—men, women, and children—fell into the power of the Moslems, and were scattered over Asia as slaves. . . . The khalif Mamoun [son of Haroun Alraschid—A. D. 815–834] was the first sovereign who conceived the idea of basing the royal power on a foundation of regularly drilled Turkish soldiers."—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Khalifs of Baghdad, pt.* 3, *ch.* 1.—"The Caliphs from this time leaned for support on great bands of foreign mercenaries, chiefly Turks, and their captains became the real lords of the empire as soon as they realised their own strength. How thoroughly the Abbásid caliphate had been undermined was shown all at once in a shocking manner, when the Caliph Mutawakkil was murdered by his own servants at the command of his son, and the parricide Muntasir set upon the throne in his stead (Dec. 861). The power of the Caliphs was now at an end; they became the mere playthings of their own savage warriors. The remoter, sometimes even the nearer, provinces were practically independent. The princes formally recognised the Caliph as their sovereign, stamped his name upon their coins, and gave it precedence in public prayer, but these were honours without any solid value. Some Caliphs, indeed, recovered a measure of real power, but only as rulers of a much diminished State. Theoretically the fiction of an undivided empire of Islam was maintained, but it had long ceased to be a reality. The names of Caliph, Commander of the Faithful, Imám, continued still to inspire some reverence; the theological doctors of law insisted that the Caliph, in spiritual things at least, must everywhere bear rule, and control all judicial posts; but even theoretically his position was far behind that of a pope, and in practice was not for a moment to be compared to it. The Caliph never was the head of a true hierarchy; Islam in fact knows no priesthood on which such a system could have rested. In the tenth century the Buids, three brothers who had left the hardly converted Gilán (the mountainous district at the southwest angle of the Caspian Sea) as poor adventurers, succeeded in conquering for themselves the sovereign command over wide domains, and over Bagdad itself [establishing what is known as the dynasty of the Buids or Bouides, or Bowides, or Dilemites]. They even proposed to themselves to displace the Abbásids and set descendants of Ali upon the throne, and abandoned the idea only because they feared that a Caliph of the house of Ali might exercise too great an authority over their Shíite soldiers, and so become independent; while, on the other hand, they could make use of these troops for any violence they chose against the Abbásid puppet who sat in Mansúr's seat."—T. Nöldeke, *Sketches from Eastern Hist., ch.* 8.

A. D. 827-878.—Conquest of Sicily. See SICILY: A. D. 827–878.

A. D. 840-890.—The Saracens in southern Italy. See ITALY (SOUTHERN): A. D. 800–1016.

A. D. 908-1171.—The Fatimite caliphs.—"Egypt, during the ninth and tenth centuries, was the theatre of several revolutions. Two dynasties of Turkish slaves, the Tolunides and the Ilkshidites, established themselves in that country, which was only reunited to the Caliphate of Bagdad for a brief period between their usurpations. But early in the ninth century a singular power had been growing up on its western border. . . . A schism arose among the followers of Ali [the shiahs, who recognized no succession to the Prophet, or Imamate—leadership in Islam—except in the line of descent from Ali, nephew of Mahomet and husband of Mahomet's daughter, Fatima] regarding the legitimate succession to the sixth Imam, Jaffer. His eldest son, Ismail or Ishmael, dying before him, Jaffer appointed another son, Moussa or Moses, his heir. But a large body of the sect denied that Jaffer had the right to make a new nomination; they affirmed the Imamate to be strictly hereditary, and formed a new party of Ishmaelians, who seem to have made something very like a deity of their hero. A chief of this sect, Mahomet, surnamed Al Mehdi, or the Leader, a title given by the Shiahs to their Imams, revolted in Africa in 908. He professed himself, though his claims were bitterly derided by his enemies, to be a descendant of Ishmael, and consequently to be the legitimate Imam. Armed with this claim, it was of course his business to acquire, if he could, the temporal power of a Caliph; and as he soon obtained the sovereignty of a considerable portion of Africa, a rival Caliphate was consequently established in that country. This dynasty assumed the name of Fatimites, in honour of their famous ancestress Fatima, the daughter of the Prophet. The fourth in succession, Muezzeddin by name, obtained possession of Egypt about 967. . . . The Ilkshidites and their nominal sovereigns, the Abbassides, lost Egypt with great rapidity. Al Muezzeddin transferred his residence thither, and founded [at Fostat—see above, A. D. 640–646] the city of Cairo, which he made his capital. Egypt thus, from a tributary province, became again, as in the days of its Pharaohs and Ptolemies, the seat of a powerful kingdom. The claims of the Egyptian Caliphs were diligently preached throughout all Islam, and their temporal power was rapidly extended into the adjoining provinces of Syria and Arabia. Palestine became again . . . the battle-field for the lords of Egypt and of the East. Jerusalem, the holy city of so many creeds, was conquered and reconquered. . . . The Egyptian Caliphate . . . played an important part in the history of the Crusades. At last, in 1171, it was abolished by the famous Saladin. He himself became the founder of a new dynasty; but the formal aspect of the change was that Egypt, so long schismatic, was again restored to the obedience of Bagdad. Saladin was lord of Egypt, but the titles of the Abbasside Caliph, the true Commander of the Faithful, appeared again on the coin and in the public prayers, instead of that of his Fatimite rival."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. and Conquests of the Saracens, lect.* 4.

ALSO IN: S. Lane-Poole, *The Mohammadan Dynasties, pp.* 70–78.—W. C. Taylor, *Hist. of*

Mohammedanism and its Sects, ch. 8 *and* 10.—See, also, JERUSALEM: A. D. 1149–1187.

A. D. 962-1187.—The Ghaznavide empire. See INDIA: A. D. 977–1290; and TURKS: A. D. 999–1183.

A. D. 964-976.—Losses in Syria and Cilicia. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: A. D. 963–1025; also, ANTIOCH, A. D. 969.

A. D. 1004-1160. — The Seljuk Conquests. See TURKS: A. D. 1004–1063 to 1092–1160.

A. D. 1017. — Expulsion from Sardinia by the Pisans and Genoese. See PISA: ORIGIN OF THE CITY.

A. D. 1031-1086. — Fragmentary kingdoms in Spain. See SPAIN: A. D. 1031–1086.

A. D. 1060-1090.—The loss of Sicily. See ITALY: A. D. 1060–1090.

A. D. 1086-1147.—The empire of the Almoravides. See ALMORAVIDES.

A. D. 1146-1232.—The empire of the Almohades. See ALMOHADES; and SPAIN: A. D. 1146–1232.

A. D. 1240-1453.—Conquests of the Ottoman Turks. See TURKS: A. D. 1240–1326; 1326–1359; 1360–1389; 1389–1403; 1402–1451; and 1451–1481.

A. D. 1258.—Extinction of the Caliphate of Bagdad by the Mongols. See BAGDAD A. D. 1258.

A. D. 1273-1492.—Decay and fall of the last Moorish kingdom in Spain. See SPAIN: A. D. 1273–1460; and 1476–1492.

A. D. 1519-1605.—The Mogul conquest of India. See INDIA: A. D. 1399–1605.

MAHOMETAN ERA. See ERA, MAHOMETAN.

MAHORIS, The. See POLYNESIA.

MAHRATTAS: 17th Century.—Origin and growth of power. See INDIA: A. D. 1662–1748.

A. D. 1759-1761.—Disastrous Conflict with the Afghans. See INDIA: A. D. 1747–1761.

A. D. 1781-1819.—Wars with the English. See INDIA: A. D. 1780–1783; 1798–1805; and 1816–1819.

MAID OF NORWAY. See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1290–1305.

MAID OF ORLEANS, The Mission of the. See FRANCE: A. D. 1429–1431.

MAIDA, Battle of (1806). See FRANCE: A. D. 1805–1806 (DECEMBER—SEPTEMBER).

MAILLOTINS, Insurrection of the. See PARIS: A. D. 1381.

MAINE: The Name.—"Sullivan in 'Hist. of Maine,' and others, say that the territory was called the Province of Maine, in compliment to Queen Henrietta, who had that province in France for dowry. But Folsom, 'Discourse on Maine' (Maine Hist. Coll., vol. ii., p. 38), says that that province in France did not belong to Henrietta. Maine, like all the rest of the coast, was known as the 'Maine,' the mainland, and it is not unlikely that the word so much used by the early fishers on the coast, may thus have been permanently given to this part of it."—W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Hist. of the U. S.*, *v.* 1, *p.* 337, *foot-note.*

Aboriginal inhabitants. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ABNAKIS, and ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

Embraced in the Norumbega of the old geographers. See NORUMBEGA; also, CANADA: THE NAMES.

A. D. 1607-1608.—The Popham colony on the Kennebec.—Fruitless undertaking of the Plymouth Company.—The company chartered in England by King James, in 1606, for the colonization of the indefinite region called Virginia, was divided into two branches. To one, commonly spoken of as the London Company, but sometimes as the Virginia Company, was assigned a domain in the south, from 34° to 41° N. L. To the other, less familiarly known as the Plymouth Company, or the North Virginia Company, was granted a range of territory from 38° to 45° N. L. (see VIRGINIA: A. D. 1606–1607). The first named company founded a state; the Plymouth branch was less fortunate. "Of the Plymouth Company, George Popham, brother of the Chief Justice, and Raleigh Gilbert, son of the earlier navigator and nephew of Sir Walter Raleigh, were original associates. A vessel despatched from Bristol by Sir John Popham made a further survey of the coast of New England, and returned with accounts which infused vigorous life into the undertaking; and it was now prosecuted with eagerness and liberality. But in little more than a year 'all its former hopes were frozen to death.' Three ships sailed from Plymouth with 100 settlers, amply furnished, and taking two of Gorges's Indians [kidnapped on the voyage of Captain Weymouth in 1605] as interpreters and guides. After a prosperous voyage they reached the mouth of the river called Sagadahoc, or Kennebec, in Maine, and on a projecting point proceeded to organize their community. After prayers and a sermon, they listened to a reading of the patent and of the ordinances under which it had been decreed by the authorities at home that they should live. George Popham had been constituted their President, Raleigh Gilbert was Admiral. . . . The adventurers dug wells, and built huts. More than half of the number became discouraged, and returned with the ships to England. Forty-five remained through the winter, which proved to be very long and severe. . . . When the President sickened and died, and, presently after, a vessel despatched to them with supplies brought intelligence of the death of Sir John Popham, and of Sir John Gilbert,—the latter event calling for the presence of the Admiral, Gilbert's brother and heir, in England,—they were ready to avail themselves of the excuses thus afforded for retreating from the distasteful enterprise. All yielded to their homesickness, and embarked on board of the returning ship, taking with them a small vessel which they had built, and some furs and other products of the country. Statesmen, merchants, and soldiers had not learned the conditions of a settlement in New England. 'The country was branded by the return of the plantation as being over cold, and in respect of that not habitable by Englishmen.' Still the son of the Chief Justice, Sir Francis Popham, could not so give it over, but continued to send thither several years after, in hope of better fortunes, but found it fruitless, and was necessitated at last to sit down with the loss he had already undergone.' Sir Francis Popham's enterprises were merely commercial. Gorges alone [Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who had been among the most active of the original

promotors of the Company], 'not doubting but God would effect that which man despaired of,' persevered in cherishing the project of a colony."—J. G. Palfrey, *Hist. of N. Eng.*, *v.* 1, *ch.* 2.

ALSO IN: W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular Hist. of the U. S.*, *ch.* 12, *v.* 1.—R. K. Sewall, *Ancient Dominions of Maine*, *ch.* 8.

A. D. 1623-1631.—Gorges' and Mason's grant and the division of it.—First colonies planted. See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1621-1631.

