ment in Mexico sufficiently attested the weakness of the Federal constitution; and in 1835, after a trial of eleven years, the state governments were dissolved, and the Republic, one and indivisible, set up for a time in their place. There was now to be a President, elected by an indirect vote for eight years, a Senate, and a House of Deputies, both elected by a direct popular vote, and an elective Supreme Court. Santa Anna, who was identified with the Unitary principle, was re-elected three times; so that with some intermission he governed Mexico for 20 years. The dissolution of the Federal government naturally strengthened the hands of Santa Anna; and in 1836 Mexico was for the first time recognized by Spain. But the unitary republic was a time of disaster and disgrace; and from the point of view of progress it was a period of reaction. . . . Europe looked forward, almost without jealousy, to the time when the great nation of North America would absorb this people of half-civilized Indians mixed with degenerate Spaniards. Events which now happened greatly strengthened this impression"—E. J. Payne, *Hist. of European Colonies, ch.* 20, *sect.* 6–7.

A. D. 1829-1837.—The Abolition of Slavery.—"The general affairs of the country in the second half of 1829 were in a chaotic state. Disorganization fettered every branch of the government. . . . And yet, amidst its constant struggle, Guerrero's administration decreed several progressive measures, the most important of which was the abolition of slavery. African slavery had indeed been reduced to narrow limits. The Dominican provincial of Chiapas, Father Matias Cordoba, gave freedom to the slaves on the estates of his order. On the 16th of September, 1825, President Victoria had liberated in the country's name the slaves purchased with a certain fund collected for that purpose, as well as those given up by their owners to the patriotic junta. The general abolition, however, was not actually carried out for some time, certain difficulties having arisen; and several states, among which was Zacatecas, had decreed the freedom of slaves before the general government arrived at a final conclusion on the subject. As a matter of fact, the few remaining slaves were in domestic service, and treated more like members of families than as actual chattels. At last Deputy Tornel, taking advantage of the time when Guerrero was invested with extraordinary powers, drew up and laid before him a decree for total abolition. It was signed September 15, 1829, and proclaimed the next day, the national anniversary. The law met with no demur save from Coahuila and Texas, in which state were about 1,000 slaves, whose manumission would cost heavily, as the owners held them at a high valuation. It seems that the law was not fully enforced; for on the 5th of April, 1837, another was promulgated, declaring slavery abolished without exception and with compensation to the owners."—H. H. Bancroft, *Hist. of the Pacific States, v.* 8 (*Mexico, v.* 5), *ch.* 4.

A. D. 1845.—The Annexation of Texas to the United States. See TEXAS: A. D. 1836–1845.

A. D. 1846.—The American aggression which precipitated war.—"Texas had claimed the Rio Grande as her western limit, though she had never exercised actual control over either New Mexico or the country lying between the Nueces and the Rio Grande. The groundless character of the claims of Texas to the Rio Grande as its western boundary was even admitted by some friends of the measure. . . . Silas Wright, . . . referring to the boundaries of Texas, declared that 'they embraced a country to which Texas had no claims, over which she had never asserted jurisdiction, and which she had no right to cede.' Mr. Benton denounced the treaty [of annexation and cession of territory] as an attempt to seize 2,000 square miles of Mexican territory by the incorporation of the left bank of the Rio del Norte, which would be an act of direct aggression. . . . In ordering, therefore, General Taylor to pass a portion of his forces westward of the river Nueces, which was done before annexation was accomplished, President Polk put in peril the peace and the good name of the country. In his Annual Message of December of that year [1845] he stated that American troops were in position on the Nueces, 'to defend our own and the rights of Texas.' But, not content with occupying ground on and westward of the Nueces, he issued, on the 13th of January, 1846, the fatal order to General Taylor to advance and 'occupy positions on or near the left bank of the Rio del Norte.' That movement of the army from Corpus Christi to the Rio Grande, a distance of more than 100 miles, was an invasion of Mexican territory,—an act of war for which the President was and must ever be held responsible by the general judgment of mankind."—H. Wilson, *Hist. of the Rise and Fall of the Slave Power in Am., v.* 2, *ch.* 2.

ALSO IN: T. H. Benton, *Thirty Years' View, v.* 2, *ch.* 149.

A. D. 1846-1847.—The American conquest of California. See CALIFORNIA: A. D. 1846–1847.

A. D. 1846-1847.—War with the United States.—The first movements of American invasion.—Palo Alto.—Resaca de la Palma.—Monterey.—Buena Vista.—Fremont in California.—"The annexation of Texas accomplished [see TEXAS: A. D. 1824–1836, and 1836–1845], General Taylor, the United States commander in the Southwest, received orders to advance to the Rio Grande. Such was the impoverished and distracted condition of Mexico that she apparently contemplated no retaliation for the injury she had sustained, and, had the American army remained at the Nueces, a conflict might perhaps have been avoided. But, on Taylor's approaching the Rio Grande, a combat ensued [May 8, 1846] at Palo Alto with Arista, the Mexican commander, who crossed over that stream. It ended in the defeat of the Mexicans, and the next day another engagement took place at Resaca de la Palma, with the same result. These actions eventually assumed considerable political importance. They were among the causes of General Taylor's subsequent elevation to the Presidency. As soon as intelligence of what had occurred reached Washington, President Polk, forgetting that the author of a war is not he who begins it, but he who has made it necessary, addressed a special message to Congress announcing that the Mexicans 'had at last invaded our territory, and shed the blood of our fellow-citizens on our own soil.' Congress at once (May 13th, 1846) passed an act providing money and men. Its preamble stated, 'Whereas, by the act of the Republic of Mexico, a state of

war exists between that country and the United States, be it enacted,' etc. As long previously as 1843, Mr. Bocanegra, the Mexican Minister of Foreign Relations, had formally notified the American government that the annexation of Texas would inevitably lead to war. General Almonte, the Mexican minister at Washington, in a note to Mr. Upshur, the Secretary of State, said that, 'in the name of his nation, and now for them, he protests, in the most solemn manner, against such an aggression; and he moreover declares, by express order of his government, that, on sanction being given by the executive of the Union to the incorporation of Texas into the United States, he will consider his mission ended, seeing that, as the Secretary of State will have learned, the Mexican government is resolved to declare war as soon as it receives intimation of such an act.' War being thus provoked by the American government, General Scott received orders (November 18th, 1846) to take command of the expedition intended for the invasion of Mexico."—J. W. Draper, *Hist. of the Am. Civil War, ch.* 23 (*v.* 1).—After his defeat at Resaca de la Palma, the Mexican general Arista "retreated in the direction of San Luis Potosi, and was superseded by Gen. Pedro Ampudia. General Taylor marched his forces across the Rio Grande on the 17th of May and the invasion of Mexico was begun in earnest. From the 21st to the 24th of September, he was engaged with 7,000 men in the attack upon Monterey, the capital of Nueva Leon, garrisoned by a force of 9,000. He met with the same success which had attended his former engagements. General Ampudia was also forced to retire to San Luis Potosi. The brilliant features of this attack were the assault upon Obispado Viejo by General Worth on the first day of the fight, and the storming of the heights above on the following day. . . . Upon the defeat of Ampudia, Santa Anna, having then just attained to the chief magistracy of Mexico [the American blockading squadron at Vera Cruz had permitted him to return to the country, expecting that his presence would be advantageous to the invaders], and left it in the hands of his Vice-President, Gomez Farias, took the command of the Mexican forces and set out to check the advance of General Taylor. On the 23d of February, 1847, the bloody battle of Angostura, as it is called by the Mexicans (known to the Americans as the battle of Buena Vista), was fought, and lost by the Mexican army. Santa Anna returned to San Luis Potosi, whence he was called to the capital to head off the insurrection against Gomez Farias, by the party called derisively the Polkos, because their insurrection at that time was clearly favorable to the movements of the American army, and because James K. Polk was then the President of the United States and head of the American party favorable to the war. It was at this time that the army of Taylor was reduced to about 5,000 men in order to supply General Winfield Scott with forces to carry out his military operations, and the field of war was transferred to the region between Vera Cruz and the capital. While these events were in progress an expedition under Gen. John C. Fremont had been made over-land through New Mexico and into California [see CALIFORNIA: A. D. 1846–1847; and NEW MEXICO: A. D. 1846], and under the directions of the United States government the Mexicans of California had been incited to revolt."—A. H. Noll, *Short Hist. of Mexico, ch.* 9.

ALSO IN: H. Von Holst, *Const. and Pol. Hist. of the U. S., v.* 3, *ch.* 4–9.—H. O. Ladd, *Hist. of the War with Mexico, ch.* 4–8.—E. D. Mansfield, *Hist. of the Mexican War, ch.* 2–4 *and* 8.—O. O. Howard, *General Taylor, ch.* 8–19.

A. D. 1847 (March—September).—General Scott's campaign.—From Vera Cruz to the capital.—Cerro Gordo.—Contreras.—Churubusco.—Molino del Rey.—Chapultepec.—The conquest complete.—"General Winfield Scott was ordered to Mexico, to take chief command and conduct the war according to his own plan. This was, in brief, to carry an expedition against Vera Cruz, reduce its defences, and then march on the city of Mexico by the shortest route. . . . On the 7th of March [1847], the fleet with Scott's army came to anchor a few miles south of Vera Cruz, and two days later he landed his whole force — nearly 12,000 men — by means of surf-boats. Vera Cruz was a city of 7,000 inhabitants, strongly fortified. . . . On the 22d the investment was complete. A summons to surrender being refused, the batteries opened, and the bombardment was kept up for four days, the small war vessels joining in it. The Mexican batteries and the castle [of San Juan de Ulloa, on a reef in the harbor] replied with spirit, and with some little effect, but the city and castle were surrendered on the 27th. The want of draught animals and wagons delayed till the middle of April the march upon the capital of the country, 200 miles distant. The first obstacle was found at Cerro Gordo, 50 miles northwest of Vera Cruz, where the Mexicans had taken position on the heights around a rugged mountain pass, with a battery commanding every turn of the road. A way was found to flank the position on the extreme left, and on the morning of April 18th the Americans attacked in three columns. . . . The divisions of Twiggs and Worth . . . attacked the height of Cerro Gordo, where the Mexicans were most strongly intrenched, and where Santa Anna commanded in person. This being carried by storm, its guns were turned first upon the retreating Mexicans, and then upon the advanced position that Pillow was assaulting in front. The Mexicans, finding themselves surrounded, soon surrendered. Santa Anna, with the remainder of his troops, fled toward Jalapa, where Scott followed him and took the place."—W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular Hist. of the U. S., v.* 4, *ch.* 14.—"Less than a month later [after the battle of Cerro Gordo] the American army occupied the city of Puebla. Scott remained at Puebla during June and July, awaiting reinforcements and drilling them as they arrived. On the 7th of August he set out for the capital, which was now defended by about 30,000 troops. A series of encounters took place on the 19th, and on the next day three battles were fought, at Contreras, Churubusco, and San Antonio. They were in reality parts of one general engagement. The troops on both sides fought with stubbornness and bravery, but in the end the Mexicans were completely routed, and the pursuit of the flying enemy reached almost to the gates of the capital. A commissioner, Nicholas P. Trist, having been previously appointed to negotiate with the Mexicans, an armistice was now agreed upon, to begin on the 23d of August. The armistice, from a strategic

point of view, was a mistake, the advantage of the overwhelming victories of the 19th and 20th was in great part lost, and the Mexicans were enabled to recover from the demoralization which had followed their defeat. The position of the American army, in the heart of the enemy's country, where it might be cut off from reinforcements and supplies, was full of danger, and the fortifications which barred the way to the capital, Molino del Rey, Casa Mata, and Chapultepec, were exceedingly formidable. On the 7th of September the armistice came to an end. The negotiations had failed, and General Scott prepared to move on the remaining works. A reconnoisance was made on that day, and on the 8th Scott attacked the enemy. The army of Santa Anna was drawn up with its right resting on Casa Mata and its left on Molino del Rey Both these positions were carried by assault, and the Mexicans, after severe loss, were defeated and driven off the field. The next two days were occupied in preparing for the final assault upon Chapultepec. A careful disposition was made of the troops, batteries were planted within range, and on the 12th they opened a destructive fire. On the 13th a simultaneous assault was made from both sides, the troops storming the fortress with great bravery and dash, and the works were carried, the enemy flying in confusion. The army followed them along the two causeways of Belen and San Cosmé, fighting its way to the gates of the city. Here a struggle continued till after nightfall, the enemy making a desperate defence. Early the next morning, a deputation of the city council waited upon General Scott, asking for terms of capitulation. These were refused, and the divisions of Worth and Quitman entered the capital. Street fighting was kept up for two days longer, but by the 16th the Americans had secured possession of the city. Negotiations were now renewed, and the occupation of the territory, meanwhile, continued. The principal towns were garrisoned, and taxes and duties collected by the United States. Occasional encounters took place at various points, but the warfare was chiefly of a guerrilla character. Towards the close of the war General Scott was superseded by General Butler. But the work had been already completed."—J. R. Soley, *The Wars of the U. S.*, 1789–1850 (*Narrative and Critical Hist. of Am.*, *v.* 7, *ch.* 6).

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *Hist. of the Pacific States*, *v.* 8 (*Mexico*, *v.* 5), *ch.* 17–20.—Gen. W. Scott, *Memoirs, by himself*, *ch.* 27–32 (*v.* 2.)—*President's Message and Doc's*, *Dec.* 7, 1847 (*Senate Ex. Doc.*, *No.* 1, 30*th Cong.*, 1*st Sess.*).

A. D. 1848.—The Treaty of Guadaloupe Hidalgo.—Territory ceded to the United States.—"The Mexican people had now succumbed to the victorious armies of the 'barbarians of the North.' The Mexican Government was favorable to the settlement of the questions which had caused this unhappy war. A new administration was in power. General Anaya on the 11th of November was elected President of the Mexican Republic until the 8th of January, 1848, when the constitutional term of office would expire. . . . National pride . . . bowed to the necessities of the republic, and the deputies assembled in the Mexican Congress favored the organization of a commission for the purpose of reopening negotiations with Mr. Trist, who still remained in Mexico, and was determined to assume the responsibility of acting still as agent of the United States [although his powers had been withdrawn]. The lack of coöperation by the adherents of Santa Anna prevented immediate action on the part of these commissioners. On the 8th of January, 1848, General Herrera was elected Constitutional President of the Mexican Republic. . . . Under the new administration negotiations were easily opened with a spirit of harmony and concession which indicated a happy issue. Mexico gave up her claim to the Nueces as the boundary-line of her territory, and the United States did not longer insist upon the cession of Lower California and the right of way across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. The previous offer of money by the United States for the cession of New Mexico and Upper California was also continued. . . . On the 2d of February a treaty of peace was unanimously adopted and signed by the commissioners at the city of Guadaloupe Hidalgo. . . . The ratifications of the Mexican Congress and of the United States Senate were exchanged May 30th, 1848. The United States, by the terms of this treaty, paid to Mexico $15,000,000 for the territory added to its boundaries. They moreover freed the Mexican Republic from all claims of citizens of the United States against Mexico for damages, which the United States agreed to pay to the amount of $3,250,000. The boundary-line was also fixed between the two republics. It began in the Gulf of Mexico three miles from the mouth of the Rio Grande del Norte, running up the centre of that river to the point where it strikes the southern boundary of New Mexico; then westward along that southern boundary which runs north of Elpaso, to its western termination; thence northward along the western line of New Mexico until it intersects the first branch of the river Gila, thence down the middle of the Gila until it empties into the Rio Colorado, following the division line between Upper and Lower California to the Pacific Ocean, one marine league south of the port of San Diego. On the 12th of June, the last of the United States troops left the capital of Mexico. . . . The partisan supporters of President Polk's administration did not hesitate to avow that the war with Mexico was waged for conquest of territory. . . . The demands of indemnity from Mexico first made by the United States were equal, exclusive of Texas, to half of the domain of Mexico, embracing a territory upward of 800,000 square miles. . . . The area of New Mexico, as actually ceded by treaty to the United States, was 526,078 square miles. The disputed ground of Texas, which rightfully belonged to Mexico, and which was also yielded in the treaty of peace, contained no less than 125,520 square miles. The acquisition of the total amount of 651,591 square miles of territory was one of the direct results of this war, in which President Polk was ever pretending 'to conquer a peace.' To this must be added the undisputed region of Texas, which was 325,520 square miles more, in order adequately to represent the acquisition of territory to the United States, amounting to 851,590 square miles. This has been computed to be seventeen times the extent of the State of New York. . . . The territory thus acquired included ten degrees of latitude on the Pacific coast, and extended east to the Rio Grande, a distance of 1,000 miles.

. . . [More than 1000] miles of sea coast were added to the possessions of the United States. . . . The mineral resources of the conquered territory, including California, New Mexico, Arizona, Western Colorado, Utah, and Nevada, have been developed to such an extent that their value is beyond computation."—H. O. Ladd, *Hist. of the War with Mexico, ch.* 30–31.

ALSO IN: *Treaties and Conventions bet. the U. S. and other Countries (ed. of* 1889), *pp.* 681–694.

A. D. 1848-1861.—The succession of Revolutions and the War of the Reform.—The new Constitution.—The government of Juarez and the Nationalization of Church property.—"For a brief period, after the withdrawal of the American army, the Mexican people drew the breath of peace, disturbed only by outbreaks headed by the turbulent Paredes. . . . In June, 1848, Señor Herrera (who had been in power at the opening of the war with the United States) took possession of the presidential chair. For the first time within the memory of men then living, the supreme power changed hands without disturbance or opposition. . . . The army . . . was greatly reduced, arrangements were made with creditors abroad, and for the faithful discharge of internal affairs. General Mariano Arista, formerly minister of war, assumed peaceful possession of power, in January, 1851, and continued the wise and economical administration of his predecessor. But Mexico could not long remain at peace, even with herself; she was quiet merely because utterly prostrated, and in December, 1852, some military officers, thirsting for power, rebelled against the government. They commenced again the old system of 'pronunciamientos'; usually begun by some man in a province distant from the seat of government, and gradually gaining such strength that when finally met by the lawful forces they were beyond control. Rather than plunge his country anew into the horrors of a civil war, General Arista resigned his office and sailed for Europe, where he died in poverty a few years later. It may astonish any one except the close student of Mexican history to learn the name of the man next placed in power by the revolutionists, for it was no one else than General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna! Recalled by the successful rebels from his exile in Cuba and South America, Santa Anna hastened to the scene of conflict. . . . He commenced at once to extend indefinitely the army, and to intrench himself in a position of despotic power, and, in December, 1853, he issued a decree which, in substance, declared him perpetual dictator. This aroused opposition all over the country, and the Liberals, who were opposed to an arbitrary centralized government, rose in rebellion. The most successful leaders were Generals Alvarez and Comonfort, who, after repeated victories, drove the arch conspirator from the capital, on the 9th of August, 1855. Santa Anna secretly left the city of Mexico, and a few days later embarked at Vera Cruz for Havana. During several years he resided in Cuba, St. Thomas, Nassau, and the United States, constantly intriguing for a return to power in Mexico."—F. A. Ober, *Young Folks' Hist. of Mexico, ch.* 33.—"Upon the flight of Santa Anna, anarchy was imminent in the capital. The most prominent promoters of the revolution assembled quickly, and elected Gen. Romulo Diaz de la Vega acting-president, and he succeeded in establishing order. . . . By a representative assembly Gen. Martin Carrera was elected acting-president, and he was installed, on the 15th of August, 1855; but resigned on the 11th of the following month, when the presidency devolved a second time upon Gen. Romulo Diaz de la Vega. The revolution of Alvarez and Comonfort, known as the Plan de Ayotla, was entirely successful, and under the wise and just administration of Diaz de la Vega, the country was brought to the wholly abnormal state of quiet and order. Representatives of the triumphant party assembled in Cuernavaca and elected Gen. Juan Alvarez president ad interim, and upon the formation of his cabinet he named Comonfort his Minister of War. Returning to the capital, he transferred the presidency to his Minister of War, and on the 12th of December, 1855, Gen. Ignacio Comonfort entered upon the discharge of his duties as acting-president. He was made actual president by a large majority in the popular election held two years later, and was reinstalled on the 1st of December, 1857. He proved to be one of the most remarkable rulers of Mexico, and his administration marks the beginning of a new era in Mexican history. Scarcely had Comonfort begun his rule as the substitute of Alvarez, when revolutions again broke out and assumed formidable proportions. Puebla was occupied by 5,000 insurgents. Federal troops sent against them joined their cause. Comonfort succeeded in raising an army of 16,000 men, well equipped, and at its head marched to Puebla and suppressed the revolution before the end of March. But in October another rebellion broke out in Puebla, headed by Col. Miguel Miramon. The government succeeded in suppressing this, as well as one which broke out in San Luis Potosi, and another, under the leadership of Gen. Tomas Mejia, in Queretaro. It was by Comonfort that the war between the Church and the government, so long threatened, was precipitated. In June, 1856, he issued a decree ordering the sale of all the unimproved real estate held by the Church, at its assessed value. The Church was to receive the proceeds, but the land was to become thereby freed from all ecclesiastical control." Upon information of a conspiracy centering in one of the monasteries of the city of Mexico, the president sent troops to take possession of the place, and finally ordered it to be suppressed. These measures provoked an implacable hostility on the part of the supporters of the Church. "On the 5th of February, 1857, the present Constitution of Mexico was adopted by Congress. Comonfort, as Provisional President, subscribed it, and it was under its provisions that he was elected actual president. But ten days after his inauguration in December, 1857, and his taking the oath to support the new Constitution, the President, supposing that he could gain the full support of the Liberals, and claiming that he had found the operation of the Constitution impracticable, dissolved Congress and set the Constitution aside. He threw his legal successor, Benito Juarez, the President of the Supreme Court of Justice, and one of the supporters of the new Constitution, into prison." Revolution upon revolution now followed in quick succession. Comonfort fled the country. Zuloaga, Pezuela, Pavon, Miramon, were seated in turn in the presidential chair for brief terms of a half recognized government. "Constitutionally (if we may ever

use that word seriously in connection with Mexican affairs), upon the abandonment of the presidency by Comonfort, the office devolved upon the President of the Supreme Court of Justice. That office was held at the time by Don Benito Juarez, who thereupon became president de jure of Mexico. . . . The most curious specimen of the nomenclature adopted in Mexican history is that which gives to the struggle between the Church party and its allies and the Constitutional government the name of the War of the Reform. . . . What was thereby reformed it would be difficult to say, . . . further than the suppression of the outreaching power, wealth, and influence of the Church, and the assertion of the supremacy of the State. . . . But the 'War of the Reform' had all the bitterness of a religious war. . . . Juarez, who is thus made to appear as a reformer, was the most remarkable man Mexico has ever produced. He was born in 1806 in the mountains of Oaxaca. . . . He belonged to the Zapoteca tribe of Indians. Not a drop of Spanish blood flowed in his veins. . . . Upon the flight of Comonfort, Juarez was utterly without support or means to establish his government. Being driven out of the capital by Zuloaga he went to Guadalajara, and then by way of the Pacific coast, Panama, and New Orleans, to Vera Cruz. There he succeeded in setting up the Constitutional government, supporting it out of the customs duties collected at the ports of entry on the Gulf coast. It was war to the knife between the President in Vera Cruz and the Anti-Presidents in the capital. . . . On the 12th of July, 1859, Juarez made a long stride in advance of Comonfort by issuing his famous decree, 'nationalizing'—that is, sequestrating, or more properly confiscating—the property of the Church. It was enforced in Vera Cruz at once. . . . The armies of the two rival governments met in conflict on many occasions. It was at Calpulalpam, in a battle lasting from the 21st to the 24th of December, 1860, that Miramon was defeated and forced to leave the country. General Ortega, in command of the forces of Juarez, advanced to the capital and held it for the return of his chief. When the army of Juarez entered the capital, on the 27th of December, the decree of sequestration began to be executed there with brutal severity. . . . Monasteries were closed forthwith, and the members of the various religious orders were expelled the country. . . . It is said that from the 'nationalized' church property the government secured $20,000,000, without, as subsequent events showed, deriving any permanent benefit from it. It helped to precipitate another war, in which it was all dissipated, and the country was poorer than ever. . . . The decree issued by Juarez from Vera Cruz in 1859, nationalizing the property of the Church, was quickly followed up by a decree suspending for two years payment on all foreign debts. The national debt at that time amounted to about $100,000,000, according to some statements, and was divided up between England, Spain, and France. England's share was about $80,000,000. France's claim was comparatively insignificant. They were all said to have been founded upon usurious or fraudulent contracts, and the French claim was especially dubious. . . . Upon the issuing of the decree suspending payment on these foreign debts, the three creditor nations at once broke off diplomatic relations with Mexico, and Napoleon III., of France, proceeded to carry out a plan which had for some time occupied his mind."—A. H. Noll, *Short Hist. of Mexico, ch.* 10-11.

Also in: H. H. Bancroft, *Hist. of the Pacific States, v.* 8 (*Mexico, v.* 5), *ch.* 20-30, *and v.* 9 (6), *ch.* 1.—See Constitution of Mexico

A. D. 1853.—Sale of Arizona to the United States.—The Gadsden Treaty. See Arizona: A. D. 1853.

A. D. 1861-1867.—The French intervention.—Maximilian's ill-starred empire and its fate.—The expedition against Mexico "was in the beginning a joint undertaking of England, France, and Spain. Its professed object, as set forth in a convention signed in London on October 31st, 1861, was 'to demand from the Mexican authorities more efficacious protection for the persons and properties of their (the Allied Sovereigns') subjects, as well as a fulfilment of the obligations contracted toward their Majesties by the Republic of Mexico.' . . . Lord Russell, who had acted with great forbearance towards Mexico up to this time, now agreed to co-operate with France and Spain in exacting reparation from Juarez. But he defined clearly the extent to which the intervention of England would go. England would join in an expedition for the purpose, if necessary, of seizing on Mexican custom-houses, and thus making good the foreign claims. But she would not go a step further. She would have nothing to do with upsetting the Government of Mexico, or imposing any European system on the Mexican people. Accordingly, the Second Article of the Convention pledged the contracting parties not to seek for themselves any acquisition of territory or any special advantage, and not to exercise in the internal affairs of Mexico any influence of a nature to prejudice the right of the Mexican nation to choose and to constitute freely the form of its government. The Emperor of the French, however, had already made up his mind that he would establish a sort of feudatory monarchy in Mexico. He had long had various schemes and ambitions floating in his mind concerning those parts of America on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, which were once the possessions of France. . . . At the very time when he signed the convention with the pledge contained in its second article, he had already been making arrangements to found a monarchy in Mexico. If he could have ventured to set up a monarchy with a French prince at its head, he would probably have done so; but this would have been too bold a venture. He, therefore, persuaded the Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor of Austria, to accept the crown of the monarchy he proposed to set up in Mexico. The Archduke was a man of pure and noble character, but evidently wanting in strength of mind, and he agreed, after some hesitation, to accept the offer. Meanwhile the joint expedition sailed. We [the English] sent only a line-of-battle ship, two frigates, and 700 marines. France sent in the first instance about 2,500 men, whom she largely reinforced immediately after. Spain had about 6,000 men, under the command of the late Marshal Prim. The Allies soon began to find that their purposes were incompatible. There was much suspicion about the designs of France. . . . Some of the claims set up by France disgusted the other Allies. The Jecker claims were for a long time after as familiar a subject of ridicule as our own

Pacifico claims had been. A Swiss house of Jecker & Company had lent the former Government of Mexico $750,000, and got bonds from that Government, which was on its very last legs, for $15,000,000. The Government was immediately afterwards upset, and Juarez came into power. M. Jecker modestly put in his claim for $15,000,000. Juarez refused to comply with the demand. He offered to pay the $750,000 lent and five per cent. interest, but he declined to pay exactly twenty times the amount of the sum advanced. M. Jecker had by this time become somehow a subject of France, and the French Government took up his claim. It was clear that the Emperor of the French had resolved that there should be war. At last the designs of the French Government became evident to the English and Spanish Plenipotentiaries, and England and Spain withdrew from the Convention. . . . The Emperor of the French 'walked his own wild road, whither that led him.' He overran a certain portion of Mexico with his troops. He captured Puebla after a long and desperate resistance [and after suffering a defeat on the 5th of May, 1862, in the battle of Cinco de Mayo]; he occupied the capital, and he set up the Mexican Empire, with Maximilian as Emperor. French troops remained to protect the new Empire. Against all this the United States Government protested from time to time. . . . However, the Emperor Napoleon cared nothing just then about the Monroe doctrine, complacently satisfied that the United States were going to pieces, and that the Southern Confederacy would be his friend and ally. He received the protests of the American Government with unveiled indifference. At last the tide in American affairs turned. The Confederacy crumbled away; Richmond was taken; Lee surrendered; Jefferson Davis was a prisoner. Then the United States returned to the Mexican Question, and the American Government informed Louis Napoleon that it would be inconvenient, gravely inconvenient, if he were not to withdraw his soldiers from Mexico. A significant movement of American troops under a renowned General, then flushed with success, was made in the direction of the Mexican frontier. There was nothing for Louis Napoleon but to withdraw [March, 1867]. . . . The Mexican Empire lasted two months and a week after the last of the French troops had been withdrawn. Maximilian endeavoured to raise an army of his own, and to defend himself against the daily increasing strength of Juarez. He showed all the courage which might have been expected from his race, and from his own previous history. But in an evil hour for himself, and yielding, it is stated, to the persuasion of a French officer, he had issued a decree that all who resisted his authority in arms should be shot. By virtue of this monstrous ordinance, Mexican officers of the regular army, taken prisoners while resisting, as they were bound to do, the invasion of a European prince, were shot like brigands. The Mexican general, Ortega, was one of those thus shamefully done to death. When Juarez conquered, and Maximilian, in his turn, was made a prisoner, he was tried by court-martial, condemned and shot. . . . The French Empire never recovered the shock of this Mexican failure."—J. McCarthy, *Hist. of Our Own Times, ch.* 44.

Also in: H. H. Bancroft, *Hist. of the Pacific States, v.* 9 (*Mexico, v.* 6), *ch.* 1-14.—H. M. Flint, *Mexico under Maximilian.*—F. Salm-Salm, *My Diary in Mexico* (1867).—S. Schroeder, *The Fall of Maximilian's Empire.*—Count E. de Keratry, *The Rise and Fall of the Emperor Maximilian.*—J. M. Taylor, *Maximilian and Carlotta.*—U. R. Burke, *Life of Benito Juarez.*

A. D. 1867-1892.—The restored Republic.—"On the 15th of July [1867] Juarez made a solemn entry into the capital. Many good citizens of Mexico, who had watched gloomily the whole episode of the French intervention, now emerged to light and rejoiced conspicuously in the return of their legitimate chief. . . . He was received with genuine acclamations by the populace, while high society remained within doors, curtains close-drawn, except that the women took pride in showing their deep mourning for the death of the Emperor. . . . Peace now came back to the country. A general election established Juarez as President, and order and progress once more consented to test the good resolutions of the Republic." Santa Anna made one feeble and futile attempt to disturb the quiet of his country, but was arrested without difficulty and sent into exile again. But Juarez had many opponents and enemies to contend with. "As the period of election approached, in 1871, party lines became sharply divided, and the question of his return to power was warmly contested. A large body still advocated the re-election of Juarez, as of the greatest importance to the consolidation of the Constitution and reform, but the admirers of military glory claimed the honors of President for General Diaz, who had done so much, at the head of the army, to restore the Republic. A third party represented the interests of Lerdo, minister of Juarez all through the epoch of the intervention, a man of great strength of character and capacity for government. . . . The campaign was vigorous throughout the country. . . . The election took place; the Juaristas were triumphant. Their party had a fair majority and Juarez was re-elected. But the Mexicans not yet had learned to accept the ballot, and a rebellion followed. The two defeated parties combined, and civil war began again. Government defended itself with vigor and resolution, and, in spite of the popularity of General Diaz as a commander, held its own during a campaign of more than a year. Its opponents were still undaunted, and the struggle might have long continued but for the sudden death of Juarez, on the 19th of July, 1872. . . . Don Sebastian Lerdo de Tejada, then President of the Supreme Court, assumed the government, was elected President, and the late agitation of parties was at an end. For three years peace reigned in Mexico, and then began another revolution. Towards the end of 1875, rumors of dissatisfaction were afloat . . . Early in the next year, a 'Plan' was started, one of those fatal propositions for change which have always spread like wildfire through the Mexican community. By midsummer, the Republic was once more plunged in civil war. Although he had apparently no hand in the 'Plan' of Tuxtepec, General Porfirio Diaz appeared at the head of the army of the revolutionists. . . . During the summer there was fighting and much confusion, in the midst of which the election took place for the choice of President for another term of four years. The result was in favor of Lerdo de Tejada, but he was so unpopular that he was

obliged soon after to leave the capital, on the 20th of November, accompanied by his ministers and a few other persons. The other Lerdistas hid themselves, Congress dissolved, and the opposition triumphed. Thus ended the government of the Lerdistas, but a few days before the expiration of its legal term. On the 24th of November, General Porfirio Diaz made his solemn entry into the capital, and was proclaimed Provisional President. After a good deal of fighting all over the country, Congress declared him, in May, 1877, to be Constitutional President for a term to last until November 30, 1880. . . . President Diaz was able to consolidate his power, and to retain his seat without civil war, although this has been imminent at times, especially towards the end of his term. In 1880, General Manuel Gonsalez was elected, and on the 1st of December of that year, for the second time only in the history of the Republic, the retiring President gave over his office to his legally elected successor. . . . The administration of Gonsalez passed through its four years without any important outbreak . . . At the end of that term General Diaz was re-elected and became President December 1, 1884. The treasury of the country was empty, the Republic without credit, yet he has [1888] . . . succeeded in placing his government upon a tolerably stable financial basis, and done much to restore the foreign credit of the Republic."—S. Hale, *The Story of Mexico, ch.* 41–42.—"At the close of Maximilian's empire Mexico had but one railroad, with 260 miles of track. To-day she has them running in all directions, with an [aggregate] of 10,025 kilometers (about 6,300 miles), and is building more. Of telegraph lines in 1867 she had but a few short connections, under 3,000 kilometers; now she has telephone and telegraph lines which aggregate between 60,000 and 70,000 kilometers. . . . In his . . . message to Congress (1891) President Diaz said: 'It is gratifying to me to be able to inform Congress that the financial situation of the republic continues to improve. . . . Without increasing the tariff, the custom-houses now collect $9,000,000 more than they did four years ago.' . . . The revenues of the republic have more than doubled in the past twenty years. In 1870 they were $16,000,000, they are estimated now at over $36,000,000." The third term of President Diaz, "now [1892] drawing to a close, has been one of great prosperity. . . . As we write popular demonstrations are being made in favor of another term."—W. Butler, *Mexico in Transition, pp.* 284–287.—President Diaz was re-elected for a fourth term, which began December 1, 1892, and will expire in 1896.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *Hist. of the Pacific States, v.* 9 (*Mexico v.* 6), *ch.* 19.

MIAMIS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY, ILLINOIS, and SACS, &c.

MICESLAUS I., King of Poland, A. D. 964–1000. . . . . **Miceslaus II., King of Poland,** 1025–1037. . . . . **Miceslaus III., Duke of Poland,** 1178–1177.

MICHAEL (the first of the Romanoffs), Czar of Russia, A. D. 1613–1645. . . . . **Michael I., Emperor in the East (Byzantine, or Greek),** 811–813. . . **Michael II. (called the Armorian), Emperor in the East,** 820–829. . . . . **Michael III., Emperor in the East,** 842–867. . . . . **Michael IV., Emperor in the East,** 1034–1041. . . . . **Michael V., Emperor in the East,** 1041–1042 . . **Michael VI., Emperor in the East,** 1056–1057. . . . **Michael VII., Emperor in the East,** 1071–1078. . . . . **Michael VIII. (Palæologus), Greek Emperor of Nicæa,** 1260–1261 · **Greek Emperor of Constantinople,** 1261–1282.

MICHAELMAS. See QUARTER DAYS.

MICHIGAN: The aboriginal inhabitants. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: HURONS, and OJIBWAYS.

A. D. 1680.—Traversed by La Salle. See CANADA: A. D. 1669–1687.

A. D. 1686-1701.—The founding of the French post at Detroit. See DETROIT: A. D. 1686–1701.

A. D. 1760.—The surrender to the English. See CANADA: A. D. 1760.

A. D. 1763.—Cession to Great Britain. See SEVEN YEARS WAR: THE TREATIES.

A. D. 1763.—The King's proclamation excluding settlers. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY: A. D. 1763.

A. D. 1763-1764.—Pontiac's War. See PONTIAC'S WAR.

A. D. 1774.—Embraced in the Province of Quebec. See CANADA: A. D. 1763–1774.

A. D. 1775-1783.—Held by the British throughout the War of Independence. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1778–1779 CLARK'S CONQUESTS

A. D. 1784.—Included in the proposed states of Cherronesus and Sylvania. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY: A. D. 1784.

A. D. 1785-1786.—Partially covered by the western land claims of Massachusetts and Connecticut, ceded to the United States. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1781–1786.

A. D. 1787.—The Ordinance for the government of the Northwest Territory.—Perpetual exclusion of Slavery. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY: A. D. 1787.

A. D. 1805.—Detached from Indiana Territory and distinctly named and organized. See INDIANA: A. D. 1800–1818

A. D. 1811.—Tecumseh and his League.—Battle of Tippecanoe. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1811.

A. D. 1812.—The surrender of Detroit and the whole territory to the British arms by General Hull. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1812 (JUNE—OCTOBER).

A. D. 1813.—Recovery by the Americans. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1812–1813 HARRISON'S NORTHWESTERN CAMPAIGN.

A. D. 1817.—The founding of the University of Michigan. See EDUCATION, MODERN: AMERICA: A. D. 1804–1837.

A. D. 1818-1836.—Extension of Territorial limits to the Mississippi, and then beyond. See WISCONSIN: A. D. 1805–1848.

A. D. 1837.—Admission into the Union as a State.—Settlement of Boundaries.—A conflict between the terms of the constitution under which the state of Ohio was admitted into the Union in 1803 and the Act of Congress which, in 1805, erected the Territory of Michigan, gave rise to a serious boundary dispute between the two. The Michigan claim rested not only upon the Act of 1805, but primarily upon the great Ordinance of 1787. It involved the possession

of a wedge-shaped strip of territory, which "averaged six miles in width, across Ohio, embraced some 468 square miles, and included the lake-port of Toledo and the mouth of the Maumee river." In 1834, Michigan began to urge her claims to statehood. "In December, President Jackson laid the matter before congress in a special message. Congress quietly determined to 'arbitrate' the quarrel by giving to Ohio the disputed tract, and offering Michigan, by way of partial recompense, the whole of what is to-day her upper peninsula; . . . making this settlement of the quarrel one of the conditions precedent to the admission of Michigan into the Union. In September, 1836, a state convention, called for the sole purpose of deciding the question, rejected the proposition on the ground that congress had no right to annex such a condition, according to the terms of the ordinance; a second convention, however, approved of it on the 15th of December following, and congress at once accepted this decision as final. Thus Michigan came into the sisterhood of states, January 26, 1837, with the territorial limits which she possesses to-day."—R. G. Thwaites, *The Boundaries of Wisconsin* (*Wis. Hist. Soc. Coll's, v.* 11, *pp.* 456–460).

ALSO IN: B. A. Hinsdale, *The Old Northwest, ch.* 17.

A. D. 1854.—Rise of the Republican Party. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1854–1855.

MICHIGAN, Lake: The Discovery. See CANADA: A. D. 1634–1673.

MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY. See EDUCATION, MODERN: AMERICA: A. D. 1804–1837.

MICHIGANIA, The proposed State of. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY: A. D. 1784.

MICHILIMACKINAC. See MACKINAW.

MICHMASH, War of.—One of Saul's campaigns against the Philistines received this name from Jonathan's exploit in scaling the height of Michmash and driving the garrison in panic from their stronghold.—I. Samuel XIV.

MICKLEGARTH.—In the early Middle Ages, Constantinople, capital of the Eastern Roman Empire, was the wonder of the barbarian world, "the mysterious 'Micklegarth,' 'the Great City, the Town of towns,' of the northern legends."—R. W. Church, *The Beginning of the Middle Ages, ch.* 6

MICMACS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

MICRONESIA (or Mikronesia).—"North of the equator, between New Guinea and the south coast of Japan, the great ocean is studded with countless little islands, which, running partly parallel with those of Melanesia, form a second and outer zone round the Australian mainland. In consequence of their remarkably small size, they are collectively called Mikronesia, and are conveniently grouped in three archipelagoes. Of these the most easterly is again subdivided into the two clusters of the Gilbert and Marshall Islands [the former belonging to England, the latter under German protection]. Farther west follows the large group of the Carolines [belonging to Spain], including the Pelew Isles, still farther to the west, called also the Western Carolines. North of them are the Ladrones or Mariannes [occupied by the Spaniards since 1565], beyond which, in the same direction, are a number of small groups, the most important of which are the Bonin Isles, on many maps named the Magalhaes, or Anson Archipelago, almost all of which are uninhabited. Most of these groups are inhabited by the fair race scattered over Polynesia, and presenting the most striking contrast to the Papuas of Melanesia."—A. R. Wallace, *Australasia, ch.* 25 (*Stanford's Compendium*).

MICROSCOPE IN MEDICINE, The. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: 17–18TH CENTURIES, and after.

MIDDLE AGES.—"The term Middle Ages is applied to the time which elapsed between the fall of the Roman Empire and the formation of the great modern monarchies, between the first permanent invasion of the Germans, at the beginning of the 5th century of our era [see GAUL: A. D. 406–409], and the last invasion, made by the Turks, ten centuries later, in 1453."—V. Duruy, *Hist. of the Middle Ages, author's pref.*—"It is not possible to fix accurate limits to the Middle Ages; . . . though the ten centuries from the 5th to the 15th seem, in a general point of view, to constitute that period."—H. Hallam, *The Middle Ages, pref. to first ed.*—"We commonly say that ancient history closed with the year 476 A. D. The great fact which marks the close of that age and the beginning of a new one is the conquest of the Western Roman Empire by the German tribes, a process which occupied the whole of the fifth century and more. But if we are to select any special date to mark the change, the year 476 is the best for the purpose. . . . When we turn to the close of medieval history we find no such general agreement as to the specific date which shall be selected to stand for that fact. For one author it is 1453, the fall of the Eastern Roman Empire through the capture of Constantinople by the Turks; for another, 1492, the discovery of America; for another, 1520, the full opening of the Reformation. This variety of date is in itself very significant. It unconsciously marks the extremely important fact that the middle ages come to an end at different dates in the different lines of advance—manifestly earlier in politics and economics than upon the intellectual side. . . . It is a transition age. Lying, as it does, between two ages, in each of which there is an especially rapid advance of civilization, it is not itself primarily an age of progress. As compared with either ancient or modern history, the additions which were made during the middle ages to the common stock of civilization are few and unimportant. Absolutely, perhaps, they are not so. . . . But the most important of them fall within the last part of the period, and they are really indications that the age is drawing to a close, and a new and different one coming on. Progress, however much there may have been, is not its distinctive characteristic. There is a popular recognition of this fact in the general opinion that the medieval is a very barren and uninteresting period of history—the 'dark ages'—so confused and without evident plan that its facts are a mere disorganized jumble, impossible to reduce to system or to hold in mind. This must be emphatically true for every one, unless there can be found running through all its confusion some single line of evolution which will give it meaning and organization. . . . Most certainly there must be some such general meaning of the age. The orderly and regular

progress of history makes it impossible that it should be otherwise. Whether that meaning can be correctly stated or not is much more uncertain. It is the difficulty of doing this which makes medieval history seem so comparatively barren a period. The most evident general meaning of the age is . . . assimilation. The greatest work which had to be done was to bring the German barbarian, who had taken possession of the ancient world and become everywhere the ruling race, up to such a level of attainment and understanding that he would be able to take up the work of civilization where antiquity had been forced to suspend it and go on with it from that point. . . . Here, then, is the work of the middle ages. To the results of ancient history were to be added the ideas and institutions of the Germans; to the enfeebled Roman race was to be added the youthful energy and vigor of the German. Under the conditions which existed this union could not be made—a harmonious and homogeneous Christendom could not be formed, except through centuries of time, through anarchy, and ignorance, and superstition."—G. B. Adams, *Civilization During the Middle Ages, introd.*—"We speak, sometimes, of the 'Dark Ages,' and in matters of the exact sciences perhaps they were dark enough. Yet we must deduct something from our youthful ideas of their obscurity when we find that our truest lovers of beauty fix the building age of the world between the years 500 and 1500 of our era. Architecture, more than any other art, is an index to the happiness and freedom of the people; and during this period of 1,000 years, 'an architecture, pure in its principles, reasonable in its practice, and beautiful to the eyes of all men, even the simplest,' covered Europe with beautiful buildings from Constantinople to the north of Britain. In presence of this manifestation of free and productive intelligence, unmatched even in ancient Greece and Rome, and utterly unmatchable to-day, we may usefully reflect upon the expressive and constructive force of the spirit of Christendom, even in its darkest hours. The more closely we examine the question, the less ground we shall find for the conception of the Middle Ages as a long sleep followed by a sudden awakening. Rather we should consider that ancient Greece was the root, and ancient Rome the stem and branches of our life; that the Dark Ages, as we call them, represent its flower, and the modern world of science and political freedom the slowly-matured fruit. If we consider carefully that the Christian humanistic spirit held itself as charged from the first with the destinies of the illiterate and half-heathen masses of the European peoples, whereas, neither in Greece nor in the Roman Empire was civilisation intended for more than a third or a fourth part of the inhabitants of their territories, we shall not be surprised at an apparent fall of intellectual level, which really meant the beginning of a universal rise hitherto unknown in the history of the world. Ideas of this kind may help us to understand what must remain after all a paradox, that we have been taught to apply the term 'Dark Ages' to the period of what were in some respects the greatest achievements of the human mind, for example, the Cathedral of Florence and the writings of Dante. . . . It is perfectly obvious now to all who look carefully at these questions, that the instinct of our physical science and naturalistic art, of our evolutionist philosophy and democratic politics, is not antagonistic to, but is essentially one with the instinct which, in the Middle Ages, regarded all beauty and truth and power as the working of the Divine reason in the mind of man and in nature. What a genuine though grotesque anticipation of Charles Darwin is there in Francis of Assisi preaching to the birds!"—B. Bosanquet, *The Civilization of Christendom, ch. 3.*—"'I know nothing of those ages which knew nothing.' I really forget to which of two eminent wits this saying belongs; but I have often thought that I should have liked to ask him how he came to know so curious and important a fact respecting ages of which he knew nothing. Was it merely by hearsay? Everybody allows, however, that they were dark ages. Certainly, but what do we mean by darkness? Is not the term, as it is generally used, comparative? Suppose I were to say that I am writing 'in a little dark room,' would you understand me to mean that I could not see the paper before me? Or if I should say that I was writing 'on a dark day,' would you think I meant that the sun had not risen by noon? Well, then, let me beg you to remember this, when you and I use the term, dark ages. . . . Many causes . . . have concurred to render those ages very dark to us; but, for the present, I feel it sufficient to remind the reader, that darkness is quite a different thing from shutting the eyes; and that we have no right to complain that we can see but little until we have used due diligence to see what we can. As to the other point—that is, as to the degree of darkness in which those ages were really involved, and as to the mode and degree in which it affected those who lived in them, I must express my belief, that it has been a good deal exaggerated. There is no doubt that those who lived in what are generally called the 'middle' or the 'dark' ages, knew nothing of many things which are familiar to us, and which we deem essential to our comfort, and almost to our existence; but still I doubt whether, even in this point of view, they were so entirely dark as some would have us suppose."—S. R. Maitland, *The Dark Ages, introd.*—"In the Middle Ages both sides of human consciousness—that which was turned within as that which was turned without—lay dreaming or half-awake beneath a common veil. The veil was woven of faith, illusion, and childish prepossession, through which the world and history were seen clad in strange hues. Man was conscious of himself only as a member of a race, people, party, family, or corporation—only through some general category. In Italy this veil first melted into air; an objective treatment and consideration of the state and of all the things of this world became possible. The subjective side at the same time asserted itself with corresponding emphasis; man became a spiritual individual, and recognised himself as such."—J. Burckhardt, *The Renaissance in Italy, pt. 2, ch. 1 (v. 1)*—See, also, EUROPE; EDUCATION, MEDIÆVAL; LIBRARIES, MEDIÆVAL; MEDICAL SCIENCE, MEDIÆVAL; MONEY AND BANKING, MEDIÆVAL; TRADE, MEDIÆVAL.

MIDDLE KINGDOM. See CHINA.

MIDDLEBURG: Taken by the Gueux. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1573–1574.

MIDDLESEX, Origin of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 477–527.

MIDDLESEX ELECTIONS, John Wilkes and the. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1768–1774.

MIDIANITES, The.—"The name of Midian, though sometimes given peculiarly to the tribe on the south-east shores of the Gulf of Akaba, was extended to all Arabian tribes on the east of the Jordan."—Dean Stanley, *Lects. on the Hist. of the Jewish Church, lect.* 15 (*v.* 1).

MIDSUMMER DAY. See QUARTER DAYS.

MIGDOL. See JEWS: THE ROUTE OF THE EXODUS.

MIGHTY HOST, Knights of the. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (OCTOBER).

MIGNONS OF HENRY III., The. See FRANCE: A. D. 1573–1576.