A. D. 1629-1631.—The Ligonia, or Plow Patent, and other grants.—"The coast from the Piscataqua to the Kennebec was covered by six . . . patents, issued in the course of three years by the Council for New England, with the consent, doubtless, of Gorges, who was anxious to interest as many persons as possible in the projects of colonization to which he was himself so much devoted. Several of these grants were for small tracts; the most important embraced an extent of 40 miles square, bordering on Casco Bay, and named Ligonia. The establishments hitherto attempted on the eastern coast had been principally for fishing and fur-trading; this was to be an agricultural colony, and became familiarly known as the 'Plow patent.' A company was formed, and some settlers sent out; but they did not like the situation, and removed to Massachusetts. Another of these grants was the Pemaquid patent, a narrow tract on both sides of Pemaquid Point, where already were some settlers. Pemaquid remained an independent community for the next forty years."—R. Hildreth, *Hist. of the U. S.*, *ch.* 7 (*v.* 1).—The Plow Patent "first came into notoriety in a territorial dispute in 1643. The main facts of the case are told shortly but clearly by Winthrop. According to him, in July, 1631, *ten husbandmen* came from England, in a ship named the Plough, with a patent for land at Sagadahock. But as the place did not please them they settled in Massachusetts, and were seemingly dispersed in the religious troubles of 1636. . . . At a later day the rights of the patentees were bought up, and were made a ground for ousting Gorges from a part of his territory."—J. A. Doyle, *The English in Am.: The Puritan Colonies*, *v.* 1, *ch.* 7.

ALSO IN: *Pemaquid Papers; and Ancient Pemaquid, by J. W. Thornton* (*Maine Hist. Soc. Coll.*, *v.* 5).

A. D. 1639.—A Palatine principality.—The royal charter to Sir Ferdinando Gorges.—"In April 1639 a charter was granted by the King constituting Gorges Lord Proprietor of Maine. The territory was bounded by the Sagadahock or Kennebec on the north and the Piscataqua on the south, and was to extend 120 miles inland. The political privileges of the Proprietor were to be identical with those enjoyed by the Bishop of Durham as Count Palatine. He was to legislate in conjunction with the freeholders of the province, and with the usual reservation in favour of the laws of England. His political rights were to be subject to the control of the Commissioners for Plantations, but his territorial rights were to be independent and complete in themselves. He was also to enjoy a monopoly of the trade of the colony. The only other points specially worth notice were a declaration that the religion of the colony was to be that of the Church of England, a reservation on behalf of all English subjects of the right of fishing with its necessary incidents, and the grant to the Proprietor of authority to create manors and manorial courts. There is something painful in the spectacle of the once vigorous and enterprising soldier amusing his old age by playing at kingship. In no little German court of the last century could the forms of government and the realities of life have been more at variance. To conduct the business of two fishing villages Gorges called into existence a staff of officials which might have sufficed for the affairs of the Byzantine Empire. He even outdid the absurdities which the Proprietors of Carolina perpetrated thirty years later. They at least saw that their elaborate machinery of caciques and landgraves was unfit for practical purposes, and they waived it in favour of a simple system which had sprung up in obedience to natural wants. But Gorges tells complacently and with a deliberate care, which contrasts with his usually hurried and slovenly style, how he parcelled out his territory and nominated his officials. . . . The task of putting this cumbrous machinery into motion was entrusted by the Proprietor to his son, Thomas Gorges, as Deputy-Governor."—J. A. Doyle, *The English in Am.: The Puritan Colonies*, *v.* 1, *ch.* 7.—"The Province was divided into two counties, of one of which Agamenticus, or York, was the principal settlement; of the other, Saco. . . . The greatness of York made it arrogant; and it sent a deputation of aldermen and burgesses to the General Court at Saco, to save its metropolitan rights by a solemn protest. The Proprietary was its friend, and before long exalted it still more by a city charter, authorizing it and its suburbs, constituting a territory of 21 square miles, to be governed, under the name of 'Gorgeana,' by a Mayor, twelve Aldermen, a Common Council of 24 members, and a Recorder, all to be annually chosen by the citizens. Probably as many as two thirds of the adult males were in places of authority. The forms of proceeding in the Recorder's Court were to be copied from those of the British chancery. This grave foolery was acted more than ten years."—J. G. Palfrey, *Hist. of New Eng.*, *v.* 1, *ch.* 18.

ALSO IN: Sir F. Gorges, *Brief Narration* (*Maine Hist. Soc. Coll.*, *v.* 2).

A. D. 1643-1677.—Territorial jurisdiction in dispute.—The claims of Massachusetts made good.—"In 1643, the troubles in England between the King and Commons grew violent, and in that year Alexander Rigby bought the old grant called Lygonia or 'Plow Patent,' and appointed George Cleaves his deputy-president. Governor Thomas Gorges about that time returned to England, and left Vines in his place. Between Cleaves and Vines there was of course a conflict of jurisdiction, and Cleaves appealed for aid to Massachusetts; and both parties agreed to leave their claims (1645) to the decision of the Massachusetts Magistrates, who decided—that they could not decide the matter. But the next year the Commissioners for American plantations in England decided in favor of Rigby; and Vines left the country. In 1647, at last, at the age of 74, Sir Ferdinando Gorges died, and with him died all his plans for kingdoms and power in Maine. In 1651, Massachusetts, finding that her patent, which included lands lying three miles north of the head waters of the Merrimack, took in all the lower part of Maine, began to extend her jurisdiction, and as most of the

settlers favored her authority, it was pretty well established till the time of the Restoration (1660). Upon the Restoration of Charles II., the heir of Gorges claimed his rights to Maine. His agent in the province was Edward Godfrey. Those claims were confirmed by the Committee of Parliament, and in 1664 he obtained an order from the King to the Governor of Massachusetts to restore him his province. In 1664 the King's Commissioners came over, and proceeded through the Colonies, and among the rest to Maine; where they appointed various officers without the concurrence of Massachusetts; so that for some years Maine was distracted with parties, and was in confusion. In 1668, Massachusetts sent four Commissioners to York, who resumed and re-established the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, with which the majority of the people were best pleased; and in 1669 the Deputies from Maine again took their seats in the Massachusetts Court. Her jurisdiction was, however, disputed by the heirs of Mason and Gorges, and it was not finally set at rest till the year 1677, by the purchase of their claims from them, by Massachusetts, for £1,250."—C. W. Elliott, *The New Eng. Hist.*, *v.* 1, *ch.* 26.

ALSO IN: R. K. Sewall, *Ancient Dominions of Maine, ch.* 3–4.—W. D. Williamson, *Hist. of Maine, v.* 1, *ch.* 6–21.

A. D. 1664.—The Pemaquid patent purchased and granted to the Duke of York. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1664.

A. D. 1675.—Outbreak of the Tarentines. See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1675 (JULY—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1689-1697.—King William's War.—Indian cruelties. See CANADA: A. D. 1689–1690; and 1692–1697.

A. D. 1722-1725.—Renewed Indian war. See NOVA SCOTIA: A. D. 1713–1730.

A. D. 1744-1748.—King George's War. See NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1744; 1745; and 1745–1748.

A. D. 1814.—Occupied in large part and held by the English. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1813–1814.

A. D. 1820.—Separation from Massachusetts.—Recognition as a distinct commonwealth and admission into the Union.—"Petitions for the separation of the District of Maine were first preferred to the legislature of Massachusetts in 1816, and a convention was appointed to be holden at Brunswick. This convention voted in favor of the step, but the separation was not effected until 1820, at which time Maine was erected into a distinct and independent commonwealth, and was admitted into the American Union."—G. L. Austin, *Hist. of Mass.*, *p.* 408.—"In the division of the property all the real estate in Massachusetts was to be forever hers; all that in Maine to be equally divided between the two, share and share alike. . . . The admission of Maine and Missouri into the Union were both under discussion in Congress at the same time. The advocates of the latter, wishing to carry it through the Legislature, without any restrictive clause against slavery, put both into a bill together,—determined each should share the same fate. . . . Several days the subject was debated, and sent from one branch to the other in Congress, till the 1st of March, when, to our joy, they were divorced; and on the 3d of the month [March, 1820] an act was passed by which Maine was declared to be, from and after the 15th of that month, one of the United States."—W. D. Williamson, *Hist. of Maine v.* 2, *ch.* 27.

A. D. 1842.—Settlement of boundary disputes. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1842.

MAINE LAW. See TEMPERANCE MOVEMENTS.

MAIWAND, English disaster at (1880). See AFGHANISTAN: A. D. 1869–1881.

MAJESTAS, The Law of.—"The law of Majestas or Treason . . . under the [Roman] empire . . . was the legal protection thrown round the person of the chief of the state: any attempt against the dignity or safety of the community became an attack on its glorified representative. Nevertheless, it is remarkable that the first legal enactment which received this title, half a century before the foundation of the empire, was actually devised for the protection, not of the state itself, but of a personage dear to the state, namely, the tribune of the people. Treason to the State indeed had long before been known, and defined as Perduellio, the levying of war against the commonwealth. . . . But the crime of majesty was first specified by the demagogue Apuleius, in an enactment of the year 654 [B. C. 100], for the purpose of guarding or exalting the dignity of the champion of the plebs. . . . The law of Apuleius was followed by that of another tribune, Varius, conceived in a similar spirit. . . . [After the constitution of Sulla] the distinction between Majestas and Perduellio henceforth vanishes: the crime of Treason is specifically extended from acts of violence to measures calculated to bring the State into contempt."—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans, ch.* 44.

MAJORCA: Conquest by King James of Aragon. See SPAIN: A. D. 1212–1238.

MAJORIAN, Roman Emperor (Western), A. D. 457–461.

MAJUBA HILL, Battle of (1881). See SOUTH AFRICA: A. D. 1806–1881.

MALACCA. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

MALAGA: A. D. 1036-1055.—The seat of a Moorish kingdom. See SPAIN: A. D. 1031–1086.

A. D. 1487.—Siege and capture by the Christians. See SPAIN: A. D. 1476–1492.

MALAGASY. See MADAGASCAR.

MALAKHOFF, The storming of the (1855). See RUSSIA: A. D. 1854–1856.

MALAMOCCO. See VENICE: A. D. 697–810; and 452.

MALATESTA FAMILY, The.—"No one with any tincture of literary knowledge is ignorant of the fame at least of the great Malatesta family—the house of the Wrongheads, as they were rightly called by some prevision of their future part in Lombard history. . . . The story of Francesca da Polenta, who was wedded to the hunchback Giovanni Malatesta and murdered by him with her lover Paolo, is known not merely to students of Dante, but to readers of Byron and Leigh Hunt, to admirers of Flaxman; Ary Scheffer, Doré—to all, in fact, who have of art and letters any love. The history of these Malatesti, from their first establishment under Otho III. [A. D. 996–1002] as lieutenants for the Empire in the Marches of Ancona, down to their final subjugation by the Papacy in the

age of the Renaissance, is made up of all the vicissitudes which could befall a mediæval Italian despotism. Acquiring an unlawful right over the towns of Rimini, Cesena, Sogliano, Ghiacciuolo, they ruled their petty principalities like tyrants by the help of the Guelf and Ghibelline factions, inclining to the one or the other as it suited their humour or their interest, wrangling among themselves, transmitting the succession of their dynasty through bastards and by deeds of force, quarrelling with their neighbours the Counts of Urbino, alternately defying and submitting to the Papal legates in Romagna, serving as condottieri in the wars of the Visconti and the state of Venice, and by their restlessness and genius for military intrigues contributing in no slight measure to the general disturbance of Italy. The Malatesti were a race of strongly marked character: more, perhaps, than any other house of Italian tyrants, they combined for generations those qualities of the fox and the lion which Machiavelli thought indispensable to a successful despot. . . . So far as Rimini is concerned, the house of Malatesta culminated in Sigismondo Pandolfo, son of Gian Galeazzo Visconti's general, the perfidious Pandolfo. . . . Having begun by defying the Holy See, he was impeached at Rome for heresy, parricide, incest, adultery, rape, and sacrilege, burned in effigy by Pope Pius II., and finally restored to the bosom of the Church, after suffering the despoliation of almost all his territories, in 1463. The occasion on which this fierce and turbulent despiser of laws human and divine was forced to kneel as a penitent before the Papal legate in the gorgeous temple dedicated to his own pride, in order that the ban of excommunication might be removed from Rimini, was one of those petty triumphs, interesting chiefly for their picturesqueness, by which the Popes confirmed their questionable rights over the cities of Romagna. Sigismondo, shorn of his sovereignty, took the command of the Venetian troops against the Turks in the Morea, and returned in 1465, crowned with laurels, to die at Rimini."—J. A. Symonds, *Sketches in Italy and Greece, pp.* 217–220.

Also in: A. M. F. Robinson, *The End of the Middle Ages, pp.* 274–299.

MALAY ARCHIPELAGO, The.—The Dutch East Indies.—The great group of islands lying south and south-east of Asia is sometimes called the Malay Archipelago, sometimes the Eastern, sometimes the Indian. Some geographers have preferred for it the names Insulinde (insular India) and Indonésie. The Philippines and New Guinea are sometimes treated as part of the archipelago. "Almost all the groups south of the Philippines—extending from Pulo Nias on the west of Sumatra to the Aru Islands near New Guinea, a distance of nearly 2500 geographical miles—are comprised in the Dutch Colonies [the Dutch East Indies], forming altogether a state nearly twelve times the size of England, with a population of over 30,000,000, abounding in gold, tin, diamonds, pearls, coal, and salt, and producing pepper, cinnamon, tea, coffee, rice, tobacco, sugar, camphor, and spices. The actual land area is estimated at 562,540 square miles. Thus these Dutch possessions rank next in importance to the British Empire in Asia. . . . Of all these great possessions the most important by far is the island of Java. It is intersected in every direction with railways and telegraphs, has been for centuries the seat of civilization, and is as well known as most European countries. . . . At the head of the Dutch East Indies is a Governor-General with the authority of a viceroy. . . . He is aided by a council of five of the higher officials, who are nominated by himself. The colonies are divided into two main divisions, the first comprising Java with Madura, the second the so-called external possessions (Buitenbezittingen), that is, all the other possessions and tributary states. They are further subdivided into 'residencies' and 'governments.' . . . These, again, are split into 'regencies,' with a 'regent' at their head. This regent is always a native chosen from the nobles. . . . Under the regent are the district and 'dessa' chiefs. . . . With the regent is associated a European 'assistant resident.' . . . In the 'Buitenbezittingen,' omitting those of Sumatra and Borneo, there are the following residencies only: Bali, Timor, Amboina [or Amboyna], Ternate, and Menado. Of these, Ternate is much the largest, as it embraces the large island of Gilolo and the whole of Dutch New Guinea. . . . The Dutch government has a monopoly of salt, opium, and coffee, so that native planters are obliged to dispose of their coffee to the state on fixed terms. By this system a large revenue is obtained. Slaves are no longer employed on the plantations, slavery having been abolished some few years ago. But the natives are bound to a sort of statute labor, besides their obligation to serve their own sultans in the same way. . . . It still remains substantially true that the Dutch colonies are formed for the benefit of the mother country. The natives feel the yoke, but endure it patiently." The principal islands of the Dutch East Indies, besides Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes, are Gilolo, Ceram, Buru, Ternate, and Amboina, of the Molucca group; Bali, Lombok, Sumbawa, Flores, in the Timor group, or the lesser Sunda islands. Of New Guinea, or Papua, the Dutch hold the western half, but have made almost no settlements.—F. H. H. Guillemard, *Malaysia and the Pacific Archipelagoes* (*Stanford's Compendium v.* 2), *ch.* 4–11.—See, also, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Celebes, New Guinea, and Moluccas.

MALAYAN RACE, The.—Many ethnologists set up as a distinct stock "the 'Malayan' or 'Brown' race, and claim for it an importance not less than any of the darker varieties of the species. It bears, however, the marks of an origin too recent, and presents Asian analogies too clearly, for it to be regarded otherwise than as a branch of the Asian race, descended like it from some ancestral tribe in that great continent. Its dispersion has been extraordinary. Its members are found almost continuously on the land areas from Madagascar to Easter Island, a distance nearly two-thirds of the circumference of the globe; everywhere they speak dialects with such affinities that we must assume for all one parent stem, and their separation must have taken place not so very long ago to have permitted such a monoglottic trait as this. The stock is divided at present into two groups, the western or Malayan peoples, and the eastern or Polynesian peoples. There has been some discussion about the original identity of these, but we may consider it now proved by both physical, linguistic and traditional evidence. The original home of the parent stem has also excited some controversy, but this too may be taken as settled,

There is no reasonable doubt but that the Malays came from the southeastern regions of Asia, from the peninsula of Farther India, and thence spread south, east and west over the whole of the island world. Their first occupation of Sumatra and Java has been estimated to have occurred not later than 1000 B. C., and probably was a thousand years earlier, or about the time that the Aryans entered Northern India. The relationship of the Malayic with the other Asian stocks has not yet been made out. Physically they stand near to the Sinitic peoples, of small stature and roundish heads, of southeastern Asia. The oldest form of their language, however, was not monosyllabic and tonic, but was dissyllabic. . . . The purest type of the true Malays is seen in Malacca, Sumatra and Java. . . . It has changed slightly by foreign intermixture among the Battaks of Sumatra, the Dayaks of Borneo, the Alfures and the Bugis But the supposition that these are so remote that they cannot properly be classed with the Malays is an exaggeration of some recent ethnographers, and is not approved by the best authorities . . . In character the Malays are energetic, quick of perception, genial in demeanor, but unscrupulous, cruel and revengeful. Veracity is unknown, and the love of gain is far stronger than any other passion or affection. This thirst for gold made the Malay the daring navigator he early became. As merchant, pirate or explorer, and generally as all three in one, he pushed his crafts far and wide over the tropical seas through 12,000 miles of extent. On the extreme west he reached and colonized Madagascar. The Hovas there, undoubtedly of Malay blood, number about 800,000 in a population of five and a half millions, the remainder being Negroids of various degrees of fusion. In spite of this disproportion, the Hovas are the recognized masters of the island. . . . The Malays probably established various colonies in southern India. The natives at Travancore and the Sinhalese of Ceylon bear a strongly Malayan aspect. . . . Some ethnographers would make the Polynesians and Micronesians a different race from the Malays; but the farthest that one can go in this direction is to admit that they reveal some strain of another blood. This is evident in their physical appearance. . . . All the Polynesian languages have some affinities to the Malayan, and the Polynesian traditions unanimously refer to the west for the home of their ancestors. We are able, indeed, by carefully analyzing these traditions, to trace with considerable accuracy both the route they followed to the Oceanic isles, and the respective dates when they settled them. Thus, the first station of their ancestors on leaving the western group, was the small island of Buru or Boru, between Celebes and New Guinea. Here they encountered the Papuas, some of whom still dwell in the interior, while the coast people are fair. Leaving Boru, they passed to the north of New Guinea, colonizing the Caroline and Solomon islands, but the vanguard pressing forward to take possession of Savai in the Samoan group and Tonga to its south. These two islands formed a second center of distribution over the western Pacific. The Maoris of New Zealand moved from Tonga — 'holy Tonga' as they call it in their songs — about 600 years ago. The Society Islanders migrated from Savai, and they in turn sent forth the population of the Marquesas, the Sandwich islands and Easter island. The separation of the Polynesians from the western Malays must have taken place about the beginning of our era."—D. G. Brinton, *Races and Peoples, lect.* 8, *sect.* 2.

ALSO IN: A. R. Wallace, *The Malay Archipelago, ch.* 40.—R. Brown, *The Races of Mankind, v.* 2, *ch.* 7.

MALCOLM III., King of Scotland, A. D. 1057–1093. . . . Malcolm IV., 1153–1165.

MALDIVES, The.—The Maldive archipelago, south west of India and Ceylon, embracing a long series of groups of small coral islands (atols), is a dependency of Ceylon, and the Sultan of the Maldives pays allegiance to the British government.

MALDON, Battle of.—Fought, A. D. 991, by the English against an invading army of Norwegians, who proved the victors. The battle, with the heroic death of the English leader, Brihtnoth, became the subject of a famous Early-English poem, which is translated in Freeman's "Old English History for Children." The field of battle was on the Blackwater in Essex.

MALEK SHAH, Seljuk Turkish Sultan, A. D. 1073–1092.

MALIANS, The. One of the early peoples of Greece, who dwelt on the Malian Gulf.

MALIGNANTS.—A name given by the Roundheads to the king's party in the English civil war and during the Commonwealth.

MALINES: Taken by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1706–1707.

MALLUM.—MALL.—The assemblies or councils of the Franks were so called.—Sir J. Stephen, *Lect's on the Hist. of France, lect.* 8.

MALMO, Armistice of. See GERMANY: A. D. 1848 (MARCH—SEPTEMBER).

MALPLAQUET, Battle of (1709). See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1708–1709.

MALTA: A. D. 1530-1565.—Ceded to the Knights of St. John.—Turkish Sieges. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN. A. D. 1530–1565; and BARBARY STATES. A. D. 1543–1560.

A. D. 1798.—Seizure by Bonaparte. See FRANCE: A. D. 1798 (MAY—AUGUST).

A. D. 1800-1802.—Surrender to an English fleet. See FRANCE: A. D. 1801–1802.

A. D. 1814.—Ceded to England. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (APRIL—JUNE).

MALTA: Knights of. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN.

MALVASIA, Battle of (1263). See GENOA: A. D. 1261–1299.

MALVERN CHASE.—An ancient royal forest in Worcestershire, England, between Malvern Hills and the river Severn. Few remains of it exist.—J. C. Brown, *Forests of Eng.*

MALVERN HILL, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JUNE—JULY: VIRGINIA).

MAMACONAS. See YANACONAS.

MAMELUKE, OR SLAVE, DYNASTY OF INDIA. See INDIA: A. D. 977–1290.

MAMELUKES OF BRAZIL. See BRAZIL: A. D. 1631–1641.

MAMELUKES OF EGYPT. See EGYPT: A. D. 1250–1517: and 1803–1811.

MAMELUKES OF GENEVA, The. See GENEVA: A. D. 1504–1535.

MAMERTINE PRISON, The. The an-

cient "carcer" or prison of Rome, containing two cells, one above the other, with no entrance to the upper except through a small opening in the roof, nor to the lower except from the upper. "Varro expressly tells us that the lower part of the prison, which was underground, was called Tullianum because it was added by Servius Tullius."—H. M. Westropp, *Early and Imperial Rome, p.* 93.—"The oldest portion of the horror-striking Mamertine Prisons . . . is the most ancient among all Roman buildings still extant as originally constructed."—C. I. Hemans, *Historic and Monumental Rome, ch.* 4.—"Here, Jugurtha, king of Mauritania, was starved to death by Marius. Here Julius Cæsar, during his triumph for the conquest of Gaul, caused his gallant enemy Vercingetorix to be put to death. . . . The spot is more interesting to the Christian world as the prison of SS. Peter and Paul."—A. J. C. Hare, *Walks in Rome, ch.* 3.

MAMERTINES OF MESSENE, The. See PUNIC WAR, THE FIRST.

MAMUN, AL, Caliph, A. D. 813–833.

MAN, Kingdom of. See MANX KINGDOM, THE.

MANAOS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: GUCK OR COCO GROUP.

MANASSAS: A.D. 1861 (July).—First battle (Bull Run). See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JULY: VIRGINIA).

A. D. 1862 (March).—Confederate evacuation. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861–1862 (DECEMBER—MARCH: VIRGINIA).

A. D. 1862 (August).—Stonewall Jackson's Raid.—The Second Battle. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (AUGUST: VIRGINIA); and (AUGUST—SEPTEMBER: VIRGINIA).

MANCHESTER: Origin. See MANCUNIUM.