MIKADO.—"Though this is the name by which the whole outer world knows the sovereign of Japan, it is not that now used in Japan itself, except in poetry and on great occasions. The Japanese have got into the habit of calling their sovereign by such alien Chinese titles as Tenshi, 'the Son of Heaven'; Ten-ō, or Tennō, 'the Heavenly Emperor'; Shujo, 'the Supreme Master.' His designation in the official translations of modern public documents into English is 'Emperor.' . . . The etymology of the word Mikado is not quite clear. Some—and theirs is the current opinion—trace it to 'mi,' 'august,' and 'kado,' a 'gate,' reminding one of the 'Sublime Porte' of Turkey. . . . The word Mikado is often employed to denote the monarch's Court as well as the monarch himself."—B. H. Chamberlain, *Things Japanese, p.* 229.

MIKASUKIS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY.

MILAN, King, Abdication of. See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES: A. D. 1879–1889.

MILAN: B. C. 223-222.—The capital of the Insubrian Gauls (Mediolanum).—Taken by the Romans. See ROME: B. C. 295–191.

A. D. 268.—Aureolus besieged.—During the miserable and calamitous reign of the Roman emperor Gallienus, the army on the Upper Danube invested their leader, Aureolus, with the imperial purple, and crossed the Alps to place him on the throne. Defeated by Gallienus in a battle fought near Milan, Aureolus and his army took refuge in that city and were there besieged. During the progress of the siege a conspiracy against Gallienus was formed in his own camp, and he was assassinated. The crown was then offered to the soldier Claudius—afterwards called Claudius Gothicus—and he accepted it. The siege of Milan was continued by Claudius, the city was forced to surrender and Aureolus was put to death.—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 11.

A. D. 286.—The Roman imperial court.—"Diocletian and Maximian were the first Roman princes who fixed, in time of peace, their ordinary residence in the provinces. . . . The court of the emperor of the west [Maximian] was, for the most part, established at Milan, whose situation, at the foot of the Alps, appeared far more convenient than that of Rome, for the important purpose of watching the motions of the barbarians of Germany. Milan soon assumed the splendour of an imperial city. The houses are described as numerous and well-built; the manners of the people as polished and liberal."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 18.

A. D. 313.—Constantine's Edict of Toleration. See ROME: A. D. 313.

A. D. 374-397.—The Ambrosian Church.—The greatness of the Milanese, in later times, "was chiefly originated and promoted by the prerogatives of their Archbishop, amongst which that of crowning, and so in a manner constituting, the King of Italy, raised him in wealth and splendour above every other prelate of the Roman Church, and his city above every other city of Lombardy in power and pride. . . . It is said that the Church of Milan was founded by St. Barnabas; it is certain that it owed its chief aggrandisement, and the splendour which distinguished it from all other churches, to St. Ambrose [Archbishop from 374 to 397], who, having come to Milan in the time of Valentinian as a magistrate, was by the people made Bishop also, and as such was able to exalt it by the ordination of many inferior dignitaries, and by obtaining supremacy for it over all the Bishops of Lombardy. . . . This church received from St. Ambrose a peculiar liturgy, which was always much loved and venerated by the Milanese, and continued longer in use than any of those which anciently prevailed in other churches of the West. To the singing in divine service, which was then artless and rude, St. Ambrose, taking for models the ancient melodies still current in his time, the last echoes of the civilisation of distant ages, imparted a more regular rhythm [known as 'the Ambrosian Chant']; which, when reduced by St. Gregory to the grave simplicity of tone that best accords with the majesty of worship, obtained the name of 'Canto fermo'; and afterwards becoming richer, more elaborate, and easier to learn through the many ingenious inventions of Guido d' Arezzo, . . . was brought by degrees to the perfection of modern counterpoint. . . . St. Ambrose also composed prayers for his church, and hymns; amongst others, according to popular belief, that most sublime and majestic one, the Te Deum, which is now familiar and dear to the whole of Western Christendom. It is said that his clergy were not forbidden to marry. Hence an opinion prevailed that this church, according to the ancient statutes, ought not to be entirely subject to that of Rome."—G. B. Testa, *Hist. of the War of Frederick I. against the Communes of Lombardy, pp.* 23–24.

A. D. 404.—Removal of the Imperial Court. See ROME: A. D. 404–408.

A. D. 452.—Capture by the Huns. See HUNS: A. D. 452.

A. D. 539.—Destroyed by the Goths.—When Belisarius, in his first campaign for the recovery of Italy from the Goths, had secured possession of Rome, A. D. 538, he sent a small force northward to Milan, and that city, hating its Gothic rulers, was gladly surrendered to him. It was occupied by a small Roman garrison and unwisely left to the attacks upon it that were inevitable. Very soon the Goths appeared before its walls, and with them 10,000 Burgundians who had crossed the Alps to their assistance. Belisarius despatched an army to the relief of the city, but the generals in command of it were cowardly and did nothing. After stoutly resisting for six months, suffering the last extremes of starvation and misery, Milan fell, and a terrible vengeance was wreaked upon it. "All the men were slain, and these, if the information

given to Procopius was correct, amounted to 300,000. The women were made slaves, and handed over by the Goths to their Burgundian allies in payment of their services. The city itself was rased to the ground: not the only time that signal destruction has overtaken the fair capital of Lombardy."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her Invaders, bk.* 5, *ch.* 11.—See, also, Rome: A. D. 535–553.—"The Goths, in their last moments, were revenged by the destruction of a city second only to Rome in size and opulence."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 41.

11th Century.—Acquisition of Republican independence. See Italy. A. D. 1050–1152

A. D. 1162.—Total destruction by Frederick Barbarossa. See Italy: A. D. 1154-1162.

A. D. 1167.—The rebuilding of the city. See Italy: A. D. 1166–1167.

A. D. 1277-1447.—The rise and the reign of the Visconti.—Extension of their Tyranny over Lombardy.—The downfall of their House.—"The power of the Visconti in Milan was founded upon that of the Della Torre family, who preceded them as Captains General of the people at the end of the 13th century. Otho, Archbishop of Milan, first laid a substantial basis for the dominion of his house by imprisoning Napoleone Della Torre and five of his relatives in three iron cages in 1277, and by causing his nephew Matteo Visconti to be nominated both by the Emperor and by the people of Milan as imperial Vicar. Matteo, who headed the Ghibelline party in Lombardy, was the model of a prudent Italian despot. From the date 1311, when he finally succeeded in his attempts upon the sovereignty of Milan [see Italy: A. D. 1310–1313], to 1322, when he abdicated in favour of his son Galeazzo, he ruled his states by force of character, craft, and insight, more than by violence or cruelty. Excellent as a general, he was still better as a diplomatist, winning more cities by money than by the sword. All through his life, as became a Ghibelline chief at that time, he persisted in fierce enmity against the Church. . . . Galeazzo, his son, was less fortunate than Matteo, surnamed Il Grande by the Lombards. The Emperor Louis of Bavaria threw him into prison on the occasion of his visit to Milan in 1327 [see Italy: A. D. 1313–1330], and only released him at the intercession of his friend Castruccio Castracane. To such an extent was the growing tyranny of the Visconti still dependent upon their office delegated from the Empire. . . . Azzo [the son of Galeazzo] bought the city, together with the title of Imperial Vicar, from the same Louis who had imprisoned his father. When he was thus seated in the tyranny of his grandfather, he proceeded to fortify it further by the addition of ten Lombard towns, which he reduced beneath the supremacy of Milan. At the same time he consolidated his own power by the murder of his uncle Marco in 1329, who had grown too mighty as a general. . . . Azzo died in 1339, and was succeeded by his uncle Lucchino," who was poisoned by his wife in 1349. "Lucchino was potent as a general and governor. He bought Parma from Obizzo d' Este, and made the town of Pisa dependent upon Milan. . . . Lucchino left sons, but none of proved legitimacy. Consequently he was succeeded by his brother Giovanni, son of old Matteo Il Grande and Archbishop of Milan. This man, the friend of Petrarch, was one of the most notable characters of the 14th century. Finding himself at the head of 16 cities, he added Bologna to the tyranny of the Visconti, in 1350, and made himself strong enough to defy the Pope. . . . In 1353 Giovanni annexed Genoa to the Milanese principality, and died in 1354, having established the rule of the Visconti over the whole of the north of Italy, with the exception of Piedmont, Verona, Mantua, Ferrara, and Venice. The reign of the Archbishop Giovanni marks a new epoch in the despotism of the Visconti. They are now no longer the successful rivals of the Della Torre family, or dependents on imperial caprice, but self-made sovereigns, with a well-established power in Milan and a wide extent of subject territory. Their dynasty, though based on force and maintained by violence, has come to be acknowledged; and we shall soon see them allying themselves with the royal houses of Europe. After the death of Giovanni, Matteo's sons were extinct. But Stefano, the last of his family, had left three children, who now succeeded to the lands and cities of the house. They were named Matteo, Bernabo, and Galeazzo. Between these three princes a partition of the heritage of Giovanni Visconti was effected . . . Milan and Genoa were to be ruled by the three in common." Matteo was put out of the way by his two brothers in 1355. Bernabo reigned brutally at Milan, and Galeazzo with great splendor at Pavia. The latter married his daughter to the Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III. of England, and his son to Princess Isabella, of France. "Galeazzo died in 1378, and was succeeded in his own portion of the Visconti domain by his son Gian Galeazzo," who was able, seven years afterwards, by singular refinements of treachery, to put his uncle to death and take possession of his territories. "The reign of Gian Galeazzo, which began with this coup-de-main (1385–1402), forms a very important chapter in Italian history. . . . At the time of his accession the Visconti had already rooted out the Correggi and Rossi of Parma, the Scotti of Piacenza, the Pelavicini of San Donnino, the Tornielli of Novara, the Ponzoni and Cavalcabò of Cremona, the Beccaria and Languschi of Pavia, the Fisiraghi of Lodi the Brusati of Brescia. . . . But the Carrara family still ruled at Padua, the Gonzaga at Mantua, the Este at Ferrara, while the great house of Scala was in possession of Verona. Gian Galeazzo's schemes were at first directed against the Scala dynasty. Founded, like that of the Visconti, upon the imperial authority, it rose to its greatest height under the Ghibelline general Can Grande and his nephew Mastino in the first half of the 14th century (1312–1351). Mastino had himself cherished the project of an Italian Kingdom; but he died before approaching its accomplishment. The degeneracy of his house began with his three sons. The two younger killed the eldest; of the survivors the stronger slew the weaker and then died in 1374, leaving his domains to two of his bastards. One of these, named Antonio, killed the other in 1381, and afterwards fell a prey to the Visconti in 1387. In his subjugation of Verona Gian Galeazzo contrived to make use of the Carrara family, although these princes were allied by marriage to the Scaligers, and had everything to lose by their downfall. He next proceeded to attack Padua, and gained the co-operation of

Venice. In 1388 Francesco da Carrara had to cede his territory to Visconti's generals, who in the same year possessed themselves for him of the Trevisan Marches. It was then that the Venetians saw too late the error they had committed in suffering Verona and Padua to be annexed by the Visconti. . . . Having now made himself master of the north of Italy with the exception of Mantua, Ferrara, and Bologna, Gian Galeazzo turned his attention to these cities." By intrigues of devilish subtlety and malignity, he drew the Marquis of Ferrara and the Marquis of Mantua into crimes which were their ruin, and made his conquest of those cities easy. "The whole of Lombardy was now prostrate before the Milanese viper. His next move was to set foot in Tuscany. For this purpose Pisa had to be acquired; and here again he resorted to his devilish policy of inciting other men to crimes by which he alone would profit in the long run. Pisa was ruled at that time by the Gambacorta family, with an old merchant named Pietro at their head." Gian Galeazzo caused Pietro to be assassinated, and then bought the city from the assassins (1399). "In 1399 the Duke laid hands on Siena; and in the next two years the plague came to his assistance by enfeebling the ruling families of Lucca and Bologna, the Guinizzi and the Bentivogli, so that he was now able to take possession of those cities. There remained no power in Italy, except the Republic of Florence and the exiled but invincible Francesco da Carrara, to withstand his further progress. Florence [see FLORENCE: A.D. 1390–1402] delayed his conquests in Tuscany. Francesco managed to return to Padua. Still the peril which threatened the whole of Italy was imminent. . . . At last, when all other hope of independence for Italy had failed, the plague broke out with fury in Lombardy," and Gian Galeazzo died of it in 1402, aged 55. "At his death his two sons were still mere boys. . . . The generals refused to act with them, and each seized upon such portions of the Visconti inheritance as he could most easily acquire. The vast tyranny of the first Duke of Milan fell to pieces in a day." The dominion which his elder son lost (see ITALY: A. D. 1402–1406) and which his younger son regained (see ITALY: A. D. 1412–1447) slipped from the family on the death of the last of them, in 1447.—J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy: The Age of the Despots, ch.* 2. —"At the end of the fourteenth century their [the Visconti's] informal lordship passed by a royal grant [from the Emperor Wenceslaus to Gian-Galeazzo, A. D. 1395] into an acknowledged duchy of the Empire. The dominion which they had gradually gained, and which was thus in a manner legalized, took in all the great cities of Lombardy, those especially which had formed the Lombard League against the Swabian Emperors. Pavia indeed, the ancient rival of Milan, kept a kind of separate being, and was formed into a distinct county. But the duchy granted by Wenceslaus to Gian-Galeazzo stretched far on both sides of the lake of Garda."—E. A. Freeman, *Historical Geog. of Europe, ch.* 8, *sect.* 3.

ALSO IN: J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Hist. of the Italian Republics, ch.* 4.—G. Procter (G. Perceval, pseud.), *Hist. of Italy, ch.* 4–5 (*v.* 1).—T. A. Trollope, *Hist. of the Commonwealth of Florence, bk.* 4, *ch.* 4–6 (*v.* 2).

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

A. D. 1422.—The sovereignty of Genoa surrendered to the Duke. See GENOA: A. D. 1381–1422.

A. D. 1447-1454.—Competitors for the ducal succession to the Visconti.—The prize carried off by Francesco Sforza.—War of Milan and Florence with Venice, Naples, Savoy, and other states.— John Galeazzo Visconti had married (as stated above) a daughter of King John of France. "Valentine Visconti, one of the children of this marriage, married her cousin, Louis, duke of Orleans, the only brother of Charles VI. In their marriage contract, which the pope confirmed, it was stipulated that, upon failure of heirs male in the family of Visconti, the duchy of Milan should descend to the posterity of Valentine and the duke of Orleans. That event took place. In the year 1447, Philip Maria, the last prince of the ducal family of Visconti, died. Various competitors claimed the succession. Charles, duke of Orleans, pleaded his right to it, founded on the marriage contract of his mother, Valentine Visconti. Alfonso, king of Naples, claimed it in consequence of a will made by Philip Maria in his favor. The emperor contended that, upon the extinction of male issue in the family of Visconti, the fief returned to the superior lord, and ought to be re-annexed to the empire. The people of Milan, smitten with the love of liberty which in that age prevailed among the Italian states, declared against the dominion of any master, and established a republican form of government. But during the struggle among so many competitors, the prize for which they contended was seized by one from whom none of them apprehended any danger. Francis Sforza, the natural son of Jacomuzzo Sforza, whom his courage and abilities had elevated from the rank of a peasant to be one of the most eminent and powerful of the Italian condottieri, having succeeded his father in the command of the adventurers who followed his standard, had married a natural daughter of the last duke of Milan [see ITALY: A. D. 1412–1447]. Upon this shadow of a title Francis founded his pretensions to the duchy, which he supported with such talents and valor as placed him at last on the ducal throne."—W. Robertson, *Hist. of Charles the Fifth: View of the Progress of Society, sect.* 3. —"Francesco Sforza possessed himself of the supreme power by treachery and force of arms, but he saved for half a century the independence of a State which, after 170 years of tyranny, was no longer capable of life as a commonwealth, and furthered its prosperity, while he powerfully contributed to the formation of a political system which, however great its weakness, was the most reasonable under existing circumstances. Without the aid of Florence and Cosimo de' Medici, he would not have attained his ends. Cosimo had recognised his ability in the war with Visconti, and made a close alliance with him. . . . It was necessary to choose between Sforza and Venice, for there was only one alternative: either the condottiere would make himself Duke of Milan, or the Republic of San Marco would extend its rule over all Lombardy. In Florence several voices declared in favour of the old ally on the Adriatic. . . . Cosimo de' Medici gave the casting-vote in Sforza's favour.

. . . Without Florentine money, Sforza would never have been able to maintain the double contest — on the one side against Milan, which he blockaded and starved out; and on the other against the Venetians, who sought to relieve it, and whom he repulsed. And when, on March 25, 1450, he made his entry into the city which proclaimed him ruler, he was obliged to maintain himself with Florentine money till he had established his position and re-organised the State. . . . Common animosity to Florence and Sforza drew Venice and the king [Alfonso, of Naples] nearer to one another, and at the end of 1451 an alliance, offensive and defensive, was concluded against them, which Siena, Savoy, and Montferrat joined. . . . On May 16, 1452, the Republic, and, four weeks later, King Alfonso, declared war, which the Emperor Frederick III., then in Italy, and Pope Nicholas V., successor to Eugenius IV. since 1447, in vain endeavoured to prevent." The next year "a foreign event contributed more than all to terminate this miserable war. . . . On May 29, 1453, Mohammed II. stormed Constantinople. The West was threatened, more especially Venice, which had such great and wealthy possessions in the Levant, and Naples This time the excellent Pope Nicholas V. did not exert himself in vain. On April 9, 1454, Venice concluded a tolerably favourable peace with Francesco Sforza at Lodi, in which King Alfonso, Florence, Savoy, Montferrat, Mantua, and Siena, were to be included. The king, who had made considerable preparations for war, did not ratify the compact till January 26 of the following year. The States of Northern and Central Italy then joined in an alliance, and a succession of peaceful years followed."— A. von Reumont, *Lorenzo de' Medici, bk.* 1, *ch.* 7 (*v.* 1).

ALSO IN: W. P. Urquhart, *Life and Times of Francesco Sforza.*—A. M. F. Robinson, *The End of the Middle Ages: Valentine Visconti.— The French Claim to Milan.*

A. D. 1464.—Renewed surrender of Genoa to the Duke. See GENOA: A. D. 1458–1464.

A. D. 1492-1496.—The usurpation of Ludovico, the Moor.—His invitation to Charles VIII. of France.—The French invasion of Italy. See ITALY: A. D. 1492–1494; and 1494–1496.

A. D. 1499-1500.—Conquest by Louis XII. of France.—His claim by right of Valentine Visconti. See ITALY: A. D. 1499–1500.

A. D. 1501.—Treaty for the investiture of Louis XII. as Duke, by the Emperor Maximilian. See ITALY: A. D. 1501–1504.

A. D. 1512.—Expulsion of the French and restoration of the Sforzas.—Notwithstanding the success of the French at Ravenna, in their struggle with the Holy League formed against them by Pope Julius II. (see ITALY: A. D. 1510–1513), they could not hold their ground in Italy. "Cremona shook off the yoke of France, and city after city followed her example. Nor did it seem possible longer to hold Milan in subjection. That versatile state, after twice bending the neck to Louis, a second time grew weary of his government; and greedily listened to the proposal of the Pope to set upon the throne Massimiliano Sforza, son of their late Duke Ludovico. Full of this project the people of Milan rose simultaneously to avenge the cruelties of the French; the soldiers and merchants remaining in the city were plundered, and about 1,500 put to the sword. The retreating army was harassed by the Lombards, and severely galled by the Swiss: and after encountering the greatest difficulties, the French crossed the Alps, having preserved none of their conquests in Lombardy except the citadel of Milan, and a few other fortresses. . . . At the close of the year, Massimiliano Sforza made his triumphal entry into Milan, with the most extravagant ebullitions of delight on the part of the people."—Sir R. Comyn, *Hist. of the Western Empire, ch* 37 (*v.* 2)

A. D. 1515.—French reconquest by Francis I.—Final overthrow of the Sforzas. See FRANCE: A. D. 1515; and 1515–1518.

A. D. 1517.—Abortive attempt of the Emperor Maximilian against the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1516–1517.

A. D. 1521-1522.—The French again expelled. See FRANCE: A. D. 1520–1523.

A. D. 1524-1525. — Recaptured and lost again by Francis I. of France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1523–1525.

A. D. 1527-1529.—Renewed attack of the French king.—Its disastrous end.—Renunciation of the French claim. See ITALY: A. D. 1527–1529.

A. D. 1544.—Repeated renunciation of the claims of Francis I.—The duchy becomes a dependency of the Spanish crown. See FRANCE: A. D. 1532–1547.

A. D. 1635-1638.—Invasion of the duchy by French and Italian armies. See ITALY: A. D. 1635–1659.

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

A. D. 1745.—Occupied by the Spaniards and French. See ITALY: A. D. 1745.

A. D. 1746.—Recovered by the Austrians. See ITALY: A. D. 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.—Occupation by the French.—Bonaparte's pillage of the Art-galleries and Churches. See FRANCE: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER).

A. D. 1799.—Evacuation by the French. 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.—Coronation of Napoleon as king of Italy. See FRANCE: A. D. 1804–1805.

A. D. 1807-1808.— Napoleon's adornment of the city and its cathedral. See FRANCE: A. D. 1807–1808 (NOVEMBER—FEBRUARY).

A. D. 1814-1815.—Restored to Austria. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (APRIL — JUNE); and VIENNA, THE CONGRESS OF.

A. D. 1848-1849.—Insurrection.—Expulsion of the Austrians.— Failure of the struggle. See ITALY: A. D. 1848–1849.

A. D. 1859.—Liberation from the Austrians. See ITALY: A. D. 1856–1859; and 1859–1861.

MILAN DECREE, The. See FRANCE: A. D. 1806–1810; also, UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1804–1809.

MILANESE, OR MILANESS, The.—The district or duchy of Milan.

MILESIANS, Irish.—In Irish legendary history, the followers of Miled, who came from the north of Spain and were the last of the four races

which colonized Ireland.—T. Wright, *Hist. of Ireland, bk.* 1, *ch.* 2 (*v.* 1).—See IRELAND: THE PRIMITIVE INHABITANTS.

MILETUS.—Miletus, on the coast of Asia Minor, near its southwestern extremity, "with her four harbours, had been the earliest anchorage on the entire coast. Phœnicians, Cretans, and Carians, had inaugurated her world-wide importance, and Attic families, endowed with eminent energy, had founded the city anew [see ASIA MINOR: THE GREEK COLONIES]. True, Miletus also had a rich territory of her own in her rear, viz., the broad valley of the Mæander, where among other rural pursuits particularly the breeding of sheep flourished. Miletus became the principal market for the finer sorts of wool; and the manufacture of this article into variegated tapestry and coloured stuffs for clothing employed a large multitude of human beings. But this industry also continued in an increasing measure to demand importation from without of all kinds of materials of art, articles of food, and slaves [see ASIA MINOR: B. C. 724–539]. In no city was agriculture made a consideration so secondary to industry and trade as here. At Miletus, the maritime trade even came to form a particular party among the citizens, the so-called 'Aeinautæ,' the 'men never off the water.'"—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece, bk.* 2, *ch.* 3 (*v.* 1).—Miletus took an early leading part in the great Ionian enterprises of colonization and trade, particularly in the Pontus, or Black Sea, where the Milesians succeeded the Phœnicians, establishing important commercial settlements at Sinope, Cyzicus and elsewhere. They were among the last of the Asiatic Ionians to succumb to the Lydian monarchy, and they were the first to revolt against the Persian domination, when that had taken the place of the Lydian. The great revolt failed and Miletus was practically destroyed [see PERSIA: B. C. 521–493]. Recovering some importance it was destroyed again by Alexander. Once more rising under the Roman empire, it was destroyed finally by the Turks and its very ruins have not been identified with certainty.

B. C. 412.—Revolt from Athens. See GREECE: B. C. 413–412.

MILITARY-RELIGIOUS ORDERS. See HOSPITALLERS; TEMPLARS; TEUTONIC KNIGHTS; and ST. LAZARUS, KNIGHTS OF.

MILL SPRING, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JANUARY—FEBRUARY: KENTUCKY—TENNESSEE).

MILLENNIAL YEAR, The.—"It has often been stated that in the tenth century there was a universal belief that the end of the world was to happen in the year 1000 A. D. This representation has recently been subjected to a critical scrutiny by Elken, Le Roy, and Orsi, and found to be an unwarrantable exaggeration. It would be still less applicable to any century earlier or later than the tenth. A conviction of the impending destruction of the world, however, was not uncommon at almost any period of the middle age. It is frequently found expressed."—R. Flint, *History of the Philosophy of History: France, etc., pp.* 101–102.

MILLIONS FOR DEFENCE, not one cent for tribute. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1797–1799

MILLS TARIFF BILL. See TARIFF LEGISLATION: A. D. 1884–1888.

MILOSCH OBRENOVITCH, The career of. See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES: 14–19TH CENTURIES (SERVIA).

MILTIADES. See GREECE: B. C. 490; also, ATHENS: B. C. 501–490, and B. C. 489–480.

MILVIAN BRIDGE, Battle of the (B. C. 78). See ROME: B. C. 78–68.

MIMS, Fort, The Massacre at. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1813–1814 (AUG.—APRIL).

MINA. See TALENT; also, SHEKEL.

MINCIO, Battle of the. See ITALY: A. D. 1814.

MINDANAO. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

MINDEN, Battle of. See GERMANY: A. D. 1759 (APRIL—AUGUST).

MINE RUN MOVEMENT, The. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (JULY—NOVEMBER: VIRGINIA).

MING DYNASTY, The. See CHINA: THE ORIGIN OF THE PEOPLE, &c.; and 1294–1882.

MINGELSHEIM, Battle of (1622). See GERMANY: A. D. 1621–1623.

MINGOES, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MINGOES.

MINIMS.—"Of the orders which arose in the 15th century, the most remarkable was that of Eremites [Hermits] of St. Francis, or Minims, founded . . . by St. Francis of Paola, and approved by Sixtus IV. in 1474." St. Francis, a Minorite friar of Calabria, was one of the devotees whom Louis XI. of France gathered about himself during his last days, in the hope that their intercessions might prolong his life. To propitiate him, Louis "founded convents at Plessis and at Amboise for the new religious society, the members of which, not content with the name of Minorites, desired to signify their profession of utter insignificance by styling themselves Minims."—J. C. Robertson, *Hist. of the Christian Church, v.* 8, *pp.* 369 *and* 224.

MINISTRY.—MINISTERIAL GOVERNMENT, The English. See CABINET, THE ENGLISH.

MINNE. See GUILDS OF FLANDERS.

MINNESOTA: The aboriginal inhabitants. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: SIOUAN FAMILY.

A. D. 1803.—Part acquired in the Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1798–1803.

A. D. 1834-1838.—Joined to Michigan Territory; then to Wisconsin; then to Iowa. See WISCONSIN: A. D. 1805–1848.

A. D. 1849-1858.—Territorial and State organizations.—Minnesota was organized as a Territory in 1849, and as a State in 1858.

MINNESOTA UNIVERSITY. See EDUCATION, MODERN: AMERICA: A. D. 1851–1869.

MINNETAREES, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: HIDATSA, and SIOUAN FAMILY.

MINORCA: 13th Century.—Conquest by King James of Aragon. See SPAIN: A. D. 1212–1288.

A. D. 1708.—Acquisition by England.—In 1708, during the War of the Spanish Succession, Port Mahon, and the whole island of Minorca, were taken by an English expedition from Barcelona, under General Stanhope, who afterwards received a title from his conquest, becoming Viscount Stanhope of Mahon. Port Mahon was then

considered the best harbor in the Mediterranean and its importance to England was rated above that of Gibraltar.—Earl Stanhope, *Hist. of Eng.: Reign of Queen Anne, ch.* 10.—See SPAIN: A. D. 1707–1710.—At the Peace of Utrecht Minorca was ceded to Great Britain and remained under the British flag during the greater part of the 18th century. See UTRECHT: A. D. 1712–1714.

A. D. 1756.—Taken by the French.—At the outbreak of the Seven Years War, in 1756, there was great dread in England of an immediate French invasion; and "the Government so thoroughly lost heart as to request the King to garrison England with Hanoverian troops. This dread was kept alive by a simulated collection of French troops in the north. But, under cover of this threat, a fleet was being collected at Toulon, with the real design of capturing Minorca. The ministry were at last roused to this danger, and Byng was despatched with ten sail of the line to prevent it. Three days after he set sail the Duke de Richelieu, with 16,000 men, slipped across into the island, and compelled General Blakeney, who was somewhat old and infirm, to withdraw into the castle of St. Philip, which was at once besieged. On the 19th of May — much too late to prevent the landing of Richelieu — Byng arrived within view of St. Philip, which was still in the possession of the English. The French Admiral, La Galissonnière, sailed out to cover the siege, and Byng, who apparently felt himself unequally matched — although West, his second in command, behaved with gallantry and success — called a council of war, and withdrew. Blakeney, who had defended his position with great bravery, had to surrender. The failure of Byng, and the general weakness and incapacity of the ministry, roused the temper of the people to rage; and Newcastle, trembling for himself, threw all the blame upon the Admiral, hoping by this means to satisfy the popular cry. . . . A court martial held upon that officer had been bound by strict instructions, and had found itself obliged to bring in a verdict of guilty, though without casting any imputation on the personal courage of the Admiral. On his accession to power Pitt was courageous enough, although he rested on the popular favour, to do his best to get Byng pardoned, and urged on the King that the House of Commons seemed to wish the sentence to be mitigated. The King is said to have answered in words that fairly describe Pitt's position, 'Sir, you have taught me to look for the sense of my subjects in another place than the House of Commons.' The sentence was carried out, and Byng was shot on the quarter-deck of the 'Monarque' at Portsmouth (March 14, 1757)."—J. F. Bright, *Hist. of Eng., period* 8, *pp.* 1021-1022.

A. D. 1763.—Restored to England by the Treaty of Paris. See SEVEN YEARS WAR: THE TREATIES.

A. D. 1782.—Captured by the Spaniards. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1780–1782.

A. D. 1802.—Ceded to Spain by the Treaty of Amiens. See FRANCE: A. D. 1801–1802.

MINORITES, The.—The Franciscan friars, called by their founder "Fratri Minori," bore very commonly the name of the Minorites. See MENDICANT ORDERS.

MINQUAS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY, and SUSQUEHANNAS.

MINSIS, OR MUNSEES, OR MINISINKS. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY, and DELAWARES; and, also, MANHATTAN ISLAND.

MINTO, Lord, The Indian administration of. See INDIA: A. D. 1805–1816.

MINUTE-MEN. See MASSACHUSETTS: A. D. 1774.

MINYI, The.—"The race [among the Greeks] which . . . first issues forth with a history of its own from the dark background of the Pelasgian people is that of the Minyi. The cycle of their heroes includes Iason and Euneus, his son, who trades with Phœnicians and with Greeks. . . . The myths of the Argo were developed in the greatest completeness on the Pagasæan gulf, in the seats of the Minyi; and they are the first with whom a perceptible movement of the Pelasgean tribes beyond the sea — in other words, a Greek history in Europe — begins. The Minyi spread both by land and sea. They migrated southwards into the fertile fields of Bœotia, and settled on the southern side of the Copaic valley by the sea. . . . After leaving the low southern coast they founded a new city at the western extremity of the Bœotian valley. There a long mountain ridge juts out from the direction of Parnassus, and round its farthest projection flows in a semicircle the Cephissus. At the lower edge of the height lies the village of Skripu. Ascending from its huts, one passes over primitive lines of wall to the peak of the mountain, only approachable by a rocky staircase of a hundred steps, and forming the summit of a castle. This is the second city of the Minyi in Bœotia, called Orchomenus: like the first, the most ancient walled royal seat which can be proved to have existed in Hellas, occupying a proud and commanding position over the valley by the sea. Only a little above the dirty huts of clay rises out of the depths of the soil the mighty block of marble, more than twenty feet high, which covered the entrance of a round building. The ancients called it the treasury of Minyas, in the vaults of which the ancient kings were believed to have hoarded the superfluity of their treasures of gold and silver, and in these remains endeavoured to recall to themselves the glory of Orchomenus sung by Homer."—E. Curtius, *Hist. of Greece, bk.* 1, *ch.* 8 (*v.* 1).—See, also, BŒOTIA; and GREECE: THE MIGRATIONS.

MIR, The Russian.—"The 'mir' is a commune, whose bond is unity of autonomy and of possession of land. Sometimes the mir is a single village. In this case the economic administration adapts itself exactly to the civil. Again, it may happen that a large village is divided into many rural communes. Then each commune has its special economic administration, whilst the civil and police administration is common to all. Sometimes, lastly, a number of villages only have one mir. Thus the size of the mir may vary from 20 or 30 to some thousands of 'dvors.' . . . The 'dvor,' or court, is the economic unit: it contains one or several houses, and one or several married couples lodge in it. The 'dvor' has only one hedge and one gate in common for its inmates. . . . With the Great Russians the mir regulates even the ground that the houses stand on; the mir has the right to shift about the 'dvors.' . . . Besides land, the communes have property of another kind: fish-lakes, communal mills, a communal herd for the

improvement of oxen and horses; finally, storehouses, intended for the distribution to the peasants of seeds for their fields or food for their families. The enjoyment of all these various things must be distributed among the members of the commune, must be distributed regularly, equally, equitably. Thus, a fair distribution today will not be fair five or six years hence, because in some families the number of members will have increased, in others diminished. A new distribution, therefore, will be necessary to make the shares equal. For a long time this equalization can be brought about by partial sharings-up, by exchange of lots of ground between the private persons concerned, without upsetting everybody by a general redistribution. . . . The Russian mir is not an elementary unit. It is made up of several primordial cells — of small circles that form in perfect freedom. The mir only asks that the circles (osmaks) are equal as to labour-power. This condition fulfilled, I am free to choose my companions in accordance with my friendships or my interests. When the village has any work to do, any property to distribute, the administration or the assembly of the commune generally does not concern itself with individuals, but with the 'osmak.'. . . Each village has an administration; it is represented by a mayor (selski starosta), chosen by the mir. But this administration has to do only with affairs determined upon in principle by the communal assembly. The starosta has no right of initiating any measures of importance. Such questions (partition of the land, new taxes, leases of communal property, etc.) are only adjudicated and decided by the assembly of the mir. All the peasants living in the village come to the assembly, even the women. If, for example, the wife, by the death of her husband, is the head of the family, at the assembly she has the right to vote. . . . The peasants meet very frequently. . . . The assemblies are very lively, . . . courageous, independent."—L. Tikhomirov, *Russia, Political and Social, bk.* 3, *ch.* 2, *with foot-note, ch.* 1 (*v.* 1).

ALSO IN: D. M. Wallace, *Russia, v.* 1, *ch.* 8.—W. T. Stead, *The Truth about Russia, bk.* 4, *ch.* 2.—A. Leroy-Beaulieu, *The Empire of the Tsars, pt.* 1, *bk.* 8.

MIRABEAU, and the French Revolution. See FRANCE: A. D. 1789 (MAY), to 1790–1791.

MIRACULOUS VICTORY, The. See THUNDERING LEGION.

MIRAFLORES, Battle of (1881). See CHILE: A. D. 1883–1884.

MIRANDA, Revolutionary undertakings of. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1785–1800; and COLOMBIAN STATES: A. D. 1810–1819.

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

MIRISZLO, Battle of (1600). See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES: 14TH–18TH CENTURIES.

MISCHIANZA, The. See PHILADELPHIA: A. D. 1777–1778.

MISCHNA, The.— Rabbi Jehuda, the Patriarch at Tiberias, was the author (about A. D. 194) of "a new constitution to the Jewish people. He embodied in the celebrated Mischna, or Code of Traditional Law, all the authorized interpretations of the Mosaic Law, the traditions, the decisions of the learned, and the precedents of the courts or schools. . . . The sources from which the Mischna was derived may give a fair view of the nature of the Rabbinical authority, and the manner in which it had superseded the original Mosaic Constitution. The Mischna was grounded, 1. On the Written Law of Moses. 2. On the Oral Law, received by Moses on Mount Sinai, and handed down, it was said, by uninterrupted tradition. 3. The decisions or maxims of the Wise Men. 4. Opinions of particular individuals, on which the schools were divided, and which still remained open. 5. Ancient usages and customs. The distribution of the Mischna affords a curious exemplification of the intimate manner in which the religious and civil duties of the Jews were interwoven, and of the authority assumed by the Law over every transaction of life. The Mischna commenced with rules for prayer, thanksgiving, ablutions; it is impossible to conceive the minuteness or subtlety of these rules, and the fine distinctions drawn by the Rabbins. It was a question whether a man who ate figs, grapes, and pomegranates, was to say one or three graces; . . . whether he should sweep the house and then wash his hands, or wash his hands and then sweep the house. But there are nobler words."—H. H. Milman, *Hist. of the Jews, bk.* 19.—See also, TALMUD.

MISE OF AMIENS, The. See OXFORD, PROVISIONS OF.

MISE OF LEWES, The. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1216–1274.

MISENUM, Treaty of.— The arrangement by which Sextus Pompeius was virtually admitted (B. C. 40) for a time into partnership with the triumvirate of Antony, Octavius and Lepidus, was so called. See ROME: B. C. 44–42.

MISR. See EGYPT: ITS NAMES.

MISSI DOMINICI.—"Nothing was more novel or peculiar in the legislation of Karl [Charlemagne] than his institution of imperial deputies, called Missi Dominici, who were regularly sent forth from the palace to oversee and inspect the various local administrations. Consisting of a body of two or three officers each, one of whom was always a prelate, they visited the counties every three months, and held there the local assizes, or 'placita minores.'. . . Even religion and morals were not exempted from this scrutiny."— P. Godwin, *Hist. of France: Ancient Gaul, ch.* 17.— See, also, PALATINE, COUNTS.

MISSIONARY RIDGE, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (AUG.—SEPT., and OCT.—NOV.: TENNESSEE).

MISSIONS, Christian, in Africa. See AFRICA: A. D. 1415–1884, and after.

MISSISSIPPI: The aboriginal inhabitants. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY; and CHEROKEES.

A. D. 1629.—Embraced in grant to Sir Robert Heath. See AMERICA: A. D. 1629.

A. D. 1663.— Embraced in the Carolina grant to Monk, Chesterfield, and others. See NORTH CAROLINA: A. D. 1663–1670.

A. D. 1732.—Mostly embraced in the new province of Georgia. See GEORGIA: A. D. 1732–1789.

A. D. 1763.—Partly embraced in West Florida, ceded to Great Britain. See SEVEN YEARS WAR: THE TREATIES; FLORIDA: A. D. 1763; and NORTHWEST TERRITORY: A. D. 1763.

A. D. 1779–1781.— Reconquest of West Florida by the Spaniards. See FLORIDA: A. D. 1779–1781.

A. D. 1783.—Mostly covered by the English cession to the United States. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1788 (SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1783-1787.—Partly in dispute with Spain. See FLORIDA: A. D. 1783–1787.

A. D. 1798-1804.—The Territory constituted and organized.—"The territory heretofore surrendered by the Spanish authorities, and lying north of the 31st degree of latitude with the consent and approbation of the State of Georgia, was erected into a territory of the United States by act of Congress, approved April 7th, 1798, entitled 'an act for the amicable settlement of limits with the State of Georgia, and authorizing the establishment of a government in the Mississippi Territory. The territory comprised in the new organization, or the original Mississippi Territory, embraced that portion of country between the Spanish line of demarkation and a line drawn due east from the mouth of the Yazoo to the Chattahoochy River. The Mississippi River was its western limit and the Chattahoochy its eastern. The organization of a territorial government by the United States was in no wise to impair the rights of Georgia to the soil, which was left open for future negotiation between the State of Georgia and the United States." In 1802 the State of Georgia ceded to the United States all her claim to lands south of the State of Tennessee, stipulating to receive $1,250,000 "out of the first nett proceeds of lands lying in said ceded territory." In 1804 "the whole of the extensive territory ceded by Georgia, lying north of the Mississippi Territory, and south of Tennessee, was . . . annexed to the Mississippi Territory, and was subsequently included within its limits and jurisdiction. The boundaries of the Mississippi Territory, consequently, were the 31st degree on the south, and the 35th degree on the north, extending from the Mississippi River to the western limits of Georgia, and comprised the whole territory now embraced in the States of Alabama and Mississippi, excepting the small Florida District between the Pearl and Perdido Rivers. Four fifths of this extensive territory were in the possession of the four great southern Indian confederacies, the Choctâs, the Chickasâs, the Creeks, and the Cherokees, comprising an aggregate of about 75,000 souls, and at least 10,000 warriors. The only portions of this territory to which the Indian title had been extinguished was a narrow strip from 15 to 50 miles in width, on the east side of the Mississippi, and about 70 miles in length, and a small district on the Tombigby."—J. W. Monette, *Discovery and Settlement of the Valley of the Mississippi, bk.* 5, *ch.* 13 (*v.* 2).

A. D. 1803.—Portion acquired by the Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1798–1803.

A. D. 1812-1813.—Spanish West Florida annexed to Mississippi Territory and possession taken. See FLORIDA: A. D. 1810–1813.

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

A. D. 1817.—Constitution as a State and admission into the Union.—The sixth and seventh of the new States added to the original Union of thirteen were Indiana and Mississippi. "These last almost simultaneously found representation in the Fifteenth Congress; and of them Indiana, not without an internal struggle, held steadfastly to the fundamental Ordinance of 1787 under which it was settled, having adopted its free State constitution in June, 1816; Mississippi, which followed on the slave side, agreeing upon a constitution, in August, 1817, which the new Congress, at its earliest opportunity [Dec. 10, 1817] after assembling, pronounced republican in form, and satisfactory."—J. Schouler, *Hist. of the U. S., v.* 3, *p.* 100.—At the same time, the part of Mississippi Territory which forms the present State of Alabama was detached and erected into the Territory of Alabama. See ALABAMA: A. D. 1817–1819.

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

A. D. 1862 (April—May).—The taking of Corinth by the Union forces. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (APRIL—MAY: TENNESSEE—MISSISSIPPI).

A. D. 1862 (May—July).—First Union attempts against Vicksburg. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MAY—JULY: ON THE MISSISSIPPI).

A. D. 1862 (September—October).—The battles of Iuka and Corinth. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (SEPTEMBER—OCTOBER: MISSISSIPPI).

A. D. 1863 (April—May).—Grierson's raid. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (APRIL—MAY: MISSISSIPPI).

A. D. 1863 (April—July).—Federal siege and capture of Vicksburg. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (APRIL—JULY).

A. D. 1863 (July).—Capture and destruction of Jackson. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (JULY: MISSISSIPPI).

A. D. 1864 (February).—Sherman's raid to Meridian. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863–1864 (DECEMBER—APRIL: TENNESSEE—MISSISSIPPI).

A. D. 1865 (March—April).—Wilson's raid.—The end of the Rebellion. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1865 (APRIL—MAY).

A. D. 1865 (June).—Provisional government set up under President Johnson's plan of Reconstruction. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1865 (MAY—JULY).

A. D. 1865-1870.—State reconstruction. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1865 (MAY—JULY), to 1868–1870.

MISSISSIPPI RIVER: A. D. 1519.—Discovery of the mouth by Pineda, for Garay. See AMERICA: A. D. 1519–1525.

A. D. 1528-1542.—Crossed by Cabeça de Vaca, and by Hernando de Soto.—Descended by the survivors of De Soto's company. See FLORIDA: A. D. 1528–1542.

A. D. 1673.—Discovery by Joliet and Marquette. See CANADA: A. D. 1634–1673.

A. D. 1682.—Exploration to the mouth by La Salle. See CANADA: A. D. 1669–1687.

A. D. 1712.—Called the River St. Louis by the French. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1698–1712.

A. D. 1783-1803.—The question of the Right of Navigation disputed between Spain and the United States. See FLORIDA: A. D. 1783–1787; LOUISIANA: A. D. 1785–1800; and 1798–1803; UNITED STATES: A. D. 1784–1788.

A. D. 1861-1863.—Battles and Sieges of the Civil War. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (SEPTEMBER—NOVEMBER: ON THE MISSISSIPPI), Belmont; 1862 (MARCH—APRIL), New

Madrid and Island No. 10; 1862 (APRIL), New Orleans; 1862 (MAY—JULY), First Vicksburg attack; 1862 (JUNE), Memphis; 1862 (DECEMBER), Second Vicksburg attack; 1863 (JANUARY—APRIL), and (APRIL—JULY), Siege and capture of Vicksburg; 1863 (MAY—JULY), Port Hudson and the clear opening of the River.

MISSISSIPPI SCHEME, John Law's. See FRANCE: A. D. 1717–1720; and LOUISIANA: A. D. 1717–1718.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY: A. D. 1763.—Cession of the eastern side of the river to Great Britain. See SEVEN YEARS WAR: THE TREATIES.

A. D. 1803.—Purchase of the western side by the United States. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1798–1803.

MISSOLONGHI, Siege and capture of (1825-1826). See GREECE: A. D. 1821–1829.

MISSOURI: A. D. 1719-1732.—First development of lead mines by the French. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1719–1750.

A. D. 1763-1765.—French withdrawal to the West of the Mississippi.—The founding of St. Louis. See ILLINOIS: A. D. 1765.

A. D. 1803.—Embraced in the Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1798–1803.

A. D. 1804-1812.—Upper Louisiana organized as the Territory of Louisiana.—The changing of its name to Missouri. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1804–1812.

A. D. 1819.—Arkansas detached. See ARKANSAS: A. D. 1819–1836.

A. D. 1821.—Admission to the Union.—The Compromise concerning Slavery. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1818–1821.

A. D. 1854-1859.—The Kansas Struggle. See KANSAS: A. D. 1854–1859.

A. D. 1861 (February—July).—The baffling of the Secessionists.—Blair, Lyon and the Home Guards of St. Louis.—The capture of Camp Jackson.—Battle of Boonville.—A loyal State Government organized.—The seizure of arsenals and arms by the secessionists of the Atlantic and Gulf States "naturally directed the attention of the leaders of the different political parties in Missouri to the arsenal in St. Louis, and set them to work planning how they might get control of the 40,000 muskets and other munitions of war which it was known to contain. . . . Satisfied that movements were on foot among irresponsible parties, Unionist as well as Secessionist, to take possession of this post, General D. M. Frost, of the Missouri state militia, a graduate of West Point and a thorough soldier, is said to have called Governor Jackson's attention to the necessity of 'looking after' it. . . . Jackson, however, needed no prompting. . . . He did not hesitate to give Frost authority to seize the arsenal, whenever in his judgment it might become necessary to do so. Meanwhile he was to assist in protecting it against mob violence of any kind or from any source. . . . Frost, however, was not the only person in St. Louis who had his eyes fixed upon the arsenal and its contents. Frank Blair was looking longingly in the same direction, and was already busily engaged in organizing the bands which, supplied with guns from this very storehouse, enabled him, some four months later, to lay such a heavy hand upon Missouri. Just then, it is true, he could not arm them, . . . but he did not permit this to interfere with the work of recruiting and drilling. That went on steadily, and as a consequence, when the moment came for action, Blair was able to appear at the decisive point with a well-armed force, ten times as numerous as that which his opponents could bring against him. In the mean time, whilst these two, or rather three, parties (for Frost can hardly be termed a secessionist, though as an officer in the service of the State he was willing to obey the orders of his commander) were watching each other, the federal government awoke from its lethargy, and began to concentrate troops in St. Louis for the protection of its property. . . . By the 18th of February, the day of the election of delegates to the convention which pronounced so decidedly against secession, there were between four and five hundred men behind the arsenal walls. . . . General Harney, who was in command of the department and presumably familiar with its condition, under date of February 19, notified the authorities at Washington that there was no danger of an attack, and never had been. . . . Such was not the opinion of Captain Nathaniel Lyon, who had arrived at the arsenal on the 6th of February, and who was destined, in the short space of the coming six months, to write his name indelibly in the history of the State. . . . Under the stimulating influence of two such spirits as Blair and . . . [Lyon] the work of preparation went bravely on. By the middle of April, four regiments had been enlisted, and Lyon, who was now in command of the arsenal, though not of the department, proceeded to arm them in accordance with an order which Blair had procured from Washington. Backed by this force, Blair felt strong enough to set up an opposition to the state government, and accordingly, when Jackson refused to furnish the quota of troops assigned to Missouri under President Lincoln's call of April 15, 1861 [see UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (APRIL)], he telegraphed to Washington that if an order to muster the men into the service was sent to Captain Lyon 'the requisition would be filled in two days.' The order was duly forwarded, and five regiments having been sworn in instead of four, as called for, Blair was offered the command. This he declined, and, on his recommendation, Lyon was elected in his place. On the 7th and 8th of May another brigade was organized. . . . This made ten regiments of volunteers, besides several companies of regulars and a battery of artillery, that were now ready for service; and as General Harney, whose relatives and associates were suspected of disloyalty, had been ordered to Washington to explain his position, Lyon was virtually in command of the department. . . . Jackson, . . . though possessed of but little actual power, was unwilling to give up the contest without an effort. He did not accept the decision of the February election as final. . . . Repairing to St. Louis, as soon as the adjournment of the General Assembly had left him free, he began at once, in conjunction with certain leading secessionists, to concert measures for arming the militia of the State. . . . To this end, the seizure of the arsenal was held to be a prerequisite, and General Frost was preparing a memorial showing

how this could best be done, when the surrender of Fort Sumter and the President's consequent call for troops hurried Jackson into a position of antagonism to the federal government. . . . He sent messengers to the Confederate authorities at Montgomery, Alabama, asking them to supply him with the guns that were needed for the proposed attack on the arsenal; and he summoned the General Assembly to meet at Jefferson City on the 2d of May, to deliberate upon such measures as might be deemed necessary for placing the State in a position to defend herself. He also ordered, as he was authorized to do under the law, the commanders of the several military districts to hold the regular yearly encampments for the purpose of instructing their men in drill and discipline. . . . Practically its effect was limited to the first or Frost's brigade, as that was the only one that had been organized under the law. On the 3d of May, this little band, numbering less than 700 men, pitched their tents in a wooded valley in the outskirts of the city of St. Louis, and named it Camp Jackson, in honor of the governor. It is described as being surrounded on all sides, at short range, by commanding hills; it was, moreover, open to a charge of cavalry in any and every direction, and the men were supplied with but five rounds of ammunition each, hardly enough for guard purposes. In a word, it was defenseless, and this fact is believed to be conclusive in regard to the peaceful character of the camp as it was organized. . . . Lyon . . . announced his intention of seizing the entire force at the camp, without any ceremony other than a demand for its surrender. . . . Putting his troops in motion early in the morning of the 10th of May, he surrounded Camp Jackson and demanded its surrender. As Frost could make no defense against the overwhelming odds brought against him, he was of course obliged to comply; and his men, having been disarmed, were marched to the arsenal, where they were paroled. . . . After the surrender, and whilst the prisoners were standing in line, waiting for the order to march, a crowd of men, women and children collected and began to abuse the home guards, attacking them with stones and other missiles. It is even said that several shots were fired at them, but this lacks confirmation. According to Frost, who was at the head of the column of prisoners, the first intimation of firing was given by a single shot, followed almost immediately by volley firing, which is said to have been executed with precision considering the rawness of the troops. When the fusillade was checked, it was found that 28 persons had been killed or mortally wounded, among whom were three of the prisoners, two women, and one child. . . . *Judging this action by the* reasons assigned for it, and by its effect throughout the State, it must be pronounced a blunder. So far from intimidating the secessionists, it served only to exasperate them; and it drove not a few Union men, among them General Sterling Price, into the ranks of the opposition and ultimately into the Confederate army."—L. Carr, *Missouri, ch.* 14.—When news of the capture of Camp Jackson reached Jefferson City, where the legislature was in session, Governor Jackson at once ordered a bridge on the railroad from St. Louis to be destroyed, and the legislature made haste to pass several bills in the interest of the rebellion, including one which placed the whole military power of the State in the hands of the Governor. Armed with this authority, Jackson proceeded to organize the Militia of Missouri as a secession army. Meantime Captain Lyon had been superseded in command by the arrival at St. Louis of General Harney, and the latter introduced a total change of policy at once. He was trapped into an agreement with Governor Jackson and Sterling Price, now general in-chief of the Missouri forces, which tied his hands, while the cunning rebel leaders were rapidly placing the State in active insurrection. But the eyes of the authorities at Washington were opened by Blair; Harney was soon displaced and Lyon restored to command. This occurred May 30th. On the 15th of June Lyon took possession of the capital of the State, Jefferson City, the Governor and other State officers taking flight to Boonville, where their forces were being gathered. Lyon promptly followed, routing and dispersing them at Boonville on the 17th. The State Convention which had taken a recess in March was now called together by a committee that had been empowered to do so before the convention separated, and a provisional State government was organized (July 31) with a loyal governor, Hamilton R. Gamble, at its head.—J. G. Nicolay, *The Outbreak of the Rebellion, ch.* 10.

Also in: T. L. Snead, *The Fight for Missouri.*—J. Peckham, *Gen. Nathaniel Lyon and Missouri in* 1861

A. D. 1861 (July—September).—Sigel's retreat from Carthage.—Death of Lyon at Wilson's Creek.—Siege of Lexington.—Fremont in command. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1861 (July—September: Missouri).

A. D. 1861 (August—October).—Fremont in command.—His premature proclamation of freedom to the Slaves of rebels.—His quarrel with Frank P. Blair.—The change in command. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1861 (August—October: Missouri).

A. D. 1862 (January—March).—Price and the Rebel forces driven into Arkansas.—Battle of Pea Ridge. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1862 (January—March: Missouri—Arkansas).

A. D. 1862 (July—September).—Organization of the loyal Militia of the state.—Warfare with Rebel guerrillas. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1862 (July—September: Missouri—Arkansas).

A. D. 1862 (September—December).—Social effects of the Civil War.—The Battle of Prairie Grove. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1862 (September—December: Missouri—Arkansas).

A. D. 1863 (August).—Quantrell's guerrilla raid to Lawrence, Kansas. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1863 (August: Missouri—Kansas).

A. D. 1863 (October).—Cabell's invasion. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1863 (August—October: Arkansas—Missouri).

A. D. 1864 (September—October).—Price's raid. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1864 (March—October: Arkansas—Missouri).

MISSOURI COMPROMISE, The.—Its Repeal, and the decision of the Supreme Court against it. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1818–1821; 1854; and 1857.

MISSOURI RIVER · Called the River St. Philip by the French (1712). See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1698–1712.

MISSOURIS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: SIOUAN FAMILY.

MITCHELL, General Ormsby M.: Expedition into Alabama. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (APRIL—MAY: ALABAMA); and (JUNE—OCTOBER: TENNESSEE—KENTUCKY).

MITHRIDATIC WARS, The.—A somewhat vaguely defined part of eastern Asia Minor, between Armenia, Phrygia, Cilicia and the Euxine, was called Cappadocia in times anterior to 363 B. C. Like its neighbors, it had fallen under the rule of the Persians and formed a province of their empire, ruled by hereditary satraps. In the year above named, the then reigning satrap, Ariobarzanes, rebelled and made himself king of the northern coast district of Cappadocia, while the southern and inland part was retained under Persian rule. The kingdom founded by Ariobarzanes took the name of Pontus, from the sea on which it bordered. It was reduced to submission by Alexander the Great, but regained independence during the wars between Alexander's successors (see MACEDONIA: B. C. 310–301; and SELEUCIDÆ: B. C. 281–224), and extended its limits towards the west and south. The kingdom of Pontus, however, only rose to importance in history under the powerful sovereignty of Mithridates V. who took the title of Eupator and is often called Mithridates the Great. He ascended the throne while a child, B. C. 120, but received, notwithstanding, a wonderful education and training. At the age of twenty (B. C. 112) he entered upon a career of conquest, which was intended to strengthen his power for the struggle with Rome, which he saw to be inevitable. Within a period of about seven years he extended his dominions around the nearly complete circuit of the Euxine, through Armenia, Colchis, and along the northern coasts westward to the Crimea and the Dniester; while at the same time he formed alliances with the barbarous tribes on the Danube, with which he hoped to threaten Italy.—G. Rawlinson, *Manual of Ancient Hist., bk. 4, period 3, pt. 4.*—"He [Mithridates] rivalled Hannibal in his unquenchable hatred to Rome. This hatred had its origin in the revocation of a district of Phrygia which the Senate had granted to his father. . . . To his banner clustered a quarter of a million of the fierce warriors of the Caucasus and the Scythian steppes and of his own Hellenized Pontic soldiers; Greek captains in whom he had a confidence unshaken by disaster—Archelaus, Neoptolemus, Dorilaus—gave tactical strength to his forces. He was allied, too, with the Armenian king, Tigranes; and he now turned his thoughts to Numidia, Syria, and Egypt with the intention of forming a coalition against his foe on the Tiber. A coin has been found which commemorated an alliance proposed between the Pontic king and the Italian rebels. . . . The imperious folly of M'. Aquillius, the Roman envoy in the East, precipitated the intentions of the king; instead of contending for the princedom of Bithynia and Cappadocia, he suddenly appealed to the disaffected in the Roman province. The fierce white fire of Asiatic hate shot out simultaneously through the length and breadth of the country [B. C. 88]; and the awful news came to distracted Rome that 80,000 Italians had fallen victims to the vengeance of the provincials. Terror-stricken publicani were chased from Adramyttium and Ephesus into the sea, their only refuge, and there cut down by their pursuers; the Mæander was rolling along the corpses of the Italians of Tralles; in Caria the refined cruelty of the oppressed people was butchering the children before the eyes of father and mother, then the mother before the eyes of her husband, and giving to the man death as the crown and the relief of his torture. . . . Asia was lost to Rome; only Rhodes, which had retained her independence, remained faithful to her great ally. The Pontic fleet, under Archelaus, appeared at Delos, and carried thence 2,000 talents to Athens, offering to that imperial city the government of her ancient tributary. This politic measure awaked hopes of independence in Greece. Aristion, an Epicurean philosopher, seized the reins of power in Athens, and Archelaus repaired the crumbling battlements of the Piræus. The wave of eastern conquest was rolling on towards Italy itself. The proconsul Sulla marched to Brundisium, and, undeterred by the ominous news that his consular colleague, Q. Rufus, had been murdered in Picenum, or by the sinister attitude of the new consul Cinna, he crossed over to Greece with five legions to stem the advancing wave. History knows no more magnificent illustration of cool, self-restrained determination than the action of Sulla during these three years." He left Rome to his enemies, the fierce faction of Marius, who were prompt to seize the city and to fill it with "wailing for the dead, or with the more terrible silence which followed a complete massacre" [see ROME: B. C. 88–78]. "The news of this carnival of democracy reached the camp of Sulla along with innumerable noble fugitives who had escaped the Marian terror. The proconsul was unmoved; with unexampled self-confidence he began to assume that he and his constituted Rome, while the Forum and Curia were filled with lawless anarchists, who would soon have to be dealt with. He carried Athens by assault, and slew the whole population, with their tyrant Aristion [see ATHENS: B. C. 87–86], but he counted it among the favours of the goddess of Fortune that he, man of culture as he was, was able to save the immemorial buildings of the city from the fate of Syracuse or Corinth. Archelaus, in Piræus, offered the most heroic resistance. . . . With the spring Sulla heard of the approach of the main army from Pontus, under the command of Taxiles. 120,000 men, and ninety scythed chariots, were pouring over Mount Œta to overwhelm him. With wonderful rapidity he marched northwards through friendly Thebes, and drew up his little army on a slope near Chæronea, digging trenches on his left and right to save his flank from being turned. He showed himself every inch a general, he compelled the enemy to meet him on this ground of his own choice, and the day did not close before 110,000 of the enemy were captured or slain, and the camp of Archelaus, who had hastened from Athens to take the command, was carried by assault. We have before us still, in the pages of Plutarch, Sulla's own memoirs. If we may believe him, he lost only fifteen men in the battle. By this brilliant engagement he had restored Greece to her allegiance, and, what was even better, the

disaster aroused all the savagery of Mithradates, the Greek vanished in the oriental despot. Suspicious and ruthless, he ordered his nearest friends to be assassinated; he transported all the population of Chios to the mainland, and by his violence and exaction stirred Ephesus, Sardes, Tralles, and many other cities, to renounce his control, and to return to the Roman government. Still, he did not suspect Archelaus, but appointed him, together with Dorilaus, to lead a new army into Greece. The new army appeared in Bœotia, and encamped by the Copaic Lake, near Orchomenos. Before the raw levies could become familiar with the sight of the legions, Sulla assaulted the camp [B. C. 85], and rallied his wavering men by leading them in person with the cry, 'Go, tell them in Rome that you left your general in the trenches of Orchomenos;' the self-consciousness was sublime, for nothing would have pleased the people in Rome better; his victory was complete, and Archelaus escaped alone in a boat to Calchis. As the conqueror returned from the battle-field to reorganize Greece, he learnt that the Senate had deposed him from command, declared him an outlaw, and appointed as his successor the consul L. Valerius Flaccus. The disorganization of the republic seemed to have reached a climax. Flaccus conducted his army straight to the Bosphorus without venturing to approach the rebel proconsul Sulla; while Mithradates, who began to wish for peace, preferred to negotiate with his conqueror rather than with the consul of the republic. To complete this complication of anarchy, Flaccus was murdered, and superseded in the command by his own legate, C. Flavius Fimbria; this choice of their general by the legions themselves might seem significant if anything could be significant or connected in such a chaos. But Sulla now crossed into Asia, and concluded peace with Mithradates on these conditions: The king was to relinquish all his conquests, surrender deserters, restore the people of Chios, pay 2,000 talents, and give up seventy of his ships. Fimbria . . . remained to be dealt with. It was not a difficult matter: the two Roman armies confronted one another at Thyatira, and the Fimbrians streamed over to Sulla. After all, the legionaries, who had long ceased to be citizens, were soldiers first and politicians after; they worshipped the felicity of the great general; and the democratic general had not yet appeared who could bind his men to him by a spell stronger than Sulla's. Fimbria persuaded a slave to thrust him through with his sword. His enemies were vanquished in Asia, but in Rome Cinna was again consul (85 B. C.), and his colleague, Cn. Papirius Carbo, out-Cinnaed Cinna. Yet Sulla was in no hurry. He spent more than a year in reorganizing the disordered province. . . . He even allowed Cinna and Carbo, who began to prepare for war with him (84 B. C.), to be re-elected to the consulship; but when the more cautious party in the Senate entered into negotiations with him, and offered him a safe conduct to Italy, he showed in a word what he took to be the nature of the situation by saying that he was not in need of their safe conduct, but he was coming to secure them."—R. F. Horton, *Hist. of the Romans, ch. 26.*—**Plutarch, *Sulla.*—After a second and a third war with Rome (see Rome: B. C. 78–68, and 69–63), Mithridates was finally (B. C. 65) driven** from his old dominions into the Crimean kingdom of Bosporus, where he ended his life in despair two years later. The kingdom of Pontus was absorbed in the Roman empire. The southern part of Cappadocia held some rank as an independent kingdom until A. D. 17, when it was likewise reduced to the state of a Roman province.

MITLA, The Ruins of. See American Aborigines: Zapotecs, etc.

MITYLENE.—The chief city in ancient times of the island of Lesbos, to which it ultimately gave its name. See Lesbos.

B. C. 428-427.—Revolt from Athenian rule.—Siege and surrender.—The tender mercies of Athens. See Greece: B. C. 429–427.

B. C. 406.—Blockade of the Athenian fleet.—Battle of Arginusæ. See Greece: B. C. 406.

MIXES, The. See American Aborigines: Zapotecs, etc.

MIXTECS, The. See American Aborigines: Zapotecs, etc.

MIZRAIM. See Egypt: Its Names.

MOABITES, The.—The Moabite Stone.—As related in the Bible (Gen. xix. 37), Moab was the son of Lot's eldest daughter and the ancient people called Moabites were descended from him. They occupied at an early time the rich tableland or highlands on the east side of the Dead Sea; but the Amorites drove them out of the richer northern part of this territory into its southern half, where they occupied a very narrow domain, but one easily defended. This occurred shortly before the coming of the Israelites into Canaan. Between the Moabites and the Israelites, after the settlement of the latter, there was frequent war, but sometimes relations both peaceful and friendly. David finally subjugated their nation, in a war of peculiar atrocity. After the division of the kingdoms, Moab was subject to Israel, but revolted on the death of Ahab and was nearly destroyed in the horrible war which followed. The Biblical account of this war is given in 2 Kings III. It is strangely supplemented and filled out by a Moabite record — the famous Moabite Stone — found and deciphered within quite recent times, under the following circumstance. Dr. Klein, a German missionary, travelling in 1869 in what was formerly the "Land of Moab," discovered a stone of black basalt bearing a long inscription in Phœnician characters. He copied a small part of it and made his discovery known. The Prussian government opened negotiations for the purchase of the stone, and M. Clermont-Ganneau, of the French consulate at Jerusalem, made efforts likewise to secure it for his own country. Meantime, very fortunately, the latter sent men to take impressions — squeezes, as they are called — of the inscription, which was imperfectly done. But these imperfect squeezes proved invaluable; for the Arabs, finding the stone to be a covetable thing, and fearing that it was to be taken from them, crumbled it into fragments with the aid of fire and water. Most of the pieces were subsequently recovered, and were put together by the help of M. Clermont-Ganneau's squeezes, so that an important part of the inscription was deciphered in the end. It was found to be a record by Mesha, king of Moab, of the war with Israel referred to above.—A. H. Savce. *Fresh Light from the*

Ancient Monuments, ch. 4.—The Moabites appear to have recovered from the blow, but not much of their subsequent history is known.—G. Grove, *Dictionary of the Bible.*

Also in: J. King, *Moab's Patriarchal Stone.*—See, also, Jews: The Early Hebrew History, and Under the Judges.

MOAWIYAH, Caliph (founder of the Omeyyad dynasty), A. D. 661–679.....Moawiyah II., Caliph, 683.

MOBILE: A. D. 1702–1711.—The founding of the city by the French. See Louisiana: A. D. 1698–1712.

A. D. 1763.—Surrendered to the English. See Florida: A. D. 1763 (July).

A. D. 1781.—Retaken by the Spaniards. See Florida: A. D. 1779–1781.

A. D. 1813.—Possession taken from the Spaniards by the United States. See Florida: A. D. 1810–1813.

A. D. 1864.—The Battle in the Bay.—Farragut's naval victory. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1864 (August: Alabama).

A. D. 1865 (March—April).—Siege and capture by the National forces. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1865 (April—May).

MOBILIANS, The. See American Aborigines: Muskhogean Family.

MOCOVIS, The. See American Aborigines: Pampas Tribes.

MODENA, Founding of. See Mutina.

A. D. 1288–1453.—Acquired by the Marquess of Este.—Created a Duchy. See Este, The House of.

A. D. 1767.—Expulsion of the Jesuits. See Jesuits: A. D. 1761–1769.

A. D. 1796.—Dethronement of the Duke by Bonaparte.—Formation of the Cispadane Republic. See France: A. D. 1796–1797 (October—April).

A. D. 1801.—Annexation to the Cisalpine Republic. See Germany: A. D. 1801–1803.

A. D. 1803.—The duchy acquired by the House of Austria. See Este, House of.

A. D. 1815.—Given to an Austrian Prince. See Vienna, The Congress of.

A. D. 1831.—Revolt and expulsion of the Duke.—His restoration by Austrian troops. See Italy: A. D. 1830–1832.

A. D. 1848–1849.—Abortive revolution. See Italy: A. D. 1848–1849.

A. D. 1859–1861.—End of the dukedom.—Absorption in the new Kingdom of Italy. See Italy: A. D. 1856–1859; and 1859–1861.

MODIUS, The. See Amphora.

MODOCS, The. See American Aborigines: Modocs.

MOERIS, Lake.—"On the west of Egypt there is an oasis of cultivable land, the Fayum, buried in the midst of the desert, and attached by a sort of isthmus to the country watered by the Nile. In the centre of this oasis is a large plateau about the same level as the valley of the Nile; to the west, however, a considerable depression of the land produces a valley occupied by a natural lake more than ten leagues in length, the 'Birket Kerun.' In the centre of this plateau Amanemhe [twelfth dynasty] undertook the formation of an artificial lake with an area of ten millions of square metres. If the rise of the Nile was insufficient, the water was led into the lake and stored up for use, not only in the Fayum, but over the whole of the left bank of the Nile as far as the sea. If too large an inundation threatened the dykes, the vast reservoir of the artificial lake remained open, and when the lake itself overflowed, the surplus waters were led by a canal into the Birket Kerun. The two names given in Egypt to this admirable work of Amenemhe III. deserve to be recorded. Of one, Meri, that is 'the Lake,' par excellence, the Greeks have made Moeris, a name erroneously applied by them to a king; whilst the other, P-iom, 'the Sea,' has become, in the mouth of the Arabs, the name of the entire province, Fayum."—M. Mariette, quoted in Lenormant's *Manual of Ancient Hist. of the East, bk.* 3, *ch.* 2.

MŒSIA, OR MÆSIA.—"After the Danube had received the waters of the Teyss [Theiss] and the Save, it acquired, at least among the Greeks, the name of Ister. It formerly divided Mœsia and Dacia, the latter of which, as we have already seen, was a conquest of Trajan, and the only province beyond the river. . . . On the right hand of the Danube, Mœsia, . . . during the middle ages, was broken into the barbarian kingdoms of Servia and Bulgaria."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 1.—Mœsia was occupied by the Goths in the 4th century. See Goths: A. D. 341–381; and 376.

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

MŒSO-GOTHIC. See Goths: A. D. 341–381.

MOGONTIACUM.—"The two headquarters of the [Roman] army of the Rhine were always Vetera, near Wesel, and Mogontiacum, the modern Mentz. . . . Mogontiacum or Mentz, [was] from the time of Drusus down to the end of Rome the stronghold out of which the Romans sallied to attack Germany from Gaul, as it is at the present day the true barrier of Germany against France. Here the Romans, even after they had abandoned their rule in the region of the upper Rhine generally, retained not merely the tête-de-pont on the other bank, the 'castellum Mogontiacense' (Castel), but also that plain of the Main itself, in their possession; and in this region a Roman civilisation might establish itself. The land originally belonged to the Chatti, and a Chattan tribe, the Mattiaci, remained settled here even under Roman rule."—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 8, *ch.* 4 (*The Provinces, v.* 1).

MOGUL EMPIRE.—THE GREAT MOGUL. See India: A. D. 1399–1605.

MOHACS, Battle of (1526). See Hungary: A. D. 1487–1526.....**Second Battle of (1687).** See Hungary: A. D. 1683–1699.

MOHAMMED, The Prophet of Islam. See Mahometan Conquest and Empire.....**Mohammed, Turkish Sultan, A. D. 1104–1116.....Mohammed I., Turkish Sultan, 1413–1421.....Mohammed II., Turkish Sultan, 1451–1481.....Mohammed III., Turkish Sultan, 1595–1603.....Mohammed IV., Turkish Sultan, 1649–1687.....Mohammed Mirza, Shah of Persia, 1577–1582.....Mohammed Shah, sovereign of Persia, 1834–1848.**

MOHARRAM FESTIVAL, The. See Mahometan Conquest: A. D. 680.

MOHAVES, OR MOJAVES, The. See American Aborigines: Apache Group.

MOHAWKS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY.

MOHAWKS, The, of Boston and New York. See BOSTON: A. D. 1773; and NEW YORK: A. D. 1773–1774.

MOHEGANS, OR MAHICANS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; HORIKANS, and STOCKBRIDGE INDIANS; also, NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1637.

MOHILEF, Battle of. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1812 (JUNE—SEPTEMBER).

MOHOCKS, The.—After the Stuart restoration it became the fashion in London for dissolute young men to form themselves into Clubs and Associations for committing all sorts of excesses in the public streets. "These Clubs took various slang designations. At the Restoration they were 'Mums,' and 'Tityre-tus.' They were succeeded by the 'Hectors' and 'Scourers.' . . . . Then came the 'Nickers,' whose delight it was to smash windows with showers of half-pence; next were the 'Hawkabites;' and lastly the 'Mohocks.' These last are described in the 'Spectator,' No. 324 as a set of men who took care to drink themselves to a pitch beyond reason or humanity, and then made a general sally, and attacked all who were in the streets. Some were knocked down, others stabbed, and others cut and carbonadoed. . . . They had special barbarities which they executed upon their prisoners. 'Tipping the lion' was squeezing the nose flat to the face and boring out the eyes with their fingers. 'Dancing-masters' were those who taught their scholars to cut capers by running swords through their legs. The 'Tumblers' set women on their heads. The 'Sweaters' worked in parties of half-a-dozen, surrounding their victims with the points of their swords. . . . Another savage diversion of the Mohocks was their thrusting women into barrels, and rolling them down Snow or Ludgate Hill. . . . At length the villainies of the Mohocks were attempted to be put down by a Royal proclamation, issued on the 18th of March, 1712: this, however, had very little effect, for we soon find Swift exclaiming: 'They go on still and cut people's faces every night!' . . . The Mohocks held together until nearly the end of the reign of George I."—J. Timbs, *Clubs and Club Life in London, pp.* 33–38.

MOIRA, Lord (Marquis of Hastings), The Indian administration of. See INDIA: A. D. 1805–1816.

MOJOS, OR MOXOS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ANDESIANS; also, BOLIVIA: ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS.

MOKERN, Battle of (1813). See GERMANY: A. D. 1812–1813.

MOLAI, Jacques de, and the fall of the Templars. See TEMPLARS: A. D. 1307–1314; and FRANCE: A. D. 1285–1314.

MOLASSES ACT, The. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1763–1764.

MOLDAVIA.—MOLDO-WALLACHIA. See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES.

MOLESMES, The Abbey of. See CISTERCIAN.

MOLINISTS, The. See MYSTICISM.

MOLINO DEL REY, Battle of. See MEXICO: A. D. 1847 (MARCH—SEPTEMBER).

MOLINOS DEL REY, Battle of (1808). See SPAIN: A. D. 1808–1809 (DEC.—MARCH).

MOLLWITZ, Battle of (1741). See AUSTRIA: A. D. 1740–1741.

MOLLY MAGUIRES.—The name assumed by a secret organization which terrorized the Pennsylvania mining regions for a time, committing many murderous crimes. It was suppressed in 1877. An association of like character had existed in Ireland under the same name.

MOLOSSIANS, The. See EPIRUS.

MOLTKE'S CAMPAIGNS. See TURKS: A. D. 1831–1840; GERMANY: A. D. 1866; FRANCE: A. D. 1870, and 1870–1871.

MOLUCCAS, The. The general name of the Moluccas, or Spice Islands, covers an extensive group between Celebes and New Guinea, the more important of which are Gilolo or Halmaheira, Buru, Ceram or Serang, Ternate, Banda, and Amboyna. Nutmeg, clove and cardamom are the products which made the islands famous long before their whereabouts were discovered by the Portuguese in 1511. The Portuguese were expelled by the natives in 1583; but the Dutch came on the scene in 1618 and mastered the entire dominions of the sultans of Ternate and Tidore, who had been rulers of the whole group, as well as of Mindanao and northwestern New Guinea. The Dutch destroyed the spice trees in most of the islands, to limit and control the production, making Banda the seat of nutmeg culture and Amboyna that of the clove.—See, also, MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.

MONA.—The ancient name of the island of Anglesea, the final seat of the Druidical religion in Britain. Taken by the Romans, A. D. 61, the priests were slain, the sacred groves destroyed and Druidism practically exterminated.

MONACANS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES, POWHATAN CONFEDERACY, and IROQUOIS TRIBES OF THE SOUTH.

MONACO.—Monaco, the smallest independent state in Europe, having an area of only 8 square miles, is on the Mediterranean, about 9 miles east of Nice, surrounded by French territory. It has been a principality of the Grimaldi family for centuries. Monte Carlo, one of its three small towns, is the greatest gambling centre in Europe.

MONAPIA.—Roman name of the Isle of Man.

MONASTERY.—CONVENT.—ABBEY.—PRIORY.—"Monasticism was not the product of Christianity; it was the inheritance of the Church. . . . The Essenes, the Therapeutæ, and other Oriental mystics, were as truly the precursors of Christian asceticism in the desert or in the cloister, as Elijah and St. John the Baptist. The Neoplatonism of Alexandria, extolling the passionless man above him who regulates his passions, sanctioned and systematized this craving after a life of utter abstraction from external things, this abhorrence of all contact with what is material as a defilement. Doubtless the cherished remembrance of the martyrs and confessors, who in the preceding centuries of the Christian era had triumphed over many a sanguinary persecution, gave a fresh impulse in the fourth century to this propensity to asceticism, stimulating the devout to vie with their forefathers in the faith by their voluntary endurance of self-inflicted austerities. . . . The terms monastery, originally the cell or cave of a solitary, laura, an irregular cluster of cells, and cœnobium, an association of monks, few or many, under one roof and under one control, mark the three earliest stages in the development of monasticism. In Syria and Palestine each monk originally had a separate cell; in Lower Egypt two were together in one cell,

whence the term 'synœllita,' or sharer of the cell, came to express this sort of comradeship; in the Thebaid, under Pachomius of Tabenna, each cell contained three monks. At a later period the monks arrogated to themselves by general consent the title of 'the religious,' and admission into a monastery was termed 'conversion' to God. . . . The history of monasticism, like the history of states and institutions in general, divides itself broadly into three great periods, of growth, of glory, and of decay. . . . From the beginning of the fourth century to the close of the fifth, from Antony the hermit to Benedict of Monte Casino, is the age of undisciplined impulse of enthusiasm not as yet regulated by experience. . . . Everything is on a scale of illogical exaggeration, is wanting in balance, in proportion, in symmetry. Because purity, unworldliness, charity, are virtues, therefore a woman is to be regarded as a venomous reptile, gold as a worthless pebble; the deadliest foe and the dearest friend are to be esteemed just alike. Because it is right to be humble, therefore the monk cuts off hand, ear, or tongue, to avoid being made bishop, and feigns idiocy, in order not to be accounted wise. Because it is well to teach people to be patient, therefore a sick monk never speaks a kind word for years to the brother monk who nursed him. Because it is right to keep the lips from idle words, therefore a monk holds a large stone in his mouth for three years. Every precept is to be taken literally, and obeyed unreasoningly: Therefore monks who have been plundered by a robber run after him to give him a something which has escaped his notice. Self-denial is enjoined in the gospel. Therefore the austerities of asceticism are to be simply endless. One ascetic makes his dwelling in a hollow tree, another in a cave, another in a tomb, another on the top of a pillar, another has so lost the very appearance of a man, that he is shot at by shepherds, who mistake him for a wolf. The natural instincts, instead of being trained and cultivated, are to be killed outright, in this abhorrence of things material. . . . The period which follows, from the first Benedict to Charlemagne, exhibits monasticism in a more mature stage of activity. The social intercourse of the monastery, duly harmonized by a traditional routine, with its subordination of rank and offices, its division of duties, its mutual dependence of all on each other, and on their head, civilized the monastic life; and, as the monk himself became subject to the refining influences of civilization, he went forth into the world to civilize others. . . . Had it not been for monks and monasteries, the barbarian deluge might have swept away utterly the traces of Roman civilization. The Benedictine monk was the pioneer of civilization and Christianity in England, Germany, Poland, Bohemia, Sweden, Denmark. The schools attached to the Lerinensian monasteries were the precursors of the Benedictine seminaries in France and of the professional chairs filled by learned Benedictines in the universities of mediæval Christendom. With the incessant din of arms around him, it was the monk in his cloister, even in regions beyond the immediate sphere of Benedict's legislation, even in the remote fastnesses, for instance of Mount Athos, who, by preserving and transcribing ancient manuscripts, both Christian and pagan, as well as by recording his observations of contemporaneous events, was handing down the torch of knowledge unquenched to future generations, and hoarding up stores of erudition for the researches of a more enlightened age. The first musicians, painters, farmers, statesmen, in Europe, after the downfall of Imperial Rome under the onslaught of the barbarians, were monks."—I. Gregory Smith, *Christian Monasticism, introd.*—"The monastic stream, which had been born in the deserts of Egypt, divided itself into two great arms. The one spread in the East, at first inundated everything, then concentrated and lost itself there. The other escaped into the West, and spread itself by a thousand channels over an entire world which had to be covered and fertilised." Athanasius, who was driven twice by persecution to take refuge among the hermits in the Thebaid, Egypt, and who was three times exiled by an imperial order to the West, "became thus the natural link between the Fathers of the desert and those vast regions which their successors were to conquer and transform. . . . It was in 340 that he came for the first time to Rome, in order to escape the violence of the Arians, and invoke the protection of Pope Julius. . . . He spread in Rome the first report of the life led by the monks in the Thebaid, of the marvellous exploits of Anthony, who was still alive, of the immense foundations which Pacome was at that time forming upon the banks of the higher Nile. He had brought with him two of the most austere of these monks. . . . The narratives of Athanasius . . . roused the hearts and imaginations of the Romans, and especially of the Roman women. The name of monk, to which popular prejudice seems already to have attached a kind of ignominy, became immediately an honoured and envied title. The impression produced at first by the exhortations of the illustrious exile, was extended and strengthened during the two other visits which he made to the Eternal City. Some time afterwards, on the death of St Anthony, Athanasius, at the request of his disciples, wrote the life of the patriarch of the Thebaid; and this biography, circulating through all the West, immediately acquired there the popularity of a legend, and the authority of a confession of faith. . . . Under this narrative form, says St Gregory of Nazianzus, he promulgated the laws of monastic life. The town and environs of Rome were soon full of monasteries, rapidly occupied by men distinguished alike by birth, fortune and knowledge, who lived there in charity, sanctity, and freedom. From Rome the new institution, already distinguished by the name of religion, or religious life, par excellence, extended itself over all Italy. It was planted at the foot of the Alps by the influence of a great bishop, Eusebius of Vercelli. . . . From the continent the new institution rapidly gained the isles of the Mediterranean, and even the rugged rocks of the Gargon and of Capraja, where the monks, voluntarily exiled from the world, went to take the place of the criminals and political victims whom the emperors had been accustomed to banish thither. . . . Most of the great leaders of the cenobitical institution had, since St Pacome, made out, under the name of Rule, instructions and constitutions for the use of their immediate disciples; but none of these works had acquired an extensive or lasting sway. In the East, it is true, the rule of St Basil had prevailed in a multitude of monasteries, yet notwithstanding

Cassianus, in visiting Egypt, Palestine, and Mesopotamia, found there almost as many different rules as there were monasteries. In the West the diversity was still more strange. Each man made for himself his own rule and discipline, taking his authority from the writings or example of the Eastern Fathers. The Gauls especially exclaimed against the extreme rigour of the fasts and abstinences, which might be suitable under a fervid sky like that of Egypt or Syria, but which could not be endured by what they already called Gallican weakness; and even in the initial fervour of the monasteries of the Jura, they had succeeded in imposing a necessary medium upon their chiefs. Here it was the changing will of an abbot; there a written rule, elsewhere, the traditions of the elders, which determined the order of conventual life. In some houses various rules were practised at the same time, according to the inclination of the inhabitants of each cell, and were changed according to the times and places. They passed thus from excessive austerity to laxness, and conversely, according to the liking of each. Uncertainty and instability were everywhere. . . . A general arrangement was precisely what was most wanting in monastic life. There were an immense number of monks; there had been among them saints and illustrious men; but to speak truly, the monastic order had still no existence. Even where the rule of St Basil had acquired the necessary degree of establishment and authority — that is to say, in a considerable portion of the East — the gift of fertility was denied to it. . . In the West also, towards the end of the fifth century, the cenobitical institution seemed to have fallen into the torpor and sterility of the East. After St Jerome, who died in 420, and St Augustine, who died in 430, after the Fathers of Lerins, whose splendour paled towards 450, there was a kind of eclipse. . . . Except in Ireland and Gaul, where, in most of the provinces, some new foundations rose, a general interruption was observable in the extension of the institution. . . . If this eclipse had lasted, the history of the monks of the West would only have been, like that of the Eastern monks, a sublime but brief passage in the annals of the Church, instead of being their longest and best-filled page. This was not to be: but to keep the promises which the monastic order had made to the Church and to the new-born Christendom, it needed, at the beginning of the sixth century, a new and energetic impulse, such as would concentrate and discipline so many scattered, irregular, and intermittent forces; a uniform and universally accepted rule; a legislator inspired by the fertile and glorious past, to establish and govern the future. God provided for that necessity by sending St Benedict into the world."—Count de Montalembert, *The Monks of the West*, *v.* 1, *pp.* 381–387 *and* 513–515.—"The very word monastery is a misnomer: the word is a Greek word, and means the dwelling-place of a solitary person, living in seclusion. . . . In the 13th century . . . a monastery meant what we now understand it to mean—viz., the abode of a society of men or women who lived together in common—who were supposed to partake of common meals; to sleep together in one common dormitory; to attend certain services together in their common church; to transact certain business or pursue certain employments in the sight and hearing of each other in the common cloister; and, when the end came, to be laid side by side in the common graveyard, where in theory none but members of the order could find a resting-place for their bones. When I say 'societies of men and women' I am again reminded that the other term, 'convent,' has somehow got to be used commonly in a mistaken sense. People use the word as if it signified a religious house tenanted exclusively by women. The truth is that a convent is nothing more than a Latin name for an association of persons who have come together with a view to live for a common object and to submit to certain rules in the ordering of their daily lives. The monastery was the common dwelling-place; the convent was the society of persons inhabiting it; and the ordinary formula used when a body of monks or nuns execute any corporate act — such as buying or selling land — by any legal instrument is, 'The Prior and Convent of the Monastery of the Holy Trinity at Norwich;' 'the Abbot and Convent of the Monastery of St. Peter's, Westminster;' 'the Abbess and Convent of the Monastery of St. Mary and St. Bernard at Lacock,' and so on. . . . A monastery in theory then was, as it was called, a Religious House. It was supposed to be the home of people whose lives were passed in the worship of God, and in taking care of their own souls, and making themselves fit for a better world than this hereafter. . . . The church of a monastery was the heart of the place It was not that the church was built for the monastery, but the monastery existed for the church. . . . Almost as essential to the idea of a monastery as the church was the cloister or great quadrangle, inclosed on all sides by the high walls of the monastic buildings. . . . All round this quadrangle ran a covered arcade, whose roof, leaning against the high walls, was supported on the inner side by an open trellis work in stone — often exhibiting great beauty of design and workmanship — through which light and air was admitted into the arcade. . . . The cloister was really the living place of the monks. Here they pursued their daily avocations, here they taught their school. . . . 'But surely a monk always lived in a cell, didn't he?' The sooner we get rid of that delusion the better. Be it understood that until Henry II. founded the Carthusian Abbey of Witham, in 1178, there was no such thing known in England as a monk's cell, as we understand the term. It was a peculiarity of the Carthusian order, and when it was first introduced it was regarded as a startling novelty for any privacy or anything approaching solitude to be tolerated in a monastery. The Carthusian system never found much favour in England. . . . At the time of the Norman Conquest it may be said that all English monks were professedly under one and the same Rule — the famous Benedictine Rule. The Rule of a monastery was the constitution or code of laws, which regulated the discipline of the house, and the Rule of St. Benedict dates back as far as the 6th century, though it was not introduced into England for more than 100 years after it had been adopted elsewhere. . . . About 150 years before the Conquest, a great reformation had been attempted of the French monasteries, . . . the reformers breaking away from the old Benedictines and subjecting themselves to a new and improved Rule. These first reformers were called Cluniac monks, from

the great Abbey of Clugni, in Burgundy, in which the new order of things had begun. The first English house of reformed or Cluniac monks was founded at Lewes, in Sussex, 11 years after the Conquest. . . . The constitution of every convent, great or small, was monarchical. The head of the house was almost an absolute sovereign, and was called the Abbot. His dominions often extended, even in England, over a very wide tract of country, and sometimes over several minor monasteries which were called Cells. . . . The heads of these cells or subject houses were called Priors. An Abbey was a monastery which was independent. A priory was a monastery which in theory or in fact was subject to an abbey. All the Cluniac monasteries in England were thus said to be alien priories, because they were mere cells of the great Abbey of Clugni in France, to which each priory paid heavy tribute." —A. Jessopp, *The Coming of the Friars, ch.* 3.

ALSO IN: E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and Characters of the Middle Ages, ch.* 6.—J. Bingham, *Antiq. of the Christ. Ch., bk.* 7, *ch.* 3, *sect.* 11–14.—I. G. Smith, *Christian Monasticism, 4–9th Centuries.* —See, also, CŒNOBIUM; LAURAS; MENDICANT ORDERS; BENEDICTINE; CISTERCIAN; CARMELITE, and AUSTIN CANONS.

MONASTERIES, The English, Suppression of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1535–1539.

MONASTIC LIBRARIES. See LIBRARIES, MEDIÆVAL.

MONASTIC ORDERS. See AUSTIN CANONS; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; CAPUCHINS; CARMELITE FRIARS; CARTHUSIAN; CISTERCIAN; CLAIRVAUX; CLUGNY; MENDICANT ORDERS; RECOLLECTS; SERVITES; THEATINES; TRAPPISTS.

MONÇON, OR MONZON, Treaty of (1626). See FRANCE: A. D. 1624–1626.

MONCONTOUR, Battle of (1569). See FRANCE: A. D. 1568–1570.

MONEY AND BANKING.

Nature and Origin of Money.—"When the division of labour has been once thoroughly established, it is but a very small part of a man's wants which the produce of his own labour can supply. He supplies the far greater part of them by exchanging that surplus part of the produce of his own labour, which is over and above his own consumption, for such parts of the produce of other men's labour as he has occasion for. Every man thus lives by exchanging, or becomes in some measure a merchant, and the society itself grows to be what is properly a commercial society. But when the division of labour first began to take place, this power of exchanging must frequently have been very much clogged and embarrassed in its operations. One man, we shall suppose, has more of a certain commodity than he himself has occasion for, while another has less. The former consequently would be glad to dispose of, and the latter to purchase, a part of this superfluity. But if this latter should chance to have nothing that the former stands in need of, no exchange can be made between them. The butcher has more meat in his shop than he himself can consume, and the brewer and the baker would each of them be willing to purchase a part of it. But they have nothing to offer in exchange, except the different productions of their respective trades, and the butcher is already provided with all the bread and beer which he has immediate occasion for. No exchange can, in this case, be made between them. . . . In order to avoid the inconveniency of such situations, every prudent man in every period of society, after the first establishment of the division of labour, must naturally have endeavoured to manage his affairs in such a manner, as to have at all times by him, besides the peculiar produce of his own industry, a certain quantity of some one commodity or other, such as he imagined few people would be likely to refuse in exchange for the produce of their industry. Many different commodities, it is probable, were successively both thought of and employed for this purpose. In the rude ages of society, cattle are said to have been the common instrument of commerce; and, though they must have been a most inconvenient one, yet in old times we find things were frequently valued according to the number of cattle which had been given in exchange for them. The armour of Diomede, says Homer, cost only nine oxen; but that of Glaucus cost an hundred oxen. Salt is said to be the common instrument of commerce and exchange in Abyssinia; a species of shells in some parts of the coasts of India; dried cod at Newfoundland; tobacco in Virginia; sugar in some of our West India colonies; hides or dressed leather in some other countries; and there is at this day [1775] a village in Scotland where it is not uncommon, I am told, for a workman to carry nails instead of money to the baker's shop or the alehouse. In all countries, however, men seem at last to have been determined by irresistible reasons to give the preference, for this employment, to metals above every other commodity."—Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations, ch.* 4, *bk.* 1 (*v.* 1).—"There is . . . no machine which has saved as much labor as money. . . . The invention of money has been rightly compared to the invention of writing with letters. We may, however, call the introduction of money as the universal medium of exchange . . . one of the greatest and most beneficent of advances ever made by the race. . . . Very different kinds of commodities have, according to circumstances, been used as money; but uniformly only such as possess a universally recognized economic value. On the whole, people in a low stage of civilization are wont to employ, mainly, only ordinary commodities, such as are calculated to satisfy a vulgar and urgent want, as an instrument of exchange. As they advance in civilization, they, at each step, choose a more and more costly object, for this purpose, and one which ministers to the more elevated wants. Races of hunters, at least in non-tropical countries, usually use skins as money; that is the almost exclusive product of their labor, one which can be preserved for a long period of time, which constitutes their principal article of clothing and their principal export in the more highly developed regions. Nomadic races and the lower agricultural races pass, by a natural gradation, to the use of cattle as money; which supposes rich pasturages at

the disposal of all. If it were otherwise, there would be a great many to whom payments of this kind had been made, who would not know what to do with the cattle given them, on account of the charges for their maintenance. . . . That metals were used for the purpose of money much later than the commodities above mentioned, and the precious metals in turn later than the non-precious metals, cannot by any means be shown to be universally true. Rather is gold in some countries to be obtained by the exercise of so little skill, and both gold and silver satisfy a want so live and general, and one so early felt, that they are to be met with as an instrument of exchange in very early times. In the case of isolated races, much depends on the nature of the metals with which the geologic constitution of the country has furnished them. In general, however, the above law is found to prevail here The higher the development of a people becomes, the more frequent is the occurrence of large payments; and to effect these, the more costly a metal is, the better, of course, it is adapted to effect such payments. Besides, only rich nations are able to possess the costly metals in a quantity absolutely great. Among the Jews, gold as money dates only from the time of David. King Pheidon, of Argos, it is said, introduced silver money into Greece, about the middle of the eighth century before Christ. Gold came into use at a much later period. The Romans struck silver money, for the first time, in 269 before Christ, and, in 207, the first gold coins. Among modern nations, Venice (1285) and Florence seem to have been the first to have coined gold in any quantity."—W. Roscher, *Principles of Political Economy, bk.* 2, *ch.* 3, *sect.* 117-119 (*v* 1).

Ancient Egypt and Babylonia.—"Money seems to us now so obvious a convenience, and so much a necessity of commerce, that it appears almost inconceivable that a people who created the Sphinx and the Pyramids, the temples of Ipsamboul and Karnac, should have been entirely ignorant of coins. Yet it appears from the statements of Herodotus, and the evidence of the monuments themselves, that this was really the case. As regards the commercial and banking systems of ancient Egypt, we are almost entirely without information. Their standard of value seems to have been the 'outen' or 'ten' of copper (94–96 grammes), which circulated like the æs rude of the Romans by weight, and in the form of bricks, being measured by the balance. It was obtained from the mines of Mount Sinai, which were worked as early as the fourth dynasty. Gold and silver appear to have been also used, though less frequently. Like copper, they were sometimes in the form of bricks, but generally in rings, resembling the ring money of the ancient Celts, which is said to have been employed in Ireland down to the 12th century, and still holds its own in the interior of Africa. This approximated very nearly to the possession of money, but it wanted what the Roman lawyers called 'the law' and 'the form.' Neither the weight nor the pureness was guaranteed by any public authority. Such a state of things seems to us very inconvenient, but after all it is not very different from that which prevails in China even at the present day. The first money struck in Egypt, and that for the use rather of the Greek and Phœnician merchants than of the natives, was by the Satrap Aryandes. In ancient Babylonia and Assyria, as in Egypt, the precious metals, and especially silver, circulated as uncoined ingots. They were readily taken indeed, but taken by weight and verified by the balance like any other merchandise. The excavations in Assyria and Babylon, which have thrown so much light upon ancient history, have afforded us some interesting information as to the commercial arrangements of these countries, and we now possess a considerable number of receipts, contracts, and other records relating to loans of silver on personal securities at fixed rates of interest; loans on landed or house property; sales of land, in one case with a plan; sales of slaves, &c. These were engraved on tablets of clay, which were then burnt. M. Lenormant divides these most interesting documents into five principal types:—1. Simple obligations. 2. Obligations with a penal clause in case of non-fulfilment. One he gives which had 79 days to run. 3. Obligations with the guarantee of a third party. 4. Obligations payable to a third person. 5. Drafts drawn upon one place, payable in another. . . . These Assyrian drafts were negotiable, but from the nature of things could not pass by endorsement, because, when the clay was once baked, nothing new could be added, and under these circumstances the name of the payee was frequently omitted. It seems to follow that they must have been regularly advised. It is certainly remarkable that such instruments, and especially letters of credit, should have preceded the use of coins. The earliest banking firm of which we have any account is said to be that of Egibi and Company, for our knowledge of whom we are indebted to Mr. Boscawen, Mr. Pinches, and Mr. Hilton Price. Several documents and records belonging to this family are in the British Museum. They are on clay tablets, and were discovered in an earthenware jar found in the neighbourhood of Hillah, a few miles from Babylon. The house is said to have acted as a sort of national bank of Babylon: the founder of the house, Egibi, probably lived in the reign of Sennacherib, about 700 B. C. This family has been traced during a century and a half, and through five generations, down to the reign of Darius. At the same time, the tablets hitherto translated scarcely seem to me to prove that the firm acted as bankers, in our sense of the word."—Sir J. Lubbock, *The History of Money* (*Nineteenth Cent., Nov.*, 1879).—"We have an enormous number of the documents of this firm, beginning with Nebuchadnezzar the Great, and going on for some five generations or so to the time of Darius. The tablets are dated month after month and year after year, and thus they afford us a sure method of fixing the chronology of that very uncertain period of history. There is a small contract tablet in the Museum at Zürich, discovered by Dr. Oppert, dated in the 5th year of Pacorus, king of Persia, who reigned about the time of Domitian. There is a little doubt about the reading of one of the characters in the name, but if it is correct, it will prove that the use of cuneiform did not fall into disuse until after the Christian Era. . . . Some have tried to show that Egibi is the Babylonian form of Jacob, which would lead one to suspect the family to have been Jews; but this is not certain at present."—E. A. W. Budge, *Babylonian Life and History, p.* 115.—"It is in the development of trade, and especially of banking, rather than in manu-

factures, that Babylonia and Chaldæa were in advance of all the rest of the world. The most cautious Assyriologists are the least confident in their renderings of the numerous contract tablets from which, if they were accurately interpreted, we should certainly be able to reconstruct the laws and usages of the world's first great market place. . . . The following account of Babylonian usages is derived from the text of M. Revillout's work. . . . It is confirmed in essentials by the later work of Meissner, who has translated over one hundred deeds of the age of Hammurabi and his successors. In Chaldæa every kind of commodity, from land to money, circulated with a freedom that is unknown to modern commerce; every value was negotiable, and there was no limit to the number and variety of the agreements that might be entered into. . . . Brick tablets did not lend themselves readily to 'book-keeping,' as no further entry could be made after baking, while the first entry was not secure unless baked at once. Each brick recorded one transaction, and was kept by the party interested till the contract was completed, and the destruction of the tablet was equivalent to a receipt. Babylonian law allowed debts to be paid by assigning another person's debt to the creditor; a debt was property, and could be assigned without reference to the debtor, so that any formal acknowledgment of indebtedness could be treated like a negotiable bill — a fact which speaks volumes for the commercial honesty of the people. A separate tablet was, of course, required to record the original debt, or rather to say that So-and-so's debt to Such-an-one has been by him sold to a third party. Such third party could again either assign his claim to a bank for a consideration, or if the last debtor had a credit at the bank, the creditor could be paid out of that, a sort of forecast of the modern clearing-house system. The debtor who pays before the term agreed on has to receive a formal surrender of the creditor's claim, or a transfer of it to himself. The Babylonian regarded money and credit as synonymous, and the phrase, 'Money of Such-an-one upon So-and-so,' is used as equivalent to A's credit with B. . . . In ancient Babylonia, as in modern China, the normal effect of a loan was supposed to be beneficial to the borrower. In Egypt, judging from the form of the deeds, the idea was that the creditor asserted a claim upon the debtor, or the debtor acknowleged a liability to the man from whom he had borrowed. In Babylonia the personal question is scarcely considered; one person owes money to another — that is the commonest thing in the world — such loans are in a chronic state of being incurred and paid off; one man's debt is another man's credit, and credit being the soul of commerce, the loan is considered rather as a part of the floating negotiable capital of the country than as a burden on the shoulders of one particular debtor."—E. J. Simcox, *Primitive Civilizations*, *v.* 1, *pp.* 320–322.