A. D. 1817-1819.—The march of the Blanketeers, and the "Massacre of Peterloo." See ENGLAND: A. D. 1816–1820.

A. D. 1838-1839.—Beginning of the Anti-Corn-Law agitation. See TARIFF LEGISLATION (ENGLAND): A. D. 1836–1839.

A. D. 1861-1865.—The Cotton Famine. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1861–1865.

A. D. 1894.—Opening of the Ship Canal.—A ship canal, connecting Manchester with Liverpool, and making the former practically a seaport, was opened on the 1st day of January, 1894. The building of the canal was begun in 1887.

MANCHUS.—MANCHURIA.—"The Manchus, from the earliest period of Chinese history, have occupied the country bounded on the east by the Japanese Sea, which is drained in its southern portion by the Tumun, by the right affluents of the Ya-lu-klang, and by the upper portions of the left affluents of the Liau; and in its northern portion by the right affluents of the Upper Soongari, and the Lower Soongari, and Lower Amoor, with their affluents on both sides. This extent of country may be fitly called Manchuria Proper, to distinguish it from the present political Manchuria. This latter embraces not only the real Manchuria, but also a tract on the east side of the Liau, composed of the lower valleys of its left affluents, and of the Liau peninsula, and another on the west of the Liau, lying between its right bank and the Great Wall. Now these two tracts, known severally as Liau-tung or Liau East and Liau-se or Liau West, have, from the earliest historical periods, been occupied by a Chinese population, with the settled habits of their nation: agriculturists, artisans, and traders, dwellers in villages and cities. Hence, though situated beyond the Great Wall, it has always been a part, though a very exposed and often politically separated part, of China Proper. Manchuria Proper, as above defined, is a mountainous, well-watered tract, formerly altogether covered with forests, of which large portions still remain. The principal mountain range is the Chang-pih-shan, or Shan-a-lin, or Long White Mountains. . . . As the great arid plateau, the Shamo, has given to the Mongols their national characteristics, so the Long White Mountains, with their northerly spurs, separating the Upper Soongari, the Hurka, and the Usuri, have constituted the character-giving home and stronghold of the Manchus. These, unlike the Mongols, who have 'moved about after grass and water,' have always been a settled people, who in ancient times dwelt during the cold season in holes excavated in the sides of dry banks, or in pits in the earth, and during summer in huts formed of young trees and covered with bark or with long wild grass. They have, unlike the Mongols, from the earliest periods been somewhat of agriculturists; like them they have always reared domestic animals. . . . It has hitherto been the custom among Occidentals to speak of the Manchus as 'Tartars;' but if, as I believe, this name generally conveys the idea of a people of nomadic herdsmen, and usually large owners of camels, it will be seen from the foregoing sketch that it is altogether a misnomer as applied to the Manchus. . . . In the 11th century before Christ this nation appeared at the court of the Chow dynasty as Suh-chin, and presented tribute, a portion of which consisted of stone-headed arrows. In the 3d century after Christ they reappeared as Yih-low. . . . In the 5th, 6th, and 7th centuries after Christ we find them under the names of Wuh keihs, and Mo-hos, still described as rude barbarians, but politically organized as a confederation of seven large tribes or seven groups of tribes. At length, in the beginning of the 8th century, a family named Ta, belonging to the Suhmo Mo-hos, that member of the confederation whose territory lay immediately on the north of Corea and north east of Liau East, established themselves as rulers over the whole of Manchuria Proper, over Liau East, and over a large portion of Corea. In A. D. 712, the then Whang-ti, or Emperor of China, conferred the title of Prince of Po-hae on the head of the family; but the immediate successors of this prince shook off even the form of vassalage, and by their conquest of Northern Corea, and Liau East, assumed a position of hostility to the Whang-ti. Po-hae, the name adopted by the new rulers, became the name of the Manchu Nation; which under it for the first time takes a place in history, as constituting a civilized State with a centralized administration. . . . It was overthrown by the Ketans. About these the Chinese accounts conflict as to whether they were a Manchu or a Mongol tribe; I consider them more of the former than of the latter. They took their rise in the valleys of the Hu-lan, a small northern branch of the Soongari, which falls into the latter about 100 miles below its junction with the Nonni. The Ketans had possessed themselves of Eastern Mongolia, and

been engaged in successful war on China before they, in A. D. 926, attacked the Po-hae state, which they speedily overthrew, incorporating into their own dominions all Manchuria Proper and the East of the Liau. Before the middle of the 10th century, they had conquered nearly all Mongolia and Northern China. . . . They assumed for their dynasty the name of Liau, that of the river which flows past this port. Under the eighth of the line, their power had sunk so much that it fell easily before the attacks of A-kuh-ta, the chief of a purely Manchu tribe or commune, the Neu-chins, whose original seat was the country between the Upper Soongari and the Hurka. The Neu-chins rebelled against the Ketans or Liaus in A. D. 1113. Within 15 years, they had possessed themselves of the whole of Manchuria, Mongolia, and Northern China, driving the Chinese Whang ti to the south of the Great River, and themselves establishing a rival line under the name of Kin, or Golden; adopted because their own country Manchuria 'was a gold-producing one.' The Neu-chins or Kins were in their turn overthrown by the Mongols, under Ghenghis Khan and his immediate successors. Manchuria came under their power about A. D. 1217, Northern China, about A. D. 1233, and Southern China, about A. D. 1280, when they established —it was the first time the thing had happened —a line of non-Chinese Whang-tis in undisputed possession of that dignity. . . . The Mongol dynasty maintained itself in China for about 90 years, when (in A. D. 1368) the last Whang-ti of the line was driven to the north of the Great Wall by the forces of a Chinese rebel, who established himself at Nanking as the first Whang-ti of the Ming dynasty." —T. T. Meadows (*quoted in A. Williamson's "Journeys in North China," v. 2, ch. 4*). —In 1644 the Ming dynasty was overthrown by a domestic rebellion in China, and a Manchu prince, called in by one of the generals of the fallen government, established himself on the throne, where his descendants have reigned to this day.—See China: A. D. 1294–1882 and after; also Siberia.

MANCUNIUM.—A Roman town in Britain which occupied the site of the modern city of Manchester.—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon, ch. 5.*

MANDANS, OR MANDANES, The. See American Aborigines: Siouan Family.

MANDATA, Roman Imperial. See Corpus Juris Civilis.

MANDUBII, The.—A tribe in ancient Gaul, which occupied part of the modern French department of the Côte-d'Or and whose chief town was Alesia, the scene of Cæsar's famous siege.—Napoleon III., *Hist. of Cæsar, bk. 3, ch. 2, foot note (v. 2).*

MANETHO, List of.—"Of all the Greek writers who have treated of the history of the Pharaohs, there is only one whose testimony has, since the deciphering of the hieroglyphics, preserved any great value—a value which increases the more it is compared with the original monuments; we speak of Manetho. Once he was treated with contempt; his veracity was disputed, the long series of dynasties he unfolds to our view was regarded as fabulous. Now, all that remains of his work is the first of all authorities for the reconstruction of the ancient history of Egypt. Manetho, a priest of the town of Sebennytus, in the Delta, wrote in Greek, in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus, a history of Egypt, founded on the official archives preserved in the temples. Like many other books of antiquity, this history has been lost; we possess now a few fragments only, with the list of all the kings placed by Manetho at the end of his work—a list happily preserved in the writings of some chronologers of the Christian epoch. This list divides into dynasties, or royal families, all the kings who reigned successively in Egypt down to the time of Alexander."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of Ancient Hist. of the East, bk. 3, ch. 1, sect. 2 (v. 1).*—See, also, Egypt: Its historical antiquity.

MANHATTAN ISLAND: Its aboriginal people and name.—"The earliest notice we have of the island which is now adorned by a beautiful and opulent city is to be found in Hudson's journal 'Mana hata' is therein mentioned, in reference to the hostile people whom he encountered on his return from his exploring of the river, and who resided on this island. De Laet . . . calls those wicked people Manatthans, and names the river Manhattes. . . . Hartger calls the Indians and the island Mahattan. . . . In some of the early transactions of the colony, it is spelled Monhattoes, Munhatos, and Manhattoes. Professor Ebeling says, that at the mouth of the river lived the Manhattans or Manathanes (or as the Englishmen commonly called it, Manhados), who kept up violent animosities with their neighbours, and were at first most hostile towards the Dutch, but suffered themselves to be persuaded afterwards to sell them the island, or at least that part of it where New York now stands. Manhattan is now the name, and it was, when correctly adopted, so given by the Dutch, and by them it not only distinguished the Indians, the island and the river, but it was a general name of their plantations. . . . Mr. Heckewelder observes that hitherto all his labours had been fruitless in inquiring about a nation or tribe of Indians called the 'Manhattos' or 'Manathoues', Indians both of the Mahicanni and Delaware nations assured him that they never had heard of any Indian tribe by that name. He says he is convinced that it was the Delawares or Munseys (which last was a branch of the Delawares) who inhabited that part of the country where New York now is. York Island is called by the Delawares to this day [1824] Manahattani or Manahachtanink. The Delaware word for 'Island' is 'Manitey'; the Monsey word for the same is 'Manàchtey.' . . . Dr. Barton also has given as his belief that the Manhattæ were a branch of the Munsis."—J. V. N. Yates and J. W. Moulton, *Hist. of the State of N. Y., v. 1, pp. 223–224.*

Also in: *Memorial Hist of the City of N. Y., v. 1, ch. 2*—J. Fiske, *The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America, ch. 4 (v. 1).*—J. R. Brodhead, *Hist. of the State of New York, v. 1, ch. 3.*—See, also, American Aborigines: Delawares, and Algonquian Family.

A. D. 1613.—First settlements.—Argalls' visit. See New York: A. D. 1610–1614.

MANICHEANS, The.—"A certain Mani (or Manes, as the ecclesiastical writers call him), born in Persia about A. D. 240, grew to manhood under Sapor, exposed to . . . various religious influences. . . . With a mind free from

prejudice and open to conviction, he studied the various systems of belief which he found established in Western Asia—the Cabalism of the Babylonian Jews, the Dualism of the Magi, the mysterious doctrines of the Christians, and even the Buddhism of India. At first he inclined to Christianity, and is said to have been admitted to priest's orders and to have ministered to a congregation; but after a time he thought that he saw his way to the formation of a new creed, which should combine all that was best in the religious systems which he was acquainted with, and omit what was superfluous or objectionable. He adopted the Dualism of the Zoroastrians, the metempsychosis of India, the angelism and demonism of the Talmud and Trinitarianism of the Gospel of Christ. Christ himself he identified with Mithra, and gave Him his dwelling in the sun. He assumed to be the Paraclete promised by Christ, who should guide men into all truth, and claimed that his 'Ertang,' a sacred book illustrated by pictures of his own painting, should supersede the New Testament. Such pretensions were not likely to be tolerated by the Christian community; and Manes had not put them forward very long when he was expelled from the church and forced to carry his teaching elsewhere. Under these circumstances he is said to have addressed himself to Sapor [the Persian king], who was at first inclined to show him some favour; but when he found out what the doctrines of the new teacher actually were, his feelings underwent a change, and Manes, proscribed, or at any rate threatened with penalties, had to retire into a foreign country. . . . Though the morality of the Manichees was pure, and though their religion is regarded by some as a sort of Christianity, there were but few points in which it was an improvement on Zoroastrianism."—G. Rawlinson, *The Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy, ch.* 4.—First in Persia and, afterwards, throughout Christendom, the Manicheans were subjected to a merciless persecution; but they spread their doctrines, notwithstanding, in the west and in the east, and it was not until several centuries had passed that the heresy became extinct.—J. L. Mosheim, *Christianity during the first* 325 *years, Third Century, sect.* 39–55.—See, also, PAULICIANS.

MANIFESTATION, The Aragonese process of. See CORTES, THE EARLY SPANISH.

MANILA. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

MANILIAN LAW, The. See ROME: B. C. 69–63.

MANIN, Daniel, and the struggle for Venetian independence. See ITALY: A. D. 1848–1849.

MANIOTO, OR MAYNO, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ANDESIANS.

MANIPULI. See LEGION, ROMAN.

MANITOBA. See CANADA: A. D. 1869–1873.