China.—"Not only did the Chinese possess coins at a very early period, but they were also the inventors of bank notes. Some writers regard bank notes as having originated about 119 B. C., in the reign of the Emperor Ou-ti. At this time the Court was in want of money, and to raise it Klaproth tells us that the prime minister hit upon the following device. When any princess or courtiers entered the imperial presence, it was customary to cover the face with a piece of skin. It was first decreed then, that for this purpose the skin of certain white deer kept in one of the royal parks should alone be permitted, and then these pieces of skin were sold for a high price. But although they appear to have passed from one noble to another, they do not seem ever to have entered into general circulation. It was therefore very different from the Russian skin money. In this case the notes were 'used instead of the skins from which they were cut, the skins themselves being too bulky and heavy to be constantly carried backward and forward. Only a little piece was cut off to figure as a token of possession of the whole skin. The ownership was proved when the piece fitted in the hole.' True bank notes are said to have been invented about 800 A. D., in the reign of Hiantsoung, of the dynasty of Thang, and were called 'feytsien,' or flying money. It is curious,' however, though not surprising, to find that the temptation to over-issue led to the same results in China as in the West. The value of the notes fell, until at length it took 11,000 min, or £8,000, to buy a cake of rice, and the use of notes appears to have been abandoned. Subsequently the issue was revived, and Tchang-yang (960–990 A. D.) seems to have been the first private person who issued notes. Somewhat later, under the Emperor Tching-tsong (997–1022), this invention was largely extended. Sixteen of the richest firms united to form a bank of issue which emitted paper money in series, some payable every three years. The earliest mention, in European literature, of paper, or rather cotton, money appears to be by Rubruquis, a monk, who was sent by St. Louis, in the year 1252, to the Court of the Mongol Prince Mangu-Khan, but he merely mentions the fact of its existence. Marco Polo, who resided from 1275 to 1284 at the court of Kublai-Khan, . . . gives us a longer and interesting account of the note system, which he greatly admired, and he concludes by saying, 'Now you have heard the ways and means whereby the great Khan may have, and, in fact, has, more treasure than all the kings in the world. You know all about it, and the reason why.' But this apparent facility of creating money led, in the East, as it has elsewhere, to great abuses. Sir John Mandeville, who was in Tartary shortly afterwards, in 1322, tells us that the 'Emperour may dispenden als moche as he wile with outen estymacioum: For he despendeth not, ne maketh no money, but of lether emprented, or of papyre. . . . For there and beyonde hem thei make no money, nouther of gold nor of sylver. And therefore he may despende ynow and outrageously.' The great Khan seems to have been himself of the same opinion. He appears to have 'despent outrageously,' and the value of the paper money again fell to a very small fraction of its nominal amount, causing great discontent and misery, until about the middle of the sixteenth century, under the Mandchu dynasty, it was abolished, and appears to have been so completely forgotten, that the Jesuit father, Gabriel de Magaillans, who resided at Pekin about 1668, observes that there is no recollection of paper money having ever existed in the manner described by Marco Polo; though two centuries later it was again in use. It must be observed, however, that these Chinese bank notes differed from ours in one essential—namely,

they were not payable at sight. Western notes, even when not payable at all, have generally purported to be exchangeable at the will of the holder, but this principle the Chinese did not adopt, and their notes were only payable at certain specified periods."—Sir J. Lubbock, *The History of Money* (*Nineteenth Cent., Nov.*, 1879).

ALSO IN: W. Vissering, *On Chinese Currency*.

Coinage in its Beginnings.—"Many centuries before the invention of the art of coining, gold and silver in the East, and bronze in the West, in bullion form, had already supplanted barter, the most primitive of all methods of buying and selling, when among pastoral peoples the ox and the sheep were the ordinary mediums of exchange. The very word 'pecunia' is an evidence of this practice in Italy at a period which is probably recent in comparison with the time when values were estimated in cattle in Greece and the East. 'So far as we have any knowledge,' says Herodotus, 'the Lydians were the first nation to introduce the use of gold and silver coin.' This statement of the father of history must not, however, be accepted as finally settling the vexed question as to who were the inventors of coined money, for Strabo, Aelian, and the Parian Chronicle, all agree in adopting the more commonly received tradition, that Pheidon, King of Argos, first struck silver coins in the island of Aegina. These two apparently contradictory assertions modern research tends to reconcile with one another. The one embodies the Asiatic, the other the European tradition; and the truth of the matter is that gold was first coined by the Lydians in Asia Minor, in the seventh century before our era; and that silver was first struck in European Greece about the same time. The earliest coins are simply bullets of metal, oval or bean-shaped, bearing on one side the signet of the state or of the community responsible for the purity of the metal and the exactness of the weight. Coins were at first stamped on one side only, the reverse showing merely the impress of the square-headed spike or anvil on which, after being weighed, the bullet of hot metal was placed with a pair of tongs and there held while a second workman adjusted upon it the engraved die. This done, a third man with a heavy hammer would come down upon it with all his might, and the coin would be produced, bearing on its face or obverse the seal of the issuer, and on the reverse only the mark of the anvil spike, an incuse square. This simple process was after a time improved upon by adding a second engraved die beneath the metal bullet, so that a single blow of the sledge-hammer would provide the coin with a type, as it is called, in relief on both sides. The presence of the uncngraved incuse square may therefore be accepted as an indication of high antiquity, and nearly all Greek coins which are later than the age of the Persian wars bear a type on both sides. . . . Greek coin-types may be divided into two distinct classes: (a) Mythological or religious representations, and (b) portraits of historical persons. From the earliest times down to the age of Alexander the Great the types of Greek coins are almost exclusively religious. However strange this may seem at first, it is not difficult to explain. It must be borne in mind that when the enterprising and commercial Lydians first lighted upon the happy idea of stamping metal for general circulation, a guarantee of just weight and purity of metal would be the one condition required. . . . What more binding guarantee could be found than the invocation of one or other of those divinities most honoured and most dreaded in the district in which the coin was intended to circulate. There is even good reason to think that the earliest coins were actually struck within the precincts of the temples, and under the direct auspices of the priests; for in times of general insecurity by sea and land, the temples alone remained sacred and inviolate."—B. V. Head, *Greek Coins* (*Coins and Medals, ed. by S. Lane-Poole, ch.* 2).

Early Banking.—"The banker's calling is both new and old. As a distinct branch of commerce, and a separate agent in the advancement of civilisation, its history hardly extends over 300 years; but, in a rude and undeveloped sort of way, it has existed during some dozens of centuries. It began almost with the beginning of society. No sooner had men learnt to adopt a portable and artificial equivalent for their commodities, and thus to buy and sell and get gain more easily, than the more careful of them began to gather up their money in little heaps, or in great heaps, if they were fortunate enough. These heaps were, by the Romans, called montes—mounds, or banks,—and henceforth every money-maker was a primitive banker. The prudent farmers and shopkeepers in the out-of-the-way villages, who now lock up their savings in strong boxes, or conceal them in places where they are least likely to be found by thieves, show us how the richest and most enterprising men of far-off times, whether in Anglo-Saxon or mediæval Britain, ancient Greece and Rome, China or Judæa, made banks for themselves before the great advantages of joint-stock heaping up of money were discovered. When and in what precise way that discovery was made antiquarians have yet to decide. . . Perhaps Jews and Greeks set the example to the modern world. Every rich Athenian had his treasurer or money-keeper, and whenever any particular treasurer proved himself a good accountant and safe banker, it is easy to understand how, from having one master, he came to have several, until he was able to change his condition of slavery for the humble rank of a freedman, and then to use his freedom to such good purpose that he became an influential member of the community. Having many people's money entrusted to his care, he received good payment for his responsible duty, and he quickly learned to increase his wealth by lending out his own savings, if not his employers' capital, at the highest rate of interest that he could obtain. The Greek bankers were chiefly famous as money-lenders, and interest at thirty-six per cent. per annum was not considered unusually exorbitant among them. For their charges they were often blamed by spendthrifts, satirists, and others. 'It is said,' complains Plutarch, 'that hares bring forth and nourish their young at the same time that they conceive again; but the debts of these scoundrels and savages bring forth before they conceive, for they give and immediately demand again; they take away their money at the same time as they put it out; they place at interest what they receive as interest. The Messenians have a proverb: "There is a Pylos before Pylos, and yet another Pylos still." So of the usurers it may be said, "There is a profit before

profit, and yet another profit still;" and then, forsooth, they laugh at philosophers, who say that nothing can come out of nothing!' The Greek bankers and money-lenders, those of Delos and Delphi especially, are reported to have used the temples as treasure-houses, and to have taken the priests into partnership in their money-making. Some arrangement of that sort seems to have existed among the Jews, and to have aroused the anger of Jesus when he went into the Temple of Jerusalem, 'and overthrew the tables of the money-changers, and said unto them, It is written, My house shall be called the house of prayer; but ye have made it a den of thieves.' Bankers' or money-changers' tables were famous institutions all over the civilised world of the ancients. Livy tells how, in 808 B. C., if not before, they were to be found in the Roman Forum, and later Latin authors make frequent allusions to banking transactions of all sorts. They talk of deposits and securities, bills of exchange and drafts to order, cheques and bankers' books, as glibly as a modern merchant. But these things were nearly forgotten during the dark ages, until the Jews, true to the money-making propensities that characterised them while they still had a country of their own, set the fashion of money-making and of banking in all the countries of Europe through which they were dispersed."—H. R. Fox Bourne, *Romance of Trade, ch.* 4.

Ancient Greece.—"Oriental contact first stirred the 'auri sacra fames' in the Greek mind. That this was so the Greek language itself tells plainly. For 'chrusos,' gold, is a Semitic loan-word, closely related to the Hebrew 'charuz,' but taken immediately, there can be no reasonable doubt, from the Phœnician. The restless treasure-seekers from Tyre were, indeed, as the Græco-Semitic term metal intimates, the original subterranean explorers of the Balkan peninsula. As early, probably, as the 15th century B. C. they 'digged out ribs of gold' on the islands of Thasos and Siphnos, and on the Thracian mainland at Mount Pangæum; and the fables of the Golden Fleece, and of Arimaspian wars with gold-guarding griffins, prove the hold won by the 'precious bane' over the popular imagination. Asia Minor was, however, the chief source of prehistoric supply, the native mines lying long neglected after the Phœnicians had been driven from the scene. Midas was a typical king in a land where the mountains were gold-granulated, and the rivers ran over sands of gold. And it was in fact from Phrygia that Pelops was traditionally reported to have brought the treasures which made Mycenæ the golden city of the Achæan world. The Epic affluence in gold was not wholly fictitious. From the sepulchres of Mycenæ alone about one hundred pounds Troy weight of the metal have been disinterred; freely at command even in the lowest stratum of the successive habitations at Hissarlik, it was lavishly stored, and highly wrought in the picturesquely-named 'treasure of Priam'; and has been found, in plates and pearls, beneath twenty metres of volcanic debris, in the Cyclatic islands Thera and Therapia. This plentifulness contrasts strangely with the extreme scarcity of gold in historic Greece. It persisted, however, mainly owing to the vicinity of the auriferous Ural Mountains, in the Milesian colony of Panticapæum, near Kertch, where graves have been opened containing corpses shining 'like images' in a complete clothing of gold-leaf, and equipped with ample supplies of golden vessels and ornaments. Silver was, at the outset, a still rarer substance than gold. Not that there is really less of it. . . . But it occurs less obviously, and is less easy to obtain pure. Accordingly, in some very early Egyptian inscriptions, silver, by heading the list of metals, claims a supremacy over them which proved short-lived. It terminated for ever with the scarcity that had produced it, when the Phœnicians began to pour the flood of Spanish silver into the markets and treasure-chambers of the East. Armenia constituted another tolerably copious source of supply; and it was in this quarter that Homer located the 'birth-place of silver.'"—A. M. Clerke, *Familiar Studies in Homer, ch.* 10.—"Taken as a whole the Greek money is excellent; pure in metal and exact in weight, its real corresponding to its nominal value. Nothing better has been done in this way among the most civilized and best governed nations of modern times. There is, indeed, always a certain recognized limit, which keeps the actual weight of the money slightly below its theoretical weight; and this fact recurs with such regularity that it may be regarded as a rule. We must conclude, therefore, that it was under this form that Greek civilization allowed to the coiner of money the right of seigniorage, or the benefit legitimately due to him to cover the expenses of the coinage, and in exchange for the service rendered by him to the public in providing them with money, by which they were saved the trouble of perpetual weighing. This allowance, however, is always kept within very narrow limits, and is never more than the excess of the natural value of the coined money over that of the metal in ingots. . . . Of course, the general and predominant fact of the excellence of the Greek money in the time of Hellenic independence is subject, like all human things, to some exceptions. There were a few cities which yielded to the delusive bait of an unlawful advantage, debasing the quality of their coins without foreseeing that the consequences of this unfair operation would react against themselves. But these exceptions are very rare."—F. Lenormant, *Money in Ancient Greece and Rome* (*Contemp. Rev., Feb.*, 1879).—"The quantity, particularly of gold, . . . was, in the earlier historical periods, according to unexceptionable testimony, extremely small. In the time of Crœsus, according to Theopompus, gold was not to be found for sale in any of the Greek States. The Spartans, needing some for a votive offering, wished to purchase a quantity from Crœsus; manifestly because he was the nearest person from whom it could be obtained. . . . Even during the period from the seventieth to the eightieth Olympiads, (B. C. 500–460,) pure gold was a rarity. When Hiero of Syracuse wished to send a tripod and a statue of the Goddess of Victory, made of pure gold, to the Delphian Apollo, he could not procure the requisite quantity of metal until his agents applied to the Corinthian Architiles, who, as was related by the above-mentioned Theopompus and Phanias of Eresus, had long been in the practice of purchasing gold in small quantities, and hoarding it. Greece proper itself did not possess many mines of precious metals. The most important of the few which it possessed were the Attic

silver mines of Laurion. These were at first very productive. . . . Asia and Africa furnished incomparably a larger quantity of the precious metals than was procured in Greece and the other European countries. . . . Colchis, Lydia, and Phrygia, were distinguished for their abundance of gold. Some derive the tradition of the golden fleece from the gold washings in Colchis. Who has not heard of the riches of Midas, and Gyges, and Cœsus, the gold mines of the mountains Tmolus and Sipylus, the gold-sand of the Pactolus? . . . From the very productive gold mines of India, together with its rivers flowing with gold, among which in particular the Ganges may be classed, arose the fable of the gold-digging ants. From these annual revenues the royal treasure was formed. By this a great quantity of precious metal was kept from circulation. It was manifestly their principle to coin only as much gold and silver as was necessary for the purposes of trade, and for the expenditures of the State. In Greece, also, great quantities were kept from circulation, and accumulated in treasuries. There were locked up in the citadel of Athens 9,700 talents of coined silver, besides the gold and silver vessels and utensils. The Delphian god possessed a great number of the most valuable articles. . . . The magnificent expenditures of Pericles upon public edifices and structures, for works of the plastic arts, for theatrical exhibitions, and in carrying on wars, distributed what Athens had collected, into many hands. The temple-robbing Phocians coined from the treasures at Delphi ten thousand talents in gold and silver; and this large sum was consumed by war. Philip of Macedonia, in fine, carried on his wars as much with gold as with arms. Thus a large amount of money came into circulation in the period between the commencement of the Persian wars and the age of Demosthenes. The precious metals, therefore, must of necessity have depreciated in value, as they did at a later period, when Constantine the Great caused money to be coined from the precious articles found in the heathen temples. But what a quantity of gold and silver flowed through Alexander's conquest of Asia into the western countries! Allowing that his historians exaggerate, the main point, however, remains certain. . . . Alexander's successors not only collected immense sums, but by their wars again put them into circulation. . . . The enormous taxes which were raised in the Macedonian kingdoms, the revelry and extravagant liberality of the kings, which passed all bounds, indicate the existence of an immense amount of ready money." —A. Boeckh, *The Public Economy of the Athenians, bk.* 1, *ch.* 8.

Phœnicia.—"Nearly all the silver in common use for trade throughout the East was brought into the market by the Phœnicians. The silver mines were few and distant; the trade was thus a monopoly, worth keeping so by the most savage treatment of suspected rivals, and, as a monopoly, so lucrative that, but for the long and costly voyage between Spain and Syria, the merchant would have seemed to get his profit for nothing. . . . The use of silver money, though it did not originate with the Phœnicians, was no doubt promoted by their widespread dealings. The coins were always of known weight, and standing in a well-known relation to the bars used for large transactions."—E. J. Simcox, *Primitive Civilisations*, *v.* 1, *p.* 400.—"It is a curious fact that coinage in Phœnicia, one of the most commercial of ancient countries, should have been late in origin, and apparently not very plentiful. There are, in fact, no coins of earlier period than the third century which we can with certainty attribute to the great cities of Tyre and Sidon. Some modern writers, however, consider that many of the coins generally classed under Persia—notably those bearing the types of a chariot, a galley, and an owl respectively—were issued by those cities in the 5th and 4th centuries B. C. But it is certain, in any case, that the Phœnicians were far behind the Greeks in the art of moneying. With the invasion of Persia by Alexander the Great came a great change; and all the ancient landmarks of Asiatic government and order were swept away. During the life of Alexander the Great the coins bearing his name and his types circulated throughout Asia; and after his death the same range of currency was attained by the money of the early Seleucid Kings of Syria—Seleucis I., Antiochus I., and Antiochus II., who virtually succeeded to the dominions of the Persian Kings, and tried in many respects to carry on their policy. Of these monarchs we possess a splendid series of coins." —S. Lane-Poole, *Coins and Medals, ch.* 6.

The Jews.—"It would seem that, until the middle of the second century B. C., the Jews either weighed out gold and silver for the price of goods, or else used the money usually current in Syria, that of Persia, Phœnicia, Athens, and the Seleucidæ. Simon the Maccabee was the first to issue the Jewish shekel as a coin, and we learn from the Book of Maccabees that the privilege of striking was expressly granted him by King Antiochus VII. of Syria. We possess shekels of years 1–5 of the deliverance of Zion; the types are a chalice and a triple flower. The kings who succeeded Simon, down to Antigonus, confined themselves to the issue of copper money, with Hebrew legends and with types calculated not to shock the susceptible feelings of their people, to whom the representation of a living thing was abominable—such types as a lily, a palm, a star, or an anchor. When the Herodian family came in, several violations of this rule appear."—S. Lane-Poole, *Coins and Medals, ch.* 6.

Also in: G. C. Williamson, *The Money of the Bible.*

Rome.—"In Rome the generic terms for money seem to have been successively, pecunia, As, nummus, and moneta. . . . Moneta . . . is derived from the name of the temple in which, or in a building to or next to which the money of Rome was coined after the defeat of Pyrrhus, B. C. 275, more probably after the capture of Tarentum by the Romans, B. C. 272. It probably did not come into use until after the era of Scipio, and then was only used occasionally until the period of the Empire, when it and its derivatives became more common. Nummus, nevertheless, continued to hold its ground until towards the decline of the Empire, when it went entirely out of use, and moneta and its derivatives usurped its place, which it has continued to hold ever since. Moneta is therefore substantially a term of the Dark Ages. . . . The idea associated with moneta is coins, whose value was derived mainly from that of the material of which they were composed; whilst the idea associated with nummus is a system of symbols

whose value was derived from legal limitation. From the fact that our language sprang from the Dark Ages, we have no generic word for money other than moneta, which only relates to one kind of money. For a similar reason, the comparative newness of the English tongue, we have no word for a piece of money except coin, which, properly speaking, only relates to one kind of piece, namely, that which is struck by the cuneus."—A. Del Mar, *Hist. of Money in Ancient Countries, ch.* 28.—The extent and energy of the Roman traffic, in the great age of the Republic, during the third and second centuries before Christ, "may be traced most distinctly by means of coins and monetary relations. The Roman denarius kept pace with the Roman legions. . . . The Sicilian mints—last of all that of Syracuse in 542—were closed or at any rate restricted to small money in consequence of the Roman conquest, and . . . in Sicily and Sardinia the denarius obtained legal circulation at least side by side with the older silver currency and probably very soon became the exclusive legal tender. With equal if not greater rapidity the Roman silver coinage penetrated into Spain, where the great silver-mines existed and there was virtually no earlier national coinage; at a very early period the Spanish towns even began to coin after the Roman standard. On the whole, as Carthage coined only to a very limited extent, there existed not a single important mint in addition to that of Rome in the region of the western Mediterranean, with the exception of the mint of Massilia and perhaps also of those of the Illyrian Greeks at Apollonia and Epidamnus. Accordingly, when the Romans began to establish themselves in the region of the Po, these mints were about 225 subjected to the Roman standard in such a way, that, while they retained the right of coining silver, they uniformly—and the Massiliots in particular—were led to adjust their drachma to the weight of the Roman three-quarter denarius, which the Roman government on its part began to coin, primarily for the use of upper Italy, under the name of the 'piece of Victory' (victoriatus). This new system, based on the Roman, prevailed throughout the Massiliot, Upper Italian, and Illyrian territories; and these coins even penetrated into the barbarian lands on the north, those of Massilia, for instance, into the Alpine districts along the whole basin of the Rhone, and those of Illyria as far as the modern Transylvania. The eastern half of the Mediterranean was not yet reached by the Roman money, as it had not yet fallen under the direct sovereignty of Rome; but its place was filled by gold, the true and natural medium for international and transmarine commerce. It is true that the Roman government, in conformity with its strictly conservative character, adhered—with the exception of a temporary coinage of gold occasioned by the financial embarrassment during the Hannibalic war—steadfastly to the rule of coining silver only in addition to the national-Italian copper; but commerce had already assumed such dimensions, that it was able in the absence of money to conduct its transactions with gold by weight. Of the sum in cash, which lay in the Roman treasury in 597, scarcely a sixth was coined or uncoined silver, five-sixths consisted of gold in bars, and beyond doubt the precious metals were found in all the chests of the larger Roman capitalists in substantially similar proportions. Already therefore gold held the first place in great transactions; and, as may be inferred from this fact, the preponderance of traffic was maintained with foreign lands, and particularly with the East, which since the times of Philip and Alexander the Great had adopted a gold currency. The whole gain from these immense transactions of the Roman capitalists flowed in the long run to Rome. . . . The moneyed superiority of Rome as compared with the rest of the civilized world was, accordingly, quite as decided as its political and military ascendancy. Rome in this respect stood towards other countries somewhat as the England of the present day stands towards the continent."—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 3, *ch.* 12 (*v.* 2).—In the later years of the Roman Republic the coinage became debased and uncertain. "Cæsar restored the public credit by issuing good money, such as had not been seen in Rome for a length of time, money of pure metal and exact weight; with scarcely any admixture of plated pieces, money which could circulate for its real value, and this measure became one of the principal sources of his popularity. Augustus followed his example, but at the same time took away from the Senate the right of coining gold and silver, reserving this exclusively to the imperial authority, which was to exercise it absolutely without control. From this time we find the theory that the value of money is arbitrary, and depends solely on the will of the sovereign who issues it, more and more widely and tenaciously held. . . . The faith placed in the official impress fostered the temptation to abuse it. . . . In less than a century the change of the money of the State into imperial money, and the theory that its value arose from its bearing the effigy of the sovereign, produced a system of adulteration of specie, which went on growing to the very close of the Empire, and which the successors of Augustus utilized largely for the indulgence of their passions and their prodigality."—F. Lenormant, *Money in Ancient Greece and Rome* (*Contemp. Rev., Feb.*, 1879).

Mediæval Money and Banking.—"As regards the monetary system of the Middle Ages, the precious metals, when uncoined, were weighed by the pound and half pound or mark, for which different standards were in use, the most generally recognised being those of Troyes and Cologne. Of coined money there existed a perplexing variety, which made it almost impossible to ascertain the relative value, not only of different coins, but of the same coin of different issues. This resulted from the emperor or king conferring the right of coinage upon various lords spiritual and temporal, from whom it was ultimately acquired by individual towns. The management was in most cases entrusted to a company, temporary or permanent, inspected by an official, the coin-tester, originally appointed by the sovereign, but afterwards by the company, and confirmed by the king or bishop. The house where the process of coining was performed was called the mint, and the company who held the rights of coinage in fee was known as the Mint House Company, or simply the House Company. Very generally the office was held by the Corporation of Goldsmiths. The want of perfect supervision led to great debasement of the currency, especially in Germany and France; but in England and Italy the standard

was tolerably well maintained. Payments in silver were much more common than in gold. Before the Crusades the only gold coins known in Europe were the Byzantine solides, the Italian tari, and Moorish maurabotini. The solidi, which were originally of 23 to 23¼ carat gold, but subsequently very much deteriorated, were reckoned as equal to twelve silver denars. They passed current in Southern and Eastern Europe, Hungary, Germany, Poland, and Prussia. . . . Solde, sol, and sou are only repeated transformations of the name of the coin, which have been accompanied by still greater changes in its value. The tari or tarentini derived its name from the Italian town where it was originally struck. It was less generally known than the solides, and was equal to one-fourth the latter in value. The maurabotini or sarazens were only of 15 carats gold. The name survives in the Spanish maravedi, which, however, like the sou, is now made of copper instead of gold. In the thirteenth century augustals, florentines, and ducats, or zecchins (sequins), were coined in Italy. The first-mentioned, the weight of which was half an ounce, were named in honour of Frederick II., who was Roman Cæsar and Augustus in 1252. The florentines, also known as gigliati, or lilies, from the arms of Florence, which they bore on one side, with the effigy of John the Baptist on the reverse, were of fine gold and lighter than the solidi, about 64 being reckoned equal to the mark. The ducats or zecchins were of Venetian origin, receiving their first name from the Duca or Doge, and the other from the Zecca or Mint House. They were somewhat less in value than the florentines, 66 or 67 being counted to the fine mark. Nearly equivalent in value to these Italian coins were the gold guilders coined in the fourteenth century in Hungary and the Rhine regions. The Rhenish guilder was of 22½ or 23 carats fine, and in weight $\frac{1}{68}$ of a mark of Cologne. The silver guilder was of later production, and the name is now used as equivalent to florin. . . . In silver payments, the metal being usually nearly pure, it was common to compute by weight, coins and uncoined bullion being alike put into the scale, as is still the case in some Eastern countries. Hence the origin of the pound, livre, or mark. The most widely diffused silver coin was the denarius, which was, as in ancient Roman times, the $\frac{1}{240}$ of a pound. The name pending or pennig, by which the denarius was known among the old Teutonic nations, seems to be connected with pendere, to weigh out or pay; as the other ancient Teutonic coin, the sceat, was with scceoton, to pay, a word which is preserved in the modern phrases 'scot free,' 'pay your scot.' . . . Half-pennies and farthings were not known in the earliest times, but the penny was deeply indented by two cross lines, which enabled it to be broken into quarters or farthings (feordings or fourthings). From the indented cross the denarius was known in Germany as the kreutzer. . . . With such a diversity of coinage, it was necessary to settle any mercantile transaction in the currency of the place. Not only would sellers have refused to accept money whose value was unknown to them, but in many places they were forbidden to do so by law. Merchants attending foreign markets therefore brought with them a quantity of fine silver and gold in bars, which they exchanged on the spot for the current coin of the place, to be used in settling their transactions; the balance remaining on hand they re-exchanged for bullion before leaving. The business of money-changing, which thus arose, was a very lucrative one, and was originally mostly in the hands of Italian merchants, chiefly Lombards and Florentines. In Italy the money-changers formed a guild, members of which settled in the Netherlands, England, Cologne, and the Mediterranean ports. In these different towns and countries they kept up a close connection with each other and with Italy, and at an early period (before the thirteenth century) commenced the practice of assignments, i. e., receiving money in one place, to be paid by an order upon their correspondents in another, thus saving the merchant who travelled from country to country the expense and risk of transporting specie. In the thirteenth century this branch of business was in extensive use at Barcelona, and in 1307 the tribute of 'Peter's pence' was sent from England to the Pope through the Lombard exchangers. From 5 to 6 per cent., or more, was charged upon the transaction, and the profitable nature of the business soon led many wealthy and even noble Italian families to employ their money in this way. They established a member of their firm in each of the great centres of trade to receive and pay on their account. In Florence alone (about 1350) there are said to have been eighty such houses. Among these the Frescobaldi, Bardi, and Peruzzi are well-known names; but the chief place was taken by the famous Florentine house of the Medici, who had banking houses established in sixteen of the chief cities of Europe and the Levant. In the north of Europe, before long, similar arrangements were established by the merchants of the Hanseatic League. . . . Assignments of this kind were drawn out in the form of letters, requesting the person by whom the money was due to pay it over to another party, named in the bill, on account of the writer, specifying also the time within which and the form in which the payment was to be made. They were thus known as letters, billets, or bills of exchange, and appear in Italy as early as the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Among the earliest examples in existence are a letter of exchange, dated at Milan in 1325, payable within five months at Lucca; one dated at Bruges, 1304, and payable at Barcelona; and another, dated at Bologna, 1381, payable in Venice. . . . 'The first writers who treat of bills are Italians: the Italian language furnishes the technical terms for drafts, remittances, currency, sight, usance, and discount, used in most of the languages of Europe.' . . . Of other branches of banking the germs also appeared in the Middle Ages. Venice seems to have been the first city to possess something answering to a deposit bank. The merchants here united in forming a common treasury, where they deposited sums of money, upon which they gave assignments or orders for payment to their creditors, and to which similar assignments due to themselves were paid and added on to the amount at their credit. The taula di cambi (exchange counter) of Barcelona was a similar institution, as also the bank of St. George, at Genoa."—J. Yeats, *Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce, appendix F.*—The name "Lombards" was frequently given, during the Middle Ages, to all the Italian merchants and

money-lenders — from Florence, Venice, Genoa, and elsewhere — who were engaged throughout Europe in banking and trade.

Florentine Banking. — "The business of money-changing seemed thoroughly at home here, and it is not surprising that the invention of bills of exchange, which we first meet with in 1199 in the relations between England and Italy, should be ascribed to Florence. The money trade seems to have flourished as early as the twelfth century, towards the end of which a Marquis of Ferrara raised money on his lands from the Florentines. In 1204 we find the money-changers as one of the corporations. In 1228, and probably from the beginning of the century, several Florentines were settled in London as changers to King Henry III.; and here, as in France, they conducted the money transactions of the Papal chair in conjunction with the Sienese. Their oldest known statute, which established rules for the whole conduct of trade (Statuto dell' Università della Mercatanzia) drawn up by a commission consisting of five members of the great guilds, is dated 1280. Their guild-hall was in the Via Calimaruzza, opposite that of the Calimala, and was later included in the buildings of the post-office, on the site of which, after the post-office had been removed to what was formerly the mint, a building was lately erected, similar in architecture to the Palazzo of the Signoria, which stands opposite. Their coat of arms displayed gold coins laid one beside another on a red field. At the end of the thirteenth century their activity, especially in France and England, was extraordinarily great. But if wealth surpassing all previous conception was attained, it not seldom involved loss of repute, and those who pursued the calling ran the risk of immense losses from fiscal measures to the carrying out of which they themselves contributed, as well as those which were caused by insolvency or dishonesty. . . . The names of Tuscans and Lombards, and that of Cahorsiens in France, no longer indicated the origin, but the trade of the money-changers, who drew down the ancient hatred upon themselves. . . . France possessed at this time the greatest attraction for the Florentine money-makers, although they were sometimes severely oppressed, which is sufficient proof that their winnings were still greater than their occasional losses. . . . The Florentine money market suffered the severest blow from England. At the end of the twelfth century there were already Florentine houses of exchange in London, and if Pisans, Genoese, and Venetians managed the trade by sea in the times of the Crusades, it was the Florentines mostly who looked after financial affairs in connection with the Papal chair, as we have seen. Numerous banks appeared about the middle of the thirteenth century, among which the Frescobaldi, a family of ancient nobility, and as such attainted by the prosecutions against it, took the lead, and were referred to the custom-house of the country for re-imbursement of the loans made to the kings Edward I. and II. Later, the two great trading companies of the Bardi and Peruzzi came into notice, and with their money Edward III. began the French war against Philip of Valois. But even in the first year of this war, which began with an unsuccessful attack upon Flanders, the king suspended the payments to the creditors of the State by a decree of May 6, 1339. The advances made by the Bardi amounted to 180,000 marks sterling, those of the Peruzzi to above 135,000, according to Giovanni Villani, who knew only too well about these things, since he was ruined by them himself to the extent of 'a sum of more than 1,855,000 gold florins, equivalent to the value of a kingdom.' Bonifazio Peruzzi, the head of the house, hastened to London, where he died of grief in the following year. The blow fell on the whole city. . . . Both houses began at once to liquidate, and the prevailing disturbance contributed not a little to the early success of the ambitious plans of the Duke of Athens. The real bankruptcy ensued, however, in January 1346, when new losses had occurred in Sicily. . . . The banks of the Acciaiuoli, Bonaccorsi, Cocchi, Antellesi, Corsini, da Uzzano, Perendoli, and many smaller ones, as well as numerous private persons, were involved in the ruin. 'The immense loans to foreign sovereigns,' adds Villani, 'drew down ruin upon our city, the like of which it had never known.' There was a complete lack of cash. Estates in the city found no purchasers at a third of their former value. . . . The famine and pestilence of 1347 and 1348, the oppressions of the mercenary bands and the heavy expenses caused by them, the cost of the war against Pope Gregory XI., and finally the tumult of the Ciompi, left Florence no peace for a long time. . . . At the beginning of the fifteenth century industry was again flourishing in all its branches in Florence, financial operations were extended, and foreign countries filled with Florentine banks and mercantile houses. . . . In London the most important firms had their representatives, Bruges was the chief place for Flanders, and we shall see how these connections lasted to the time of the greatest splendour of the Medici. France is frequently mentioned. The official representatives of the Florentine nation resided in the capital, while numerous houses established themselves in Lyons, in Avignon (since the removal of the Papal chair to this town), in Nismes, Narbonne, Carcassonne, Marseilles, &c. . . . The house of the Peruzzi alone had sixteen counting-houses in the fourteenth century, from London to Cyprus."—A. von Reumont, *Lorenzo de' Medici*, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 4 (*v.* 1).

—"The three principal branches of industry which enriched the Florentines were — banking, the manufacture of cloth, and the dyeing of it, and the manufacture of silk. The three most important guilds of the seven 'arti maggiori' were those which represented these three industries. Perhaps the most important in the amount of its gains, as well as that which first rose to a high degree of importance, was the 'Arte del Cambio,' or banking. The earliest banking operations seem to have arisen from the need of the Roman court to find some means of causing the dues to which it laid claim in distant parts of Europe to be collected and transmitted to Rome. When the Papal Court was removed to Avignon, its residence there occasioned a greatly increased sending backwards and forwards of money between Italy and that city. And of all this banking business, the largest and most profitable portion was in the hands of Florentine citizens, whether resident in Florence or in the various commercial cities of Europe. We find Florentines engaged in lending money at interest to sovereign princes as early as the first quarter of the twelfth century."—T. A. Trollope, *History*

of the Commonwealth of Florence, bk. 4, ch. 1 (v. 2).

Genoa.—The Bank of St. George.—"The Bank of St. George, its constitution, its building, and its history, forms one of the most interesting relics of mediæval commercial activity. Those old grey walls, as seen still in Genoa, begrimed with dirt and fast falling into decay, are the cradle of modern commerce, modern banking schemes, and modern wealth. . . . This Bank of St. George is indeed a most singular political phenomenon. Elsewhere than in Genoa we search in vain for a parallel for the existence of a body of citizens distinct from the government —with their own laws, magistrates, and independent authority—a state within a state, a republic within a republic. All dealings with the government were voluntary on the part of the bank. . . . But, far from working without harmony, we always find the greatest unanimity of feeling between these two forms of republics within the same city walls. The government of Genoa always respected the liberties of the bank, and the bank always did its best to assist the government when in pecuniary distress. . . . To define an exact origin for the bank is difficult; it owed its existence to the natural development of commercial enterprise rather than to the genius of any one man, or the shrewdness of any particular period in Genoese history. The Crusades, and the necessary preparation of galleys, brought into Genoa the idea of advancing capital for a term of years as a loan to the government on the security of the taxes and public revenues; but in those cases the profits were quickly realized, and the debts soon cancelled by the monarchs who incurred them. However, the expeditions against the Saracens and the Moors were otherwise, and were undertaken at some risk to Genoa herself. . . . Now large sums of money were advanced, the profits on which were not spontaneous; it was more an investment of capital for a longer term of years, which was secured by the public revenues, but the profits of which depended on the success of the expedition. In 1148 was the first formal debt incurred by the government, and to meet the occasion the same system was adopted which continued in vogue, subject only to regulations and improvements which were found necessary as time went on, until the days of the French Revolution. The creditors nominated from amongst themselves a council of administration to watch over the common interests, and to them the government conceded a certain number of the custom duties for a term of years until the debt should be extinguished. This council of administration elected their own consuls, after the fashion of the Republic governors. Every hundred francs was termed a share (luogo) and every creditor a shareholder (luogatorio). . . . Each separate loan was termed a 'compera,' and these loans were collectively known as the 'compere of St. George,' which in later years became the celebrated bank. Each loan generally took the name of the object for which it was raised, or the name of the saint on whose day the contract was signed; and when an advance of money was required, it was done by public auction in the streets, when the auctioneer sold the investment to the ever ready merchants, who collected outside the 'loggia,' or other prominent position chosen for the sale. In a loud voice was proclaimed the name and object of the loan, and the tax which was to be handed over to the purchasers to secure its repayment. So numerous did these loans become by 1352, that it was found necessary to unite them under one head, with a chancellor and other minor officials to watch over them. And as time went on, so great was the credit of Genoa, and so easy was this system found for raising money, that the people began to grow alarmed at the extent of the liabilities. So, in 1302, commissioners were appointed at a great assembly, two hundred and seventy-one articles and regulations were drawn up to give additional security to investors, and henceforth no future loan could be effected without the sanction of the consuls and the confirmation of the greater council of the shareholders. . . . During the days of the first doge, Simone Boccanegra, great changes were to be effected in the working system of the 'compere of St. George.' To this date many have assigned the origin of the Bank of St. George, but it will be seen only to be a further consolidation of the same system, which had already been at work two centuries. . . . In 1339, . . . at the popular revolution, all the old books were burnt, and a new commission appointed to regulate the 'compere.' . . . Instead . . . of being the origin of the bank, it was only another step in the growing wish for consolidation, which the expanding tendency of the 'compere' rendered necessary; which consolidation took final effect in 1407, when the Bank was thoroughly organized on the same footing which lasted till the end. Every year and every event tended towards this system of blending the loans together, to which fact is due the extensive power which the directors of the bank eventually wielded, when all interests and all petty disputes were merged together in one. . . . As time went on, and the French governor, Boucicault, weighed on the treasury the burden of fresh fortifications, and an expensive war; when Corsican troubles, and the Turks in the East, caused the advance of money to be frequent, an assembly of all the shareholders in all the loans decided that an entire reorganization of the public debts should take place. Nine men were elected to draw up a new scheme, in 1407, and by their instrumentality all the shares were united; the interest for all was to be seven per cent., and fresh officials were appointed to superintend the now thoroughly constituted and re-named 'Bank of St. George.' And at length we behold this celebrated bank. Its credit never failed, and no anxiety was ever felt by any shareholder about his annual income, until the days of the French Revolution. . . . This Bank of St. George was essentially one of the times, and not one which could have existed on modern ideas of credit; for it was a bank which would only issue paper for the coin in its actual possession, and would hardly suit the dictates of modern commerce. It was not a bank for borrowers but for capitalists, who required enormous security for immense sums until they could employ them themselves. . . . One of the most interesting features in connection with the dealings of the bank with the Genoese government, and a conclusive proof of the perfect accord which existed between them, was the cession from time to time of various colonies and provinces to the directors of the bank when the government felt itself too weak and too poor to

maintain them. In this manner were the colonies in the Black Sea made over to the bank when the Turkish difficulties arose. Corsica and Cyprus, also towns on the Riviera, such as Sarzana, Ventimiglia, Levanto, found themselves at various times under the direct sovereignty of the bank. . . . It is melancholy to have to draw a veil over the career of this illustrious bank with the Revolution of 1798. The new order of things which Genoa had learnt from France deemed it inconsistent with liberty that the taxes, the property of the Republic, should remain in the hands of the directors of St. George; it was voted a tyranny on a small scale, and the directors were compelled to surrender them; and inasmuch as the taxes represented the sole source from which their income was derived, they soon discovered that their bank notes were useless, and the building was closed shortly afterwards. In 1804 and 1814 attempts were made to resuscitate the fallen fortunes of St. George, but without avail; and so this bank, the origin of which was shrouded in the mysteries of bygone centuries, fell under the sweeping scythe of the French Revolution."—J. T. Bent, *Genoa, ch.* 11.
—See, also, GENOA: A. D. 1407–1448.

16-17th Centuries.—Monetary effects of the Discovery of America.—"From 1492, the year of the discovery of the New World, to 1500, it is doubtful whether [the mines of Mexico and Peru] . . . yielded on an average a prey of more than 1,500,000 francs (£60,000) a year. From 1500 to 1545, if we add to the treasure produced from the mines the amount of plunder found in the capital of the Montezumas, Ténochtitlan (now the city of Mexico), as well as in the temples and palaces of the kingdom of the Incas, the gold and silver drawn from America did not exceed an average of sixteen million francs (£640,000) a year. From 1545, the scene changes. In one of the gloomiest deserts on the face of the globe, in the midst of the rugged and inhospitable mountain scenery of Upper Peru, chance revealed to a poor Indian, who was guarding a flock of llamas, a mine of silver of incomparable richness. A crowd of miners was instantly attracted by the report of the rich deposits of ore spread over the sides of this mountain of Potocchi—a name which for euphony the European nations have since changed to Potosi. The exportation of the precious metals from America to Europe now rose rapidly to an amount which equalled, weight for weight, sixty millions of francs (£2,400,000) of our day, and it afterwards rose even to upwards of eighty millions. At that time such a mass of gold and silver represented a far greater amount of riches than at present. Under the influence of so extraordinary a supply, the value of these precious metals declined in Europe, in comparison with every other production of human industry just as would be the case with iron or lead, if mines were discovered which yielded those metals in superabundance, as compared with their present consumption, and at a much less cost of labour than previously, just in fact as occurs in the case of manufactures of every kind, whenever, by improved processes, or from natural causes of a novel kind, they can be produced in unusual quantities, and at a great reduction of cost. This fall in the value of gold and silver, in comparison with all other productions, revealed itself by the increased quantity of coined metal which it was necessary to give in exchange for the generality of other articles. And it was thus that the working of the mines of America had necessarily for effect a general rise of prices, in other words, it made all other commodities dearer. The fall in the value of the precious metals, or that which means the same thing, the general rise of prices, does not appear to have been very great, out of Spain, till after the middle of the 16th century. Shortly after the commencement of the 17th century, the effects of the productiveness of the new mines and of the diminished cost of working them were realised in all parts of Europe. For the silver, which had been extracted in greater proportion than the gold, and on more favourable terms, the fall in value had been in the proportion of 1 to 3. In transactions where previously one pound of silver, or a coin containing a given quantity of this metal, had sufficed, henceforth three were required. . . . After having been arrested for awhile in this downward course, and even after having witnessed for a time a tendency to an upward movement, the fall in the value of the precious metals, and the corresponding rise in prices, resumed their course, under the influence of the same causes, until towards the end of the 18th century, without however manifesting their influence so widely or intensely as had been witnessed after the first development of the great American mines. We find, as the result, that during the first half of the 19th century, the value of silver fell to about the sixth of what it was before the discovery of America, when compared with the price of corn."—M. Chevalier, *On the Probable Fall in the Value of Gold* (*tr. by Cobden*), *sect.* 1, *ch.* 1.

17th Century.—The Bank of Amsterdam.—"In 1609, the great Bank of Amsterdam was founded, and its foundation not only testifies to the wealth of the republic, but marks an epoch in the commercial history of Northern Europe. Long before this period, banks had been established in the Italian cities, but, until late in the history of the Bank of England, which was not founded until nearly a century later, nothing was known on such a scale as this. It was established to meet the inconvenience arising from the circulation of currency from all quarters of the globe, and to accommodate merchants in their dealings. Any one making a deposit of gold or silver received notes for the amount, less a small commission, and these notes commanded a premium in all countries. Before the end of the century its deposits of this character amounted to one hundred and eighty million dollars, an amount of treasure which bewildered financiers in every other part of Europe."—D. Campbell, *The Puritan in Holland, England, and America*, *v.* 2, *pp.* 323–324.

17th Century.—Indian Money used in the American Colonies.—Sea shells, strung or embroidered on belts and garments, formed the "wampum" which was the money of the North American Indians (see WAMPUM). "Tradition gives to the Narragansetts the honor of inventing these valued articles, valuable both for use and exchange. This tribe was one of the most powerful, and it is asserted that their commercial use of wampum gave them their best opportunities of wealth. The Long Island Indians manufactured the beads in large quantities and they were forced to pay them away in tribute to the

Mohawks and the fiercer tribes of the interior. Furs were readily exchanged for these trinkets, which carried a permanent value, through the constancy of the Indian desire for them. The holder of wampum always compelled trade to come to him. After the use of wampum was established in colonial life, contracts were made payable at will in wampum, beaver, or silver. . . . The use began in New England in 1627. It was a legal tender until 1661, and for more than three quarters of a century the wampum was current in small transactions. For more than a century, indeed, this currency entered into the intercourse of Indian and colonist. . . . Labor is a chief factor in civilized society and the labor of the Indian was made available through wampum. As Winthrop shows, 10,000 beaver skins annually came to the Dutch from the Great Lake. The chase was the primitive form of Indian industry and furs were the most conspicuous feature of foreign trade, as gold is to-day, but wampum played a much larger part in the vital trade of the time. Wampum, or the things it represented, carried deer meat and Indian corn to the New England men. Corn and pork went for fish; fish went for West India rum, molasses, and the silver which Europe coveted. West India products, or the direct exchange of fish with the Catholic countries of Europe, brought back the goods needed to replenish and extend colonial industries and trade. . . . As long as the natives were active and furs were plenty, there appears to have been no difficulty in passing any quantity of wampum in common with other currencies The Bay annulled its statutes, making the beads a legal tender in 1661. Rhode Island and Connecticut followed this example soon after. . . New York continued the beads in circulation longer than the regular use prevailed in New England. In 1693 they were recognized in the definite rates of the Brooklyn ferry. They continued to be circulated in the more remote districts of New England through the century, and even into the beginning of the eighteenth." - W. B. Weeden, *Indian Money as a Factor in New Eng. Civilization, pp.* 5–30.

17th Century.—Colonial Coinage in America.—"The earliest coinage for America is said to have been executed in 1612, when the Virginia Company was endeavoring to establish a Colony on the Summer Islands (the Bermudas). This coin was of the denomination of a shilling, and was struck in brass." The "pine-tree" money of Massachusetts "was instituted by the Colonial Assembly in 1652, after the fall of Charles I. . . . This coinage was not discontinued until 1686; yet they appear to have continued the use of the same date, the shillings, sixpences, and threepences all bearing the date 1652, while the twopenny pieces are all dated 1662. . . . After the suppression of their mint, the Colony of Massachusetts issued no more coins until after the establishment of the Confederacy. . . . The silver coins of Lord Baltimore, Lord Proprietor of Maryland, were the shilling, sixpence, and fourpence, or groat."—J. R. Snowden, *Description of Ancient and Modern Coins, pp.* 85–87.—See PINE TREE MONEY.

17-18th Centuries.—Banking in Great Britain.—Origin and influence of the Bank of England.—"In the reign of William old men were still living who could remember the days when there was not a single banking house in the city of London. So late as the time of the Restoration every trader had his own strong box in his own house, and, when an acceptance was presented to him, told down the crowns and Carolusses on his own counter. But the increase of wealth had produced its natural effect, the subdivision of labour. Before the end of the reign of Charles II. a new mode of paying and receiving money had come into fashion among the merchants of the capital. A class of agents arose, whose office was to keep the cash of the commercial houses This new branch of business naturally fell into the hands of the goldsmiths, who were accustomed to traffic largely in the precious metals, and who had vaults in which great masses of bullion could lie secure from fire and from robbers. It was at the shops of the goldsmiths of Lombard Street that all the payments in coin were made Other traders gave and received nothing but paper. This great change did not take place without much opposition and clamour. . . . No sooner had banking become a separate and important trade, than men began to discuss with earnestness the question whether it would be expedient to erect a national bank. . . . Two public banks had long been renowned throughout Europe, the Bank of Saint George at Genoa, and the Bank of Amsterdam. . . . Why should not the Bank of London be as great and as durable as the Banks of Genoa and Amsterdam? Before the end of the reign of Charles II. several plans were proposed, examined, attacked and defended. Some pamphleteers maintained that a national bank ought to be under the direction of the King. Others thought that the management ought to be entrusted to the Lord Mayor, Alderman and Common Council of the capital. After the Revolution the subject was discussed with an animation before unknown. . . . A crowd of plans, some of which resemble the fancies of a child or the dreams of a man in a fever, were pressed on the government. Pre-eminently conspicuous among the political mountebanks, whose busy faces were seen every day in the lobby of the House of Commons, were John Briscoe and Hugh Chamberlayne, two projectors worthy to have been members of that Academy which Gulliver found at Lagado. These men affirmed that the one cure for every distemper of the State was a Land Bank. A Land Bank would work for England miracles such as had never been wrought for Israel. . . . These blessed effects the Land Bank was to produce simply by issuing enormous quantities of notes on landed security. The doctrine of the projectors was that every person who had real property ought to have, besides that property, paper money to the full value of that property. Thus, if his estate was worth two thousand pounds, he ought to have his estate and two thousand pounds in paper money Both Briscoe and Chamberlayne treated with the greatest contempt the notion that there could be an over-issue of paper as long as there was, for every ten pound note, a piece of land in the country worth ten pounds. . . . All the projectors of this busy time, however, were not so absurd as Chamberlayne. One among them, William Paterson, was an ingenious, though not always a judicious speculator. Of his early life little is known except that he was a native of Scotland, and that he had been in the West Indies. . . . This man submitted to the government, in 1691, a plan of

a national bank; and his plan was favourably received both by statesmen and by merchants. But years passed away; and nothing was done, till, in the spring of 1694, it became absolutely necessary to find some new mode of defraying the charges of the war. Then at length the scheme devised by the poor and obscure Scottish adventurer was taken up in earnest by Montague [Charles Montague, then one of the lords of the treasury and subsequently Chancellor of the Exchequer]. With Montague was closely allied Michael Godfrey. . . . Michael was one of the ablest, most upright and most opulent of the merchant princes of London. . . . By these two distinguished men Paterson's scheme was fathered. Montague undertook to manage the House of Commons, Godfrey to manage the City. An approving vote was obtained from the Committee of Ways and Means; and a bill, the title of which gave occasion to many sarcasms, was laid on the table. It was indeed not easy to guess that a bill, which purported only to impose a new duty on tonnage for the benefit of such persons as should advance money towards carrying on the war, was really a bill creating the greatest commercial institution that the world had ever seen. The plan was that £1,200,000 should be borrowed by the government on what was then considered as the moderate interest of eight per cent. In order to induce capitalists to advance the money promptly on terms so favourable to the public, the subscribers were to be incorporated by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England. The corporation was to have no exclusive privilege, and was to be restricted from trading in any thing but bills of exchange, bullion and forfeited pledges. As soon as the plan became generally known, a paper war broke out. . . . All the goldsmiths and pawnbrokers set up a howl of rage. Some discontented Tories predicted ruin to the monarchy. . . . Some discontented Whigs, on the other hand, predicted ruin to our liberties. . . . The power of the purse, the one great security for all the rights of Englishmen, will be transferred from the House of Commons to the Governor and Directors of the new Company. This last consideration was really of some weight, and was allowed to be so by the authors of the bill. A clause was therefore most properly inserted which inhibited the Bank from advancing money to the Crown without authority from Parliament. Every infraction of this salutary rule was to be punished by forfeiture of three times the sum advanced; and it was provided that the King should not have power to remit any part of the penalty. The plan, thus amended, received the sanction of the Commons more easily than might have been expected from the violence of the adverse clamour. In truth, the Parliament was under duress. Money must be had, and could in no other way be had so easily. . . . The bill, however, was not safe when it had reached the Upper House," but it was passed, and received the royal assent. "In the City the success of Montague's plan was complete. It was then at least as difficult to raise a million at eight per cent. as it would now be to raise forty millions at four per cent. It had been supposed that contributions would drop in very slowly: and a considerable time had therefore been allowed by the Act. This indulgence was not needed. So popular was the new investment that on the day on which the books were opened £300,000 were subscribed; 300,000 more were subscribed during the next 48 hours; and, in ten days, to the delight of all the friends of the government, it was announced that the list was full. The whole sum which the Corporation was bound to lend to the State was paid into the Exchequer before the first instalment was due. Somers gladly put the Great Seal to a charter framed in conformity with the terms prescribed by Parliament; and the Bank of England commenced its operations in the house of the Company of Grocers. . . . It soon appeared that Montague had, by skilfully availing himself of the financial difficulties of the country, rendered an inestimable service to his party. During several generations the Bank of England was emphatically a Whig body. It was Whig, not accidentally, but necessarily. It must have instantly stopped payment if it had ceased to receive the interest on the sum which it had advanced to the government; and of that interest James would not have paid one farthing."—Lord Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng., ch.* 20—"For a long time the Bank of England was the focus of London Liberalism, and in that capacity rendered to the State inestimable services. In return for these substantial benefits the Bank of England received from the Government, either at first or afterwards, three most important privileges. First. The Bank of England had the exclusive possession of the Government balances. In its first period . . . the Bank gave credit to the Government, but afterwards it derived credit from the Government. There is a natural tendency in men to follow the example of the Government under which they live. The Government is the largest, most important, and most conspicuous entity with which the mass of any people are acquainted; its range of knowledge must always be infinitely greater than the average of their knowledge, and therefore, unless there is a conspicuous warning to the contrary, most men are inclined to think their Government right, and, when they can, to do what it does. Especially in money matters a man might fairly reason—'If the Government is right in trusting the Bank of England with the great balance of the nation, I cannot be wrong in trusting it with my little balance.' Second. The Bank of England had, till lately, the monopoly of limited liability in England. The common law of England knows nothing of any such principle. It is only possible by Royal Charter or Statute Law. And by neither of these was any real bank . . . permitted with limited liability in England till within these few years. . . . Thirdly. The Bank of England had the privilege of being the sole joint stock company permitted to issue bank notes in England. Private London bankers did indeed issue notes down to the middle of the last century, but no joint stock company could do so. The explanatory clause of the Act of 1742 sounds most curiously to our modern ears. . . . 'It is the true intent and meaning of the said Act that no other bank shall be created, established, or allowed by Parliament, and that it shall not be lawful for any body politic or corporate whatsoever created or to be created, or for any other persons whatsoever united or to be united in covenants or partnership exceeding the number of six persons in that part of Great Britain called England, to borrow, owe, or take up any sum or sums of money on their bills or notes payable on demand or at any less time than six months

from the borrowing thereof during the continuance of such said privilege to the said governor and company, who are hereby declared to be and remain a corporation with the privilege of exclusive banking, as before recited.' To our modern ears these words seem to mean more than they did. The term banking was then applied only to the issue of notes and the taking up of money on bills on demand. Our present system of deposit banking, in which no bills or promissory notes are issued, was not then known on a great scale, and was not called banking. But its effect was very important. It in time gave the Bank of England the monopoly of the note issue of the Metropolis. It had at that time no branches, and so it did not compete for the country circulation. But in the Metropolis, where it did compete, it was completely victorious. No company but the Bank of England could issue notes, and unincorporated individuals gradually gave way, and ceased to do so. Up to 1844 London private bankers might have issued notes if they pleased, but almost a hundred years ago they were forced out of the field. The Bank of England had so long had a practical monopoly of the circulation, that it is commonly believed always to have had a legal monopoly. And the practical effect of the clause went further: it was believed to make the Bank of England the only joint stock company that could receive deposits, as well as the only company that could issue notes. The gift of 'exclusive banking' to the Bank of England was read in its most natural modern sense: it was thought to prohibit any other banking company from carrying on our present system of banking. After joint stock banking was permitted in the country, people began to inquire why it should not exist in the Metropolis too? And then it was seen that the words I have quoted only forbid the issue of negotiable instruments, and not the receiving of money when no such instrument is given. Upon this construction, the London and Westminster Bank and all our older joint stock banks were founded. But till they began, the Bank of England had among companies not only the exclusive privilege of note issue, but that of deposit banking too. It was in every sense the only banking company in London. With so many advantages over all competitors, it is quite natural that the Bank of England should have far outstripped them all. . . . All the other bankers grouped themselves round it, and lodged their reserve with it. Thus our one-reserve system of banking was not deliberately founded upon definite reasons; it was the gradual consequence of many singular events, and of an accumulation of legal privileges on a single bank which has now been altered, and which no one would now defend. . . . For more than a century after its creation (notwithstanding occasional errors) the Bank of England, in the main, acted with judgment and with caution. Its business was but small as we should now reckon, but for the most part it conducted that business with prudence and discretion. In 1696, it had been involved in the most serious difficulties, and had been obliged to refuse to pay some of its notes. For a long period it was in wholesome dread of public opinion, and the necessity of retaining public confidence made it cautious. But the English Government removed that necessity. In 1797, Mr. Pitt feared that he might not be able to obtain sufficient specie for foreign payments, in consequence of the low state of the Bank reserve, and he therefore required the Bank not to pay in cash. He removed the preservative apprehension which is the best security of all Banks. For this reason the period under which the Bank of England did not pay gold for its notes — the period from 1797 to 1819 — is always called the period of the Bank 'restriction.' As the Bank during that period did not perform, and was not compelled by law to perform, its contract of paying its notes in cash, it might apparently have been well called the period of Bank license. But the word 'restriction' was quite right, and was the only proper word as a description of the policy of 1797. Mr. Pitt did not say that the Bank of England need not pay its notes in specie, he 'restricted' them from doing so; he said that they must not. In consequence, from 1797 to 1844 (when a new era begins), there never was a proper caution on the part of the Bank directors. At heart they considered that the Bank of England had a kind of charmed life, and that it was above the ordinary banking anxiety to pay its way. And this feeling was very natural"—W. Bagehot, *Lombard Street, ch.* 3-4.

Also in: J. W. Gilbart, *Hist. and Principles of Banking.*—H. May, *The Bank of England* (*Fortnightly Rev., March*, 1885).

17-18th Centuries.—Early Paper issues and Banks in the American Colonies.—"Previous to the Revolutionary War paper money was issued to a greater or less extent by each one of the thirteen colonies. The first issue was by Massachusetts in 1690, to aid in fitting out the expedition against Canada. Similar issues had been made by New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey, previous to the year 1711. South Carolina began to emit bills in 1712, Pennsylvania in 1723, Maryland in 1734, Delaware in 1739, Virginia in 1755, and Georgia in 1760. Originally the issues were authorized to meet the necessities of the colonial treasuries. In Massachusetts, in 1715, as a remedy for the prevailing embarrassment of trade, a land bank was proposed with the right to issue circulating notes secured by land. . . . The plan for the land bank was defeated, but the issue of paper money by the treasury was authorized to the extent of £50,000, to be loaned on good mortgages in sums of not more than £500, nor less than £50, to one person. The rate of interest was five per cent., payable with one-fifth of the principal annually. . . . In 1733 an issue of bills to the amount of £110,000 was made by the merchants of Boston, which were to be redeemed at the end of ten years, in silver, at the rate of 19 shillings per ounce. In 1739, the commercial and financial embarrassment still continuing, another land bank was started in Massachusetts. . . . A specie bank was also formed in 1739, by Edward Hutchinson and others, which issued bills to the amount of £120,000, redeemable in fifteen years in silver, at 20 shillings per ounce, or gold pro rata. The payment of these notes was guaranteed by wealthy and responsible merchants. These notes, and those of a similar issue in 1733, were largely hoarded and did not pass generally into circulation. In 1740 Parliament passed a bill to extend the act of 1720, known as the bubble act, to the American colonies, with the intention of breaking up all companies formed for the purpose of issuing paper money. Under this act both the

land bank and the specie bank were forced to liquidate their affairs, though not without some resistance on the part of the former. . . . The paper money of the colonies, whether issued by them or by the loan banks, depreciated almost without exception as the amounts in circulation increased. . . . The emission of bills by the colonies and the banks was not regarded with favor by the mother country, and the provincial governors were as a general thing opposed to these issues. They were consequently frequently embroiled with their legislatures."—J. J. Knox, *United States Notes, pp.* 1-5.

17-19th Centuries.—Creation of the principal European Banks.—"The Bank of Vienna was founded as a bank of deposit in 1703, and as a bank of issue in 1793; the Banks of Berlin and Breslau in 1765 with state sanction; the Austrian National Bank in 1816. In St. Petersburg three banks were set up; the Loan Bank in 1772, advancing loans on deposits of bullion and jewels; the Assignation Bank in 1768 (and in Moscow, 1770), issuing government paper money; the Aid Bank in 1797, to relieve estates from mortgage and advance money for improvements. The Commercial Bank of Russia was founded in 1818. The Bank of Stockholm was founded in 1688. The Bank of France was founded first in 1803 and reorganised in 1806, when its capital was raised to 90,000,000 francs, held in 90,000 shares of 1,000 francs. It is the only authorised source of paper money in France, and is intimately associated with the government."—H. de B. Gibbins, *Hist. of Commerce in Europe, bk.* 3, *ch.* 4.

A. D. 1775-1780.—The Continental Currency of the American Revolution.—"The colonies . . . went into the Revolutionary War, many of them with paper already in circulation, all of them making issues for the expenses of military preparations. The Continental Congress, having no power to tax, and its members being accustomed to paper issues as the ordinary form of public finance, began to issue bills on the faith of the 'Continent,' Franklin earnestly approving. The first issue was for 300,000 Spanish dollars, redeemable in gold or silver, in three years, ordered in May and issued in August, 1775. Paper for nine million dollars was issued before any depreciation began. The issues of the separate colonies must have affected it, but the popular enthusiasm went for something. Pelatiah Webster, almost alone as it seems, insisted on taxation, but a member of Congress indignantly asked if he was to help tax the people when they could go to the printing-office and get a cartload of money. In 1776, when the depreciation began, Congress took harsh measures to try to sustain the bills. Committees of safety also took measures to punish those who 'forestalled' or 'engrossed,' these being the terms for speculators who bought up for a rise."—W. G. Sumner, *Hist. of Am. Currency, pp.* 43-44.—"During the summer of 1780 this wretched 'Continental' currency fell into contempt. As Washington said, it took a wagon-load of money to buy a wagon-load of provisions. At the end of the year 1778, the paper dollar was worth sixteen cents in the northern states and twelve cents in the south. Early in 1780 its value had fallen to two cents, and before the end of the year it took ten paper dollars to make a cent. In October, Indian corn sold wholesale in Boston for $150 a bushel, butter was $12 a pound, tea $90, sugar $10, beef $8, coffee $12, and a barrel of flour cost $1,575. Samuel Adams paid $2,000 for a hat and suit of clothes. The money soon ceased to circulate, debts could not be collected, and there was a general prostration of credit. To say that a thing was 'worth a Continental' became the strongest possible expression of contempt."—J. Fiske, *The Am. Revolution, ch.* 13 (*v.* 2).—Before the close of the year 1780, the Continental Currency had ceased to circulate. Attempts were subsequently made to have it funded or redeemed, but without success. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1780 (JANUARY—APRIL).

ALSO IN: H. Phillips, Jr., *Historical Sketches of American Paper Currency, 2d series.*

A. D. 1780-1784.—The Pennsylvania Bank and the Bank of North America.—"The Pennsylvania Bank, which was organized in Philadelphia during the Revolutionary War, was founded for the purpose of facilitating the operations of the Government in transporting supplies for the army. It began its useful work in 1780, and continued in existence until after the close of the war; finally closing its affairs toward the end of the year 1784. But the need was felt of a national bank which should not only aid the Government on a large scale by its money and credit, but should extend facilities to individuals, and thereby benefit the community as well as the state. Through the influence and exertion of Robert Morris, then Superintendent of Finance for the United States, the Bank of North America, at Philadelphia, was organized with a capital of $400,000. It was incorporated by Congress in December, 1781, and by the State of Pennsylvania a few months afterward. Its success was immediate and complete. It not only rendered valuable and timely aid to the United States Government and to the State of Pennsylvania, but it greatly assisted in restoring confidence and credit to the commercial community, and afforded facilities to private enterprise that were especially welcome. . . . The success of the Bank of North America, and the advantages which the citizens of Philadelphia enjoyed from the facilities it offered them, naturally suggested the founding of a similar enterprise in the city of New York." The Bank of New York was accordingly founded in 1784.—H. W. Domett, *Hist. of the Bank of New York, ch.* 1.

ALSO IN: W. G. Sumner, *The Financier and the Finances of the Am. Revolution, ch.* 17 (*v.* 2).

A. D. 1789-1796.—The Assignats of the French Revolution.—"The financial embarrassments of the government in 1789 were extreme. Many taxes had ceased to be productive; the confiscated estates not only yielded no revenue but caused a large expense, and, as a measure of resource, the finance committee of the Assembly reported in favor of issues based upon the confiscated lands. But the bitter experience of France through the Mississippi schemes of John Law, 1719-21, made the Assembly and the nation hesitate. . . . Necker, the Minister, stood firm in his opposition to the issue of paper money, even as a measure of resource; but the steady pressure of fiscal exigencies, together with the influence of the fervid orators of the Assembly, gained a continually increasing support to the proposition of the committee. . . . The leaders of the Assembly were secretly actu-

ated by a political purpose, viz., by widely distributing the titles to the confiscated lands (for such the paper money in effect was) to commit the thrifty middle class of France to the principles and measures of the revolution. . . . Oratory, the force of fiscal necessities, the half-confessed political design, prevailed at last over the warnings of experience; and a decree passed the Assembly authorizing an issue of notes to the value of four hundred million francs, on the security of the public lands. To emphasize this security the title of 'assignats' was applied to the paper. . . . The issue was made; the assignats went into circulation; and soon came the inevitable demand for more. . . . The decree for a further issue of eight hundred millions passed, September, 1790. Though the opponents of the issue had lost heart and voice, they still polled 423 votes against 508. To conciliate a minority still so large, contraction was provided for by requiring that the paper when paid into the Treasury should be burned, and the decree contained a solemn declaration that in no case should the amount exceed twelve hundred millions. June 19, 1791, the Assembly, against feeble resistance, violated this pledge and authorized a further issue of six hundred millions. Under the operation of Gresham's Law, specie now began to disappear from circulation. . . . And now came the collapse of French industry. . . . 'Everything that tariffs and custom-houses could do was done. Still the great manufactories of Normandy were closed; those of the rest of the kingdom speedily followed, and vast numbers of workmen, in all parts of the country, were thrown out of employment. . . . In the spring of 1791 no one knew whether a piece of paper money, representing 100 francs, would, a month later, have a purchasing power of 100 francs, or 90 francs, or 80, or 60. The result was that capitalists declined to embark their means in business. Enterprise received a mortal blow. Demand for labor was still further diminished. The business of France dwindled into a mere living from hand to mouth.'. . . Towards the end of 1794 there had been issued 7,000 millions in assignats; by May, 1795, 10,000 millions; by the end of July, 16,000 millions; by the beginning of 1796, 45,000 millions, of which 36,000 millions were in actual circulation M. Bresson gives the following table of depreciation: 24 livres in coin were worth in assignats April 1, 1795, 238; May 1, 299; June 1, 439; July 1, 808; Aug. 1, 807; Sept. 1, 1,101; Oct. 1, 1,205; Nov. 1, 2,588; Dec. 1, 3,575; Jan. 1, 1796, 4,658; Feb. 1, 5,337. At the last 'an assignat professing to be worth 100 francs was commonly exchanged for 5 sous 6 deniers: in other words, a paper note professing to be worth £4 sterling passed current for less than 3d. in money.' The downward course of the assignats had unquestionably been accelerated by the extensive counterfeiting of the paper in Belgium, Switzerland, and England. . . . Now appears that last resort of finance under a depreciating paper: an issue under new names and new devices. . . . Territorial Mandates were ordered to be issued for assignats at 30:1, the mandates to be directly exchangeable for land, at the will of the holder, on demand. . . . For a brief time after the first limited emission, the mandates rose as high as 80 per cent. of their nominal value: but soon additional issues sent them down even more rapidly than the assignats had fallen."—F. A. Walker, *Money*, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 16.

ALSO IN: Andrew D. White, *Paper-money Inflation in France.*

A. D. 1791-1816.—The First Bank of the United States.—On the organization of the government of the United States, under its federal constitution, in 1789 and 1790, the lead in constructive statesmanship was taken, as is well known, by Alexander Hamilton. His plan "included a financial institution to develop the national resources, strengthen the public credit, aid the Treasury Department in its administration, and provide a secure and sound circulating medium for the people. On December 13, 1790, he sent into Congress a report on the subject of a national bank. The Republican party, then in the minority, opposed the plan as unconstitutional, on the ground that the power of creating banks or any corporate body had not been expressly delegated to Congress, and was therefore not possessed by it. Washington's cabinet was divided; Jefferson opposing the measure as not within the implied powers, because it was an expediency and not a paramount necessity. Later he used stronger language, and denounced the institution as 'one of the most deadly hostility existing against the principles and form of our Constitution,' nor did he ever abandon these views. There is the authority of Mr. Gallatin for saying that Jefferson 'died a decided enemy to our banking system generally, and specially to a bank of the United States.' But Hamilton's views prevailed. Washington, who in the weary years of war had seen the imperative necessity of some national organization of the finances, after mature deliberation approved the plan, and on February 25, 1791, the Bank of the United States was incorporated. The capital stock was limited to twenty-five thousand shares of four hundred dollars each, or ten millions of dollars, payable one fourth in gold and silver, and three fourths in public securities bearing an interest of six and three per cent. The stock was immediately subscribed for, the government taking five thousand shares, two millions of dollars, under the right reserved in the charter. The subscription of the United States was paid in ten equal annual instalments. A large proportion of the stock was held abroad, and the shares soon rose above par. . . . Authority was given the bank to establish offices of discount and deposit within the United States. The chief bank was placed in Philadelphia and branches were established in eight cities, with capitals in proportion to their commercial importance. In 1809 the stockholders of the Bank of the United States memorialized the government for a renewal of their charter, which would expire on March 4, 1811 and on March 9, 1809, Mr. Gallatin sent in a report in which he reviewed the operations of the bank from its organization. Of the government shares, five million dollars at par, two thousand four hundred and ninety-three shares were sold in 1796 and 1797 at an advance of 25 per cent., two hundred and eighty-seven in 1797 at an advance of twenty per cent., and the remaining 2,220 shares in 1802, at an advance of 45 per cent., making together, exclusive of the dividends, a profit of $671,680 to the United States. Eighteen thousand shares of the bank stock were held abroad, and seven thousand shares, or a little more than one fourth part of the capital, in the United States. A table

of all the dividends made by the bank showed that they had on the average been at the rate of 8⅞ (precisely 8 11/12) per cent. a year, which proved that the bank had not in any considerable degree used the public deposits for the purpose of extending its discounts. From a general view of the debits and credits, as presented, it appeared that the affairs of the Bank of the United States, considered as a moneyed institution, had been wisely and skilfully managed. The advantages derived by the government Mr. Gallatin stated to be, 1, safe-keeping of the public moneys; 2, transmission of the public moneys; 3, collection of the revenue; 4, loans. The strongest objection to the renewal of the charter lay in the great portion of the bank stock held by foreigners. Not on account of any influence over the institution, since they had no vote; but because of the high rate of interest payable by America to foreign countries. . . . Congress refused to prolong its existence and the institution was dissolved. Fortunately for the country, it wound up its affairs with such deliberation and prudence as to allow of the interposition of other bank credits in lieu of those withdrawn, and thus prevented a serious shock to the interests of the community. In the twenty years of its existence from 1791 to 1811 its management was irreproachable. The immediate effect of the refusal of Congress to recharter the Bank of the United States was to bring the Treasury to the verge of bankruptcy. The interference of Parish, Girard, and Astor alone saved the credit of the government. . . . Another immediate effect of the dissolution of the bank was the withdrawal from the country of the foreign capital invested in the bank, more than seven millions of dollars. This amount was remitted, in the twelve months preceding the war, in specie. Specie was at that time a product foreign to the United States, and by no means easy to obtain. . . . The notes of the Bank of the United States, payable on demand in gold and silver at the counters of the bank, or any of its branches, were, by its charter, receivable in all payments to the United States; but this quality was also stripped from them on March 19, 1812, by a repeal of the act according it. To these disturbances of the financial equilibrium of the country was added the necessary withdrawal of fifteen millions of bank credit and its transfer to other institutions. This gave an extraordinary impulse to the establishment of local banks, each eager for a share of the profits. The capital of the country, instead of being concentrated, was dissipated. Between January 1, 1811, and 1815, one hundred and twenty new banks were chartered, and forty millions of dollars were added to the banking capital. To realize profits, the issues of paper were pushed to the extreme of possible circulation. Meanwhile New England kept aloof from the nation. The specie in the vaults of the banks of Massachusetts rose from $1,706,000 on June 1, 1811, to $7,326,000 on June 1, 1814. . . . The suspension of the banks was precipitated by the capture of Washington. It began in Baltimore, which was threatened by the British, and was at once followed in Philadelphia and New York. Before the end of September all the banks south and west of New England had suspended specie payment. . . . The depression of the local currencies ranged from seven to twenty-five per cent. . . . In November the Treasury Department found itself involved in the common disaster. The refusal of the banks, in which the public moneys were deposited, to pay their notes or the drafts upon them in specie deprived the government of its gold and silver; and their refusal, likewise, of credit and circulation to the issues of banks in other States deprived the government also of the only means it possessed for transferring its funds to pay the dividends on the debt and discharge the treasury notes. . . . On October 14, 1814, Alexander J. Dallas, Mr. Gallatin's old friend, who had been appointed Secretary of the Treasury on the 6th of the same month, in a report of a plan to support the public credit, proposed the incorporation of a national bank. A bill was passed by Congress, but returned to it by Madison with his veto on January 15, 1815. . . . Mr. Dallas again, as a last resort, insisted on a bank as the only means by which the currency of the country could be restored to a sound condition. In December, 1815, Dallas reported to the Committee of the House of Representatives on the national currency, of which John C. Calhoun was chairman, a plan for a national bank, and on March 3, 1816, the second Bank of the United States was chartered by Congress. The capital was thirty-five millions, of which the government held seven millions in seventy thousand shares of one hundred dollars each. Mr. Madison approved the bill. . . . The second national bank of the United States was located at Philadelphia, and chartered for twenty years."—J. A. Stevens, *Albert Gallatin, ch.* 6.

A. D. 1817-1833.—The Second Bank of the United States and the war upon it.—"On the 1st of January, 1817, the bank opened for business, with the country on the brink of a great monetary crisis, but 'too late to prevent the crash which followed.' The management of the bank during the first two years of its existence was far from satisfactory. It aggravated the troubles of the financial situation instead of relieving them. Specie payments were nominally resumed in 1817, but the insidious canker of inflation had eaten its way into the arteries of business, and in the crisis of 1819 came another suspension that lasted for two years. . . . It was only by a desperate effort that the bank finally weathered the storm brought on by its own mismanagement and that of the State Banks. After the recovery, a period of several years of prosperity followed, and the management of the bank was thoroughly reorganized and sound. From this time on until the great 'Bank War' its affairs seem to have been conducted with a view to performing its duty to the government as well as to its individual stockholders, and it rendered such aid to the public, directly, and indirectly, as entitled it to respect and fair treatment on the part of the servants of the people. . . . But the bank controversy was not yet over. It was about to be revived, and to become a prominent issue in a period of our national politics more distinguished for the bitterness of its personal animosities than perhaps any other in our annals. . . . As already said, the ten years following the revulsion of 1819–25 were years of almost unbroken prosperity. . . . The question of the continuance of the bank was not under discussion. In fact, scarcely any mention of the subject was made until President Jackson referred to it in his message of December, 1829.

In this message he reopened the question of the constitutionality of the bank, but the committee to which this portion of the message was referred in the House of Representatives made a report favorable to the institution. There seems no reason to doubt the honesty of Jackson's opinion that the bank was unconstitutional, and at first he probably had no feeling in the matter except that which sprang from his convictions on this point. Certain events, however, increased his hostility to the bank, and strengthened his resolution to destroy it. . . . When President Jackson first attacked the bank, the weapon he chiefly relied on was the alleged unconstitutionality of the charter."—D. Kinley, *The Independent Treasury of the U. S., ch.* 1.—The question of the rechartering of the Bank was made an issue in the presidential campaign of 1832, by Henry Clay. "Its disinterested friends in both parties strongly dissuaded Biddle [president of the Bank] from allowing the question of recharter to be brought into the campaign. Clay's advisers tried to dissuade him. The bank, however, could not oppose the public man on whom it depended most, and the party leaders deferred at last to their chief. Jackson never was more dictatorial and obstinate than Clay was at this juncture." Pending the election, a bill to renew the charter of the Bank was passed through both houses of Congress. The President promptly vetoed it. "The national republican convention met at Baltimore, December 12, 1831. It . . issued an address, in which the bank question was put forward. It was declared that the President 'is fully and three times over pledged to the people to negative any bill that may be passed for rechartering the bank, and there is little doubt that the additional influence which he would acquire by a reëlection would be employed to carry through Congress the extraordinary substitute which he has repeatedly proposed.' The appeal, therefore, was to defeat Jackson in order to save the bank. . . . Such a challenge as that could have but one effect on Jackson. It called every faculty he possessed into activity to compass the destruction of the bank. Instead of retiring from the position he had taken, the moment there was a fight to be fought, he did what he did at New Orleans. He moved his lines up to the last point he could command on the side towards the enemy. . . . The proceedings seemed to prove just what the anti-bank men had asserted: that the bank was a great monster, which aimed to control elections, and to set up and put down Presidents. The campaign of 1832 was a struggle between the popularity of the bank and the popularity of Jackson."—W. G. Sumner, *Andrew Jackson, ch* 11.—Jackson was overwhelmingly elected, and feeling convinced that his war upon the Bank had received the approval of the people, he determined to remove the public deposits from its keeping on his own responsibility. "With this view he removed (in the spring of 1833) the Secretary of the Treasury who would not consent to remove the deposits, and appointed William J. Duane, of Pennsylvania, in his place. He proved to be no more compliant than his predecessor. After many attempts to persuade him, the President announced to the Cabinet his final decision that the deposits must be removed. The Reasons given were that the law gave the Secretary, not Congress, control of the deposits, that it was improper to leave them longer in a bank whose charter would so soon expire, that the Bank's funds had been largely used for political purposes, that its inability to pay all its depositors had been shown by its efforts to procure an extension of time from its creditors in Europe, and that its four government directors had been systematically kept from knowledge of its management. Secretary Duane refused either to remove the deposits or to resign his office, and pronounced the proposed removal unnecessary, unwise, vindictive, arbitrary, and unjust. He was at once removed from office, and Roger B Taney, of Maryland, appointed in his place. The necessary Orders for Removal were given by Secretary Taney. It was not strictly a removal, for all previous deposits were left in the Bank, to be drawn upon until exhausted. It was rather a cessation The deposits were afterwards made in various State banks, and the Bank of the United States was compelled to call in its loans. The commercial distress which followed in consequence probably strengthened the President in the end by giving a convincing proof of the Bank's power as an antagonist to the Government "—A Johnston, *History of American Politics, ch* 13.

A. D. 1837-1841.—The Wild Cat Banks of Michigan.—"Michigan became a State in January, 1837. Almost the first act of her State legislature was the passage of a general banking law under which any ten or more freeholders of any county might organize themselves into a corporation for the transaction of banking business. Of the nominal capital of a bank only ten per cent. in specie was required to be paid when subscriptions to the stock were made, and twenty per cent. additional in specie when the bank began business. For the further security of the notes which were to be issued as currency, the stockholders were to give first mortgages upon real estate, to be estimated at its cash value by at least three county officers, the mortgages to be filed with the auditor-general of the State. A bank commissioner was appointed to superintend the organization of the banks, and to attest the legality of their proceedings to the auditor-general, who, upon receiving such attestation, was to deliver to the banks circulating notes amounting to two and a half times the capital certified to as having been paid in This law was passed in obedience to a popular cry that the banking business had become an 'odious monopoly' that ought to be broken up. Its design was to 'introduce free competition into what was considered a profitable branch of business heretofore monopolized by a few favored corporations.' Anybody was to be given fair opportunities for entering the business on equal terms with everybody else. The act was passed in March, 1837, and the legislature adjourned till November 9 following Before the latter date arrived, in fact before any banks had been organized under the law, a financial panic seized the whole country. An era of wild speculation reached a climax, the banks in all the principal cities of the country suspended specie payments, and State legislatures were called together to devise remedies to meet the situation. That of Michigan was convened in special session in June, and its remedy for the case of Michigan was to leave the general banking law in force, and to add to it full authority for banks organized under it to

begin the business of issuing bills in a state of suspension — that is, to flood the State with an irredeemable currency, based upon thirty per cent. of specie and seventy per cent. of land mortgage bonds."—*Cheap-Money Experiments (from the Century Mag.), pp.* 75–77.—"Wild lands that had been recently bought of the government at one dollar and twenty-five cents an acre were now valued at ten or twenty times that amount, and lots in villages that still existed only on paper had a worth for banking purposes only limited by the conscience of the officer who was to take the securities. Any ten freeholders of a county must be poor indeed if they could not give sufficient security to answer the purpose of the general banking law. The requirement of the payment of thirty per cent. of the capital stock in specie was more difficult to be complied with. But as the payment was to be made to the bank itself, the difficulty was gotten over in various ingenious ways, which the author of the general banking law could hardly have anticipated. In some cases, stock notes in terms payable in specie, or the certificates of individuals which stated — untruly — that the maker held a specified sum of specie for the bank, were counted as specie itself; in others, a small sum of specie was paid in and taken out, and the process repeated over and over until the aggregate of payments equaled the sum required; in still others, the specie with which one bank was organized was passed from town to town and made to answer the purposes of several. By the first day of January, 1838, articles of association for twenty-one banks had been filed, making, with the banks before in existence, an average of one to less than five thousand people. Some of them were absolutely without capital, and some were organized by scheming men in New York and elsewhere, who took the bills away with them to circulate abroad, putting out none at home. For some, locations as inaccessible as possible were selected, that the bills might not come back to plague the managers. The bank commissioners say in their report for 1838, of their journey for inspection: 'The singular spectacle was presented of the officers of the State seeking for banks in situations the most inaccessible and remote from trade, and finding at every step an increase of labor by the discovery of new and unknown organizations. Before they could be arrested the mischief was done: large issues were in circulation and no adequate remedy for the evil.' One bank was found housed in a saw-mill, and it was said with pardonable exaggeration in one of the public papers, 'Every village plat with a house, or even without a house, if it had a hollow stump to serve as a vault, was the site of a bank.' . . The governor, when he delivered his annual message in January, 1838, still had confidence in the general banking law, which he said 'offered to all persons the privilege of banking under certain guards and restrictions,' and he declared that 'the principles upon which this law is based are certainly correct, destroying as they do the odious feature of a banking monopoly, and giving equal rights to all classes of the community.' . . . The aggregate amount of private indebtedness had by this time become enormous, and the pressure for payment was serious and disquieting. . . The people must have relief; and what relief could be so certain or so speedy as more banks and more money? More banks therefore continued to be organized, and the paper current flowed out among the people in increasing volume. . . . At the beginning of 1839 the bank commissioners estimated that there were a million dollars of bills of insolvent banks in the hands of individuals and unavailable. Yet the governor, in his annual message delivered in January, found it a 'source of unfeigned gratification to be able to congratulate [the legislature] on the prosperous condition to which our rising commonwealth has attained.' . . . Then came stay laws, and laws to compel creditors to take lands at a valuation. They were doubtful in point of utility, and more than doubtful in point of morality and constitutionality. The federal bankrupt act of 1841 first brought substantial relief: it brought almost no dividends to creditors, but it relieved debtors from their crushing burdens and permitted them, sobered and in their right minds, to enter once more the fields of industry and activity. The extraordinary history of the attempt to break up an 'odious monopoly' in banking by making everybody a banker, and to create prosperity by unlimited issues of paper currency, was brought at length to a fit conclusion."—T. M. Cooley, *Michigan, ch.* 13.—See WILD CAT BANKS.

A. D. 1838.—Free Banking Law of New York.—"On April 18th, 1838, the monopoly of banking under special charters, was brought to a close in the State of New York, by the passage of the act 'to authorize the business of Banking.' Under this law Associations for Banking purposes and Individual Bankers, were authorized to carry on the business of Banking, by establishing offices of deposit, discount and circulation. Subsequently a separate Department was organized at Albany, called 'The Bank Department,' with a Superintendent, who was charged with the supervision of all the banks in the State. Under this law institutions could be organized simply as banks of 'discount and deposit,' and might also add the issuing of a paper currency to circulate as money. At first the law provided that State and United States stocks for one-half, and bonds and mortgages for the other half, might be deposited as security for the circulating notes to be issued by Banks and individual Bankers. Upon a fair trial, however, it was found that when a bank failed, and the Bank Department was called upon to redeem the circulating notes of such bank, the mortgages could not be made available in time to meet the demand. . . . By an amendment of the law the receiving of mortgages as security for circulating notes was discontinued."—E. G. Spaulding, *One Hundred Years of Progress in the Business of Banking, p.* 48.

A. D. 1844.—The English Bank Charter Act.—"By an act of parliament passed in 1838, conferring certain privileges on the Bank of England, it was provided that the charter granted to that body should expire in 1855, but the power was reserved to the legislature, on giving six months' notice, to revise the charter ten years earlier. Availing themselves of this option, the government proposed a measure for regulating the entire monetary system of the country."—W. C. Taylor, *Life and Times of Sir Robert Peel, v.* 3, *ch.* 7.—"The growth of commerce, and in particular the establishment of numerous joint-stock banks had given a dangerous impulse to issues of paper money, which

were not then restricted by law. Even the Bank of England did not observe any fixed proportion between the amount of notes which it issued and the amount of bullion which it kept in reserve. When introducing this subject to the House of Commons, Peel remarked that within the last twenty years there had been four periods when a contraction of issues had been necessary in order to maintain the convertibility of paper, and that in none of these had the Bank of England acted with vigour equal to the emergency. In the latest of these periods, from June of 1838 to June of 1839, the amount of bullion in the Bank had fallen to little more than £4,000,000, whilst the total of paper in circulation had risen to little less than £30,000,000. . . . Peel was not the first to devise the methods which he adopted. Mr. Jones Loyd, afterwards Lord Overstone, who impressed the learned with his tracts and the vulgar with his riches, had advised the principal changes in the law relating to the issue of paper money which Peel effected by the Bank Charter Act. These changes were three in number. The first was to separate totally the two departments of the Bank of England, the banking department and the issue department. The banking department was left to be managed as best the wisdom of the directors could devise for the profit of the shareholders. The issue department was placed under regulations which deprived the Bank of any discretion in its management, and may almost be said to have made it a department of the State. The second innovation was to limit the issue of paper by the Bank of England to an amount proportioned to the value of its assets. The Bank was allowed to issue notes to the amount of £14,000,000 against Government securities in its possession. The Government owed the Bank a debt of £11,000,000, besides which the Bank held Exchequer Bills. But the amount over £14,000,000 which the Bank could issue was not, henceforwards, to be more than the equivalent of the bullion in its possession. By this means it was made certain that the Bank would be able to give coin for any of its notes which might be presented to it. The third innovation was to limit the issues of the country banks. The power of issuing notes was denied to any private or joint-stock banks founded after the date of the Act. It was recognized in those banks which already possessed it, but limited to a total sum of £8,500,000, the average quantity of such notes which had been in circulation during the years immediately preceding. It was provided that if any of the banks which retained this privilege should cease to exist or to issue notes, the Bank of England should be entitled to increase its note circulation by a sum equal to two-thirds of the amount of the former issues of the bank which ceased to issue paper. The Bank of England was required in this contingency to augment the reserve fund. By Acts passed in the succeeding year, the principles of the English Bank Charter Act were applied to Scotland and Ireland, with such modifications as the peculiar circumstances of those kingdoms required. The Bank Charter Act has ever since been the subject of voluminous and contradictory criticism, both by political economists and by men of business."—F. C. Montague, *Life of Sir Robert Peel*, ch. 8.

Also in: Bonamy Price, *The Bank Charter Act of 1844* (*Fraser's Magazine, June*, 1865).—W. C. Taylor, *Life and Times of Sir Robert Peel*, v. 3, *ch.* 7.

A. D. 1848-1893.—Production of the Precious Metals in the last half-century.—The Silver Question in the United States.—"The total (estimated) stock of gold in the world in 1848, was £560,000,000. As for the annual production, it had varied considerably since the beginning of the century [from £3,000,000 to £8,000,000]. Such was the state of things immediately preceding 1848. In that year the Californian discoveries took place, and these were followed by the discoveries in Australia in 1851 [see California: A. D. 1848-1849; and Australia: A. D. 1839-1855]. For these three years the annual average production is set down by the Economist at £9,000,000, but from this date the production suddenly rose to, for 1852, £27,000,000, and continued to rise till 1856, when it attained its maximum of £32,250,000. At this stage a decline in the returns occurred, the lowest point reached being in 1860, when they fell to £18,688,000, but from this they rose again, and for the last ten years [before 1873] have maintained an average of about £20,500,000; the returns for the year 1871 being £20,811,000. The total amount of gold added to the world's stock by this twenty years' production has been about £500,000,000, an amount nearly equal to that existing in the world at the date of the discoveries: in other words, the stock of gold in the world has been nearly doubled since that time."—J. E. Cairnes, *Essays in Political Economy*, *pp.* 160-161.—"The yearly average of gold production in the twenty-five years from 1851-75 was $127,000,000. The yearly average product of silver for the same period was $51,000,000. The average annual product of gold for the fifteen years from 1876 to 1890 declined to $108,000,000; a minus of 15 per cent. The average annual product of silver for the same period increased to $116,000,000; a plus of 127 per cent. There is the whole silver question."—L. R. Ehrich, *The Question of Silver*, *p.* 21.—"From 1793—the date of the first issue of silver coin by the United States—to 1834 the silver and the gold dollar were alike authorized to be received as legal tender in payment of debt, but silver alone circulated. Subsequently, however, silver was not used, except in fractional payments, or, since 1853, as a subsidiary coin. The silver coin, as a coin of circulation, had become obsolete. The reason why, prior to 1834, payments were made exclusively in silver, and subsequently to that date in gold, is found in the fact that prior to the legislation of 1834 . . . the standard silver coins were relatively the cheaper, and consequently circulated to the exclusion of the gold; while during the later period the standard gold coins were the cheaper, circulating to the exclusion of the silver. The Coinage Act of 1873, by which the coinage of the silver dollar was discontinued, became a law on February 12th of that year. The act of February 28, 1878, which passed Congress by a two-thirds vote over the veto of President Hayes, again provided for the coinage of a silver dollar of 412.5 grains, the silver bullion to be purchased at the market price by the Government, and the amount so purchased and coined not to be less than two millions of dollars per month. During the debate on this bill the charge was repeatedly made, in and out of Congress, that the previous act of 1873,

discontinuing the free coinage of the silver dollar, was passed surreptitiously. This statement has no foundation in fact. The report of the writer, who was then Deputy Comptroller of the Currency, transmitted to Congress in 1870 by the Secretary, three times distinctly stated that the bill accompanying it proposed to discontinue the issue of the silver dollar-piece. Various experts, to whom it had been submitted, approved this feature of the bill, and their opinions were printed by order of Congress."—J. J. Knox, *United States Notes, ch.* 10.—"The bill of 1878, generally spoken of as the 'Bland' bill, directed the secretary of the treasury to purchase not less than two million nor more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion per month, to coin it into silver dollars, said silver dollars to be full legal tender at 'their nominal value.' Also, that the holder of ten or more of these silver dollars could exchange them for silver certificates, said certificates being 'receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues.' The bill was pushed and passed by the efforts, principally, of the greenback inflationists and the representatives of the silver States. . . . Since 1878 [to 1891], 405,000,000 silver dollars have been coined. Of these 348,000,000 are still lying in the treasury vaults. No comment is needed. The Bland-Allison act did not hold up silver. In 1879 it was worth $1.12 an ounce, in 1880 $1.14, '81 $1.13, '82 $1.13, '83 $1.11, '86 99 cents, until in '89 it reached 93¼ cents an ounce. That is, in 1889 the commercial ratio was 22:1 and the coin value of the Bland-Allison silver dollar was 72 cents. In March, 1890, a bill was reported to the House by the committee of 'coinage, weights and measures,' based on a plan proposed by Secretary Windom. . . . The bill passed the House. The Senate passed it with an amendment making provision for free and unlimited coinage. It finally went to a conference committee which reported the bill that became a law, July 14, 1890. This bill directs the secretary of the treasury to purchase four and one-half million ounces of silver a month at the market price, to give legal tender treasury notes therefor, said notes being redeemable in gold or silver coin at the option of the government, 'it being the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio.' It was believed that this bill would raise the price of silver. . . . To-day [December 8, 1891] the silver in our dollar is actually worth 73 cents."—L. R. Ehrich, *The Question of Silver, pp.* 21–25.—See, also, UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1873, 1878, and 1890–1892.—In the summer of 1893, a financial crisis, produced in the judgment of the best informed by the operation of the silver-purchase law of 1890 (known commonly as the Sherman Act) became so serious that President Cleveland called a special session of Congress to deal with it. In his Message to Congress, at the opening of its session, the President said: "With plenteous crops, with abundant promise of remunerative production and manufacture, with unusual invitation to safe investment, and with satisfactory assurance to business enterprise, suddenly financial fear and distrust have sprung up on every side. Numerous moneyed institutions have suspended because abundant assets were not immediately available to meet the demands of the frightened depositors. Surviving corporations and individuals are content to keep in hand the money they are usually anxious to loan, and those engaged in legitimate business are surprised to find that the securities they offer for loans, though heretofore satisfactory, are no longer accepted. Values supposed to be fixed are fast becoming conjectural, and loss and failure have involved every branch of business. I believe these things are principally chargeable to congressional legislation touching the purchase and coinage of silver by the General Government. This legislation is embodied in a statute passed on the 14th day of July, 1890, which was the culmination of much agitation on the subject involved, and which may be considered a truce, after a long struggle between the advocates of free silver coinage and those intending to be more conservative." A bill to repeal the act of July 14, 1890 (the Sherman law, so called), was passed by both houses and received the President's signature, Nov. 1, 1893.

A. D. 1853-1874.—The Latin Union and the Silver Question.—"The gold discoveries of California and Australia were directly the cause of the Latin Union. . . . In 1853, when the subsidiary silver of the United States had disappeared before the cheapened gold, we reduced the quantity of silver in the small coins sufficiently to keep them dollar for dollar below the value of gold. Switzerland followed this example of the United States in her law of January 31, 1860; but, instead of distinctly reducing the weight of pure silver in her small coins, she accomplished the same end by lowering the fineness of standard for these coins to 800 thousandths fine. . . . Meanwhile France and Italy had a higher standard for their coins than Switzerland, and as the neighboring states, which had the franc system of coinage in common, found each other's coins in circulation within their own limits, it was clear that the cheaper Swiss coins, according to Gresham's law, must drive out the dearer French and Italian coins, which contained more pure silver, but which passed current at the same nominal value. The Swiss coins of 800 thousandths fine began to pass the French frontier and to displace the French coins of a similar denomination; and the French coins were exported, melted, and recoined in Switzerland at a profit. This, of course, brought forth a decree in France (April 14, 1864), which prohibited the receipt of these Swiss coins at the public offices of France, the customs-offices, etc., and they were consequently refused in common trade among individuals. Belgium also, as well as Switzerland, began to think it necessary to deal with the questions affecting her silver small coins, which were leaving that country for the same reason that they were leaving Switzerland. Belgium then undertook to make overtures to France, in order that some concerted action might be undertaken by the four countries using the franc system — Italy, Belgium, France, and Switzerland — to remedy the evil to which all were exposed by the disappearance of their silver coin needed in every-day transactions. The discoveries of gold had forced a reconsideration of their coinage systems. In consequence of these overtures, a conference of delegates representing the Latin states just mentioned assembled in Paris, November 20, 1865. . . . The Conference, fully realizing the effects of the fall of gold in driving out their silver coins, agreed to establish a uniform coinage in the four countries,

on the essential principles adopted by the United States in 1853. They lowered the silver pieces of two francs, one franc, fifty centimes, and twenty centimes from a standard of 900 thousandths fine to a uniform fineness of 835 thousandths, reducing these coins to the position of a subsidiary currency. They retained for the countries of the Latin Union, however, the system of bimetallism. Gold pieces of one hundred, fifty, twenty, ten, and five francs were to be coined, together with five-franc pieces of silver, and all at a standard of 900 thousandths fine. Free coinage at a ratio of 15½:1, was thereby granted to any holder of either gold or silver bullion who wanted silver coins of five francs, or gold coins from five francs and upward. . . . The subsidiary silver coins (below five francs) were made a legal tender between individuals of the state which coined them to the amount of fifty francs. . . . The treaty was ratified, and went into effect August 1, 1866, to continue until January 1, 1880, or about fifteen years. . . . The downward tendency of silver in 1873 led the Latin Union to fear that the demonetized silver of Germany would flood their own mints if they continued the free coinage of five-franc silver pieces at a legal ratio of 15½:1. . . . . This condition of things led to the meeting of delegates from the countries of the Latin Union at Paris, January 30, 1874, who there agreed to a treaty supplementary to that originally formed in 1865, and determined on withdrawing from individuals the full power of free coinage by limiting to a moderate sum the amount of silver five-franc pieces which should be coined by each state of the Union during the year 1874. The date of this suspension of coinage by the Latin Union is regarded by all authorities as of great import in regard to the value of silver."—J. L. Laughlin, *The History of Bimetallism in the United States, pp.* 146–155.