MANNAHOACS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: POWHATAN CONFEDERACY.

MANNHEIM: A. D. 1622.—Capture by Tilly. See GERMANY: A. D. 1621–1623.

A. D. 1689.—Destroyed by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1689–1690.

A. D. 1799.—Capture by the Austrians. See FRANCE: A. D. 1799 (AUGUST—DECEMBER).

MANOA, The fabled city of. See EL DORADO.

MANORS.—"The name manor is of Norman origin, but the estate to which it was given existed, in its essential character, long before the Conquest; it received a new name as the shire also did, but neither the one nor the other was created by this change. The local jurisdictions of the thegns who had grants of sac and soc, or who exercised judicial functions amongst their free neighbours, were identical with the manorial jurisdictions of the new owners. . . . The manor itself was, as Ordericus tells us, nothing more nor less than the ancient township, now held by a lord who possessed certain judicial rights varying according to the terms of the grant by which he was infeoffed. Every manor had a court baron, the ancient gemot of the township, in which by-laws were made and other local business transacted, and a court customary in which the business of the villenage was despatched. Those manors whose lords had under the Anglo-Saxon laws possessed sac and soc, or who since the Conquest had had grants in which those terms were used, had also a court-leet, or criminal jurisdiction, cut out as it were from the criminal jurisdiction of the hundred, and excusing the suitors who attended it from going to the court-leet of the hundred."—W. Stubbs, *Const. Hist. of Eng., ch.* 9, *sect.* 98, *and ch.* 11, *sect.* 129 (*v.* 1).—"From the Conquest to the 14th century we find the same agricultural conditions prevailing over the greater part of England. Small gatherings of houses and cots appear as oases in the moorland and forest, more or less frequent according to the early or late settlement of the district, and its freedom from, or exposure to, the ravages of war and the punishment of rebellion. These cases, townships or vills if of some extent, hamlets if of but a few houses, gather round one or more mansions of superior size and importance, the Manor houses, or abodes of the Lords of the respective Manors. Round each township stretch the great ploughed fields, usually three in number, open and uninclosed. Each field is divided into a series of parallel strips a furlong in length, a rod wide, four of which would make an acre, the strips being separated by ridges of turf called balks, while along the head of each series of strips runs a broad band of turf known as a headland, on which the plough is turned, when it does not by custom turn on some fellow-tenant's land, and which serves as a road to the various strips in the fields. These strips are allotted in rotation to a certain number of the dwellers in the township, a very common holding being that known as a virgate or yardland, consisting of about 30 acres. . . . Mr. Seebohm's exhaustive researches have conclusively connected this system of open fields and rotation of strips with the system of common ploughing, each holder of land providing so many oxen for the common plough, two being the contribution of the holder of a virgate, and eight the normal number drawing the plough, though this would vary with the character of the soil. . . . At the date of Domesday (1086), the holders of land in the common fields comprise the Lord; the free tenants, socmanni or liberi homines, when there are any; the villani or Saxon geburs, the holders of virgates or half virgates; and the bordarii or cotarii, holders of small plots of 5 acres or so, who have fewer rights and fewer duties. Besides ploughing the common-fields, the villani as part of their tenure

have to supply the labour necessary to cultivate the arable land that the Lord of the Manor keeps in his own hands as his domain, dominicum, or demesne."—T. E. Scrutton, *Commons and Common Fields, ch.* 1.—Relative to the origin of the manor and the development of the community from which it rose there are divergent views much discussed at the present day. "The interpretation, current fifteen years ago, was the natural outcome of the Mark theory and was somewhat as follows: The community was a voluntary association, a simple unit within which there were households or families of various degrees of wealth, rank and authority, but in point of status each was the equal of the other. Each was subject only to the customs and usages of the community and to the court of the Mark. The Mark was therefore a judicial and political as well as an agricultural unit, though cultivation of the soil was the primary bond of union. All offices were filled by election, but the incumbent in due time sank back into the general body of 'markgenossen.' He who was afterwards to be the lord of the manor was originally only 'the first Marksman, who attained to this preeminence in part by the prestige of election to a position of headship, in part by usurpation, and in part by the prerogatives which protection and assistance to weaker Marksmen brought. Thus the first Marksman became the lord and held the others in a kind of subjection to himself, and received from them, though free, dues and services which grew increasingly more severe. The main difficulty here seems to be in the premise, and it is the evident artificiality of the voluntary association of freemen which has led to such adverse criticism upon the whole theory. . . . While the free village community was under fire at home as well as abroad, Mr Seebohm presented a new view of an exactly opposite character, with the formula of the community in villeinage under a lord. Although this view has for the moment divided thinkers on the subject, it has proved no more satisfactory than the other; for while it does explain the origin of the lord of the manor, it leaves wholly untouched the body of free Saxons whom Earle calls the rank and file of the invading army. Other theories have sought to supply the omissions in this vague non-documentary field, all erected with learning and skill, but unfortunately not in harmony with one another. Coote and Finlason have given to the manor an unqualified Roman origin. Lewis holds to a solid British foundation, the Teutonists would make it wholly Saxon, while Gomme is inclined to see an Aryo-British community under Saxon overlordship. Thus there is a wide range from which to select; all cannot be true; no one is an explanation of all conditions, yet most of them have considerable sound evidence to support them. It is this lack of harmony which drives the student to discover some theory which shall be in touch with known tribal conditions and a natural consequence of their development, and which at the same time shall be sufficiently elastic to conform to the facts which confront us in the early historical period. An attempt has been made [in the work here quoted from] to lay down two premises, the first of which is the composite character of the tribal and village community, and the second the diverse ethnological conditions of Britain after the Conquest, conditions which would allow for different results. . . . Kemble in his chapter on Personal Rank has a remark which is ill in keeping with his peaceful Mark theory. He says: 'There can be no doubt that some kind of military organization preceded the peaceful settlement, and in many respects determined its mode and character.' To this statement Earle has added another equally pregnant: 'Of all principles of military regiment there is none so necessary or so elementary as this, that all men must be under a captain, and such a captain as is able to command prompt and willing obedience. Upon this military principle I conceive the English settlements were originally founded, that each several settlement was under a military leader, and that this military leader was the ancestor of the lord of the manor.' Professor Earle then continues in the endeavor to apply the suggestion contained in the above quotation. He shows that the 'hundreds' represent the first permanent encampment of the invading host, and that the military occupation preceded the civil organization, the latter falling into the mould which the former had prepared. According to this the manorial organization was based upon a composite military foundation, the rank and file composing the one element, the village community; the captain or military leader composing the other, settled with suitable provision by the side of his company; the lord by the side of free owners. In this attempt to give the manor a composite origin, as the only rational means whereby the chief difficulty can be removed, and in the attempt to carry the seignorial element to the very beginning we believe him to be wholly right. But an objection must be raised to the way in which Professor Earle makes up his composite element. It is too artificial, too exclusively military; the occupiers of the village are the members of the 'company,' the occupier of the adjacent seat is the 'captain,' afterwards to become the lord. . . . We feel certain that the local community, the village, was simply the kindred, the sub-clan group, which had become a local habitation, yet when we attempt to test its presence in Anglo-Saxon Britain we meet with many difficulties."—C. Mcl. Andrews, *The Old Eng. Manor, pp.* 7–51.

Also in: F. Seebohm, *English Village Communities, ch.* 2 *sect.* 12.—Sir H. Maine, *Village Communities, lect.* 5.

MANSFIELD, OR SABINE CROSS ROADS, Battle of. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1864 (March—May: Louisiana).

MANSOURAH, Battle of (1250). See Crusades: A. D. 1248–1254.

MANSUR, Al, Caliph, A. D. 754–775.

MANTINEA.—"Mantinea was the single city of Arcadia which had dared to pursue an independent line of policy [see Sparta: B. C. 743–510]. Not until the Persian Wars the community coalesced out of five villages into one fortified city; this being done at the instigation of Argos, which already at this early date entertained thoughts of forming for itself a confederation in its vicinity. Mantinea had endeavored to increase its city and territory by conquest, and after the Peace of Nicias had openly opposed Sparta."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece, bk.* 5, *ch.* 5 (*v.* 4).

B. C. 418.—Battle. See Greece: B. C. 421–418.

B. C. 385.—Destruction by the Spartans. See GREECE: B. C. 385.

B. C. 371-362.—Restoration of the city.—Arcadian union and disunion.—The great battle.—Victory and death of Epaminondas. See GREECE: B. C. 371; and 371-362.

B. C. 222.—Change of name.—In the war between Cleomenes of Sparta and the Achæan League, the city of Mantinea was, first, surprised by Aratus, the chief of the League, B. C. 226, and occupied by an Achæan garrison; then recaptured by Cleomenes, and his partisans, B. C. 224, and finally, B. C. 222, stormed by Antigonus, king of Macedonia, acting in the name of the League, and given up to pillage. Its citizens were sold into slavery. "The dispeopled city was placed by the conqueror at the disposal of Argos, which decreed that a colony should be sent to take possession of it under the auspices of Aratus. The occasion enabled him to pay another courtly compliment to the king of Macedonia. On his proposal, the name of the 'lovely Mantinea' — as it was described in the Homeric catalogue — was exchanged for that of Antigonea, a symbol of its ruin and of the humiliation of Greece."—C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 62 (*v.* 8).

B. C. 207.—Defeat of the Lacedæmonians.—In the wars of the Achæan League, the Lacedæmonians were defeated under the walls of Mantinea with great slaughter, by the forces of the League, ably marshalled by Philopœmen, and the Lacedæmonian king Machanidas was slain. "It was the third great battle fought on the same, or nearly the same, ground. Here, in the interval between the two parts of the Peloponnesian War, had Agis restored the glory of Sparta after her humiliation at Sphakteria; here Epameinôndas had fallen in the moment of victory; here now [B. C. 207] was to be fought the last great battle of independent Greece."—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. of Federal Govt., ch.* 8, *sect.* 2.

MANTUA: 11-12th Centuries.—Rise and acquisition of republican independence. See ITALY: A. D. 1056-1152.

A. D. 1077-1115.—In the dominions of the Countess Matilda. See PAPACY: A. D. 1077-1102.

A. D. 1328-1708.—The house of Gonzaga. See GONZAGA.

A. D. 1627-1631.—War of France, Spain and the Empire over the disputed succession to the duchy.—Siege and capture of the city by the Imperialists.—Rights of the Duke de Nevers established. See ITALY: A. D. 1627-1631.

A. D. 1635.—Alliance with France against Spain. See GERMANY: A. D. 1634-1639.

A. D. 1796-1797.—Siege and reduction by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER); and 1796-1797 (OCTOBER—APRIL).

A. D. 1797.—Ceded by Austria to the Cisalpine Republic. See FRANCE: A. D. 1797 (MAY—OCTOBER).

A. D. 1799.—Siege and capture by Suwarrow. See FRANCE: A. D. 1799 (APRIL—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1814.—Restoration to Austria. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (APRIL—JUNE).

A. D. 1866.—The Austrians retained Mantua until their final withdrawal from the peninsula, in 1866, when it was absorbed in the new kingdom of Italy.

MANU, Laws of.—"The Indians [of Hindostan] possess a series of books of law, which, like that called after Manu, bear the name of a saint or seer of antiquity, or of a god. One is named after Gautama, another after Vasishtha, a third after Apastamba, a fourth after Yajnavalkya; others after Bandhayana and Vishnu. According to the tradition of the Indians the law of Manu is the oldest and most honourable. . . . The conclusion is . . . inevitable that the decisive precepts which we find in the collection must have been put together and written down about the year 600 [B. C.]."—M. Duncker, *Hist. of Antiquity, bk.* 5, *ch.* 6.—"The name, 'Laws of Manu,' somewhat resembles a 'pious fraud'; for the 'Laws' are merely the laws or customs of a school or association of Hindus, called the Manavas, who lived in the country rendered holy by the divine river Saraswati. In this district the Hindus first felt themselves a settled people, and in this neighbourhood they established colleges and hermitages, or 'asramas,' from some of which we may suppose Brahmanas, Upanishads, and other religious compositions may have issued; and under such influences we may imagine the Code of Manu to have been composed."—Mrs. Manning, *Ancient and Mediæval India, v.* 1, *p.* 276.

MANUAL TRAINING. See EDUCATION, MODERN: REFORMS, &c.: A. D. 1865-1886.

MANUEL I. (Comnenus), Emperor in the East (Byzantine, or Greek), A. D. 1143-1181. ....Manuel II. (Palæologus), Greek Emperor of Constantinople, 1391-1425.

MANX KINGDOM, The.—The Isle of Man in the Irish Sea gets its English name, Man, by an abbreviation of the native name, Mannin, the origin of which is unknown. The language, called Manx (now little used), and the inhabitants, called Manxmen, are both of Gaelic, or Irish derivation. From the sixth to the tenth century the island was successively ruled by the Scots (Irish), the Welsh and the Norwegians, finally becoming a separate petty kingdom, with Norwegian claims upon it. In the thirteenth century the little kingdom was annexed to Scotland. Subsequently, after various vicissitudes, it passed under English control and was granted by Henry IV. to Sir John Stanley. The Stanleys, after some generations, found a dignity which they esteemed higher, in the earldom of Derby, and relinquished the title of King of Man. This was done by the second Earl of Derby, 1505. In 1765 the sovereignty and revenues of the island were purchased by the British government; but its independent form of government has undergone little change. It enjoys "home rule" to perfection. It has its own legislature, called the Court of Tynwald, consisting of a council, or upper chamber, and a representative body called the House of Keys. Acts of the imperial parliament do not apply to the Isle of Man unless it is specifically named in them. It has its own courts, with judges called deemsters (who are the successors of the ancient Druidical priests), and its own governor, appointed by the crown. The divisions of the island, corresponding to English counties, are called sheadings.—S. Walpole, *The Land of Home Rule.*

ALSO IN: H. I. Jenkinson, *Guide to Isle of Man.*—Hall Caine, *The Little Manx Nation.*—*Our Own Country, v.* 5.—See MONAPIA: and NORMANS: 8TH-9TH CENTURIES.

MANZIKERT, Battle of (1071). See Turks: A. D. 1063–1073.

MAONITES, The.—"We must . . . regard them as a remnant of the Amorites, which, in later times, . . . spread to the west of Petra."—H. Ewald, *Hist. of Israel, introd., sect.* 4.

MAORIS.—MAORI WAR. See New Zealand: The Aborigines: A. D. 1853–1883; also, Malayan Race.

MAPOCHINS, The. See Chile: A. D. 1450–1724.

MAQUAHUITL, The.—This was a weapon in use among the Mexicans when the Spaniards found them. It "was a stout stick, three feet and a half long, and about four inches broad, armed on each side with a sort of razors of the stone itztli (obsidian), extraordinarily sharp, fixed and firmly fastened to the stick with gum lack. . . . The first stroke only was to be feared, for the razors became soon blunt."—F. S. Clavigero, *Hist. of Mexico, bk.* 7.

Also in: Sir A. Helps, *The Spanish Conquest of Am., bk.* 10 (*v.* 2).

MARACANDA.—The chief city of the ancient Sogdiani, in Central Asia—now Samarcand.

MARAGHA. See Persia: A. D. 1258–1393.

MARAIS, OR PLAIN, The Party of the. See France: A. D. 1792 (September—November).

MARANHA, The. See American Aborigines: Guck or Coco Group.

MARANGA, Battle of.—One of the battles fought by the Romans with the Persians during the retreat from Julian's fatal expedition beyond the Tigris. A. D. 363. The Persians were repulsed.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy, ch.* 10.

MARAPHIANS, The.—One of the tribes of the ancient Persians.—M. Duncker, *Hist. of Antiquity, bk.* 8, *ch.* 3.

MARAT AND THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. See France: A. D. 1790, to 1793 (March—June) . . . . **Assassination by Charlotte Corday.** See France: A. D. 1793 (July).

MARATA. See American Aborigines: Pueblos.

MARATHAS. See Mahrattas.

MARATHON, Battle of. See Greece: B. C. 490.

MARAVEDIS. See Spanish Coins.

MARBURG CONFERENCE, The. See Switzerland: A. D. 1528–1531.

MARCEL, Etienne, and the States General of France. See France: A. D. 1356–1358.

MARCELLUS II., Pope, A. D. 1555, April to May.

MARCH.—MARK.—The frontier or boundary of a territory; a border. Hence came the title of Marquis, which was originally that of an officer charged with the guarding of some March or border district of a kingdom. In Great Britain this title ranks second in the five orders of nobility, only the title of Duke being superior to it. The old English kingdom of Mercia was formed by the Angles who were first called the "Men of the March," having settled on the Welsh border, and that was the origin of its name. The kingdom of Prussia grew out of the "Mark of Brandenburg," which was originally a military border district formed on the skirts of the German empire to resist the Wends. Various other European states had the same origin. See, also, Margrave.

MARCH CLUB. See Clubs: The October and the March.

MARCHFELD OR MARSCHFELD, Battle of the (1278). See Austria: A. D. 1246–1282. . . . . **(1809) (also called the battle of Aspern-Esslingen, or of Aspern).** See Germany: A. D. 1809 (January—June).

MARCIAN, Roman Emperor (Eastern), A. D. 450–457.

MARCIANAPOLIS. See Goths: A. D. 244–251.

MARCOMANNI AND QUADI, The.—"The Marcomanni [an ancient German people who dwelt, first, on the Rhine, but afterwards occupied southern Bohemia] stand first in strength and renown, and their very territory, from which the Boii were driven in a former age, was won by valour. Nor are the Narisci [settled in the region of modern Ratisbon] and Quadi [who probably occupied Moravia] inferior to them. This I may call the frontier of Germany, so far as it is completed by the Danube. The Marcomanni and Quadi have, up to our time, been ruled by kings of their own nation, descended from the noble stock of Marobodnus and Tudrus. They now submit even to foreigners; but the strength and power of the monarch depend on Roman influence."—Tacitus, *Germany, trans. by Church and Brodribb, ch.* 42.—"The Marcomanni cannot be demonstrated as a distinct people before Marbod. It is very possible that the word up to that point indicates nothing but what it etymologically signifies—the land or frontier guard."—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 5, *ch.* 7, *foot-note.*—See, also, Agri Decumates.

War with Tiberius. See Germany: B. C. 8–A. D. 11.

Wars with Marcus Aurelius. See Sarmatian and Marcomannian Wars of Marcus Aurelius.

MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS, Roman Emperor, A. D. 161–180.

MARDIA, Battle of (A. D. 313). See Rome: A. D. 305–323.

MARDIANS, The.—One of the tribes of the ancient Persians; also called Amardians.—M. Duncker, *Hist. of Antiquity, bk.* 8, *ch.* 3.—See, also, Tapurians.

MARDYCK: A. D. 1645–1646.—Thrice taken and retaken by French and Spaniards. See Netherlands: A. D. 1645–1646.

A. D. 1657.—Siege and capture by the French.—Delivery to the English. See France: A. D. 1655–1658.

MARENGO, Battle of (1800). See France: A. D. 1800–1801 (May—February).

MARFEE, Battle of (1641). See France: A. D. 1641–1642.

MARGARET, Queen of the North: Denmark and Norway, A. D. 1387–1412; **Sweden,** 1388–1412. . . . . **Margaret (called The Maid of Norway), Queen of Scotland,** 1286–1290. . . . . **Margaret of Anjou, and the Wars of the Roses.** See England: A. D. 1455–1471. . . . . **Margaret of Navarre, or Marguerite d'Angoulême, and the Reformation in France.** See Papacy: A. D. 1521–1535; and Navarre: A. D. 1528–1563. . . . . **Margaret of Parma and her**

Regency in the Netherlands. See Netherlands: A. D. 1555–1559, and after.

MARGIANA.—The ancient name of the valley of the Murghab or Moorghab (called the Margos). It is represented at the present day by the oasis now called Merv; was the Bactrian Mouru.

MARGRAVE. — MARQUIS. — "This of Markgrafs (Grafs of the Marches, 'marked' Places, or Boundaries) was a natural invention in that state of circumstances [the circumstances of the Germany of the 10th century, under Henry the Fowler]. . . . On all frontiers he had his 'Graf' (Count, 'Reeve,' 'Greeve,' whom some think to be only 'Grau,' Gray, or 'Senior,' the hardiest, wisest steel-gray man he could discover) stationed on the Marck, strenuously doing watch and ward there. . . . And hence have come the innumerable Margraves, Marquises, and such like, of modern times; titles now become chimerical, and more or less mendacious, as most of our titles are."—T. Carlyle, *Frederick the Great, bk.* 2, *ch.* 1.—"The title derived from the old imperial office of markgrave [margrave], 'comes marchensis,' or count of the marches, had belonged to several foreigners who were brought into relation with England in the twelfth century; . . . but in France the title was not commonly used until the seventeenth century, and it is possible that it came to England direct from Germany."—W. Stubbs, *Const. Hist. of Eng., ch.* 20, *sect.* 751.—See March; also, Graf.

MARGUS, Treaty of.—A treaty which Attila the Hun extorted from the Eastern Roman Emperor, Theodosius, A. D. 434.

MARHATTAS. See Mahrattas.

MARIA THERESA, The military order of. See Germany: A. D. 1757 (April–June).

MARIANA. See New England: A. D. 1621–1631.

MARIANDYNIANS, The. See Bithynians.

MARIANNES, OR LADRONES, The.—The archipelago of the Mariannes or Ladrones is a chain of volcanic islands in the Pacific, east of the Philippines, extending north and south for a space of 140 leagues, between 13° and 21° north latitude, and 144° and 146° east longitude. The largest island, Guam, is some 1,700 miles from Manila, and a little less than 4,000 from Honolulu. The Spaniards took possession of them in 1565. The islands are fifteen in number, although only four are inhabited, and comprise an area of 417 square miles. The name of "Islas de los Ladrones," or "Thieves' Islands," was given to them on account of the thievish propensity of the natives although Father Gobien, who wrote a history of the archipelago, states that they hold theft in detestation. More formally, they were named the Mariannes, in honor of Marie-Anne of Austria, wife of Philip IV. of Spain. The islands when discovered had nearly 40,000 inhabitants, who received the settlers well, and made great progress until the Spaniards began to attack their independence. The resulting wars almost destroyed the natives, hardly 10,000 remaining. The majority of the population is located on Guam. The indigenous race, called Chamarros, very much resembles the Tagals and Visayas of the Philippines, but are perhaps more indolent—a fault compensated for by sobriety and unselfishness. The black residents of Saypan are from the Carolines, and are active and industrious. It rains heavily and almost constantly on the Ladrones. The temperature is mild and much cooler than at the Philippines, except in August and September, when the trade winds are interrupted, resulting in intense heat and frequent hurricanes. Guam, the southernmost island and the seat of government, is 27 miles long and varies in width from 3 to 10 miles. It is almost surrounded by reefs, and there is no anchorage on the east side. The west side is low and full of sandy bays. The island is flat, and the soil is dry and indifferently fruitful.—*Bulletin of the Bureau of Am. Republics, Aug.*, 1898.—See, also, Micronesia.

MARIANS, The. Partisans of Marius. See Rome: B. C. 88–78.

MARICOPAS, The. See American Aborigines: Pueblos.

MARIE ANTOINETTE, Imprisonment, trial and execution of. See France: A. D. 1792 (August); and 1793 (September–December). . . . . Marie Louise of Austria, Napoleon's marriage to. See France: A. D. 1810–1812. . . . . Marie de Medicis, The regency and the intrigues of. See France: A. D. 1610–1619, to 1630–1632. . . . . Marie. See, also, Mary.

MARIETTA, O.: The settlement and naming of the town. See Northwest Territory: A. D. 1786–1788.

MARIGNANO, OR MELIGNANO, Battle of. See France: A. D. 1515.