A. D. 1861-1878.—The Legal-tender notes, or Greenbacks, and the National Bank System, of the American Civil War.—"In January, 1861, the paper currency of the United States was furnished by 1,600 private corporations, organized under thirty-four different State laws. The circulation of the banks amounted to $202,000,000, of which only about $50,000,000 were issued in the States which in April, 1861, undertook to set up an independent government. About $150,000,000 were in circulation in the loyal States, including West Virginia. When Congress met in extraordinary session on the 4th of July, the three-months volunteers, who had hastened to the defence of the capital, were confronting the rebel army on the line of the Potomac, and the first great battle at Bull Run was impending. President Lincoln called upon Congress to provide for the enlistment of 400,000 men, and Secretary Chase submitted estimates for probable expenditures amounting to $318,000,000. The treasury was empty, and the expenses of the government were rapidly approaching a million dollars a day. The ordinary expenses of the government, during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1861, had been $63,000,000, and even this sum had not been supplied by the revenue, which amounted to only $41,000,000. The rest had been borrowed. It was now necessary to provide for an expenditure increased fivefold, and amounting to eight times the income of the country. Secretary Chase advised that $80,000,000 be provided by taxation, and $240,000,000 by loans; and that, in anticipation of revenue, provision be made for the issue of $50,000,000 of treasury notes, redeemable on demand in coin. 'The greatest care will, however, be requisite,' he said, 'to prevent the degradation of such issues into an irredeemable paper currency, than which no more certainly fatal expedient for impoverishing the masses and discrediting the government of any country can well be devised.' The desired authority was granted by Congress. The Secretary was authorized to borrow, on the credit of the United States, not exceeding $250,000,000, and, 'as a part of the above loan,' to issue an exchange for coin, or pay for salaries or other dues from the United States, not over $50,000,000 of treasury notes, bearing no interest, but payable on demand at Philadelphia, New York, or Boston. The act does not say, 'payable in coin,' for nobody had then imagined that any other form of payment was possible. Congress adjourned on the 6th of August, after passing an act to provide an increased revenue from imports, and laying a direct tax of $20,000,000 upon the States, and a tax of 3 per cent. upon the excess of all private incomes above $800. The Secretary immediately invited the banks of Philadelphia, New York, and Boston to assist in the negotiation of the proposed loans, and they loyally responded. On the 19th of August they took $50,000,000 of three years 7-30 bonds at par; on the 1st of October, $50,000,000 more of the same securities at par; and on the 16th of November, $50,000,000 of twenty years 6 per cents., at a rate making the interest equivalent to 7 per cent. These advances relieved the temporary necessities of the treasury, and, when Congress reassembled in December, Secretary Chase was prepared to recommend a permanent financial policy. The solid basis of this policy was to be taxation. . . . It was estimated, a revenue of $90,000,000 would be needed; and to secure that sum, the Secretary advised that the duties on tea, coffee, and sugar be increased; that a direct tax of $20,000,000 be assessed on the States; that the income tax be modified so as to produce $10,000,000, and that duties be laid on liquors, tobacco, carriages, legacies, bank-notes, bills payable, and conveyances. For the extraordinary expenses of the war it was necessary to depend upon loans, and the authority to be granted for this purpose the Secretary left 'to the better judgment of Congress,' only suggesting that the rate of interest should be regulated by law, and that the time had come when the government might properly claim a part, at least, of the advantage of the paper circulation, then constituting a loan without interest from the people to the banks. There were two ways, Secretary Chase said, in which this advantage might be secured: 1. By increasing the issue of United States notes, and taxing the bank notes out of existence. 2. By providing a national currency, to be issued by the banks but secured by the pledge of United States bonds. The former plan the Secretary did not recommend, regarding the hazard of a depreciating and finally worthless currency as far outweighing the probable benefits of the measure. . . . Congress had hardly begun to consider these recommendations, when the situation was completely changed by the suspension of specie payments, on the 28th of December, by the banks of New

York, followed by the suspension of the other banks in the country, and compelling the treasury also to suspend. This suspension was the result of a panic occasioned by the shadow of war with England. . . . To provide for the pressing wants of the treasury, Congress, on the 12th of February, 1862, authorized the issue of $10,000,000 more of demand notes. Before the end of the session further issues were provided for, making the aggregate of United States notes $300,000,000, besides fractional currency. There was a long debate upon the propriety of making these notes a legal tender for private debts, and it seemed for a time that the measure would be defeated by this dispute. [The bill authorizing the issue of legal tender notes known afterwards as 'Greenbacks' was prepared by the Hon. E. G. Spaulding, who subsequently wrote the history of the measure.] Secretary Chase finally advised the concession of this point; nevertheless, 55 votes in the House of Representatives . . . were recorded against the provision making the notes a tender for private debts. Congress also empowered the Secretary to borrow $500,000,000 on 5-20 year 6 per cent. bonds, besides a temporary loan of $100,000,000, and provided that the interest on the bonds should be paid in coin, and that the customs should be collected in coin for that purpose. Nothing was said about the principal, for it was taken for granted that specie payments would be resumed before the payment of the principal of the debt would be undertaken. . . . Congress had thus adopted the plan which the Secretary of the Treasury did not recommend, and neglected the proposition which he preferred. . . . When Congress met in December, 1862, the magnitude of the war had become fully apparent. . . . The enormous demands upon the treasury . . . had exhausted the resources provided by Congress. The disbursements in November amounted to $59,847,077 —two millions a day. Unpaid requisitions had accumulated amounting to $46,000,000. The total receipts for the year then current, ending June 30, 1863, were estimated at $511,000,000; the expenditures at $788,000,000; leaving $277,000,000 to be provided for. There were only two ways to obtain this sum—by a fresh issue of United States notes, or by new interest-bearing loans. But the gold premium had advanced in October to 34; the notes were already at a discount of 25 per cent. The consequences of an addition of $277,000,000 to the volume of currency, the Secretary said, would be 'inflation of prices, increase of expenditures, augmentation of debt, and, ultimately, disastrous defeat of the very purposes sought to be obtained by it.' He therefore recommended an increase in the amount authorized to be borrowed on the 5-20 bonds. . . . In order to create a market for the bonds, he again recommended the creation of banking associations under a national law requiring them to secure their circulation by a deposit of government bonds. The suggestion thus renewed was not received with favor by Congress. . . . On the 7th of January Mr. Hooper offered again his bill to provide a national currency, secured by a pledge of United States bonds, but the next day Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, submitted the bill with an adverse report from the committee on ways and means. On the 14th of January Mr. Stevens reported a resolution authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to issue $100,000,000 more of United States notes for the immediate payment of the army and navy. The resolution passed the House at once, and the Senate the next day. . . . On the 19th of January President Lincoln sent a special message to the House, announcing that he had signed the joint resolution authorizing a new issue of United States notes, but adding that he considered it his duty to express his sincere regret that it had been found necessary to add such a sum to an already redundant currency, while the suspended banks were still left free to increase their circulation at will. He warned Congress that such a policy must soon produce disastrous consequences, and the warning was effective. On the 25th of January Senator Sherman offered a bill to provide a national currency, differing in some respects from Mr. Hooper's in the House. The bill passed the Senate on the 12th of February, 28 to 21, and the House on the 20th, 78 to 64. . . . It was signed by the President on the 25th of February, 1863."—H. W. Richardson, *The National Banks, ch.* 2.—"One immediate effect of the Legal Tender Act was to destroy our credit abroad. Stocks were sent home for sale, and, as Bagehot shows, Lombard Street was closed to a nation which had adopted legal tender paper money. . . . By August all specie had disappeared from circulation, and postage-stamps and private note-issues took its place. In July a bill was passed for issuing stamps as fractional currency, but in March 1863, another act was passed providing for an issue of 50,000,000 in notes for fractional parts of a dollar—not legal tender. For many years the actual issue was only 30,000,000, the amount of silver fractional coins in circulation in the North, east of the Rocky Mountains, when the war broke out. . . Gold rose to 200-220 or above, making the paper worth 45 or 50 cts., at which point the 5 per cent. ten-forties floated. The amount sold up to October 31st, 1865, was $172,770,100. Mr. Spaulding reckons up the paper issues which acted more or less as currency, on January 30th, 1864, at $1,125,877,034; 812,000,000 bore no interest."—W. G. Sumner, *Hist. of Am. Currency, pp.* 204–208.—The paper-money issues of the Civil War were not brought to parity of value with gold until near the close of the year 1878. The 1st day of January, 1879, had been fixed for resumption by an act passed in 1875; but that date was generally anticipated in practical business by a few months.—A. S. Bolles, *Financial History of the U. S.*, 1861–1885, *bk.* 1, *ch.* 4, 5, 8, *and* 11, *and bk.* 2, *ch.* 2.

A. D. 1871-1873.—Adoption of the Gold Standard by Germany.—"At the close of the Franco-Prussian war the new German Empire found the opportunity . . . for the establishment of a uniform coinage throughout its numerous small states, and was essentially aided in its plan at this time by the receipt of the enormous war-indemnity from France, of which $54,600,000 was paid to Germany in French gold coin. Besides this, Germany received from France bills of exchange in payment of the indemnity which gave Germany the title to gold in places, such as London, on which the bills were drawn. Gold in this way left London for Berlin. With a large stock of gold on hand, Germany began a series of measures to change her circulation from silver to gold. Her circulation in 1870, before the change was made, was

composed substantially of silver and paper money, with no more than 4 per cent of the whole circulation in gold. . . . The substitution of gold instead of silver in a country like Germany which had a single silver medium was carried out by a path which led first to temporary bimetallism and later to gold monometallism. And for this purpose the preparatory measures were passed December 4, 1871. . . . This law of 1871 created new gold coins, current equally with existing silver coins, at rates of exchange which were based on a ratio between the gold and silver coins of 1:15½. The silver coins were not demonetized by this law; their coinage was for the present only discontinued; but there was no doubt as to the intention of the Government in the future. . . . The next and decisive step toward a single gold standard was taken by the act of July 9, 1878. . . . By this measure gold was established as the monetary standard of the country, with the 'mark' as the unit, and silver was used, as in the United States in 1853, in a subsidiary service. . . . Under the terms of this legislation Germany began to withdraw her old silver coinage, and to sell as bullion whatever silver was not recoined into the new subsidiary currency."—J. L. Laughlin, *Hist. of Bimetallism in the U. S., pp.* 136–140.

A. D. 1893.—Stoppage of the free Coinage of Silver in India.—The free coinage of silver in India was stopped by the Government in June, 1893, thus taking the first step toward the establishment of the gold standard in that country.

MONGOLS: Origin and earliest history.—"The name Mongol (according to Schmidt) is derived from the word Mong, meaning brave, daring, bold, an etymology which is acquiesced in by Dr. Schott. Ssanang Setzen says it was first given to the race in the time of Jingis Khan, but it is of much older date than his time, as we know from the Chinese accounts. . . . They point further, as the statements of Raschid do, to the Mongols having at first been merely one tribe of a great confederacy, whose name was probably extended to the whole when the prowess of the Imperial House which governed it gained the supremacy. We learn lastly from them that the generic name by which the race was known in early times to the Chinese was Shi wei, the Mongols having, in fact, been a tribe of the Shi wei. . . . The Shi wei were known to the Chinese from the 7th century; they then consisted of various detached hordes, subject to the Thu kiu, or Turks. . . . After the fall of the Yuan-Yuan, the Turks, by whom they were overthrown, acquired the supreme control of Eastern Asia. They had, under the name of Hiong nu, been masters of the Mongolian desert and its border land from a very early period, and under their new name of Turks they merely reconquered a position from which they had been driven some centuries before. Everywhere in Mongol history we find evidence of their presence, the titles Khakan, Khan, Bigui or Beg, Terkhan, &c., are common to both races, while the same names occur among Mongol and Turkish chiefs. . . . This fact of the former predominance of Turkish influence in further Asia supports the traditions collected by Raschid, Abulghazi, &c., . . . which trace the race of Mongol Khans up to the old royal race of the Turks."—H. H. Howorth, *Hist. of the Mongols, v.* 1, *pp.* 27–32.—"Here [in the eastern portion of Asia known as the desert of Gobi], from time immemorial, the Mongols, a people nearly akin to the Turks in language and physiognomy, had made their home, leading a miserable nomadic life in the midst of a wild and barren country, unrecognised by their neighbours, and their very name unknown centuries after their kinsmen, the Turks, had been exercising an all-powerful influence over the destinies of Western Asia."—A. Vámbéry, *Hist. of Bokhara, ch.* 8.—See TARTARS, and CHINA.

A. D. 1153-1227.—Conquests of Jingiz Khan.—"Jingis-Khan [or Genghis, or Zingis], whose original name was Tamujin, the son of a Tatar chief, was born in the year 1158 A. D. In 1202, at the age of 49, he had defeated or propitiated all his enemies, and in 1205 was proclaimed, by a great assembly, Khakan or Emperor of Tartary. His capital, a vast assemblage of tents, was at Kara-Korum, in a distant part of Chinese Tartary; and from thence he sent forth mighty armies to conquer the world. This extraordinary man, who could neither read nor write, established laws for the regulation of social life and for the chase; and adopted a religion of pure Theism. His army was divided into Tumans of 10,000 men, Hazarchs of 1 000, Sedehs of 100, and Dehehs of 10, each under a Tatar officer, and they were armed with bows and arrows, swords, and iron maces. Having brought the whole of Tartary under his sway, he conquered China, while his sons, Oktai and Jagatai, were sent [A. D. 1218] with a vast army against Khuwarizm [whose prince had provoked the attack by murdering a large number of merchants who were under the protection of Jingiz]. The country was conquered, though bravely defended by the king's son, Jalalu-'d-Din; 100,000 people were put to the sword, the rest sold as slaves. . . . The sons of Jingiz-Khan then returned in triumph to their father; but the brave young prince, Jalalu-'d-Din, still held out against the conquerors of his country. This opposition roused Jingiz-Khan to fury; Balk was attacked for having harboured the fugitive prince in 1221, and, having surrendered, the people were all put to death. Nishapur shared the same fate, and a horrible massacre of all the inhabitants took place." Jalalu-'d-Din, pursued to the banks of the Indus and defeated in a desperate battle fought there, swam the river on horseback, in the face of the enemy, and escaped into India. "The Mongol hordes then overran Kandahar and Multan, Azerbaijan and 'Irak; Fars was only saved by the submission of its Ata-beg, and two Mongol generals marched round the Caspian Sea. Jingiz-Khan returned to Tartary in A. D. 1222, but in these terrible campaigns he lost no less than 200,000 men. As soon as the great conquerer had retired out of Persia, the indefatigable Jalalu-'d-Din recrossed the Indus with 4,000 followers, and passing through Shiraz and Isfahan drove the Mongols out of Tabriz. But he was defeated by them in 1226; and though he kept up the war in Azerbaijan for a short time longer, he was at length utterly routed, and flying into Kurdistan was killed in the house of a friend there, four years afterwards. . . . Jingiz-Khan died in the year 1227."—C. R. Markham, *Hist. of Persia, ch.* 7.—In 1224 Jingiz

"divided his gigantic empire amongst his sons as follows: China and Mongolia were given to Oktai, whom he nominated as his successor; Tchaghatai received a part of the Uiguric passes as far as Khahrezm, including Turkestan and Transoxania; Djudi had died in the meantime, so Batu was made lord of Kharezm, Desht i-Kiptchak of the pass of Derbend and Tuli was placed over Khorasan, Persia, and India."— A. Vámbéry, *Hist. of Bokhara, ch.* 8.—"Popularly he [Jingis-Khan] is mentioned with Attila and with Timur as one of the 'Scourges of God.' . . . But he was far more than a conquerer. . . . In every detail of social and political economy he was a creator; his laws and his administrative rules are equally admirable and astounding to the student. . . . He may fairly claim to have conquered the greatest area of the world's surface that was ever subdued by one hand. . . . Jingis organised a system of intelligence and espionage by which he generally knew well the internal condition of the country he was about to attack. He intrigued with the discontented and seduced them by fair promises. . . . The Mongols ravaged and laid waste the country all round the bigger towns, and they generally tried to entice a portion of the garrison into an ambuscade. They built regular siege-works armed with catapults; the captives and peasants were forced to take part in the assault; the attack never ceased night or day; relief of troops keeping the garrison in perpetual terror. They employed Chinese and Persians to make their war engines. . . . They rarely abandoned the siege of a place altogether, and would sometimes continue a blockade for years. They were bound by no oath, and however solemn their promise to the inhabitants who would surrender, it was broken, and a general massacre ensued. It was their policy to leave behind them no body of people, however submissive, who might inconvenience their communications. . . . His [Jingis'] creed was to sweep away all cities, as the haunts of slaves and of luxury; that his herds might freely feed upon grass whose green was free from dusty feet. It does make one hide one's face in terror to read that from 1211 to 1223, 18,470,000 human beings perished in China and Tangut alone, at the hands of Jingis and his followers."— H. H. Howorth, *Hist. of the Mongols, v.* 1, *p.* 49, 108–118.—"He [Jingiz-Khan] was . . . a military genius of the very first order, and it may be questioned whether either Cæsar or Napoleon can, as commanders, be placed on a par with him. The manner in which he moved large bodies of men over vast distances without an apparent effort, the judgment he showed in the conduct of several wars in countries far apart from each other, his strategy in unknown regions, always on the alert yet never allowing hesitation or over-caution to interfere with his enterprises, the sieges which he brought to a successful termination, his brilliant victories . . . —all combined, make up the picture of a career to which Europe can offer nothing that will surpass, if indeed she has anything to bear comparison with it."— D. C. Boulger, *Hist. of China, v.* 1, *ch.* 21.—See, also, CHINA: A. D. 1205–1234; KHORASSAN; BOKHARA: A. D. 1219; SAMARKAND; MERV; BALKH; KHUAREZM.

A. D. 1202.—Overthrow of the Keraït, or the kingdom of Prester John. See PRESTER JOHN, THE KINGDOM OF.

A. D. 1220-1294.—Conquests of the successors of Jingiz Khan.—"Okkodai [or Ogotai or Oktai], the son and successor of Chinghiz, followed up the subjugation of China, extinguished the Kin finally in 1234 and consolidated with his empire all the provinces north of the Great Kiang. . . . After establishing his power over so much of China as we have said, Okkodai raised a vast army and set it in motion towards the west. One portion was directed against Armenia, Georgia, and Asia Minor, whilst another great host under Batu, the nephew of the Great Khan, conquered the countries north of Caucasus, overran Russia making it tributary, and still continued to carry fire and slaughter westward. One great detachment under a lieutenant of Batu's entered Poland, burned Cracow, found Breslaw in ashes and abandoned by its people, and defeated with great slaughter at Wahlstadt near Lignitz (April 12th, 1241) the troops of Poland, Moravia and Silesia, who had gathered under Duke Henry of the latter province to make head against this astounding flood of heathen. Batu himself with the main body of his army was ravaging Hungary [see HUNGARY: A. D. 1114–1301]. . . . Pesth was now taken and burnt and all its people put to the sword. The rumours of the Tartars and their frightful devastations had scattered fear through Europe, which the defeat at Lignitz raised to a climax. Indeed weak and disunited Christendom seemed to lie at the foot of the barbarians. The Pope to be sure proclaimed crusade, and wrote circular letters, but the enmity between him and the Emperor Frederic II. was allowed to prevent any co-operation, and neither of them responded by anything better than words to the earnest calls for help which came from the King of Hungary. No human aid merited thanks when Europe was relieved by hearing that the Tartar host had suddenly retreated eastward. The Great Khan Okkodai was dead [A. D. 1241] in the depths of Asia, and a courier had come to recall the army from Europe. In 1255 a new wave of conquest rolled westward from Mongolia, this time directed against the Ismaelians or 'Assassins' on the south of the Caspian, and then successively against the Khalif of Baghdad and Syria. The conclusion of this expedition under Hulagu may be considered to mark the climax of the Mongol power. Mangu Khan, the emperor then reigning, and who died on a campaign in China in 1259, was the last who exercised a sovereignty so nearly universal. His successor Kublai extended indeed largely the frontiers of the Mongol power in China [see CHINA: A. D. 1259–1294], which he brought entirely under the yoke, besides gaining conquests rather nominal than real on its southern and south-eastern borders, but he ruled effectively only in the eastern regions of the great empire, which had now broken up into four. (1) The immediate Empire of the Great Khan, seated eventually at Khanbalik or Peking, embraced China, Corea, Mongolia, and Manchuria, Tibet, and claims at least over Tunking and countries on the Ava frontier; (2), the Chagatai Khanate, or Middle Empire of the Tartars, with its capital at Almalik, included the modern Dsungaria, part of Chinese Turkestan, Transoxiana, and Afghanistan; (3), the Empire of Kipchak, or the Northern Tartars, founded on the conquests of Batu, and with its chief seat at Sarai, on the Wolga, covered a

THE MONGOL EMPIRE
AND ITS DIVISIONS ABOUT 1300 A. D.
The limits of the Mongol Dominions are shown by the special border line thus
The extent of Empire of Timur (about 1400 A. D.) is indicated by the shading.
SCALE OF MILES.
UNKNOWN REGION
TEUTONIC ORDER
REPUBLIC OF NOVGOROD
LITHUANIA
POLAND
DEPENDENT RUSSIAN STATES
BULGARS
BASCHKIRS
UGRIANS
SAMOYEDS
TUNGUS
KIPTCHAK (GOLDEN HORDE)
EMPIRE OF TURAN (SIBIR)
KIRGHIZ
CIRCASSIANS
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
BULGARIA
SYRIA
MAMELUKES
EMPIRE OF CHAGATAI
UIGURS
KHALKAS
Karakorum
MONGOLIA
EMPIRE OF THE YUEN DYNASTY
NIUTSCHE (MANTSCHU)
KOREA
TANGUT
KOSHOD
KATHAY
Nanking
TOUFAN OR TIBET
Lhasa
MANTSE
TUNGFAN
HINDOSTAN
NEPAUL
SIND
MALWA
Benares
Patna
Agra
GUZERAT
BERAR
DECCAN
GONDWANA
BENGAL
ASAM
MIEN
Pagan
SIAM
HAINAN

large part of Russia, the country north of Caucasus, Khwarizm, and a part of the modern Siberia; (4), Persia, with its capital eventually at Tabriz, embraced Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan and part of Asia Minor, all Persia, Arabian Irak, and Khorasan."—H. Yule, *Cathay and the way Thither: Preliminary Essay, sect.* 92–94 (*v.* 1).

ALSO IN: H. H. Howorth, *Hist. of the Mongols, ch.* 4–5.

A. D. 1238-1391.—The Kipchak empire.—The Golden Horde.—"It was under Toushi [or Juchi], son of Tschingis, that the great migration of the Moguls effected an abiding settlement in Russia. . . . Toushi, with half a million of Moguls, entered Europe close by the Sea of Azof. On the banks of the river Kalka he encountered the united forces of the Russian princes. The death of Toushi for awhile arrested the progress of the Tatar arms. But in 1236, Batu, the son of Toushi, took the command, and all the principalities and cities of Russia, with the exception of Novogorod, were desolated by fire and sword and occupied by the enemy. For two centuries Russia was held cabined, cribbed, confined by this encampment or horde. The Golden Horde of the Deshti Kipzak, or Steppe of the Hollow Tree. Between the Volga and the Don, and beyond the Volga, spreads this limitless region the Deshti Kipzak. It was occupied in the first instance, most probably, by Hun-Turks, who first attracted and then were absorbed by fresh immigrants. From this region an empire took its name. By the river Akhtuba, a branch of the lower Volga, at Great Seraï, Batu erected his golden tent; and here it was he received the Russian princes whom he had reduced to vassalage. Here he entertained a king of Armenia; and here, too, he received the ambassadors of S. Louis. . . . With the exception of Novogorod, which had joined the Hanseatic League in 1276, and rose rapidly in commercial prosperity, all Russia continued to endure, till the extinction of the house of Batu, a degrading and hopeless bondage. When the direct race came to an end, the collateral branches became involved in very serious conflicts; and in 1380, Temnik-Mami was overthrown near the river Don by Demetrius IV., who, with the victory, won a title of honour, Donski, which outlasted the benefits of the victory; although it is from this conflict that Russian writers date the commencement of their freedom. . . . After an existence of more than 250 years the Golden Horde was finally dissolved in 1480. Already, in 1468, the khanate of Kusan [or Kazan] was conquered and absorbed by the Grand Duke Ivan; and, after the extinction of the horde, Europeans for the first time exacted tribute of the Tatar, and ambassadors found their way unobstructed to Moscow. But the breaking up of the Golden Horde did not carry with it the collapse of all Tatar power in Russia. Rather the effect was to create a concentration of all their residuary resources in the Crimea."—C. I. Black, *The Proselytes of Ishmael, pt.* 3, *ch.* 4.—"The Mongol word yurt meant originally the domestic fireplace, and, according to Von Hammer, the word is identical with the German herde and the English hearth, and thence came in a secondary sense to mean house or home, the chief's house being known as Ulugh Yurt or the Great House. An assemblage of several yurts formed an ordu or orda, equivalent to the German hort and the English horde, which really means a camp. The chief camp where the ruler of the nation lived was called the Sir Orda, i. e., the Golden Horde. . . . It came about that eventually the whole nation was known as the Golden Horde." The power of the Golden Horde was broken by the conquests of Timour (A. D. 1389–1391). It was finally broken into several fragments, the chief of which, the Khanates of Kazan; of Astrakhan, and of Krim, or the Crimea, maintained a long struggle with Russia, and were successively overpowered and absorbed in the empire of the Muscovite.—H. H. Howorth, *Hist. of the Mongols, pt.* 2, *pp.* 1 *and* x.—See, also, above: A. D. 1239–1294; KIPCHAKS; and RUSSIA: A. D. 1237–1480.

A. D. 1257-1258.—Khulagu's overthrow of the Caliphate. See BAGDAD: A. D. 1258.

A. D. 1258-1393.—The empire of the Ilkhans. See PERSIA: A. D. 1258–1393.

A. D. 1371-1405.—The conquests of Timour. See TIMOUR.

A. D. 1526-1605.—Founding of the Mogul (Mongol) empire in India. See INDIA: A. D. 1399–1605.

MONITOR AND MERRIMAC, Battle of the. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MARCH).

MONKS. See AUSTIN CANONS; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; CAPUCHINS; CARMELITE FRIARS; CARTHUSIAN ORDER; CISTERCIAN ORDER; CLAIRVAUX; CLUGNY; MENDICANT ORDERS; RECOLLECTS; SERVITES; THEATINES; and TRAPPISTS.

MONMOUTH, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1778 (JUNE).

MONMOUTH'S REBELLION. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1685 (MAY—JULY).

MONOCACY, Battle of the. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (JULY: VIRGINIA—MARYLAND).

MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY. See NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY; also, JACOBITE CHURCH.

MONOTHELITE CONTROVERSY, The.—"The Council of Chalcedon having decided that our Lord possessed two natures, united but not confused, the Eutychian error condemned by it is supposed to have been virtually reproduced by the Monothelites, who maintained that the two natures were so united as to have but one will. This heresy is ascribed to Heraclius the Greek emperor, who adopted it as a political project for reconciling and reclaiming the Monophysites to the Church, and thus to the empire. The Armenians as a body had held, for a long time, the Monophysite (a form of the Eutychian) heresy, and were then in danger of breaking their allegiance to the emperor, as they had done to the Church; and it was chiefly to prevent the threatened rupture that Heraclius made a secret compromise with some of their principal men. . . . Neither . . . the strenuous efforts of the Greek emperors Heraclius and Constans, nor the concession of Honorius the Roman pontiff to the soundness of the Monothelite doctrine, could introduce it into the Church. Heraclius published in A. D. 639 an Ecthesis, or a formula, in which Monothelism was covertly introduced. The sixth general council, held in Constantinople A. D. 680, condemned both the heresy and Honorius, the Roman pontiff who had countenanced it. 'The doctrine of the

Monothelites, thus condemned and exploded by the Council of Constantinople, found a place of refuge among the Mardaites, a people who inhabited the mountains of Libanus and Anti-Libanus, and who, about the conclusion of this century, received the name of Maronites from John Maro, their first bishop—a name which they still retain.'. . . In the time of the Crusaders, the Maronites united with them in their wars against the Saracens, and subsequently (A. D. 1182) in their faith. After the evacuation of Syria by the Crusaders, the Maronites, as their former allies, had to bear the vengeance of the Saracenic kings; and for a long time they defended themselves as they could sometimes inflicting serious injury on the Moslem army, and at others suffering the revengeful fury of their enemies. They ultimately submitted to the rule of their Mohammedan masters, and are now good subjects of the sultan. . . . The Maronites now . . . are entirely free from the Monothelite heresy, which they doubtless followed in their earlier history; nor, indeed, does there appear a single vestige of it in their histories, theological books, or liturgies. Their faith in the person of Christ and in all the articles of religion is now, as it has been for a long time past, in exact uniformity with the doctrines of the Roman Church."—J. Wortabet, *Researches into the Religions of Syria, pp.* 103–111, *with foot-note.*

ALSO IN: H. F. Tozer, *The Church and the Eastern Empire, ch.* 5 —E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 47.—P. Schaff, *Hist. of the Christian Church, v.* 4, *ch.* 11, *sect.* 109–111.

MONROE, James, and the opposition to the Federal Constitution. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1787–1789.....**Presidential election and administration.** See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1816, to 1825.

MONROE DOCTRINE, The. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1823.

MONROVIA. See SLAVERY, NEGRO: A D. 1816–1847.

MONS: A. D. 1572.—Capture by Louis of Nassau, recovery by the Spaniards, and massacre. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1572–1573.

A. D. 1691.—Siege and surrender to Louis XIV. See FRANCE: A. D. 1689–1691.

A. D. 1697.—Restored to Spain. See FRANCE: A. D. 1697.

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

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

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

MONS GRAMPIUS, Battle of. See GRAMPIANS.

MONS SACER, Secession of the Roman Plebeians to. See ROME: B. C. 494–492.

MONS TARPEIUS. See CAPITOLINE HILL.

MONSIEUR.—Under the old régime, in France, this was the special designation of the elder among the king's brothers.

MONT ST. JEAN, Battle of. The battle of Waterloo—see FRANCE: A. D. 1815 (JUNE)—is sometimes so called by the French.

MONTAGNAIS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY, and ATHAPASCAN FAMILY.

MONTAGNARDS, OR THE MOUNTAIN. See FRANCE: A. D. 1791 (OCTOBER); 1792 (SEPTEMBER—NOVEMBER); and after, to 1794–1795 (JULY—APRIL).

MONTAGNE NOIRE, Battle of (1794). See FRANCE: A. D. 1794–1795 (OCTOBER—MAY).

MONTANA: A. D. 1803.—Partly or wholly embraced in the Louisiana Purchase.—The question. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1798–1803.

A. D. 1864-1889.—Organization as a Territory and admission as a State.— Montana received its Territorial organization in 1864, and was admitted to the Union as a State in 1889. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1889–1890.

MONTANISTS.—A name given to the followers of Montanus, who appeared in the 2d century, among the Christians of Phrygia, claiming that the Holy Spirit, the Paraclete, "had, by divine appointment, descended upon him for the purpose of foretelling things of the greatest moment that were about to happen, and promulgating a better and more perfect discipline of life and morals. . . . This sect continued to flourish down to the 5th century."—J. L. von Mosheim, *Historical Commentaries, 2d Century, sect.* 66.

MONTAPERTI, Battle of (1260). See FLORENCE: A. D. 1248–1278.

MONTAUBAN, Siege of (1621). See FRANCE: A. D. 1620–1622.

MONTAUKS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

MONTBELIARD, Battle of (1871). See FRANCE: A. D. 1870–1871.

MONTCALM, and the defense of Canada. See CANADA: A. D. 1756, to 1759.

MONTE CASEROS, Battle of (1852). See ARGENTINE REPUBLIC: A. D. 1819–1874.

MONTE CASINO, The Monastery of. See BENEDICTINE ORDERS.

MONTE ROTUNDO, Battle of (1867). See ITALY: A. D. 1867–1870.

MONTE SAN GIOVANNI, Battle and massacre (1495). See ITALY: A. D. 1494–1496.

MONTEBELLO, Battle of (1800). See FRANCE: A. D. 1800–1801 (MAY—FEBRUARY). ... **(1859.)** See ITALY: A. D. 1856–1859.

MONTECATINI, Battle of (1315). See ITALY: A. D. 1313–1330.

MONTENEGRO. See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES.

MONTENOTTE, Battles at (1796). See FRANCE: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER).

MONTEREAU, Battle of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (JANUARY—MARCH).

MONTEREAU, The Bridge of (1419). See FRANCE: A. D. 1415–1419.

MONTEREY, Cal.: Possession taken by the American fleet (1846). See CALIFORNIA: A. D. 1846–1847.

MONTEREY, Mexico: Siege by the Americans (1846). See MEXICO: A. D. 1846–1847.

MONTEREY, Penn., The Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (JUNE—JULY: PENNSYLVANIA).

MONTEVIDEO: Founding of the city. See ARGENTINE REPUBLIC: A. D. 1580–1777.

MONTEZUMA, The so-called Empire of. See MEXICO: A. D. 1325–1502.

MONTFORT, Simon de (the elder), The Crusade of. See CRUSADES: A. D. 1201–1203.

MONTFORT, Simon de (the younger), The English Parliament and the Barons' war. See PARLIAMENT, THE ENGLISH: EARLY STAGES IN ITS EVOLUTION; and ENGLAND: A. D. 1216–1274.

MONTGOMERY, General Richard, and his expedition against Quebec. See CANADA: A. D. 1775–1776.

MONTGOMERY CONSTITUTION and Government. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (FEBRUARY).

MONTI OF SIENA, The. See SIENA.

MONTLEHERY, Battle of (1465). See FRANCE: A. D. 1461–1468.

MONTMÉDY: A. D. 1657.—Siege and capture by the French and English. See FRANCE: A. D. 1655–1658.

A. D. 1659.—Cession to France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1659–1661.

MONTMIRAIL, Battle of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (JANUARY—MARCH).

MONTPELLIER, Treaty of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1620–1622.....**Second Treaty of.** See FRANCE: A. D. 1624–1626.

MONTPENSIER, Mademoiselle, and the Fronde. See FRANCE: A. D. 1651–1653.

MONTREAL: A. D. 1535.—The Naming of the Island. See AMERICA: A. D. 1534–1535.

A. D. 1611.—The founding of the City by Champlain. See CANADA: A. D. 1611–1616.

A. D. 1641-1657.—Settlement under the seigniory of the Sulpicians. See CANADA: A. D. 1637–1657.

A. D. 1689.—Destructive attack by the Iroquois. See CANADA: A. D. 1640–1700.

A. D. 1690.—Threatened by the English Colonists. See CANADA: A. D. 1689–1690.

A. D. 1760.—The surrender of the city and of all Canada to the English. See CANADA: A. D. 1760.

A. D. 1775-1776.—Taken by the Americans and recovered by the British. See CANADA: A. D. 1775–1776.

A. D. 1813.—Abortive expedition of American forces against the city. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1813 (OCTOBER—NOVEMBER).

MONTROSE, and the Covenanters. See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1638–1640; and 1644–1645.

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

MONZON, OR MONÇON, Treaty of (1626). See FRANCE: A. D. 1624–1626.

MOODKEE, Battle of (1845). See INDIA: A. D. 1845–1849.

MOOKERHYDE, Battle of (1574). See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1573–1574.

MOOLTAN, OR MULTAN: A. D. 1848-1849.—Siege and capture by the English. See INDIA: A. D. 1845–1849.

MOORE, Sir John: Campaign in Spain and death. See SPAIN: A. D. 1808–1809 (AUGUST—JANUARY).

MOORE'S CREEK, Battle of (1776). See NORTH CAROLINA: A. D. 1775–1776.

MOORISH SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES. See EDUCATION, MEDIÆVAL.

MOORS, OR MAURI, Origin. See NUMIDIANS.

A. D. 698-709.—Arab conquest. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 647–709; and MOROCCO.

A. D. 711-713.—Conquest of Spain. See SPAIN: A. D. 711–713, and after.

11-13th Centuries.—The Almoravides and Almohades in Morocco. See ALMORAVIDES; and ALMOHADES.

A. D. 1492-1609.—Persecution and final expulsion from Spain.—The deadly effect upon that country.—"After the reduction . . . of the last Mohammedan kingdom in Spain, the great object of the Spaniards became to convert those whom they had conquered [in violation of the treaty made on the surrender of Granada]. . . . By torturing some, by burning others, and by threatening all, they at length succeeded; and we are assured that, after the year 1526, there was no Mohammedan in Spain, who had not been converted to Christianity. Immense numbers of them were baptized by force; but being baptized, it was held that they belonged to the Church, and were amenable to her discipline. That discipline was administered by the Inquisition, which, during the rest of the 16th century, subjected these new Christians, or Moriscoes, as they were now called, to the most barbarous treatment. The genuineness of their forced conversions was doubted; it therefore became the business of the Church to inquire into their sincerity. The civil government lent its aid; and among other enactments, an edict was issued by Philip II., in 1566, ordering the Moriscoes to abandon everything which by the slightest possibility could remind them of their former religion. They were commanded, under severe penalties, to learn Spanish, and to give up all their Arabic books. They were forbidden to read their native language, or to write it, or even to speak it in their own houses. Their ceremonies and their very games were strictly prohibited. They were to indulge in no amusements which had been practised by their fathers; neither were they to wear such clothes as they had been accustomed to. Their women were to go unveiled; and, as bathing was a heathenish custom, all public baths were to be destroyed, and even all baths in private houses. By these and similar measures, these unhappy people were at length goaded into rebellion; and in 1568 they took the desperate step of measuring their force against that of the whole Spanish monarchy. The result could hardly be doubted; but the Moriscoes maddened by their sufferings, and fighting for their all, protracted the contest till 1571, when the insurrection was finally put down. By this unsuccessful effort they were greatly reduced in numbers and in strength; and during the remaining 27 years of the reign of Philip II. we hear comparatively little of them. Notwithstanding an occasional outbreak, the old animosities were subsiding, and in the course of time would probably have disappeared. At all events, there was no pretence for violence on the part of the Spaniards, since it was absurd to suppose that the Moriscoes, weakened in every way, humbled, broken, and scattered through the kingdom, could, even if they desired it, effect anything against the resources of the executive government. But, after the death of Philip II., that movement began . . . which, contrary to

the course of affairs in other nations, secured to the Spanish clergy in the 17th century, more power than they had possessed in the 16th. The consequences of this were immediately apparent. The clergy did not think that the steps taken by Philip II. against the Moriscoes were sufficiently decisive. . . . Under his successor, the clergy . . . gained fresh strength, and they soon felt themselves sufficiently powerful to begin another and final crusade against the miserable remains of the Moorish nation. The Archbishop of Valencia was the first to take the field. In 1602, this eminent prelate presented a memorial to Philip III. against the Moriscoes; and finding that his views were cordially supported by the clergy, and not discouraged by the crown, he followed up the blow by another memorial having the same object. . . . He declared that the Armada, which Philip II. sent against England in 1588, had been destroyed, because God would not allow even that pious enterprise to succeed, while those who undertook it, left heretics undisturbed at home For the same reason, the late expedition to Algiers had failed; it being evidently the will of Heaven that nothing should prosper while Spain was inhabited by apostates. He, therefore, exhorted the king to exile all the Moriscoes, except some whom he might condemn to work in the galleys, and others who could become slaves, and labour in the mines of America. This, he added, would make the reign of Philip glorious to all posterity, and would raise his fame far above that of his predecessors, who in this matter had neglected their obvious duty . . . That they should all be slain, instead of being banished, was the desire of a powerful party in the Church, who thought that such signal punishment would work good by striking terror into the heretics of every nation. Bleda, the celebrated Dominican, one of the most influential men of his time, wished this to be done, and to be done thoroughly. He said, that, for the sake of example, every Morisco in Spain should have his throat cut, because it was impossible to tell which of them were Christians at heart, and it was enough to leave the matter to God; who knew his own, and who would reward in the next world those who were really Catholics. . . . The religious scruples of Philip III. forbade him to struggle with the Church; and his minister Lerma would not risk his own authority by even the show of opposition. In 1609 he announced to the king, that the expulsion of the Moriscoes had become necessary. 'The resolution,' replied Philip, 'is a great one; let it be executed.' And executed it was, with unflinching barbarity. About 1,000,000 of the most industrious inhabitants of Spain were hunted out like wild beasts, because the sincerity of their religious opinions was doubtful. Many were slain, as they approached the coast; others were beaten and plundered; and the majority, in the most wretched plight, sailed for Africa. During the passage, the crew, in many of the ships, rose upon them, butchered the men, ravished the women, and threw the children into the sea. Those who escaped this fate, landed on the coast of Barbary, where they were attacked by the Bedouins, and many of them put to the sword. Others made their way into the desert, and perished from famine. Of the number of lives actually sacrificed, we have no authentic account; but it is said, on very good authority, that in one expedition, in which 140,000 were carried to Africa, upwards of 100,000 suffered death in its most frightful forms within a few months after their expulsion from Spain. Now, for the first time, the Church was really triumphant. For the first time there was not a heretic to be seen between the Pyrenees and the Straits of Gibraltar. All were orthodox, and all were loyal. Every inhabitant of that great country obeyed the Church, and feared the king. And from this happy combination, it was believed that the prosperity and grandeur of Spain were sure to follow. . . . The effects upon the material prosperity of Spain may be stated in a few words. From nearly every part of the country, large bodies of industrious agriculturists and expert artificers were suddenly withdrawn. The best systems of husbandry then known, were practised by the Moriscoes, who tilled and irrigated with indefatigable labour. The cultivation of rice, cotton, and sugar, and the manufacture of silk and paper were almost confined to them. By their expulsion all this was destroyed at a blow, and most of it was destroyed for ever. For the Spanish Christians considered such pursuits beneath their dignity. In their judgment, war and religion were the only two avocations worthy of being followed. To fight for the king, or to enter the Church was honourable; but everything else was mean and sordid. When, therefore, the Moriscoes were thrust out of Spain, there was no one to fill their place; arts and manufactures either degenerated, or were entirely lost, and immense regions of arable land were left uncultivated. . . . Whole districts were suddenly deserted, and down to the present day have never been repeopled. These solitudes gave refuge to smugglers and brigands, who succeeded the industrious inhabitants formerly occupying them; and it is said that from the expulsion of the Moriscoes is to be dated the existence of those organized bands of robbers, which, after this period, became the scourge of Spain, and which no subsequent government has been able entirely to extirpate. To these disastrous consequences, others were added, of a different, and, if possible, of a still more serious kind. The victory gained by the Church increased both her power and her reputation. . . . The greatest men, with hardly an exception, became ecclesiastics, and all temporal considerations, all views of earthly policy, were despised and set at nought. No one inquired; no one doubted; no one presumed to ask if all this was right. The minds of men succumbed and were prostrate. While every other country was advancing, Spain alone was receding. Every other country was making some addition to knowledge, creating some art, or enlarging some science, Spain numbed into a death-like torpor, spellbound and entranced by the accursed superstition which preyed on her strength, presented to Europe a solitary instance of constant decay."—H. T. Buckle, *Hist. of Civilization*, *v.* 2, *ch.* 8.

Also in: W. H. Prescott, *Hist. of the Reign of Philip II.*, *bk.* 5, *ch.* 1-8 (*v.* 3).—R. Watson, *Hist. of the Reign of Philip III.*, *bk.* 4.—J. Dunlop, *Memoirs of Spain*, 1621-1700, *v.* 1, *ch.* 1.—See, also, Inquisition: A. D. 1203-1525.

15-19th Centuries.—The kingdom of Marocco. See Marocco.

MOPH. See Memphis.

MOQUELUMNAN FAMILY, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MOQUELUMNAN FAMILY.

MOQUIS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: PUEBLOS.

MORA, The.—The name of the ship which bore William the Conqueror to England, and which was the gift of his wife, the Duchess Matilda.

MORAT, Battle of (1476). See BURGUNDY (THE FRENCH DUKEDOM): A. D. 1476–1477.

MORAVIA: Its people and their early history. See BOHEMIA: ITS PEOPLE, &C.

9th Century.—Conversion to Christianity.—The kingdom of Svatopluk and its obscure destruction.—"Moravia has not even a legendary history. Her name appears for the first time at the beginning of the 9th century, under its Slav form, Morava (German 'March,' 'Moehren'). It is used to denote at the same time a tributary of the Danube and the country it waters; it is met with again in the lower valley of that stream, in Servia, and appears to have a Slav origin. During the 7th and 8th centuries there is no doubt Moravia was divided among several princes, and had a hard struggle against the Avars. The first prince whose name is known was Moïmir, who ruled at the beginning of the 9th century. . . . During his reign Christianity made some progress in Moravia. . . . Moïmir tried to withstand the Germans, but was not successful; and in 846 Louis the German invaded his country, deposed him, and made his nephew Rostislav, whom the chroniclers call Rastiz, ruler in his stead. . . . The new prince, Rostislav, determined to secure both the political and moral freedom of his country. He fortified his frontiers and then declared war against the emperor. He was victorious, and when once peace was secured he undertook a systematic conversion of his people. Thus came about one of the great episodes in the history of the Slavs, and their Church, the mission of the apostles Cyril and Methodius. . . . After having struggled successfully for some time against the Germans" Rostislav was "betrayed by his nephew and vassal, Svatopluk, into the hands of Karloman, duke of Carinthia and son of Louis the German, who put out his eyes and shut him up in a monastery. Svatopluk believed himself sure of the succession to his uncle as the price of his treachery, but a very different reward fell to his lot, as Karloman, trusting but little in his fidelity to the Germans, threw him also into captivity. The German yoke was, however, hateful to the Moravians; they soon rebelled, and Karloman hoped to avert the danger by releasing Svatopluk and placing him at the head of an army. Svatopluk marched against the Moravians, then suddenly joined his forces to theirs and attacked the Germans. This time the independence of Moravia was secured, and was recognized by the treaty of Forcheim (874). . . . Thenceforward peace reigned between Svatopluk and Louis the German. . . . At one time he [Svatopluk] was the most powerful monarch of the Slavs; Rome was in treaty with him, Bohemia gravitated towards the orbit of Moravia, while Moravia held the empire in check. . . . At this time [891] the kingdom of Svatopluk . . . included, besides Moravia and the present Austrian Silesia, the subject country of Bohemia, the Slav tribes on the Elbe and the Vistula as far as the neighbourhood of Magdeburg, part of Western Galicia, the country of the Slovaks, and Lower Pannonia." But Svatopluk was ruined by war with his neighbor, Arnulf, duke of Pannonia. The latter "entered into an alliance with Braclav, a Slovene prince, sought the aid of the king of the Bulgarians, and, what was of far graver importance, summoned to his help the Magyars, who had just settled themselves on the Lower Danube. Swabians, Bavarians, Franks, Magyars, and Slovenes rushed simultaneously upon Moravia. Overwhelmed by numbers, Svatopluk made no attempt at resistance: he shut up his troops in fortresses, and abandoned the open country to the enemy, who ravaged it for four whole weeks. Then hostilities ceased; but no durable peace could exist between the two adversaries. War began again in the following year, when death freed Arnulf from Svatopluk. . . . At his death he left three sons; he chose the eldest, Moïmir II., as his heir, and assigned appanages to each of the others. On his death-bed he begged them to live at peace with one another, but his advice was not followed. . . . Bohemia soon threw off those bonds which had attached her as a vassal to Svatopluk; the Magyars invaded Moravian Pannonia, and forced Moïmir into an alliance with them. . . . In the year 900 the Bavarians, together with the Chekhs, invaded Moravia. In 903 the name of Moïmir disappears. As to the cause of his death, as to how it was that suddenly and for ever the kingdom of Moravia was destroyed, the chronicles tell us nothing. Cosmas of Prague shows us Moravia at the mercy of Germans, Chekhs, and Hungarians; then history is silent, towns and castles crumble to pieces, churches are overthrown, the people are scattered."—L. Leger, *Hist. of Austro-Hungary, ch.* 4.

ALSO IN: G. F. Maclear, *Conversion of the West: The Slavs, ch.* 4.

A. D. 1355.—Absorption in the kingdom of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: A. D. 1355.

MORAVIAN OR BOHEMIAN BRETHREN (Unitas Fratrum): Origin and early history. See BOHEMIA: A. D. 1434–1457; and 1621–1648.