MARINUS, Pope. See Martin.

MARIOLATRY, Rise of. See Nestorian and Monophysite Controversy.

MARION, Francis, and the partisan warfare in the Carolinas. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1780 (August—December), and 1780–1781.

MARIPOSAN FAMILY, The. See American Aborigines: Mariposan Family.

MARITIME PROVINCES.—The British American provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, are commonly referred to as the Maritime Provinces. The three provinces first named form part of the Dominion of Canada, but Newfoundland has not joined that confederation.

MARIUS AND SULLA, The civil war of. See Rome: B. C. 88–78.

MARIZZA, Battle of the (1363). See Turks (The Ottomans): A. D. 1360–1389.

MARJ DABIK, Battle of (1516). See Turks: A. D. 1481–1520.

MARK.—A border, boundary, or frontier. See March—Mark.

MARK, The.—"The theory of the Mark, or as it is more generally called in its later form, the free village community, has been an accepted hypothesis for the historical and economic world for more than half a century. . . . The history of the hypothesis forms an interesting chapter in the relation between modern thought and the interpretation of past history, and shows that in the formation of an opinion both writer and reader are unconsciously dependent upon the spirit of the age in which they live. The free village community, as it is commonly understood, standing at the dawn of English and German history is discoverable in no historical documents, and for that reason it has been accepted by prudent scholars with caution. But the causes which have made it a widely acceptable hypothesis and have served to entrench it

firmly in the mind of scholar and reader alike, have readily supplied what was wanting in the way of exact material, and have led to conclusions which are now recognized as often too hazy, historically inaccurate, though agreeable to the thought tendencies of the age. . . . The Mark as defined by Kemble, who felt in this interpretation the influence of the German writers, . . . was a district large or small with a well-defined boundary, containing certain proportions of heath, forest, fen and pasture. Upon this tract of land were communities of families or households, originally bound by kindred or tribal ties, but who had early lost this blood relationship and were composed of freemen, voluntarily associated for mutual support and tillage of the soil, with commonable rights in the land within the Mark. The Marks were entirely independent, having nothing to do with each other, self-supporting and isolated, until by continual expansion they either federated or coalesced into larger communities. Such communities varying in size covered England, internally differing only in minor details, in all other respects similar. This view of the Mark had been taken already more or less independently by v. Maurer in Germany, and five years after the appearance of Kemble's work, there was published the first of the series of volumes which have rendered Maurer's name famous as the establisher of the theory. As his method was more exact, his results were built upon a more stable foundation than were those of Kemble, but in general the two writers did not greatly differ."—C. McL. Andrews, *The Old Eng. Manor, pp.* 1-6.

ALSO IN: J. M. Kemble, *The Saxons in England, bk.* 1, *ch.* 2.—E. A. Freeman, *Hist. of the Norman Conquest, ch.* 3, *sect.* 2.—W. Stubbs, *Const. Hist. of Eng., ch.* 3, *sect.* 24 (*v.* 1).

MARKET CROSS. See HANSA TOWNS.

MARKLAND. See AMERICA: 10TH-11TH CENTURIES.

MARKS, Spanish. See SPANISH COINS.

MARLBOROUGH, John Churchill, Duke of, and the fall of the English Whigs. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1710-1712....Campaigns. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1702-1704, to 1710-1712; and GERMANY: A. D. 1704.

MAROCCO: Ancient. See MAURETANIA.

The Arab conquest, and since.—The tide of Mahometan conquest, sweeping across North Africa (see MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 647-709), burst upon Maroçco in 698. "Eleven years were required to overcome the stubborn resistance of the Berbers, who, however, when once conquered, submitted with a good grace and embraced the new creed with a facility entirely in accordance with the adaptive nature they still exhibit. Mingled bands of Moors and Arabs passed over into Spain, under Tarik and Moosa, and by the defeat of Roderic at the battle of Guadalete, in 711, the foundation of their Spanish empire was laid [see SPAIN: A. D. 711-718], on which was afterwards raised the magnificent fabric of the Western Khalifate. This is not the place to dwell on the glories of their dominion. . . . Suffice it to say, that a reflection of this glory extended to Marocco, where the libraries and universities of Fez and Marocco City told of the learning introduced by wise men, Moorish and Christian alike, who pursued their studies without fear of interruption on the score of religious belief. The Moors in the days of their greatness, be it observed, were far more liberal-minded than the Spanish Catholics afterwards showed themselves, and allowed Christians to practise their own religion in their own places of worship—in striking contrast to the fanaticism of their descendants in Marocco at the present day. . . . The intervals of repose under the rule of powerful and enlightened monarchs, during which the above mentioned institutions flourished, were nevertheless comparatively rare, and the general history of Marocco during the Moorish dominion in Spain seems to have been one monotonous record of strife between contending tribes and dynasties. Early in the tenth century, the Berbers got the mastery of the Arabs, who never afterwards appear in the history of the country except under the general name of Moors. Various principalities were formed [11-13th centuries—see ALMORAVIDES and ALMOHADES], of which the chief were Fez, Marocco, and Tafilet, though now and again, and especially under the Marin dynasty, in the 13th century, the two former were consolidated into one kingdom. In the 15th century the successes of the Spaniards caused the centre of Moorish power to shift from Spain to Marocco. In the declining days of the Hispano-Moorish empire, and after its final extinction, the Spaniards and Portuguese revenged themselves on their conquerors by attacking the coast-towns of Marocco, many of which they captured. It is not improbable that they would eventually have possessed themselves of the entire country, but for the disastrous defeat of King Sebastian in 1578, at the battle of the Three Kings, on the banks of the Wad El Ma Hassen, near Alcazar [see PORTUGAL: A. D. 1579-1580]. This was the turning-point in Moorish history, and an African Creasy would have to rank the conflict at Alcazar among the decisive battles of the continent. With the rout and slaughter of the Portuguese fled the last chance of civilizing the country, which from that period gradually relapsed into a state of isolated barbarism. . . . For 250 years the throne has been in the hands of members of the Shereeflan family of Fileli, who have remained practically undisputed masters of the whole of the empire. All this time, as in the earlier classical ages, Marocco has been practically shut out from the world. . . . The chief events of importance in Moorish affairs in the present century were the defeat of the Moors by the French at the battle of Isly [see BARBARY STATES: A. D. 1830-1846], near the Algerian frontier, in 1844, and the subsequent bombardment of Mogador and the coast-towns, and the Spanish war which terminated in 1860 with the peace of Tetuan. These reverses taught the Moors the power of European states, and brought about a great improvement in the position of Christians in the country. The Government of Marocco is in effect a kind of graduated despotism, where every official, while possessing complete authority over those beneath him, must render absolute submission to his superiors. The supreme power is vested in the Sultan, the head of the State in all things spiritual and temporal. . . . Of the ultimate dissolution of the Moorish dominion there can be little doubt. . . . European States have long had their eyes upon it, but the same mutual distrust and jealousy which preserves the decaying

fabric of the Turkish Empire has hitherto done the like for Morocco, whose Sultan serves the same purpose on the Straits of Gibraltar as the Turkish Sultan does on the Bosphorus."—H. E. M. Stutfield, *El Maghreb,' ch.* 16.—See, also, BARBARY STATES.

MARONITES, The. See MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY.

MAROONS. See JAMAICA: A. D. 1655–1796.

MARQUESAS ISLANDS, The. See POLYNESIA.

MARQUETTE'S EXPLORATIONS. See CANADA: A. D. 1634–1673.

MARQUIS. See MARGRAVE.

MARRANA, The.—An ancient ditch running from Alba to Rome,—being part of a channel by which the Vale of Grotta was drained.

MARRANOS. See INQUISITION: A. D. 1203–1525.

MARRIAGE, Republican. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793–1794 (OCTOBER—APRIL).

MARRUCINIANS, The. See SABINES.

MARS' HILL. See AREOPAGUS.

MARSAGLIA, Battle of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1693 (OCTOBER).

MARSCHFELD. See MARCHFELD.

MARSEILLAISE, The.—Origin of the Song.—Its introduction into Paris.—In preparation for the insurrection of August 10, 1792, which overthrew the French monarchy, and made the Revolution begun in 1789 complete, the Jacobins had summoned armed bands of their supporters from all parts of France, ostensibly as volunteers to join the army on the frontier, but actually and immediately as a reinforcement for the attack which they had planned to make on the king at the Tuileries [see FRANCE: A. D. 1792 (JUNE—AUGUST)]. Among the "fédérés" who came was a battalion of 500 from Marseilles, which arrived at the capital on the 30th of July. "This battalion has been described by every historian as a collection of the vagabonds who are always to be found in a great seaport town, and particularly in one like Marseilles, where food was cheap and lodging unnecessary But their character has lately been vindicated, and it has been shown that these Marseillais were picked men from the national guards of Marseilles, like the other fédérés, and contained the most hardy as well as the most revolutionary men of the city. . . . They left Marseilles 513 strong, with two guns, on July 2, and had been marching slowly across France, singing the immortal war-song to which they gave their name. . . . The 'Marseillaise' had in itself no very radical history. On April 24, 1792, just after the declaration of war, the mayor of Strasbourg, Dietrich, who was himself no advanced republican, but a constitutionalist, remarked at a great banquet that it was very sad that all the national war songs of France could not be sung by her present defenders, because they all treated of loyalty to the king and not to the nation as well. One of the guests was a young captain of engineers, Rouget de Lisle, who had in 1791 composed a successful 'Hymne à la Liberté,' and Dietrich appealed to him to compose something suitable. The young man was struck by the notion, and during the night he was suddenly inspired with both words and air, and on the following day he sang over to Dietrich's guests the famous song which was to be the war-song of the French Republic. Madame Dietrich arranged the air for the orchestra; Rouget de Lisle dedicated it to Marshal Luckner, as the 'Chant de guerre pour l'armée du Rhin,' and it at once became popular in Strasbourg. Neither Dietrich nor Rouget were advanced republicans. The watchword of the famous song was not 'Sauvons la République,' but 'Sauvons la Patrie.' The air was a taking one. From Strasbourg it quickly spread over the south of France, and particularly attracted the patriots of Marseilles. . . . There are many legends on the origin of the 'Marseillaise'; the account here followed is that given by Amedée Rouget de Lisle, the author's nephew, in his 'La verité sur la paternité de la Marseillaise,' Paris, 1865, which is confirmed by a letter of Madame Dietrich's, written at the time, and first published in 'Souvenirs d'Alsace — Rouget de Lisle à Strasbourg et à Huningue,' by Adolphe Morpain."—H. M. Stephens, *Hist. of the French Rev., v.* 2, *pp.* 114–115.—A quite different but less trustworthy version of the story may be found in Lamartine's *Hist. of the Girondists, bk.* 16, *sects.* 26–30 (*v.* 1).

MARSEILLES, The founding of. See ASIA MINOR: B. C. 724–539, and PHOCÆANS

B. C. 49.—Conquest by Cæsar. See ROME: B. C. 49.

10th Century.—In the kingdom of Arles. See BURGUNDY: A. D. 843–933.

11th Century.—The Viscounts of. See BURGUNDY: A. D. 1032.

12th Century.—Prosperity and freedom. See PROVENCE: A. D. 1179–1207.

A. D. 1524.—Unsuccessful siege by the Spaniards and the Constable Bourbon. See FRANCE: A. D. 1523–1525.

A. D. 1792.—The Marseillais sent to Paris, and their war-song. See MARSEILLAISE.

A. D. 1793.—Revolt against the Revolutionary Government at Paris.—Fearful vengeance of the Terrorists. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (JUNE), (JULY—DECEMBER); and 1793–1794 (OCTOBER—APRIL).

A. D. 1795.—The White Terror. See FRANCE: A. D. 1794–1795 (JULY—APRIL).

MARSHAL, The. See CONSTABLE.

MARSHALL, John, and the Federal Constitution of the U. S. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1787–1789; and 1801; also, SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARSHALL ISLANDS. See MICRONESIA.

MARSI, The. See SAXONS; also, FRANKS.

MARSIAN WAR. See ROME: B. C. 90–88.

MARSIANS, The. See SABINES; also, ITALY: ANCIENT.

MARSIGNI, The.—The Marsigni were an ancient German tribe who inhabited "what is now Galatz, Jagerndorf and part of Silesia."—Tacitus, *Germany; Oxford trans., foot-note.*

MARSTON MOOR, Battle of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1644 (JANUARY—JULY).

MARTHA'S VINEYARD: Named by Gosnold. See AMERICA: A. D. 1602–1605.

MARTIN, King of Aragon, A. D. 1395–1410; King of Sicily, A. D. 1409–1410.....Martin I., Pope, 649–655.....Martin I., King of Sicily, 1402–1409.....Martin II. (or Marinus I.), Pope, 882–884.....Martin II., King of Sicily, 1409–1410.....Martin III. (or Marinus II.,

Pope, 942-946.....Martin IV., Pope, 1281-1285.
Martin V., Pope, 1417-1431.
MARTINIQUE. See WEST INDIES.
MARTINMAS. See QUARTER DAYS.
MARTLING MEN.—In February, 1806, when DeWitt Clinton and his political followers were organizing opposition to Governor Lewis, and were forming an alliance to that end with the political friends of Aaron Burr, a meeting of Republicans (afterwards called Democrats) was held at "Martling's Long Room," in New York City. Hence Mr. Clinton's Democratic opponents, "for a long time afterwards, were known in other parts of the state by the name of Martling Men."—J. D. Hammond, *Hist. of Political Parties in the State of N. Y.*, *v.* 1, *p.* 230.
MARY (called Mary Tudor), Queen of England, A. D. 1553-1558.....Mary of Burgundy, The Austrian marriage of. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1477.....**Mary II., Queen of England (with King William III., her consort), 1689-1694.....Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, 1542-1567.** See SCOTLAND; A. D. 1544-1548, to 1561-1568; and ENGLAND. A. D. 1585-1587.

MARYLAND: A. D. 1632.—The charter granted to Lord Baltimore.—An American palatinate.—"Among those who had become interested in the London or Virginia Company, under its second charter, in 1609, was Sir George Calvert, afterwards the founder of Maryland. . . . Upon the dissolution of the Virginia Company . . . he was named by the king one of the royal commissioners to whom the government of that colony was confided. Hitherto he had been a Protestant, but in 1624, having become unsettled in his religious convictions, he renounced the church of England, in which he had been bred, and embraced the faith of the Catholic church. Moved by conscientious scruples, he determined no longer to hold the office of secretary of state [conferred on him in 1619], which would make him, in a manner, the instrument of persecution against those whose faith he had adopted, and tendered his resignation to the king. . . . The king, . . . while he accepted his resignation, continued him as a member of his privy council for life, and soon after created him Lord Baltimore, of Baltimore, in Ireland. The spirit of intolerance at that time pervaded England. . . . The laws against the Catholics in England were particularly severe and cruel, and rendered it impossible for any man to practice his religion in quiet and safety. Sir George Calvert felt this; and although he was assured of protection from the gratitude and affection of the king, he determined to seek another land and to found a new state, where conscience should be free and every man might worship God according to his own heart, in peace and perfect security. . . . At first he fixed his eyes on New-found-land, in the settlement of which he had been interested before his conversion. . . . Having purchased a ship, he sailed with his family to that island, in which, a few years before, he had obtained a grant of a province under the name of Avalon. Here he only resided two years [see NEWFOUNDLAND. A. D. 1610-1655], when he found the climate and soil unsuited for the establishment of a flourishing community, and determined to seek a more genial country in the south. Accordingly, in 1628, he sailed to Virginia, with the intention of settling in the limits of that colony, or more probably to explore the uninhabited country on its borders, in order to secure a grant of it from the king. Upon his arrival within the jurisdiction of the colony, the authorities tendered him the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, to which, as then framed, no Catholic could subscribe. Lord Baltimore refused to take them, but prepared a form of an oath of allegiance which he and all his followers were willing to accept. His proposal was rejected, and being compelled to leave their waters, he explored the Chesapeake above the settlements. He was pleased with the beautiful and well wooded country, which surrounded the noble inlets and indentations of the great bay, and determined there to found his principality. . . . He returned to England to obtain a grant from Charles I, who had succeeded his father, James I, upon the throne. Remembering his services to his father, and perhaps moved by the intercessions of Henrietta Maria, his Catholic queen, who desired to secure an asylum abroad for the persecuted members of her church in England, Charles directed the patent to be issued. It was prepared by Lord Baltimore himself; but before it was finally executed that truly great and good man died, and the patent was delivered to his son Cecilius, who succeeded as well to his noble designs as to his titles and estates. The charter was issued on the 20th of June, 1632, and the new province, in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria, was named 'Terra Mariæ'—Maryland."—J. McSherry, *Hist. of Maryland, introd.*—"The boundaries of Maryland, unlike those of the other colonies, were precisely defined. Its limits were: on the north, the fortieth parallel of north latitude; on the west and southwest, a line running south from this parallel to the farthest source of the Potomac, and thence by the farther or western bank of that river to Chesapeake Bay; on the south by a line running across the bay and peninsula to the Atlantic; and on the east by the ocean and the Delaware Bay and River. It included, therefore, all the present State of Delaware, a large tract of land now forming part of Pennsylvania, and another now occupied and claimed by West Virginia. The charter of Maryland contained the most ample rights and privileges ever conferred by a sovereign of England. It erected Maryland into a palatinate, equivalent to a principality, reserving only the feudal supremacy of the crown. The Proprietary was made absolute lord of the land and water within his boundaries, could erect towns, cities, and ports, make war or peace, call the whole fighting population to arms, and declare martial law, levy tolls and duties, establish courts of justice, appoint judges, magistrates, and other civil officers, execute the laws, and pardon offenders. He could erect manors with courts-baron and courts-leet, and confer titles and dignities, so that they differed from those of England. He could make laws with the assent of the freemen of the province, and, in cases of emergency, ordinances not impairing life, limb, or property, without their assent. He could found churches and chapels, have them consecrated according to the ecclesiastical laws of England, and appoint the incumbents. All this territory, with these royal rights, 'jura regalia,' was to be held of the crown in free socage, by the delivery of two Indian arrows yearly at the palace of Windsor, and the fifth of

all gold or silver mined. The colonists and their descendants were to remain English subjects. . . . The King furthermore bound himself and his successors to lay no taxes, customs, subsidies, or contributions whatever upon the people of the province. . . . This charter, by which Maryland was virtually an independent and self-governed community, placed the destinies of the colonists in their own hands. . . . Though often attacked, and at times held in abeyance, the charter was never revoked."—W. H. Browne, *Maryland, ch.* 2.—The intention to create a palatine principality in Maryland is distinctly expressed in the fourth section of the charter, which grants to Lord Baltimore, his heirs and assigns, "as ample rights, jurisdictions, privileges, prerogatives, royalties, liberties, immunities, and royal rights . . . as any bishop of Durham, within the bishoprick or county palatine of Durham, in our kingdom of England, ever heretofore hath had, held, used, or enjoyed, or of right could, or ought to have, held, use, or enjoy."—J. L. Bozman, *Hist. of Maryland, v.* 2, *p.* 11.

Also in: H. W. Preston, *Docs. Illustrative of Am. Hist., p.* 62.

A. D. 1633-1637.—The planting of the colony at St. Mary's.—"Cecil, Lord Baltimore, after receiving his charter for Maryland, in June, 1632, prepared to carry out his father's plans. Terms of settlement were issued to attract colonists, and a body of emigrants was soon collected to begin the foundation of the new province. The leading gentlemen who were induced to take part in the project were Catholics; those whom they took out to till the soil, or ply various trades, were not all or, indeed, mainly Catholics, but they could not have been very strongly Protestant to embark in a venture so absolutely under Catholic control. At Avalon Sir George Calvert, anxious for the religious life of his colonists, had taken over both Catholic and Protestant clergymen, and was ill repaid for his liberal conduct. To avoid a similar ground of reproach, Baron Cecil left each part of his colonists free to take their own clergymen. It is a significant fact that the Protestant portion were so indifferent that they neither took over any minister of religion, nor for several years after Maryland settlements began made any attempt to procure one. On behalf of the Catholic settlers, Lord Baltimore applied to Father Richard Blount, at that time provincial of the Jesuits in England, and wrote to the General of the Society, at Rome, to excite their zeal in behalf of the English Catholics who were about to proceed to Maryland. He could offer the clergy no support. . . . The Jesuits did not shrink from a mission field where they were to look for no support from the proprietary or their flock, and were to live amid dangers. It was decided that two Fathers were to go as gentlemen adventurers, taking artisans with them, and acquiring lands like others, from which they were to draw their support. . . . The Maryland pilgrims under Leonard Calvert, brother of the lord proprietary, consisted of his brother George, some 20 other gentlemen, and 200 laboring men well provided. To convey these to the land of Mary, Lord Baltimore had his own pinnace, the Dove, of 50 tons, commanded by Robert Winter, and the Ark, a chartered vessel of 350 tons burthen, Richard Lowe being captain. Leonard Calvert was appointed governor, Jerome Hawley and Thomas Cornwaleys being joined in the commission." After many malicious hindrances and delays, the two vessels sailed from Cowes, November 22, 1633, and made their voyage in safety, though encountering heavy storms. They came to anchor in Chesapeake Bay, near one of the Heron Islands, which they named St. Clement; and on that island they raised a cross and celebrated mass. "Catholicity thus planted her cross and her altar in the heart of the English colonies in America, March 25, 1634. The land was consecrated, and then preparations were made to select a spot for the settlement. Leaving Father White at St. Clement's, the governor, with Father Altham, ran up the river in a pinnace, and at Potomac on the southern shore met Archihau, regent of the powerful tribe that held sway over that part of the land." Having won the goodwill of the savages, "Leonard Calvert sailed back to Saint Clement's. Then the pilgrims entered the Saint Mary's, a bold, broad stream, emptying into the Potomac about 12 miles from its mouth. For the first settlement of the new province, Leonard Calvert, who had landed, selected a spot a short distance above, about a mile from the eastern shore of the river. Here stood an Indian town, whose inhabitants, harassed by the Susquehannas, had already begun to emigrate to the westward. To observe strict justice with the Indian tribes, Calvert purchased from the werowance, or king, Yaocomoco, 30 miles of territory. The Indians gradually gave up some of their houses to the colonists, agreeing to leave the rest also after they had gathered in their harvest. . . . The new settlement began with Catholic and Protestant dwelling together in harmony, neither attempting to interfere with the religious rights of the other, 'and religious liberty obtained a home, its only home in the wide world, at the humble village which bore the name of St. Mary's' [Bancroft, i, 247]. . . . The settlers were soon at work. Houses for their use were erected, crops were planted, activity and industry prevailed. St. Mary's chapel was dedicated to the worship of Almighty God, and near it a fort stood, ready to protect the settlers. It was required by the fact that Clayborne [a trading adventurer and a member of the Virginia Council], the fanatical enemy of Lord Baltimore and his Catholic projects, who had already settled on Kent Island, was exciting the Indians against the colonists of Maryland. The little community gave the priests a field too limited for their zeal. . . . The Indian tribes were to be reached . . . Another priest, with a lay brother, came to share their labors before the close of the year 1635; and the next year four priests were reported as the number assigned to the Maryland mission. Of their early labors no record is preserved. . . . Sickness prevailed in the colony, and the missionaries did not escape. Within two months after his arrival Father Knolles, a talented young priest of much hope, sank a victim to the climate, and Brother Gervase, one of the original band of settlers, also died. . . . Lord Baltimore's scheme embraced not only religious but legislative freedom, and his charter provided for a colonial assembly. . . . In less than three years an assembly of the freemen of the little colony was convened and opened its sessions on the 26th of January, 1637. All who had taken up lands were summoned to attend in person." Soon af-