In Saxony and in America.—The Indian Missions.—"In 1722, and in the seven following years, a considerable number of these 'Brethren,' led by Christian David, who were persecuted in their homes, were received by Count Zinzendorf on his estate at Berthelsdorf in Saxony. They founded a village called Herrnhut, or 'the Watch of the Lord.' There they were joined by Christians from other places in Germany, and, after some time, Zinzendorf took up his abode among them, and became their principal guide and pastor. . . . In 1737, he consecrated himself wholly to the service of God in connection with the Moravian settlement, and was ordained a bishop. . . . Zinzendorf had before been received into the Lutheran ministry. The peculiar fervor which characterized his religious work, and certain particulars in his teaching, caused the Saxon Government, which was wedded to the traditional ways of Lutheranism, to exclude him from Saxony for about ten years (1736–1747). He prosecuted his religious labors in Frankfort, journeyed through Holland and England, made a voyage to the West Indies, and, in 1741, another voyage to America. New

branches of the Moravian body he planted in the countries which he visited. . . . It was a church within a church that Zinzendorf aimed to establish. It was far from his purpose to found a sect antagonistic to the national churches in the midst of which the Moravian societies arose. . . . With a religious life remarkable as combining warm emotion with a quiet and serene type of feeling, the community of Zinzendorf connected a missionary zeal not equalled at that time in any other Protestant communion Although few in number, they sent their gospel messengers to all quarters of the globe."—G P. Fisher, *Hist. of the Christian Church, pp.* 506–507. —The first settlement of the Moravians in America was planted in Georgia, in 1735. "But Oglethorpe's border war with the Spaniards compelled him to call every man in his colony to arms, and the Moravians, rather than forsake their principles [of non-resistance, and dependence upon prayer], abandoned their lands and escaped to Pennsylvania [1740]. Here some of their brethren were already fixed. Among the refugees was the young David Zeisberger, the future head of the Ohio missions. Bethlehem on the Lehigh became, and is yet the centre in America of their double system of missions and education. They bought lands, laid out villages and farms, built houses, shops, and mills, but everywhere, and first of all, houses of prayer, in thankfulness for the peace and prosperity at length found. The first mission established by Zinzendorf in the colonies was in 1741, among the Mohican Indians, near the borders of New York and Connecticut. The bigoted people and authorities of the neighborhood by outrages and persecution drove them off, so that they were forced to take refuge on the Lehigh. The brethren established them in a new colony twenty miles above Bethlehem, to which they gave the name of Gnadenhütten (Tents of Grace). The prosperity of the Mohicans attracted the attention and visits of the Indians beyond. The nearest were the Delawares, between whom and the Mohicans there were strong ties of affinity, as branches of the old Lenni Lenape stock. Relations were thus formed between the Moravians and the Delawares. And by the fraternization between the Delawares and Shawanees . . . and their gradual emigration to the West to escape the encroachments of Penn's people, it occurred that the Moravian missionaries, Zeisberger foremost, accompanied their Delaware and Mohican converts to the Susquehanna in 1765, and again, when driven from there by the cession at Fort Stanwix, journeyed with them across the Alleghanies to Goshgoshink, a town established by the unconverted Delawares far up the Alleghany River." In 1770, having gained some important converts among the Delawares of the Wolf clan, at Kuskuskee, on Big Beaver Creek, they transferred themselves to that place, naming it Friedenstadt. But there they were opposed with such hostility by warriors and white traders that they determined "to plunge a step further into the wilderness, and go to the head chief of the Delawares at Gepelmukpechenk (Stillwater, or Tuscarawi) on the Muskingum. It was near this village that Christian Frederick Post, the brave, enterprising pioneer of the Moravians, had established himself in 1761, with the approbation of the chiefs. . . . By marriage with an Indian wife he had forfeited his regular standing with the congregation. His intimate acquaintance with the Indians, and their languages and customs, so far gained upon them that in 1762 he was permitted to take Heckewelder to share his cabin and establish a school for the Indian children. But in the autumn the threatened outburst of Pontiac's war had compelled them to flee" Early in 1772 the Moravian colony "was invited by the council at Tuscarawi, the Wyandots west of them approving it, to come with all their Indian brethren from the Alleghany and Susquehanna, and settle on the Muskingum (as the Tuscarawas was then called), and upon any lands that they might choose." The invitation was accepted. "The pioneer party, in the removal from the Beaver to Ohio, consisted of Zeisberger and five Indian families, 28 persons, who arrived at this beautiful ground May 3, 1772. . . . The site was at the large spring, and appropriately it was named for it Shoenbrun. In August arrived the Missionaries Ettwein and Heckewelder, with the main body of Christian Indians who had been invited from the Alleghany and the Susquehanna, about 250 in number. . . . This, and further accessions from the east in September, made it advisable to divide the colony into two villages. The second [named Gnadenhütten] was established ten miles below Shoenbrun. . . . In April, 1773, the remnants of the mission on the Beaver joined their brethren in Ohio. The whole body of the Moravian Indians . . . was now united and at rest under the shelter of the unconverted but . . . tolerant Delaware warriors. . . . The population of the Moravian villages at the close of 1775 was 414 persons. . . . The calamity of the Moravians was the war of the American Revolution. It developed the dangerous fact that their villages . . . were close upon the direct line between Pittsburgh and Detroit, the outposts of the two contending forces." The peaceful settlement became an object of hostility to the meaner spirits on both sides. In September, 1781, by order of the British commander at Detroit, they were expelled from their settlement, robbed of all their possessions, and sent to Sandusky. In the following February, a half-starved party of them, numbering 96, who had ventured back to their ravaged homes, for the purpose of gleaning the corn left standing in the fields, were massacred by a brutal American force, from the Ohio. "So perished the Moravian missions on the Muskingum Not that the pious founders ceased their labors, or that these consecrated scenes knew them no more. But their Indian communities, the germ of their work, the sign of what was to be accomplished by them in the great Indian problem, were scattered and gone. Zeisberger, at their head, labored with the remnants of their congregation for years in Canada. They then transferred themselves temporarily to settlements on the Sandusky, the Huron, and the Cuyahoga rivers. At last he and Heckewelder, with the survivors of these wanderings, went back to their lands on the Tuscarawas."—R. King, *Ohio, ch.* 6.

Also in: D. Cranz, *Hist. of the United Brethren.*—F. Bovet, *The Banished Count (Life of Zinzendorf).*—E. de Schweinitz, *Life and Times of David Zeisberger.*—D. Zeisberger, *Diary.*—D. Berger, *United Brethren (Am. Ch. Hist.), v.* 12.

MORE, SIR THOMAS, Execution of. See England: A. D. 1529–1535.

MOREA: Origin of the name.—"The Morea must . . . have come into general use, as the name of the peninsula [of the Peloponnesus] among the Greeks, after the Latin conquest [of 1204–1205], even allowing that the term was used among foreigners before the arrival of the Franks. . . . The name Morea was, however, at first applied only to the western coast of the Peloponnesus, or perhaps more particularly to Elis, which the epitome of Strabo points out as a district exclusively Sclavonian, and which, to this day, preserves a number of Sclavonian names. . . . Originally the word appears to be the same geographical denomination which the Sclavonians of the north had given to a mountain district of Thrace in the chain of Mount Rhodope. In the 14th century the name of this province is written by the Emperor Cantacuzenos, who must have been well acquainted with it personally, Morrha. Even as late as the 14th century, the Morea is mentioned in official documents relating to the Frank principality as a province of the Peloponnesus, though the name was then commonly applied to the whole peninsula."—G. Finlay, *Hist. of Greece from its Conquest by the Crusaders, ch.* 1, *sect.* 4.

The Principality of the. See ACHAIA: A. D. 1205–1387.

MOREAU, General, The Campaigns and the military and political fortunes of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER); 1796–1797 (OCTOBER—APRIL); 1799 (APRIL—SEPTEMBER), (NOV.); 1800–1801 (MAY—FEB.); and 1804–1805; also, GERMANY: A. D. 1813 (AUG.).

MORETON BAY DISTRICT. See AUSTRALIA: A. D. 1800–1840; and 1859.

MORGAN, General Daniel. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D 1780–1781.

MORGAN, General John H., and his raid into Ohio and Indiana See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (JULY: KENTUCKY).

MORGAN, William, The abduction of. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1826–1832.

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

MORGANATIC MARRIAGES.—"Besides the dowry which was given before the marriage ceremony had been performed, it was customary [among some of the ancient German peoples] for the husband to make his wife a present on the morning after the first night. This was called the 'morgengabe,' or morning gift, the presenting of which, where no previous ceremony had been observed, constituted a particular kind of connexion called matrimonium morganaticum, or 'morganatic marriage.' As the liberality of the husband was apt to be excessive, we find the amount limited by the Langobardian laws to one fourth of the bridegroom's substance."—W. C. Perry, *The Franks, ch.* 10.

MORGARTEN, Battle of (1315). See SWITZERLAND: THE THREE FOREST CANTONS.

MORINI, The. See BELGÆ.

MORISCOES.—This name was given to the Moors in Spain after their nominal and compulsory conversion to Christianity. See MOORS: A. D. 1492–1609.

MORMAERS, OR MAARMORS.—A title, signifying great Maer or Steward, borne by certain princes or sub-kings of provinces in Scotland in the 10th and 11th centuries. The Macbeth of history was Mormaer of Moray.—W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland, v.* 3, *pp.* 49–51.—See, also, SCOTLAND: A. D. 1039–1054.

MORMANS, Battle of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1814 (JANUARY—MARCH).

MORMONISM: A. D. 1805-1830.—Joseph Smith and the Book of Mormon.—"Joseph Smith, Jr., who . . . appears in the character of the first Mormon prophet, and the putative founder of Mormonism and the Church of Latter Day Saints, was born in Sharon, Windsor County, Vt., December 13, 1805. He was the son of Joseph Smith, Sr., who, with his wife Lucy and their family, removed from Royalton, Vt., to Palmyra, N. Y., in the summer of 1816. The family embraced nine children, Joseph, Jr., being the fourth in the order of their ages . . . At Palmyra, Mr. Smith, Sr., opened 'a cake and beer shop,' as described by his signboard, doing business on a small scale, by the profits of which, added to the earnings of an occasional day's work on hire by himself and his elder sons, for the village and farming people, he was understood to secure a scanty but honest living for himself and family. . . . In 1818 they settled upon a nearly wild or unimproved piece of land, mostly covered with standing timber, situate about two miles south of Palmyra. . . . Little improvement was made upon this land by the Smith family in the way of clearing, fencing, or tillage. . . . The larger proportion of the time of the Smiths . . . was spent in hunting and fishing . . . and idly lounging around the stores and shops in the village. . . . At this period in the life and career of Joseph Smith, Jr., or 'Joe Smith,' as he was universally named, and the Smith family, they were popularly regarded as an illiterate, whiskey-drinking, shiftless, irreligious race of people—the first named, the chief subject of this biography, being unanimously voted the laziest and most worthless of the generation. . . . Taciturnity was among his characteristic idiosyncracies, and he seldom spoke to any one outside of his intimate associates, except when first addressed by another; and then, by reason of his extravagancies of statement, his word was received with the least confidence by those who knew him best. He could utter the most palpable exaggeration or marvellous absurdity with the utmost apparent gravity. . . . He was, however, proverbially good-natured, very rarely if ever indulging in any combative spirit toward any one, whatever might be the provocation, and yet was never known to laugh. Albeit, he seemed to be the pride of his indulgent father, who has been heard to boast of him as the 'genus of the family,' quoting his own expression. Joseph, moreover, as he grew in years, had learned to read comprehensively, in which qualification he was far in advance of his elder brother, and even of his father. . . . As he . . . advanced in reading and knowledge, he assumed a spiritual or religious turn of mind, and frequently perused the Bible, becoming quite familiar with portions thereof. . . . The final conclusion announced by him was, that all sectarianism was fallacious, all the churches on a false foundation, and the Bible a fable. . . . In September, 1819, a curious stone was found in the digging of a well upon the premises of Mr. Clark Chase, near Palmyra. This stone attracted particular notice on account of its peculiar shape, resembling that of a child's foot. It was of a whitish, glassy appearance,

though opaque, resembling quartz. Joseph Smith, Sr., and his elder sons Alvin and Hyrum, did the chief labor of this well-digging, and Joseph, Jr., who had been a frequenter in the progress of the work, as an idle looker-on and lounger, manifested a special fancy for this geological curiosity, and he carried it home with him. . . . Very soon the pretension transpired that he could see wonderful things by its aid. . . . The most glittering sights revealed to the mortal vision of the young impostor, in the manner stated, were hidden treasures of great value, including enormous deposits of gold and silver sealed in earthen pots or iron chests, and buried in the earth in the immediate vicinity of the place where he stood. These discoveries finally became too dazzling for his eyes in daylight, and he had to shade his vision by looking at the stone in his hat! . . . The imposture was renewed and repeated at frequent intervals from 1820 to 1827, various localities being the scenes of . . . delusive searches for money [for carrying on which Smith collected contributions from his dupes], as pointed out by the revelations of the magic stone. . . . Numerous traces of the excavations left by Smith are yet remaining as evidences of his impostures and the folly of his dupes, though most of them have become obliterated by the clearing off and tilling of the lands where they were made." In the summer of 1827 "Smith had a remarkable vision. He pretended that, while engaged in secret prayer, alone in the wilderness, an 'angel of the Lord' appeared to him, with the glad tidings that 'all his sins had been forgiven', . . . also that he had received a 'promise that the true doctrine and the fulness of the doctrine and the fulness of the gospel should at some future time be revealed to him.' . . . In the fall of the same year Smith had yet a more miraculous and astonishing vision than any preceding one. He now arrogated to himself, by authority of 'the spirit of revelation,' and in accordance with the previous 'promises' made to him, a far higher sphere in the scale of human existence, assuming to possess the gift and power of 'prophet, seer, and revelator.' On this assumption he announced to his family friends and the bigoted persons who had adhered to his supernaturalism, that he was 'commanded,' upon a secretly fixed day and hour, to go alone to a certain spot revealed to him by the angel, and there take out of the earth a metallic book of great antiquity in its origin, and of immortal importance in its consequences to the world, which was a record, in mystic letters or characters, of the long-lost tribes of Israel, . . . who had primarily inhabited this continent, and which no human being besides himself could see and live; and the power to translate which to the nations of the earth was also given to him only, as the chosen servant of God. . . . Accordingly, when the appointed hour came, the prophet, assuming his practised air of mystery, took in hand his money-digging spade and a large napkin, and went off in silence and alone in the solitude of the forest, and after an absence of some three hours returned, apparently with his sacred charge concealed within the folds of the napkin. . . . With the book was also found, or so pretended, a huge pair of spectacles in a perfect state of preservation, or the Urim and Thummim, as afterward interpreted, whereby the mystic record was to be translated and the wonderful dealings of God revealed to man, by the superhuman power of Joseph Smith. . . . The sacred treasure was not seen by mortal eyes, save those of the one anointed, until after the lapse of a year or longer time, when it was found expedient to have a new revelation, as Smith's bare word had utterly failed to gain a convert beyond his original circle of believers. By this amended revelation, the veritable existence of the book was certified to by eleven witnesses of Smith's selection. It was then heralded as the Golden Bible, or Book of Mormon, and as the beginning of a new gospel dispensation . . . The spot from which the book is alleged to have been taken is the yet partially visible pit where the money speculators had previously dug for another kind of treasure, which is upon the summit of what has ever since been known as 'Mormon Hill,' now owned by Mr. Anson Robinson, in the town of Manchester, New York. This book . . . was finally described by Smith and his echoes as consisting of metallic leaves or plates resembling gold, bound together in a volume by three rings running through one edge of them, the leaves opening like an ordinary paper book. . . . Translations and interpretations were now entered upon by the prophet," and in 1830 the "Book of Mormon" was printed and published at Palmyra, New York, a well-to-do farmer, Martin Harris, paying the expense. "In claiming for the statements herein set forth the character of fairness and authenticity, it is perhaps appropriate to add . . . that the locality of the malversations resulting in the Mormon scheme is the author's birthplace; that he was well acquainted with 'Joe Smith,' the first Mormon prophet, and with his father and all the Smith family, since their removal to Palmyra from Vermont . . . ; that he was equally acquainted with Martin Harris and Oliver Cowdery, and with most of the earlier followers of Smith, either as money-diggers or Mormons; that he established at Palmyra, in 1823, and was for many years editor and proprietor of the 'Wayne Sentinel,' and was editorially connected with that paper at the printing by its press of the original edition of the 'Book of Mormon' in 1830, that in the progress of the work he performed much of the reading of the proof-sheets, comparing the same with the manuscript copies, and in the meantime had frequent and familiar interviews with the pioneer Mormons."—P. Tucker, *Origin, Rise and Progress of Mormonism, ch. 1–5, and preface.*—It is believed by many that the groundwork of the Book of Mormon was supplied by an ingenious romance, written about 1814 by the Rev. Solomon Spalding, a Presbyterian minister of some learning and literary ability, then living at New Salem (now Conneaut), Ohio. This romance, which was entitled "The Manuscript Found," purported to narrate the history of a migration of the lost ten tribes of Israel to America. It was never published; but members of Mr. Spalding's family, and other persons, who read it or heard it read, in manuscript, claimed confidently, after the appearance of the Book of Mormon that the main body of the narrative and the notable names introduced in it were identical with those of the latter. Some circumstances, moreover, seemed to indicate a probability that Mr. Spalding's manuscript, being left during several weeks with a publisher named Patterson, at Pittsburgh, came there into

the hands of one Sidney Rigdon, a young printer, who appeared subsequently as one of the leading missionaries of Mormonism, and who is believed to have visited Joseph Smith, at Palmyra, before the Book of Mormon came to light. On the other hand, Mormon believers have, latterly, made much of the fact that a manuscript romance without title, by Solomon Spalding, was found, not many years since, in the Sandwich Islands, by President Fairchild of Oberlin College, Ohio, and proved to bear no resemblance to the Book of Mormon. Spalding is said, however, to have written several romances, and, if so, nothing is proved by this discovery.—T. Gregg, *The Prophet of Palmyra, ch.* 1–11 *and* 41–45.

Also in: E. E. Dickinson, *New Light on Mormonism*.—J. M. Kennedy, *Early Days of Mormonism, ch.* 1–2.

A. D. 1830-1846.—The First Hegira to Kirtland, Ohio, the Second to Missouri, the Third to Nauvoo, Illinois.—The Danites.—The building of the city and its Temple.—Hostility of the Gentiles.—The slaying of the Prophet.—"Immediately after the publication of the Book the Church was duly organized at Manchester. On April 6, 1830, six members were ordained elders—Joseph Smith, Sr., Joseph Smith, Jr., Hyrum Smith, Samuel Smith, Oliver Cowdery and Joseph Knight. The first conference was held at Fayette, Seneca county, in June. A special 'revelation' at this time made Smith's wife 'the Elect Lady and Daughter of God,' with the high-sounding title of 'Electa Cyria.' In later years this lady became disgusted with her husband's religion. . . . Another revelation was to the effect that Palmyra was not the gathering-place of the Saints, after all, but that they should proceed to Kirtland, in Ohio. Consequently, the early part of 1831 saw them colonized in that place, the move being known as 'The First Hegira.' Still another revelation (on the 6th of June) stated that some point in Missouri was the reliable spot. Smith immediately selected a tract in Jackson county, near Independence. By 1833 the few Mormons who had moved thither were so persecuted that they went into Clay county, and thence, in 1838, into Caldwell county, naming their settlement 'Far West.' The main body of the Mormons, however, remained in Kirtland from 1831 till they were forced to join their Western brethren in 1838. Brigham Young, another native of Vermont, joined at Kirtland in 1832, and was ordained an elder. The conference of elders on May 6, 1833, repudiated the name of Mormons and adopted that of 'Latter-Day Saints.' The first presidency consisted of Smith, Rigdon, and Frederick G. Williams. In May, 1835, the Twelve Apostles—among them Brigham Young, Heber C. Kimball and Orson Hyde—left on a mission for proselytes. . . . The Mormons were driven from Missouri by Governor Boggs's 'Extraordinary Order,' which caused them to gain sympathy as having been persecuted in a slave State. They moved to Hancock county, Illinois, in 1840, and built up Nauvoo [on the Mississippi River, 14 miles above Keokuk] by a charter with most unusual privileges."—F. G. Mather, *The Early Days of Mormonism* (*Lippincott's Mag., Aug.* 1880).—In the midst of the troubles of Smith and his followers in Missouri, and before their removal to Nauvoo, there arose among them "the mysterious and much dreaded band that finally took the name of Danites, or sons of Dan, concerning which so much has been said while so little is known, some of the Mormons even denying its existence. But of this there is no question. Says Burton: 'The Danite band, a name of fear in the Mississippi Valley, is said by anti-Mormons to consist of men between the ages of 17 and 49. They were originally termed Daughters of Gideon, Destroying Angels—the gentiles say devils—and, finally, Sons of Dan, or Danites, from one of whom was prophesied he should be a serpent in the path. They were organized about 1837 under D. W. Patten, popularly called Captain Fearnot, for the purpose of dealing as avengers of blood with gentiles; in fact they formed a kind of death society, desperadoes, thugs, hashshashiyun—in plain English, assassins in the name of the Lord. The Mormons declare categorically the whole and every particular to be the calumnious invention of the impostor and arch apostate, Mr. John C. Bennett. John Hyde, a seceder, states that the Danite band, or the United Brothers of Gideon, was organized on the 4th of July, 1838, and was placed under the command of the apostle David Patten, who for the purpose assumed the name of Captain Fearnot. It is the opinion of some that the Danite band, or Destroying Angels as again they are called, was organized at the recommendation of the governor of Missouri as a means of self-defence against persecutions in that State."—H. H. Bancroft, *Hist. of the Pacific States, v.* 21, *pp.* 124–126.—"The Mormons first attracted national notice about the time they quitted Missouri to escape persecution and took refuge in Illinois. In that free State a tract of land was granted them and a charter too carelessly liberal in terms. The whole body, already numbering about 15,000, gathered into a new city of their own, which their prophet, in obedience to a revelation, named Nauvoo; here a body of militia was formed under the name of the Nauvoo legion; and Joe Smith, as mayor, military commander, and supreme head of the Church, exerted an authority almost despotic. The wilderness blossomed and rejoiced, and on a lofty height of this holy city was begun a grotesque temple, built of limestone, with huge monolithic pillars which displayed carvings of moons and suns. . . . Nauvoo was well laid out, with wide streets which sloped towards well-cultivated farms; all was thrift and sobriety, no spirituous liquors were drunk, and the colonists here, as in their former settlements, furnished the pattern of insect industry. The wonderful proselyting work of this new sect abroad had already begun, and recruits came over from the overplus toilers in the British factory towns. . . . But there was something in the methods of this sect, not to speak of the jealousy they excited by their prosperity, which bred them trouble here as everywhere else where they came in contact with American commonplace life. It was whispered that the hierarchy of impostors grew rich upon the toils of their simple followers. Polygamy had not yet received the sanction of a divine revelation; and yet the first step towards it was practised in the theory of 'sealing wives' spiritually, which Smith had begun in some mysterious way that it baffled the gentile to discover. Sheriffs, too, were forbidden to serve civil process in Nauvoo without the written permission of its mayor. All

these strange scandals of heathenish pranks, and more, besides, stirred up the neighboring gentiles, plain Illinois backwoodsmen; and the more so that, besides his 3,000 militia, the Mormon prophet controlled 6,000 votes, which, in the close Presidential canvass of 1844, might have been enough to decide the election. Joe Smith, indeed, whose Church nominated him for President, showed a fatal but thoroughly American disposition at this time to carry his power into politics. This king of plain speech, who dressed as a journeyman carpenter, suppressed a newspaper which was set up by seceding Mormons. When complaint was made he resisted Illinois process and proclaimed martial law: the citizens of the surrounding towns armed for a fight. Joe Smith was arrested and thrown into jail at Carthage with his brother Hiram. The rumor spreading that the governor was disposed to release these prisoners, a disorderly band gathered at the jail and shot them [June 27, 1844]. Thus perished Smith, the Mormon founder. His death at first created terror and confusion among his followers, but Brigham Young, his successor, proved a man of great force and sagacity. The exasperated gentiles clamored loudly to expel these religious fanatics from Illinois as they had been expelled from Missouri; and finally, to prevent a civil war, the governor of the State took forcible possession of the holy city, with its unfinished temple, while the Mormon charter of Nauvoo was repealed by the legislature. The Mormons now determined [1846] upon the course which was most suited to their growth, and left American pioneer society to found their New Jerusalem on more enduring foundations west of the Rocky Mountains."—J. Schouler, *Hist. of the U. S.*, *v.* 4, *pp.* 547–549.

Also in: T. Ford, *Hist. of Illinois*, *ch.* 8 *and* 10–11.—A. Davidson and B. Stuvé, *Hist. of Illinois*, *ch.* 41.—J. Remy and J. Brenchley, *Journey to Great Salt Lake City*, *bk.* 2, *ch.* 2–3 (*v.* 1).—R. F. Burton, *The City of the Saints*, *p.* 359.

A. D. 1846-1848.—The gentile attack on Nauvoo.—Exodus of "the Saints" into the wilderness of the West.—Their settlement on the Great Salt Lake.—"During the winter of 1845–'6 the Mormons made the most prodigious preparations for removal. All the houses in Nauvoo, and even the temple, were converted into work-shops, and before spring more than 12,000 wagons were in readiness. The people from all parts of the country flocked to Nauvoo to purchase houses and farms, which were sold extremely low, lower than the prices at a sheriff's sale, for money, wagons, horses, oxen, cattle, and other articles of personal property which might be needed by the Mormons in their exodus into the wilderness. By the middle of May it was estimated that 16,000 Mormons had crossed the Mississippi and taken up their line of march with their personal property, their wives and little ones, westward across the continent to Oregon or California; leaving benind them in Nauvoo a small remnant of 1,000 souls, being those who were unable to sell their property, or who having no property to sell were unable to get away. The twelve apostles went first with about 2,000 of their followers. Indictments had been found against nine of them in the circuit court of the United States for the district of Illinois at its December term, 1845, for counterfeiting the current coin of the United States. The United States Marshal had applied to me [the writer being at that time Governor of Illinois] for a militia force to arrest them; but in pursuance of the amnesty agreed on for old offences, believing that the arrest of the accused would prevent the removal of the Mormons, and that if arrested there was not the least chance that any of them would ever be convicted, I declined the application unless regularly called upon by the President of the United States according to law. . . . It was notorious that none of them could be convicted; for they always commanded evidence and witnesses enough to make a conviction impossible."—T. Ford, *Hist. of Illinois*, *ch.* 13.—"The Saints who had as yet been unable to leave Nauvoo continued to labour assiduously at the completion of the temple, so as to accomplish one of the most solemn prophecies of their well-beloved martyr. The sacred edifice was ultimately entirely finished, at the end of April, 1846, after having cost the Saints more than a million dollars. It was consecrated with great pomp on the 1st and 2nd of May, 1846. . . . The day after the consecration of the temple had been celebrated, the Mormons withdrew from the building all the sacred articles which adorned it, and satisfied with having done their duty in accomplishing, though to no purpose otherwise, a Divine command, they crossed the Mississippi to rejoin those who had gone before them. Nauvoo was abandoned. There remained within its deserted walls but some hundred families, whom the want of means and the inability to sell their effects had not allowed as yet to start upon the road to emigration. The presence of those who were thus detained, together with the bruit caused by the ceremony of dedication, raised the murmurs of the gentiles, and seemed to keep alive their animosity and alarm. Their eager desire to be entirely rid of the Mormons made them extremely sensitive to every idle story respecting the projects of the latter to return. They imagined that the Saints had only left in detachments to seek recruits among the red skins, meaning to come back with sufficient force once more to take possession of their property in Illinois. These apprehensions rose to such a pitch that the anti-Mormons plunged into fresh act: of illegality and barbarism. . . . On the 10th of September, 1846, an army of 1,000 men, possessing six pieces of artillery, started to begin the attack under the direction of a person named Carlin, and of the Reverend Mr. Brockman. Nauvoo had only 300 men to oppose to this force, and but five small cannon, made from the iron of an old steamboat. The fire opened on the afternoon of the 10th, and continued on the 11th, 12th and 13th of September." Every attack of the besiegers was repulsed, until they consented to terms under which the remnant of the Mormons was to evacuate the town at the end of five days. "The Mormons had only three men killed and a few wounded during the whole affair; the loss of their enemies is unknown, but it would seem that it was heavy. It was agreed that a committee of five persons should remain at Nauvoo to attend to the interests of the exiles, and on the 17th of September, while the enemy, to the number of 1,625, entered the city to plunder, the remnant of the Mormons crossed the Mississippi to follow 'the track of Israel towards the west.' . . . About the end of June, 1846, the first column of the emigrants arrived on the banks of the Missouri,

a little above the point of confluence of this immense river with the Platte, in the country of the Pottawatamies, where it stopped to await the detachments in its rear. This spot, now known by the name of Council Bluffs, was christened Kanesville by the Mormons. . . . At this place, in the course of July, the federal government made an appeal to the patriotism of the Mormons, and asked them to furnish a contingent of 500 men for the Mexican war. Did the government wish to favour the Saints by affording them an opportunity of making money by taking service, or did it merely wish to test their fidelity? This we cannot decide. . . . The Saints generally regarded this levy as a species of persecution; however . . . they furnished a battalion of 520 men, and received $20,000 for equipment from the war department." The head quarters of the emigration remained at Kanesville through the winter of 1846–47, waiting for the brethren who had been left behind. There were several encampments, however, some of them about 200 miles in advance. The shelters contrived were of every kind — huts, tents, and caves dug in the earth. The suffering was considerable and many deaths occurred. The Indians of the region were Pottawatamies and Omahas, both hostile to the United States and therefore friendly to the Mormons, whom they looked upon as persecuted foes of the American nation. "On the 14th of April [1847], Brigham Young and eight apostles, at the head of 143 picked men and 70 carts laden with grain and agricultural implements, started in search of Eden in the far-west. . . . The 23rd of July, 1847, Orson Pratt, escorted by a small advanced guard, was the first to reach the Great Salt Lake. He was joined the following day by Brigham Young and the main body of the pioneers. That day, the 24th of July, was destined to be afterwards celebrated by the Mormons as the anniversary of their deliverance. . . . Brigham Young declared, by divine inspiration, that they were to establish themselves upon the borders of the Salt Lake, in this region, which was nobody's property, and wherein consequently his people could follow their religion without drawing upon themselves the hatred of any neighbours. He spent several weeks in ascertaining the nature of the country, and then fixed upon a site for the holy city. . . . When he had thus laid the foundations of his future empire, he set off on his return to Council Bluffs, leaving on the borders of the Salt Lake the greater portion of the companions who had followed him in his distant search. During the summer, a convoy of 566 waggons, laden with large quantities of grain, left Kanesville and followed upon the tracks of the pioneers. . . . On their arrival at the spot indicated by the president of the Church, they set to work without a moment's repose. Land was tilled, trees and hedges planted, and grain sown before the coming frost." The main body of the emigrants, led by Brigham Young, moved from the banks of the Missouri about the 1st of May, 1848, and arrived at the Salt Lake the following autumn.—J. Remy and J. Brenchley, *Journey to Great-Salt-Lake City, bk. 2, ch. 4 (v. 1).*
—"On the afternoon of the 22d [August, 1847] a conference was held, at which it was resolved that the place should be called the City of the Great Salt Lake. The term 'Great' was retained for several years, until changed by legislative enactment. It was so named in contradistinction to Little Salt Lake, a term applied to a body of water some 200 miles to the south."—H. H. Bancroft, *Hist. of the Pacific States, v. 21, ch. 10.*

A. D. 1850.—Organization of the Territory of Utah. See UTAH: A. D. 1849–1850.

A. D. 1857-1859.—The rebellion in Utah. See UTAH: A. D. 1857–1859.

A. D. 1890-1894.—Later History. See UTAH; and UNITED STATES: A. D. 1894–1895.

MOROCCO. See MAROCCO.

MORONA, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ANDESIANS.

MORRILL TARIFF, The. See TARIFF LEGISLATION: A. D. 1861–1864 (UNITED STATES).

MORRIS, Gouverneur, and the framing of the Federal Constitution. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1787.....**The origin of the Erie Canal.** See NEW YORK: A. D. 1817–1825.

MORRIS, Robert, and the finances of the American Revolution. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1784.

MORRIS-DANCE, The.—"Both English and foreign glossaries, observes Mr. Douce, uniformly ascribe the origin of this dance to the Moors, although the genuine Moorish or Morisco dance was, no doubt, very different from the European morris. . . . It has been supposed that the morris-dance was first brought into England in the reign of Edward III., and when John of Gaunt returned from Spain; but it is much more probable that we had it from our Gallic neighbours, or the Flemings."—H. Smith, *Festivals, Games, etc., ch. 18.*

MORRIS ISLAND, Military operations on. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1863 (JULY: SOUTH CAROLINA).

MORRIS'S PURCHASE. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1786–1799.

MORRISON TARIFF BILL. See TARIFF LEGISLATION: A. D. 1884–1888.

MORRISTOWN, N. J: Washington in winter quarters (1777-1778). See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1776–1777; and 1777 (JANUARY—DECEMBER).

MORSE, SAMUEL F. B, Telegraphic inventions of. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY AND INVENTION, A. D. 1825–1874.

MORTARA, Battle of (1849). See ITALY: A. D. 1848–1849.

MORTEMER, Battle of.—A defeat of the French by the Normans in 1054.

MORTIMER'S CROSS, Battle of (1461).—One of the battles in the "Wars of the Roses," fought Feb. 2, 1461, on a small plain called Kingsland Field, near Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, England. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1455–1471.

MORTMAIN, The Statute of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1279.

MORTON, Dr., and the discovery of Anæsthetics. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: 19TH CENTURY.

MORTON, Thomas, at Merymount. See MASSACHUSETTS: A. D. 1622–1628.

MORTUATH, The. See TUATH, THE.

MOSA, The.—The ancient name of the river Meuse.

MOSCOW: A. D. 1147.—Origin of the city.—"The name of Moscow appears for the first time in the chronicles at the date of 1147. It is there said that the Grand Prince George

Dolgorouki, having arrived on the domain of a boyard named Stephen Koutchko, caused him to be put to death on some pretext, and that, struck by the position of one of the villages situated on a height washed by the Moskowa, the very spot whereon the Kremlin now stands, he built the city of Moscow. . . . During the century following its foundation, Moscow remained an obscure and insignificant village of Souzdal. The chroniclers do not allude to it except to mention that it was burned by the Tartars (1237), or that a brother of Alexander Nevski, Michael of Moscow, was killed there in a battle with the Lithuanians. The real founder of the principality of the name was Daniel, a son of Alexander Nevski, who had received this small town and a few villages as his appanage. . . . He was followed, in due course, by his brothers George and Ivan." —A. Rambaud, *Hist. of Russia*, v. 1, *ch.* 12.

A. D. 1362-1480.—Rise of the duchy which grew to be the Russian Empire. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1237–1480.

A. D. 1571.—Stormed and sacked by the Crim Tartars. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1569-1571.

A. D. 1812.—Napoleon in possession.—The burning of the city. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1812 (SEPTEMBER); and (OCTOBER—DECEMBER).

MOSKOWA, OR BORODINO, Battle of the. See RUSSIA: A. D. 1812 (JUNE—SEPTEMBER).

MOSLEM. See ISLAM; also MAHOMETAN CONQUEST AND EMPIRE.

MOSQUITO INDIANS AND MOSQUITO COAST. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MUSQUITO INDIANS, CENTRAL AMERICA: A. D. 1821–1871; and after; NICARAGUA: A. D. 1850; and 1894.

MOTASSEM, Al, Caliph, A. D. 833–841.

MOTAWAKKEL, Al, Caliph, A. D. 847–861.

MOTYE, Siege of. See SYRACUSE: B. C. 397–396.

MOUGOULACHAS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY.

MOULEY-ISMAEL, Battle of (1835). See BARBARY STATES: A. D., 1830–1846.

MOULTRIE, Colonel, and the defense of Charleston. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1776 (JUNE).

MOUND-BUILDERS OF AMERICA, The. See AMERICA, PREHISTORIC.

MOUNT BADON, Battle of.—This battle was fought A. D. 520 and resulted in a crushing defeat of the West Saxons by the Britons. It figures in some legends among the victories of King Arthur.—J. R. Green, *The Making of England, ch.* 3.

MOUNT CALAMATIUS, Battle of. See SPARTACUS, RISING OF.

MOUNT ETNA, Battle of (1849). See ITALY: A. D. 1848–1849.

MOUNT GAURUS, Battle of. See ROME: B. C. 343–290.

MOUNT HOLYOKE College. See EDUCATION, MODERN: REFORMS: A. D. 1304–1891.

MOUNT TABOR, Battle of (1799). See FRANCE: A. D 1798–1799 (AUGUST—AUGUST).

MOUNT VESUVIUS, Battle of (B. C. 338). See ROME: B. C. 339–338.

MOUNTAIN, The Party of the. See FRANCE: A. D. 1791 (OCTOBER); 1792 (SEPTEMBER—NOVEMBER); and after, to 1794–1795 (JULY—APRIL).

MOUNTAIN MEADOWS MASSACRE, The (1857). See UTAH: A. D. 1857–1859.

MOURU. See MARIANA.

MOXO, The Great. See EL DORADO.

MOXOS, OR MOJOS, The. See BOLIVIA: ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS; also, AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ANDESIANS.

MOYTURA, Battle of.—Celebrated in the legendary history of Ireland and represented as a fatal defeat of the ancient people in that country called the Firbolgs by the new-coming Tuatha-de-Danaan. "Under the name of the 'Battle of the Field of the Tower' [it] was long a favourite theme of Irish song."—T. Moore, *Hist. of Ireland, ch.* 5 (v. 1).

MOZARABES, OR MOSTARABES.—The Christian people who remained in Africa and southern Spain after the Moslem conquest, tolerated in the practice of their religion, "were called Mostarabes or Mozarabes; they adopted the Arabic language and customs. . . . The word is from the Arabic 'musta'rab,' which means one 'who tries to imitate or become an Arab in his manners and language.'"—H. Coppée, *Hist. of the Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, bk.* 4, *ch.* 3 (v. 1), *with foot-note.*

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, ch.* 51.

MOZART HALL. See NEW YORK. A. D. 1868-1871.

MUFTI. See SUBLIME PORTE.

MUGELLO, Battle of (A. D. 542). See ROME: A. D. 535–553

MUGGLETONIANS. See RANTERS

MUGHAL OR MOGUL EMPIRE. See INDIA: A. D. 1399–1605

MUGWUMPS. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1884.

MUHAJIRIN, The. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 609–632

MUHLBERG, Battle of (1547). See GERMANY: A. D. 1546–1552.

MÜHLDORF, OR MAHLDORF, Battle of (1322). See GERMANY: A. D. 1314–1347.

MULATTO. See MESTIZO

MULE, Crompton's, The invention of. See COTTON MANUFACTURE.

MÜLHAUSEN, Battle of (1674). See NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): A. D. 1674-1678.

MULLAGHMAST, The Massacre of. See IRELAND: A. D. 1559–1603.

MULLIGAN, Colonel James A.: Defense of Lexington, Missouri. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1861 (JULY—SEPTEMBER. MISSOURI).

MULTAN, OR MOOLTAN: Siege and capture by the English (1848-1849). See INDIA. A. D. 1845–1849.

MUNDA, Battle of. See ROME: B. C. 45.

MUNDRUCU, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: TUPI.

MUNERA GLADIATORIA. See LUDI.

MUNICH: 13th Century.—First rise to importance. See BAVARIA: A. D. 1180–1356.

A. D. 1632.—Surrender to Gustavus Adolphus. See GERMANY: A. D 1631–1632.

A. D. 1743.—Bombardment and capture by the Austrians. See AUSTRIA: A. D. 1743.

MUNICIPAL CONSTITUTIONS AND FORMS. See COMMUNE; BOROUGH; and GUILD.

MUNICIPAL CURIA OF THE LATER ROMAN EMPIRE. See CURIA, MUNICIPAL.

MUNICIPIUM.—"The term Municipium appears to have been applied originally to those conquered Italian towns which Rome included in her dominion without conferring on the people the Roman suffrage and the capacity of attaining the honours of the Roman state."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic, v. 2, ch. 14.*

MUNSEES, The See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: DELAWARES, and ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; also, MANHATTAN ISLAND

MÜNSTER: A. D. 1532-1536.—The reign of the Anabaptists. See ANABAPTISTS.

A. D. 1644-1648.—Negotiation of the Peace of Westphalia. See GERMANY: A. D. 1648; and NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1646–1648.

MUNYCHIA. See PIRÆUS.

MUNYCHIA, Battle of (B C. 403). See ATHENS: B. C. 404–403.

MURAT, King of Naples, The career of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1800–1801 (JUNE—FEBRUARY), 1806 (JANUARY—OCTOBER); GERMANY: A. D. 1806 (OCTOBER), to 1807 (FEBRUARY—JUNE); SPAIN: A. D. 1808 (MAY—SEPTEMBER); ITALY: A. D. 1808–1809; RUSSIA: A. D. 1812: GERMANY: A. D. 1812–1813, 1813 (AUGUST), to (OCTOBER); ITALY: A. D. 1814, and 1815.

MURCI.—A name given to degenerate Romans, in the later days of the Empire, who escaped military service by cutting off the fingers of their right hands.

MURET, Battle of (A. D. 1213). See ALBIGENSES: A. D. 1210–1213; and SPAIN: A. D. 1035–1258.

MURFREESBOROUGH, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862–1863 (DECEMBER—JANUARY: TENNESSEE).

MURRAY, The Regent, Assassination of See SCOTLAND: A. D. 1561–1568.

MURRHINE VASES.—"The highest prices were paid for the so-called Murrhine vases (vasa Murrhina) brought to Rome from the East. . . . The Consularis T. Petronius . . . bought a basin from Murrha for 300,000 sestertii; before his death he destroyed this matchless piece of his collection, so as to prevent Nero from laying hold of it. . . . There is some doubt about the material of these Murrhine vases, which is the more difficult to solve, as the only vase in existence which perhaps may lay claim to that name is too thin and fragile to allow of closer investigation."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans, sect. 91.*

MURSA, Battle of (A. D. 351). See ROME: A. D. 337–361.

MUSCADINS. See FRANCE: A. D. 1794–1795 (JULY—APRIL).

MUSCULUS, The.—A huge movable covered way which the Romans employed in siege operations.

MUSEUM, British. See LIBRARIES, MODERN: ENGLAND.

MUSEUM OF ALEXANDRIA, The. See ALEXANDRIA: B. C. 282–246.

MUSIC.—Early Study of its Laws.—The state of music was so imperfect as hardly to deserve the name of a system, until about the middle of the 6th century, when there arose in Greece "a great philosopher Pythagoras, whose genius enabled him not only to effect great improvements in the capabilities of music, but to establish for the art a definite and scientific basis intelligible and available for all time. He was, indeed, the founder of theoretical music; for it was he who first traced out the laws which governed the relations of sounds to each other, and by this means brought music within the domain of natural philosophy He established the principle that intervals could be appreciated intellectually by the aid of numbers, instead of, as formerly, by the ear alone. . . . The way in which Pythagoras effected this was by means of the stretched strings used for the lyre. He had acuteness enough to perceive the fundamental fact . . . that the length of the string might be made to supply an exact definition of the pitch of the note it sounded. Hence he was enabled to attach to each sound a certain numerical value, and thus to compare it with other sounds, and to establish positive and definite relations between them. . . . The importance of this step, connecting for the first time music and mathematics, can hardly be overrated; and as the method Pythagoras introduced has become verified and established in use by all subsequent experience and investigation, he is fairly entitled to be called the Father of Musical Science. . . . In studying the divisions of his string, he perceived that the simplest of these divisions, namely, into two equal parts, gave a note which his ear told him had obvious musical relations with the fundamental one, and this settled for all time the predominance of the octave over all other musical intervals. . . . He found that two-thirds the length of the original string would give an interval that would conveniently subdivide the octave. This interval we now call the fifth. Again following the same principle, he next divided his string into four equal parts, and he found that three-fourths the length of the string gave another subordinate division at an interval which we now call the fourth . . . These three intervals, as settled by Pythagoras, have been ever since the most important intervals in music. . . The determination of the fifth and the fourth gave a means of establishing with precision an interval of much smaller dimensions, namely, the difference between them. This was called a tone; it furnished an appropriate means of completing the subdivision of the octave, according to the diatonic system, which is a scale characterized by intervals of tones. . . . The principle of the octave having been once established, it was obviously easy to extend the scale, upwards or downwards, or both, by adding octaves of notes previously existing. This was done, and the scale was at length enlarged to two octaves. . . . The later Greeks denoted the various sounds by arbitrary characters. The Romans adopted the scale, but abolished all the Greek designations, and named the fifteen notes by their own Latin letters, from A to P inclusive. Near the end of the 4th century, Ambrose introduced music into the service of the Church, adopting, with the Romans, the simple Greek diatonic scale. Two centuries later, Gregory amplified and improved the work of his predecessor, and introduced a great simplification in the nomenclature."—W. Pole, *The Philosophy of Music, ch. 7.*

Early Christian Music.—Ambrosian and Gregorian.—"Near the end of the sixth century . . . Pelagius II. sent a young man named

Gregory to Constantinople as papal legate to the Court of the Emperor. He, remaining in Constantinople for four years and more, became acquainted with all the musical science of the time, which was in a manner locked up there from the rest of the world; and there he heard the Christian music declaimed in a rare and, as it often seemed to him, a delightful way. . . Coming from thence a learned musician, and skilled in the most refined style of Christian music, he afterwards became Pope of Rome [Gregory I., called 'Saint Gregory,' and 'Gregory the Great']. . . . The idea now came upon him of gathering the ancient Christian chants and psalms from all parts of the world, and uniting them into one mighty work, which should remain forever the meeting-ground of Christian music, as Rome was to be of Christian faith. Having collected them, he sorted and arranged them in the form of the services, so that there might be different chants or tunes for every Sunday and holy-day in the year. More difficult than sorting and arranging the tunes was giving them a musical structure . . With the genuine pagan music they had nothing in common, for they had no rhythm. They were couched in no scales, for they had grown up among men ignorant of music, and, even at the time we find them, were but half emerged from speech. It was, therefore, difficult for St. Gregory to convey a musical structure to them without diminishing considerably from their original character. Yet this he contrived so skilfully that, in spite of much that is new, we may still easily hear the voices of untrained singers and the utterances of simple worshippers echoing throughout them all, and catch song springing like a rose from speech. First, what were the musical portions of the service? . . . The Kyrie Eleison and the Alleluia had continued in use among Christians from the primitive times . . . and doubtless with but little change of singing; only there was this difference, that they were not sung or chanted now as ejaculations by the congregation as often as the fancy took them, but at definite places in the service. Besides these, there was the Amen, a kind of acroteleutic, that was sung at the close of every prayer. Of longer pieces, the Cherubic Hymn, the Trisagion, had been brought from Constantinople, appearing in Latin form as Tersanctus or Sanctus; the Angelic Hymn, 'Glory be to God on high,' Gloria in excelsis, which was sung immediately after the Kyrie Eleison; and new pieces of similar kind: the Agnus Dei; the Creed, which was now beginning to be sung as it was arranged at the Council of Nicæa; and short antiphons or responses of a line or two in different parts of the service. But particularly there were the introits and graduals, which were established by St. Celestine, Pope of Rome, in 422 A. D., who ordained that the Psalms of David should be chanted through in the course of the year, by taking sometimes one, sometimes another, at the beginning of the service; and this psalm that ushered in the service was called the Introit, because while it was being sung the priest made his entry. . . . The Gradual was sung between the Alleluia and the Epistle—indeed, the Alleluia should rather be considered as an appendage to the Gradual, and the note of jubilee that concluded it; for this was the happiest moment of the service, when, the Epistle being finished, the choir stood on the steps of the chancel ('in gradibus') and sang this Gradual, or 'Psalm of the Steps,' which was followed by a prolonged note of Alleluia. . . . St. Ambrose, in the north of Italy, before the age of Gregory, had attempted the same work, but with neither such skill nor with such abiding effect . . The Ambrosian song is always described as 'mensurabilis et harmonicus,' 'rhythmical and tuneful' . . . It was in keeping with this tendency that Ambrose should have been the father of the 'hymn.' The hymn had a very different history from the chant, being traceable in the clear, symmetric form of its music to the choruses of the Greek and Roman stage, and being identical in its measure and the contour of its melody with the ordinary Roman songs, which were the delectation of the masses in those days, as popular airs are at present. . . . Between the antiphonary of Ambrose and the antiphonary of Gregory (for so were the books called, because they contained the antiphons, or musical pieces, that were sung in the services), there seems for a long time to have been the greatest rivalry; and more especially in the northern parts of Italy, where Ambrose's influence had ever been strong. . . . The Gregorian song began to spread over Europe. . . . Wherever he [Gregory] sent his missionaries, there also he sent copies of the Gregorian song, as he had arranged it in his antiphonary. He bade them go singing among the people. In this way St. Cyriacus went to Spain, St. Fulgentius to Africa, St. Virgilius to France, and St. Augustine to Britain. . . . The depredations of the Lombards, and the establishment of a powerful Lombard kingdom in the north and northwest of Italy, were hostile to the policy which Gregory had laid down; for with the Lombards came the music of Ambrose again, and during the century that followed Gregory's death half Italy owned the Lombard sway. . . . So did things stand when that century was over, and Charlemagne ascended the throne of the Franks. . . . Charlemagne, having conquered the Lombards, proceeded to Rome to meet the Pope and the cardinals, and to consider the arrangements that were to be made for the settlement of his new conquest. . . . The Pope called a great synod, . . . and the synod passed a decree commissioning Charlemagne 'to proceed through the length and breadth of Italy, and to utterly uproot everything which in singing or in ritual differed from the practice of the Roman Church, so that there might be unity throughout the land.' Armed with this commission, Charlemagne posted to Milan, and seizing all the chant and hymn books of the Ambrosian song, he made bonfires of them in the middle of the city. . . Those of the clergy who refused to give up their books were to be put to the sword, and many both of the higher and lower orders of clergy perished in this manner. . . The same measures were taken throughout the rest of Lombardy. In a few weeks the flourishing empire of the Ambrosian song was reduced to desolation." —J. F. Rowbotham, *A History of Music, bk.* 3, *ch.* 2–4.—See, also, MILAN: A. D. 374–397.

The Organ.—"The term 'organum' was used to express the first crude conceptions of the science of harmony. It would appear, that in the rude instruments called organs, in the 11th and 12th centuries, the pipes were disposed in such a manner that every key sounded, besides

its fundamental note, the fifth and the octave of that note. Such a succession of fifths and octaves was called Organum; no doubt, par excellence. The history of the organ is wrapped in much uncertainty. In the fourth chapter of Genesis, we read that Jubal was 'the father of all such as handle the harp and the organ.' No one, however, will for a moment suppose that Jubal attained to the construction of anything like the modern organ. In Job (chap. xxx. verse 31) we read, 'And my organ unto the voice of them that weep.' The Hebrew word (gnubab), here rendered organ, signifies an ear of corn with the stalk, or straw; hence a pipe made of such stalk, or straw. The organ, therefore, of Jubal and Job, was doubtless nothing more than a reed, or pipe; or, at most, a set of reeds of unequal length, joined together side by side, like the Pandean pipe of the Greeks. It consisted originally of seven pipes, afterwards increased to twelve. We may, then, pronounce the Pan-pipe, or Syrinx, to have been the prototype of organ-building. The first step to improvement was to plant the pipes in a chest, with holes bored in the top, in which the pipes were made to stand. Wind, being forced into the chest, entered the pipes at the bottom, instead of being blown from the mouth into the top of them as heretofore. All the pipes would then sound at once, and had to be stopped by the fingers. When the number of pipes was increased, this mode of operation became impracticable; and valves were then contrived to cut off the wind, one under each pipe, worked by levers. A further increase in the number of the pipes required a larger wind-chest; and this again necessitated some mechanical process to supply the wind, which was accomplished by the aid of water-power. Hence the instrument received the title of the Hydraulic Organ. Tertullian, who was Bishop of Carthage in the 2nd century, pronounces Ctesibius, a barber of Alexandria, to have been the inventor of the hydraulic organ, about B. C. 200. Athenæus also attributes its origin to the same person. . . . The mechanical operation of the hydraulic organ is unintelligible from the descriptions remaining of it, chiefly that of Vitruvius. We learn, however, that it consisted of pipes, a wind-chest, and registers, or stops. The hydraulic organ failing to produce a satisfactory result, a return was made to the ancient method of blowing by manual labor; and the instrument took the name of the Pneumatic Organ. . . . Authors are by no means agreed as to the time when the organ was first introduced into the church-service. Platina, in his 'Lives of the Popes,' asserts that it was first used for religious worship by Pope Vitalianus, who was raised to the pontifical chair, A. D. 668. Previous to this time, however, instruments were used in divine service, as appears from the united testimony of Justin Martyr and Eusebius. Ambrose, Bishop of Milan (circ. A.D. 380), caused them to be used in his cathedral. They were soon introduced into France. Pepin (the father of the great Charlemagne), King of the Franks, an ardent and devout Christian, first introduced singing and ceremonies of the Romish church into France. He quickly perceived the need of an organ to support the choir. He accordingly (as the instrument was at that time unknown in France) applied to the Emperor Constantine Copronymus at Constantinople, who sent him a present of 'a great organ with leaden pipes,' which was placed in the Church of St. Corneille, at Compiègne. The French were not slow to equal this and other specimens of foreign ingenuity; and so successful were their efforts, that in the 9th century, it is said, the best organs were made in France and Germany. Soon after, we find them in common use in England, constructed by English artists, with pipes of copper fixed in gilt frames. The earliest specimens of church-organs were very small, and were called portatives (from the Latin portare, to carry; because they could be moved about from one part of the church to another). Another term for them was regals (from the Italian rigabello). . . . Until nearly the end of the last century, an officer of the Chapel Royal, in London, was styled 'tuner of the regalls.' In contradistinction to and succeeding the portative, we have the positive organ. This instrument was made with a key-board, and played with both hands. . . . By the end of the 10th century, organs were becoming pretty common in Germany; and in England there was one, of which particular mention is made, in Winchester Cathedral, having 26 bellows and 400 pipes. The close of the 11th century saw a great advance made, when we learn that at Magdeburg an organ was built, the first in which a key-board was introduced in place of the bars, or levers, by which the notes had hitherto been played. The compass consisted of 16 keys. Eleven had hitherto been the largest amount; which was all that was needed to accompany the plain song before the invention of harmony. . . . In the 14th century, a most important improvement was made in the structure of the organ: the key-boards were increased in compass from one octave to three, and at the same time made much less clumsy. Hitherto the keys had been made so large (some of them five or six inches wide), and their motion so stiff, that they had to be struck with the clinched fist; hence the organist was termed organorum pulsator, striker of the organ. . . . Early in the next century, a German invented registers, or different stops. Improvements also were made in the pipes; and stopped pipes were invented, and also the pedals. In the 16th century the key-board was extended to four octaves, though the bottom octave was seldom complete. At this period also, Dr. Rimbault says that reed pipes were invented to imitate the tone of other instruments. . . . But the use of the reed, in the modern acceptation of the term, appears to have been known much farther back. . . . The Revolution in England, in the middle of the 17th century, was a dark period in the history of the organ. On Jan. 4, 1644, an ordinance was passed in the Houses of Parliament . . . 'for the speedy demolishing of all organs, images, and all matters of superstitious monuments.'"—H. D. Nicholson, *The Organ Manual, pp.* 5–11.

The Pianoforte.—Its Evolution.—"Among the ancient stringed instruments, the harp and lyre are probably of the greatest antiquity. . . . The lyre was of many different shapes, . . . and the strings being partly carried, as in the pianoforte, over the sounding-board, . . . were not free to be struck upon both sides throughout their entire length by the plectra or by the fingers of the performer. This is the distinction between the harp and the lyre, for the harp can be played the whole length of the strings upon

both sides, as the sounding-board is differently placed. Both instruments were played with the fingers, and the lyre with the plectrum also, which was generally a small piece of ivory or bone, which the player pressed against the strings, snapping them as though they were pulled by the finger. The plectra were sometimes, however, short sticks, . . . held one in each hand, and were used for striking the strings of the instrument played upon, to set them in vibration. The first kind of plectrum suggested the crow-quill, that snapped the strings in the spinet and harpsichord; the second gave the idea of the hammer for striking the strings in the pianoforte, as the plectrum of wood was after some time covered on one side with leather, so that the performer could play softly by striking the strings with the part covered with leather, or loudly by striking with the other side. This was succeeded by the dulcimer hammers, from which those of the pianoforte are evidently borrowed." The "development of the lyre and dulcimer into the pianoforte, by the introduction of finger-keys, for raising many plectra at the same time, is of quite recent date. . . . The first keyed instrument was . . . the tamboura, but the first with finger-keys was the organ. . . . The next instrument with finger-keys was probably the clavicytherium, or clavitherium, as it was sometimes termed, which was introduced about the year 1300 by the Italians, and was soon imitated by the Belgians and Germans. . . . Another instrument, deriving its name from employing the key (clavis), was the clavichord, which was in use before or at the same time as the clavicytherium. It differed, however, both in construction and manner of producing the tone, the strings being of wire, and set in motion by striking and pressing instead of the snapping of the leather plectrum. . . . The instrument by which the clavichord was gradually superseded in England was the virginal. It was an improvement upon the clavicytherium, to which it was very similar, brass wire being substituted for the cat-gut strings. . . . The English spinet was similar to the virginal, except in its shape, which was nearly that of a harp laid horizontally, supposing the clavier, or keyboard, to be placed on the outside of the trunk, or sounding-board. . . . Like the virginal, it had but one string to each note, which was set in vibration by means of the jack, with the raven or crow-quill attached. When a second string was added to each note to render the instrument more powerful and capable of some slight degree of expression, it was named the harpsichord, or horizontal harp. The harpsichord was in effect a double spinet, as two rows of quills were used. When the performer wished to play softly, he was compelled to take one hand off the key-board to move a stop to the right, when but a single string was twanged by the quill, the second row of jacks and quills being moved by the rail in which they were fixed, so that, when raised by the key the quills passed between the strings without setting them in vibration. If the player then required greater power he would move the stop to the left again. . . . Many rows of jacks, and in some instances an additional set of keys, were afterwards added, and other ingenious inventions were introduced into the harpsichord, until it became quite an intricate piece of mechanism to produce such comparatively weak effects. Handel's harpsichords, which were of this description, had three and four strings to each note. . . . Although little more than a century and a half has elapsed since the pianoforte was invented, the name of the inventor is almost lost amidst a crowd of claimants and appropriators. 'In England the invention is claimed for Father Wood, an English monk at Rome, who manufactured a pianoforte in 1711. . . . Although Father Wood's claim to the invention of the piano is often stoutly maintained, the best authenticated is that of the Italians, for in the same or previous year that it is said Father Wood made his piano, Bartollomeo Cristofali, of Padua, invented and made a piano . . . Although Cristofali's claim to the invention seems perfectly clear, it is still greatly disputed "—E. Brinsmead, *Hist. of the Pianoforte, ch.* 2–4.

The Violin.—"Bowed instruments were crude in structure, and cumbrous for performance until the great change that was wrought in their fabrication in the latter half of the 16th century, and previous music for them was limited accordingly in character and effect. The viol was an instrument with many strings, sometimes five, sometimes seven, which had frets across its fingerboard; behind these, the strings were stopped by the finger of the player, and the vibrating length of the string was thus reduced to the extent from the fret to the bridge, but the intonation was fixed by these frets for each note without possible variability from the higher or lower position of the finger. Viols were of different sizes, and were named accordingly treble, tenor and bass; they were made in 'sets,' and music for them was called a 'Consort of Viols,' as that for a set of hautboys was called a 'Consort of Hautboys,' while that for a combination of bowed with wind instruments was called 'broken music.' The viol held against the arm was called 'Viol da Braccio,' and that held against the leg was called 'Viol da Gamba.' It seems to have been Gasparo di Salo (1555–1600) of Brescia or Bologna and his contemporary Maggini who were the first to effect the important modifications which on the subtlest scientific principles have brought the whole class of instruments to their present high state of perfection. The word viola signifies the original instrument produced by these makers: the violino, or diminutive of viola, seems to have been the next modification; the violone (the double bass), or augmentative of viola, is supposed to have followed; and the violoncello, or diminutive of violone, is believed to have been the last adaptation of this class of instruments. The world-renowned Cremona makers directly followed those of Brescia, and raised the violin to a perfection of structure which is apparently impossible to reproduce. Andrea Amati, the earliest of these, is supposed to have copied the work of Salo, though he died 23 years before him. The skill of this master was continued in his two sons, and culminated in his grandson Nicolo (1596–1684), whose productions are especially prized. The family of Guanieri were next in order of time: Andrea, the first of them, and his sons were pupils of Nicolo Amati, but Giuseppe (1683–1745), the nephew of Andrea, who is the most esteemed, wherever he was trained, worked on principles entirely his own. The glory of the Cremonese school was Antonio Stradivari (1649–1737), who worked under Nicolo Amati, but far surpassed his teacher, and effected

many valuable points of originality, besides surpassing all makers in his workmanship; his instruments are the most prized by players and collectors. In the Tyrol Jacob Steiner (1621–1683) made successful appropriation of Italian principles, but his violins by no means equal the best from Cremona."—G. A. Macfarren, *Musical Hist., pp.* 92–3.

Opera.—"Choruses had been introduced in dramatic performances as far back as 1350, but they were always written in four parts, in the ecclesiastical style. In 1597 A. D., in a comic play by Orazzi Becchi, the text written for a single personage of the drama was sung in five-part choruses written in the madrigal style. Lovers of art began to see that such music was unsuited to drama. . . . The Florentine noble, Count Bardi, together with his friends, all art enthusiasts—for it was in Florence that the renaissance flourished best—resolved that there ought to be a better style of dramatic music And at this point the exiled scholars from Constantinople made their influence felt in music. They talked of the Greek drama and its intonation or recitation in music, and Bardi and his friends at once set about reconstructing the true musical declamation of the Greeks. . . . Giovanni Bardi was a moving spirit in the festivities of the court. There he introduced his friends and they gave private dramatic performances. Ottavio Rinuccini, poet; Pietro Strozzi, poet and composer; Emilio del Cavaliere, ducal superintendent of fine arts; Vincenzo Galilei, composer, litterateur, lutist, mathematician, and father of the great astronomer Galileo; Girolamo Mei, musical theorist; Giulio Caccini, singer and composer, and Jacopo Peri, immortal as the composer of the first opera, were the 'choice and master spirits' of the club. . . . Galilei wrote a dramatic scene for one voice and one instrument on the lines about 'Ugolino' in Dante's 'Purgatorio.' His own was the voice; the viola, the instrument. The work was applauded by his friends. He wrote more and called them monodies. And these were the first vocal solos on record in the history of art-music. Previously when a solo was wanted some one of the parts of a polyphonic chorus was picked out and sung by one voice. Galilei wrote the first dramatic solo, without which opera is, of course, impossible. Caccini imitated Galilei and produced sonnets and canzonets for one voice. Then Emilio del Cavaliere wrote a pastoral play and set the entire text to music, which had never been done before. He made extensive use of the madrigal, and his work bore little resemblance to its successors. Next the poet Rinuccini wrote 'Daphne,' Jacopo Peri composed music for it, and it was performed with great success at the house of one Corsi in 1594. This stands upon the pages of musical history as the first opera. Peri immediately began another, and in 1600, at the marriage of Henry IV., of France, with Maria de Medici in Florence, he produced his 'Eurydice,' singing Orpheus himself. 'Daphne' made Peri known throughout Italy; 'Eurydice' made him celebrated throughout Europe. . . . The new form of court amusement speedily took its way to Venice, where it was somewhat modified by the influence of the emotional church style of Willaert, Cyprian di Rore, and Zarlino. Andrea Gabrielli and his nephew Giovanni were their successors, but they did little toward the development of the new form of art. In 1568, however, the first genius of opera was born at Cremona. This was Claudio Monteverde, whose chief musical activity was during his directorship at the church of San Marco, Venice, from 1613 till his death in 1643. Monteverde was the Wagner of his time, and he was criticised in much the same way; for Artusi, of Bologna, said of him that 'he lost sight of the proper aim of music, viz., to give pleasure.' . . . Monteverde wrote a series of operas in Venice, and he was the cause of the establishment of the first opera house, the Teatro San Cassiano, opened in 1637 with 'Andromeda,' text by Ferrari and music by Manelli. Subsequently the theatre San Moïse was opened with a revival of 'Arianna.' Opera became the reigning amusement of Venice, and up to 1727 no less than fifteen operatic enterprises were started, and up to 1734 four hundred operas by forty composers were produced."—W. J Henderson, *The Story of Music, ch.* 2.

Oratorio.—"The development of the oratorio progressed side by side with that of the opera. For ages it had been the custom on important ecclesiastical occasions to perform 'miracle-plays,' or rude—we might say profane—dramas on sacred subjects. About the middle of the 16th century, St. Philip de Neri, a priest of Florence, devoted himself to the improvement of these performances, and introduced historical scenes or sacred allegories in the course of the services he held in his oratory. (Hence the term 'oratorio,' which is the Italian for 'oratory.') The first oratorio worthy the name was not produced till the year 1600, when 'L'Anima e corpo,' by Emilio del Cavaliere, was performed at a church in Rome The composer arranged his accompaniments for the following instruments: a double lyre, a harpsichord, a double guitar (or 'theorbo') and two flutes. What Monteverde did, however, for the opera, was effected for oratorio by Giacomo Carissimi (1580–1673), who made many improvements in the existing form of the recitative, and invented the 'Arioso,' from which sprang the more elaborated 'Aria.' His best known works are 'Jephtha' and 'Jonah.'"—H G. B. Hunt, *A Concise History of Music, pp.* 15–16.

MUSKHOGEES, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY.

MUSSULMANS. See ISLAM.

MUTA, Battle of. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 609–632.

MUTHUL, Battle of the. See NUMIDIA: B. C. 118–104.

MUTINA, Battle of (B. C. 72). See SPARTACUS, RISING OF..... **Battle of (B. C. 43).** See ROME: B. C. 44–42.

MUTINY ACTS, The English.—In 1689 the Parliament (called a Convention at first) which settled the English crown upon William of Orange and Mary, "passed the first Act for governing the army as a separate and distinct body under its own peculiar laws, called 'The Mutiny Act.' . . The origin of the first Mutiny Act was this. France had declared war against Holland, who applied under the treaty of Nimeguen to England for troops. Some English regiments refused to go, and it was felt that the common law could not be employed to meet the exigency. The mutineers were for the time by military force compelled to submit, happily without bloodshed; but the necessity for soldiers

to be governed by their own code and regulations became manifest. Thereupon the aid of Parliament was invoked, but cautiously. The first Mutiny Act was very short in enactments and to continue only six months. It recited that standing armies and courts martial were unknown to English law, and enacted that no soldier should on pain of death desert his colours, or mutiny. At the expiration of the six months another similar Act was passed, also only for six months; and so on until the present practice was established of regulating and governing the army, now a national institution, by an annual Mutiny Act, which is requisite for the legal existence of a recognised force, whereby frequent meeting of Parliament is indirectly secured, it only to preserve the army in existence."—W. H. Torriano, *William the Third, ch.* 7.—"These are the two effectual securities against military power: that no pay can be issued to the troops without a previous authorisation by the commons in a committee of supply, and by both houses in an act of appropriation; and that no officer or soldier can be punished for disobedience, nor any court-martial held, without the annual re-enactment of the mutiny bill."—H. Hallam, *Const. Hist. of Eng., ch.* 15 (*v.* 3).

Also in: Lord Macaulay, *Hist. of Eng., ch.* 11 (*v.* 3).

MUTINY OF THE ENGLISH FLEET. See England: A. D. 1797.

MUTINY OF THE PENNSYLVANIA LINE. See United States of Am.: A. D. 1781 (January).

MUTINY OF THE SEPOYS. See India. A. D. 1857, to 1857–1858 (July—June).

MUYSCAS, The. See American Aborigines: Chibchas.

MYCALE, Battle of. See Greece: B. C. 479.

MYCENÆ. See Greece: Mycenæ and its Kings: also Argos; Heracleidæ; and Homer.

MYCIANS, The.—A race, so-called by the Greeks, who lived anciently on the coast of the Indian Ocean, east of modern Kerman. They were known to the Persians as Maka.—G. Rawlinson, *Five Great Monarchies: Persia, ch.* 1.

MYLÆ, Naval battle at (B. C. 260). See Punic War, The First.

MYONNESUS, Battle of (B. C. 190). See Seleucidæ: B. C. 224–187.

MYRMIDONS, The.—"Æakus was the son of Zeus, born of Ægina, daughter of Asopus, whom the god had carried off and brought into the island to which he gave her name. . . . Æakus was alone in Ægina: to relieve him from this solitude, Zeus changed all the ants in the island into men, and thus provided him with a numerous population, who, from their origin, were called Myrmidons."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 1, *ch.* 10.—According to the legends, Peleus, Telamon and Phocus were the sons of Æakus; Peleus migrated, with the Myrmidons, or some part of them, to Thessaly, and from there the latter accompanied his son Achilles to Troy.

MYSIANS, The. See Phrygians.—Mysians.

MYSORE, The founding of the kingdom of. See India: A. D. 1767–1769.

MYSORE WARS, with Hyder Ali and Tippoo Saib. See India: A. D. 1767–1769; 1780–1783; 1785–1793; and 1796–1805.

MYSTERIES, Ancient Religious. See Eleusinian Mysteries.

MYSTICISM.—QUIETISM.—"The peculiar form of devotional religion known under these names was not, as most readers are aware, the offspring of the 17th century. It rests, in fact, on a substratum of truth which is coeval with man's being, and expresses one of the elementary principles of our moral constitution. . . . The system of the Mystics arose from the instinctive yearning of man's soul for communion with the Infinite and the Eternal. Holy Scripture abounds with such aspirations—the Old Testament as well as the New; but that which under the Law was 'a shadow of good things to come,' has been transformed by Christianity into a living and abiding reality. The Gospel responds to these longings for intercommunion between earth and heaven by that fundamental article of our faith, the perpetual presence and operation of God the Holy Ghost in the Church, the collective 'body of Christ,' and in the individual souls of the regenerate. But a sublime mystery like this is not incapable of misinterpretation. . . . The Church has ever found it a difficult matter to distinguish and adjudicate between what may be called legitimate or orthodox Mysticism and those corrupt, degrading, or grotesque versions of it which have exposed religion to reproach and contempt. Some Mystics have been canonized as saints; others, no less deservedly, have been consigned to obloquy as pestilential heretics. It was in the East—proverbially the fatherland of idealism and romance—that the earliest phase of error in this department of theology was more or less strongly developed. We find that in the 4th century the Church was troubled by a sect called Massalians or Euchites, who placed the whole of religion in the habit of mental prayer; alleging as their authority the Scripture precept 'That men ought always to pray, and not to faint.' They were for the most part monks of Mesopotamia and Syria; there were many of them at Antioch when St. Epiphanius wrote his Treatise against heresies, A. D. 376. They held that every man is from his birth possessed by an evil spirit or familiar demon, who can only be cast out by the practice of continual prayer. They disparaged the Sacraments, regarding them as things indifferent; they rejected manual labor; and, although professing to be perpetually engaged in prayer, they slept, we are told, the greater part of the day, and pretended that in that state they received revelations from above. . . . The Massalians did not openly separate from the Church; they were condemned, however, by two Councils—one at Antioch in 391, the other at Constantinople in 426. Delusions of the same kind were reproduced from time to time in the Oriental Church; and, as is commonly the case, the originators of error were followed by a race of disciples who advanced considerably beyond them. The Hesychasts, or Quietists of Mount Athos in the 14th century, seem to have been fanatics of an extreme type. They imagined that, by a process of profound contemplation, they could discern internally the light of the Divine Presence—the 'glory of God'—the very same which was disclosed to the Apostles on the Mount of Transfiguration. Hence they were also called Thaborites. The soul to which this privilege was vouchsafed had no need to practise any of the external acts

or rites of religion. . . . The theory of abstract contemplation, with the extraordinary fruits supposed to be derived from it, travelled in due course into the West, and there gave birth to the far-famed school of the Mystics, of which there were various ramifications. The earliest exponent of the system in France was John Scotus Erigena, the contemporary and friend of Charles the Bald. . . . Erigena incurred the censures of the Holy See; but the results of his teaching were permanent. . . . The Mystics, or Theosophists as some style them, attained a position of high renown and influence at Paris towards the close of the 12th century. Here two of the ablest expositors of the learning of the middle age, Hugh and Richard of St. Victor, initiated crowds of ardent disciples into the mysteries of the 'via interna,' and of 'pure love'—that marvelious quality by which the soul, sublimated and etherialized, ascends into the very presence-chamber of the King of kings. . . . The path thus traced was trodden by many who were to take rank, eventually as the most perfect masters of spiritual science; among them are the venerated names of Thomas à Kempis, St. Bonaventure, John Tauler of Strasburg, Gerson, and St. Vincent Ferrier. . . . But, on the other hand, it is not less true that emotional religion has been found to degenerate, in modern as well as in ancient times, into manifold forms of moral aberration. . . . To exalt above measure the dignity and privileges of the spiritual element in man carries with it the danger of disparaging the material part of our nature; and this results in the preposterous notion that, provided the soul be absorbed in the contemplation of things Divine, the actions of the body are unimportant and indifferent. How often the Church has combated and denounced this most insidious heresy is well known to all who have a moderate acquaintance with its history. Under the various appellations of Beghards, Fratricelli, Cathari, Spirituals, Albigenses, Illuminati, Guerinets, and Quietists, the self-same delusion has been sedulously propagated in different parts of Christendom, and with the same ultimate consequences. A revival of the last-named sect, the Quietists, took place in Spain about the year 1675, when Michel de Molinos, a priest of the diocese of Saragossa, published his treatise called 'The Spiritual Guide,' or, in the Latin translation, 'Manuductio spiritualis.' His leading principle, like that of his multifarious predecessors, was that of habitual abstraction of the mind from sensible objects, with a view to gain, by passive contemplation, not only a profound realisation of God's presence, but so perfect a communion with Him as to end in absorption into His essence. . . . Persons of the highest distinction—Cardinals, Inquisitors, nay, even Pope Innocent himself—were suspected of sharing these dangerous opinions. Molinos was arrested and imprisoned, and in due time the Inquisition condemned sixty-eight propositions from his works; a sentence which was confirmed by a Papal bull in August, 1687. Having undergone public penance, he was admitted to absolution; after which, in 'merciful' consideration of his submission and repentance, he was consigned for the rest of his days to the dungeons of the Holy Office. Here he died in November, 1692. . . . The principles of Quietism had struck root so deeply, that they were not to be soon dislodged either by the terrors of the Inquisition, or by the well-merited denunciations of the Vatican. The system was irresistibly fascinating to minds of a certain order. Among those who were dazzled by it was the celebrated Jeanne Marie De la Mothe Guyon," whose ardent propagation of her mystic theology in the court circles of France—where Fenelon, Madame de Maintenon, and other important personages were greatly influenced—gave rise to bitter controversies and agitations. In the end, Madame Guyon was silenced and imprisoned and Fenelon was subjected to humiliating papal censures.—W. H. Jervis, *Hist. of the Church of France, v. 2, ch. 4.*

ALSO IN: R. A. Vaughan, *Hours with the Mystics.*—J. Bigelow, *Miguel Molinos, the Quietist.*—T. C. Upham, *Life of M'me Guyon.*—H. L. S. Lear, *Fenelon, ch. 3-5.*—S. E. Herrick, *Some Heretics of Yesterday, ch. 1.*—H. C. Lea, *Chapters from the Religious History of Spain: Mystics.*

MYTILENE, Siege of. See LESBOS.

N.

N. S.—New Style. See CALENDAR, GREGORIAN.

NAARDEN: A. D. 1572.—Massacre by the Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1572-1573.

NABATHEANS, The.—"Towards the seventh century B. C., the name Edomite suddenly disappears, and is used only by some of the Israelitish prophets, who, in doing so, follow ancient traditions. Instead of it is found the hitherto unknown word, Nabathean. Nevertheless the two names, Nabathean and Edomite, undoubtedly refer to the same people, dwelling in the same locality, possessing the same empire, with the same boundaries, and the same capital, Selah [Petra]. Whence arose this change of name? According to all appearances from an internal revolution, of which we have no record, a change in the royal race and in the dominant tribe."—F. Lenormant, *Manual of Ancient Hist., bk. 7, ch. 4.*—"This remarkable nation [the Nabatheans, or Nabatæans] has often been confounded with its eastern neighbours, the wandering Arabs, but it is more closely related to the Aramæan branch than to the proper children of Ishmael. This Aramæan or, according to the designation of the Occidentals, Syrian stock must have in very early times sent forth from its most ancient settlements about Babylon a colony, probably for the sake of trade, to the northern end of the Arabian gulf; these were the Nabatæans on the Sinaitic peninsula, between the gulf of Suez and Aila, in the region of Petra (Wadi Mousa). In their ports the wares of the Mediterranean were exchanged for those of India; the great southern caravan-route, which ran from Gaza to the mouth of the Euphrates and the Persian gulf, passed through the capital of the Nabatæans—Petra—whose still magnificent rock-palaces and rock-tombs furnish clearer evidence of the Nabatæan civilization than does an almost extinct tradition."—T. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome, bk. 5, ch. 4.*

ALSO IN: H. Ewald, *Hist. of Israel, v. 5, p. 351.*

NABOB.—NAWAB.—Under the Moghul empire, certain viceroys or governors of provinces bore the title of Nawab, as the Nawab Wuzeer or Vizier of Oude, which became in English speech Nabob, and acquired familiar use in England as a term applied to rich Anglo-Indians.

NADIR SHAH, sovereign of Persia, A. D. 1736–1747.

NAEFELS, OR NÖFELS, Battle of (1388). See SWITZERLAND: A. D. 1386–1388. ....Battle of (1799). See FRANCE: A. D. 1799 (AUGUST—DECEMBER).

NAGPUR: The British acquisition and annexation. See INDIA: A. D. 1816–1819, and 1848–1856.

NAHANARVALI, The. See LYGIANS.

NAHUA PEOPLES.—NAHUATL. See MEXICO, ANCIENT.

NAIRS, The. See INDIA: THE ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS.

NAISSUS, The Battle of. See GOTHS. A. D. 268–270.

NAJARA, Battle of. See NAVARETTE.

NAMANGAN, Battle of (1876). See RUSSIA: A. D. 1859–1876.

NAMAQUA, The, and Great Namaqualand. See SOUTH AFRICA: THE ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS; also, GERMAN SOUTHWESTERN AFRICA.

NAMUR: A. D. 1692.—Siege and capture by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1692.

A. D. 1695.—Siege and recovery by William of Orange. See FRANCE: A. D. 1695–1696.

A. D. 1713.—Ceded to Holland. See UTRECHT: A. D. 1712–1714; and NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): A. D. 1713–1715.

A. D. 1746-1748.—Taken by the French and ceded to Austria. See NETHERLANDS: A. D. 1746–1747; and AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: CONGRESS.

NANA SAHIB, and the Sepoy Revolt. See INDIA: A. D. 1848–1856; 1857 (MAY—AUGUST); and 1857–1858 (JULY—JUNE).

NANCY: Defeat and death of Charles the Bold (1477). See BURGUNDY: A. D. 1476–1477.

NANKING: A. D. 1842.—Treaty ending the Opium War and opening Chinese ports. See CHINA: A. D. 1839–1842.

A. D. 1853-1864.—The capital of the Taiping Rebels. See CHINA: A. D. 1850–1864.

NANTES: Origin of the name. See VENETI OF WESTERN GAUL.

A. D. 1598.—The Edict of Henry IV. See FRANCE: A. D. 1598–1599.

A. D. 1685.—The Revocation of the Edict. See FRANCE: A. D. 1681–1698.

A. D. 1793.—Unsuccessful attack by the Vendéans.—The crushing of the revolt and the frightful vengeance of the Terrorists.—The demoniac Carrier and his Noyades. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (JULY—DECEMBER); THE CIVIL WAR; and 1793–1794 (OCTOBER—APRIL).

NANTICOKES, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

NANTWICH, Battle of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1644 (JANUARY).

NAO. See CARAVELS.

NAPATA. See ETHIOPIA.

NAPLES: Origin of the city. See NEAPOLIS AND PALÆPOLIS.

A. D. 536-543.—Siege and capture by Belisarius.—Recovery by the Goths. See ROME: A. D. 535–558.

A. D. 554-800.—The dukedom. See ROME: A. D. 554–800.

8-9th Centuries.—The duchy of Beneventum. See BENEVENTUM; also, AMALFI.

A. D. 1000-1080.—The Norman Conquest.—Grant by the Pope as a fief of the Church. See ITALY: A. D. 1000–1090.

A. D. 1127.—Union of Apulia with Sicily and formation of the kingdom of Naples or the Two Sicilies. See ITALY: A. D. 1081–1194.

A. D. 1282-1300.—Separation from Sicily.—Continuance as a separate kingdom under the House of Anjou.—Adhesion to the name "Sicily." See ITALY: A. D. 1282–1300; also, TWO SICILIES.

A. D. 1312-1313.—Hostilities between King Robert and the Emperor, Henry VII. See ITALY: A. D. 1310–1313.

A. D. 1313-1328.—King Robert's leadership of the Guelf interest in Italy.—His part in the wars of Tuscany. See ITALY: A. D. 1313–1330.

A. D. 1343-1389.—The troubled reign of Joanna I.—Murder of her husband, Andrew of Hungary.—Political effects of the Great Schism in the Church.—War of Charles of Durazzo and Louis of Anjou.—Interfering violence of Pope Urban VI. See ITALY: A. D. 1343–1389.

A. D. 1386-1414.—Civil war between the Durazzo and the Angevin parties.—Success of Ladislas.—His capture, loss, and recapture of Rome. See ITALY: A. D. 1386–1414.

A. D. 1414-1447.—Renewal of civil war.—Defeat of the Angevins and acquisition of the crown by Alfonso, king of Aragon and Sicily.—League with Florence and Venice against Milan. See ITALY: A. D. 1412–1447.

A. D. 1447-1454.—Claim of King Alfonso to the duchy of Milan.—War with Milan and Florence. See MILAN: A. D. 1447–1454.

A. D. 1458.—Separation of the crown from those of Aragon and Sicily.—Left to an illegitimate son of Alfonso.—Revived French claims. See ITALY: A. D. 1447–1480.

A. D. 1494-1496.—Invasion and temporary conquest by Charles VIII. of France.—Retreat of the French.—Venetian acquisitions in Apulia. See ITALY: A. D. 1492–1494, 1494–1496; and VENICE: A. D. 1494–1508.

A. D. 1501-1504.—Perfidious treaty of partition between Louis XII. of France and Ferdinand of Aragon.—Their joint conquest.—Their quarrel and war.—The French expelled.—The Spaniards in possession. See ITALY: A. D. 1501–1504.

A. D. 1504-1505.—Relinquishment of French claims. See ITALY: A. D. 1504–1506.

A. D. 1508-1509.—The League of Cambrai against Venice. See VENICE: A. D. 1508–1509.

A. D. 1528.—Siege by the French and successful defense. See ITALY: A. D. 1527–1529.

A. D. 1528-1570.—Under the Spanish viceroys.—Ravages of the Turks along the coast.—The blockade and peril of the city.—Revolt against the Inquisition.—Alva's repulse of the French. See ITALY: A. D. 1528–1570; and FRANCE: A. D. 1547–1559.

A. D. 1544.—Repeated renunciation of the claims of Francis I. See FRANCE: A. D. 1538–1547.

A. D. 1647-1654.—Revolt of Masaniello.—Undertakings of the Duke of Guise and the French. See ITALY: A. D. 1646–1654.

A. D. 1713.—The kingdom ceded to the House of Austria. See UTRECHT: A. D. 1712–1714.

A. D. 1734-1735.—Occupation by the Spaniards.—Cession to Spain, with Sicily, forming a kingdom for Don Carlos, the first of the Neapolitan Bourbons. See ITALY: A. D. 1715–1735; and FRANCE: A. D. 1733–1735.

A. D. 1742.—The neutrality of the kingdom in the War of the Austrian Succession enforced by England. See ITALY: A. D. 1741–1748.

A. D. 1744.—The War of the Austrian Succession.—Neutrality broken. See ITALY: A. D. 1744.

A. D. 1749-1792.—Under the Spanish-Bourbon régime. See ITALY: A. D. 1749–1792.

A. D. 1769.—Seizure of Papal territory.—Demand for the suppression of the Order of the Jesuits. See JESUITS: A. D. 1761–1769.

A. D. 1793.—Joined in the Coalition against Revolutionary France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (MARCH—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1796.—Armistice with Bonaparte.—Treaty of Peace. See FRANCE: A. D. 1796 (APRIL—OCTOBER), and (OCTOBER).

A. D. 1798-1799.—The king's attack upon the French at Rome.—His defeat and flight.—French occupation of the capital.—Creation of the Parthenopeian Republic. See FRANCE: A. D. 1798–1799 (AUGUST—APRIL).

A. D. 1799.—Expulsion of the French.—Restoration of the king. See FRANCE: A. D. 1799 (AUGUST—DECEMBER).

A. D. 1800-1801.—The king's assistance to the Allies.—Saved from Napoleon's vengeance by the intercession of the Russian Czar.—Treaty of Foligno. See FRANCE: A. D. 1800–1801 (JUNE—FEBRUARY).

A. D. 1805 (April).—Joined in the Third Coalition against France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1805 (JANUARY—APRIL).

A. D. 1805-1806.—Napoleon's edict of dethronement against the king and queen.—Its enforcement by French arms.—Joseph Bonaparte made king of the Two Sicilies. See FRANCE: A. D. 1805–1806 (DECEMBER—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1808.—The crown resigned by Joseph Bonaparte (now king of Spain), and conferred on Joachim Murat. See SPAIN: A. D. 1808 (MAY—SEPTEMBER).

A. D. 1808-1809.—Murat on the throne.—Expulsion of the English from Capri.—Popular distontent.—Rise of the Carbonari.—Civil war in Calabria. See ITALY: A. D. 1808–1809.

A. D. 1814.—Desertion of Napoleon by Murat.—His treaty with the Allies. See ITALY: A. D. 1814.

A. D. 1815.—Murat's attempt to head an Italian national movement.—His downfall and fate.—Restoration of the Bourbon Ferdinand. See ITALY: A. D. 1815.

A. D. 1815.—Accession to the Holy Alliance. See HOLY ALLIANCE.

A. D. 1820-1821.—Insurrection.—Concession of a Constitution.—Perjury and duplicity of the king.—Intervention of Austria to overthrow the Constitution.—Merciless re-establishment of despotism. See ITALY: A. D. 1820–1821.

A. D. 1820-1822.—The Congresses of Troppau, Laybach and Verona.—Austrian intervention sanctioned. See VERONA, THE CONGRESS OF.

A. D. 1830.—Death of Francis I.—Accession of Ferdinand II. See ITALY: A. D. 1830–1832.

A. D. 1848.—Abortive revolt. See ITALY: A. D. 1848–1849.

A. D. 1859-1861.—Death of Ferdinand II.—Accession of Francis II.—The overthrow of his kingdom by Garibaldi.—Its absorption in the kingdom of Italy. See ITALY: A. D. 1856–1859; and 1859–1861.

NAPO, OR QUIJO, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ANDESIANS.

NAPOLEON I.: His career. See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (JULY—DECEMBER); and 1795 (OCTOBER—DECEMBER), to 1815 (JUNE—AUGUST). . . . **His death.** He died on St. Helena, MAY 5, 1821. . . . **His remains.** His body was conveyed to France, December, 1840.

NAPOLEON III.: His Career. See FRANCE: A. D. 1830–1840; 1848 (APRIL—DEC.) to 1870 (SEPT.). . . . . **Attempt to assassinate.** See ENGLAND: A. D. 1858–1859.

NARBONNE: Founding of the city.—"In the year B. C. 118 it was proposed to settle a Roman colony in the south of France at Narbo (Narbonne). . . . Narbo was an old native town which existed at least as early as the latter part of the sixth century before the Christian era. . . . The possession of Narbo gave the Romans easy access to the fertile valley of the Garonne, and it was not long before they took and plundered Tolosa (Toulouse), which is on that river. . . . Narbo also commanded the road into Spain."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman Republic, v.* 1, *ch.* 22.

A. D. 437.—Besieged by the Goths. See GOTHS (VISIGOTHS): A. D. 419–451.

A. D. 525-531.—The capital of the Visigoths. See GOTHS (VISIGOTHS): A. D. 507–711.

A. D. 719.—Capture and occupation by the Moslems. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 715–732.

A. D. 752-759.—Siege and recovery from the Moslems. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 752–759.

NARISCI, The. See MARCOMANNI.

NARRAGANSETTS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; RHODE ISLAND: A. D. 1636; and NEW ENGLAND: A. D. 1637, 1674–1675, 1675, and 1676–1678.

NARSES, Campaigns of. See ROME: A. D. 535–553.

NARVA, Siege and Battle of (1700). See SCANDINAVIAN STATES (SWEDEN): A. D. 1697–1700.

NARVAEZ, Expedition of. See FLORIDA: A. D. 1528–1542.

NASEBY, Battle of. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1645 (JUNE).

NASHVILLE, Tenn.: A. D. 1779-1784.—Origin and name of the city. See TENNESSEE: A. D. 1785–1796.

A. D. 1862.—Occupied by the Union forces. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JANUARY—FEBRUARY: KENTUCKY—TENNESSEE); and (FEBRUARY—APRIL: TENNESSEE).

A. D. 1864.—Under siege.—Defeat of Hood's army. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1864 (DECEMBER: TENNESSEE).

NASI, The.—This was the title of the President of the Jewish Sanhedrin.

NASR-ED-DEEN, Shah of Persia, A. D. 1848—.

NASSAU, The House of.—"We find an Otho, Count of Nassau, so long ago as the beginning of the 10th century, employed as general under the Emperor Henry I . . . in subduing a swarm of savage Hungarians, who for many years had infested Germany. . . . The same fortunate warrior had a principal hand afterwards in reducing the Vandals, Danes, Sclavonians, Dalmatians, and Bohemians. Among the descendants of Otho of Nassau, Walram I and III more particularly distinguished themselves in the cause of the German Emperors; the former under the victorious Otho I, the latter under Conrad II. It was to these faithful services of his progenitors that, in a great measure, were owing the large possessions of Henry, surnamed the Rich, third in descent from the last mentioned Walram, and grandfather to the brave but unhappy Emperor Adolphus [deposed and slain at the battle of Gelheim, in 1298,—see GERMANY: A. D. 1278–1308]. The accession, by marriage, of Breda, Vianden, and other lordships in the Netherlands, gave the Nassaus such a weight in those provinces that John II of Nassau-Dillemburg, and his son Engelbert II, were both successively appointed Governors of Brabant by the Sovereigns of that State [Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, and his son-in-law, the Emperor Maximilian]. . . . The last, who was likewise honoured with the commission of Maximilian I's Lieutenant-General in the Low Countries, immortalized his fame, at the same time that he secured his master's footing there, by the glorious victory of Guinegaste,"—or Guinegate, or the "Battle of the Spurs,"—see FRANCE: A. D. 1513–1515.—J. Breval, *Hist. of the House of Nassau, pp.* 2–3.—Engelbert II. dying childless, "was succeeded by his brother John, whose two sons, Henry and William, of Nassau, divided the great inheritance after their father's death. William succeeded to the German estates, became a convert to Protestantism, and introduced the Reformation into his dominions. Henry, the eldest son, received the family possessions and titles in Luxembourg, Brabant, Flanders and Holland, and distinguished himself as much as his uncle Engelbert, in the service of the Burgundo-Austrian house. The confidential friend of Charles V., whose governor he had been in that Emperer's boyhood, he was ever his most efficient and reliable adherent. It was he whose influence placed the imperial crown upon the head of Charles. In 1515 he espoused Claudia de Chalons, sister of Prince Philibert of Orange, 'in order,' as he wrote to his father, 'to be obedient to his imperial Majesty, to please the King of France, and more particularly for the sake of his own honor and profit.' His son Réné de Nassau-Chalons succeeded Philibert. The little principality of Orange, so pleasantly situated between Provence and Dauphiny, but in such dangerous proximity to the seat of the 'Babylonian captivity' of the popes at Avignon, thus passed to the family of Nassau. The title was of high antiquity. Already in the reign of Charlemagne, Guillaume au Court-Nez, or 'William with the Short Nose,' had defended the little town of Orange against the assaults of the Saracens. The interest and authority acquired in the demesnes thus preserved by his valor became extensive, and in process of time hereditary in his race. The principality became an absolute and free sovereignty, and had already descended, in defiance of the Salic law, through the three distinct families of Orange, Baux, and Chalons. In 1544, Prince Réné died at the Emperor's feet in the trenches of Saint Dizier. Having no legitimate children, he left all his titles and estates to his cousin-german, William of Nassau [the great statesman and soldier, afterwards known as William the Silent], son of his father's brother William, who thus at the age of eleven years became William the Ninth of Orange."—J. L. Motley, *The Rise of the Dutch Republic, pt.* 2, *ch.* 1 (*v.* 1).—The Dutch branch of the House of Nassau is now represented by the royal family of Holland. The possessions of the German branch, in the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau, after frequent partitioning, was finally gathered into a duchy, which Prussia extinguished and absorbed in 1866. See GERMANY: A. D. 1866.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Orange* (*Macmillan's Mag., Feb.*, 1875).—Baron Maurier, *Lives of all the Princes of Orange.*—See, also, ORANGE; and GUELDERLAND: A. D. 1079–1473.

NAT TURNER'S INSURRECTION. See SLAVERY, NEGRO: A. D. 1828–1832.

NATAL: The Name. See SOUTH AFRICA: A. D. 1486–1806.

A. D. 1834-1843.—Founding of the colony as a Dutch republic.—Its absorption in the British dominions. See SOUTH AFRICA: A. D. 1806–1881.

NATALIA, Queen of Servia. See BALKAN AND DANUBIAN STATES: A. D. 1879–1889.

NATCHEZ, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES, NATCHESAN FAMILY, and MUSKHOGEAN FAMILY.

NATCHEZ: A. D. 1862.—Taken by the National forces. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MAY—JULY: ON THE MISSISSIPPI).

NATCHITOCHES, The. See TEXAS: THE ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, French Revolution. See FRANCE: A. D. 1789 (JUNE).

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, German Revolution. See GERMANY: A. D. 1848 (MARCH—SEPTEMBER).

NATIONAL BANK SYSTEM. See MONEY AND BANKING: A. D. 1861–1878.

NATIONAL CONVENTION, French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1795 (OCT.—DEC.).

NATIONAL LIBRARY OF FRANCE. See LIBRARIES, MODERN: FRANCE.

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF THE U. S. See SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

NATIONAL REPUBLICAN PARTY. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1825–1828.

NATIONALISTS, OR HOME RULERS, Irish. See ENGLAND: A. D. 1885–1886.

NATIONALITY, The Principle of.—"Among the French a nationality is regarded as

the work of history, ratified by the will of man. The elements composing it may be very different in their origin. The point of departure is of little importance; the only essential thing is the point reached. The Swiss nationality is the most complete. It embraces three families of people, each of which speaks its own language. Moreover, since the Swiss territory belongs to three geographical regions, separated by high mountains, Switzerland, which has vanquished the fatality of nature, from both the ethnographical and geographical point of view, is a unique and wonderful phenomenon. But she is a confederation, and for a long time has been a neutral country. Thus her constitution has not been subjected to the great ordeal of fire and sword. France, despite her diverse races—Celtic, German, Roman, and Basque—has formed a political entity that most resembles a moral person. The Bretons and Alsacians, who do not all understand the language of her government, have not been the least devoted of her children in the hour of tribulation. Among the great nations France is the nation par excellence. Elsewhere the nationality blends, or tends to blend, with the race, a natural development and, hence, one devoid of merit. All the countries that have not been able to unite their races into a nation, have a more or less troubled existence. Prussia has not been able to nationalize (that is the proper word to use) her Polish subjects; hence she has a Polish question, not to mention at present any other. England has an Irish question. Both Turkey and Austria have a number of such questions. Groups of people in various parts of the Austrian Empire demand from the Emperor that they may be allowed to live as Germans, Hungarians, Tsechs, Croatians, in fact, even as Italians. They do not revolt against him; on the contrary, each of them offers him a crown. The time is, however, past when a single head can wear several crowns; to day every crown is heavy. These race claims are not merely a cause of internal troubles; the agitations that they arouse may lead to great wars. Evidently no state will ever interpose between Ireland and England, but, while quarrels take place between Germans and Slavs, there will intervene the two conflicting forces of Pan-Germanism and Pan-Slavism, formidable results and final consequences of ethnographical patriotism. Pan-Germanism and Pan-Slavism are, indeed, not forces officially acknowledged and organized. The Emperor of Germany can honestly deny that he is a Pan-Germanist, and the Tsar that he is a Pan-Slavist. Germans and Slavs of Austria, and Slavs of the Balkans, may, for their part, desire to remain Austrian or independent, as they are to-day. It is none the less true, however, that there is in Europe an old quarrel between two great races, that each of them is represented by a powerful empire, and that these empires cannot forever remain unconcerned about the quarrels of the two races. . . . The chief application of the principle of nationality has been the formation of the Italian and German nations. In former times the existence, in the centre of the Continent, of two objects of greed was a permanent cause of war. Will the substitution of two important states for German anarchy and Italian polyarchy prove a guaranty of future peace?"—E. Lavisse, *General View of the Political History of Europe, ch.* 5, *sect.* 6–7.

NATIONALRATH, The. See SWITZERLAND: A. D. 1848–1890.

NATIONS OF THE UNIVERSITIES. See EDUCATION, MEDIÆVAL.

NATIVE STATES OF INDIA. See INDIA: A. D. 1877.

NATIVI. See SLAVERY, MEDIÆVAL, &c.: ENGLAND.

NAUARCHI.—The title given in ancient Sparta to the commanders of the fleet. At Athens "the term Nauarchi seems to have been officially applied only to the commanders of the so-called sacred triremes."—G. Schömann, *Antiq. of Greece: The State, pt.* 8, *ch.* 1, *and* 8.

NAUCRATIS. See NAUKRATIS.

NAUKRARIES. See PHYLÆ.

NAUKRATIS.—"Naukratis was for a long time the privileged port [in Egypt] for Grecian commerce with Egypt. No Greek merchant was permitted to deliver goods in any other part [port], or to enter any other of the mouths of the Nile except the Kanôpic. If forced into any of them by stress of weather, he was compelled to make oath that his arrival was a matter of necessity, and to convey his goods round by sea into the Kanopic branch to Naukratis; and if the weather still forbade such a proceeding, the merchandise was put into barges and conveyed round to Naukratis by the internal canals of the delta. Such a monopoly, which made Naukratis in Egypt something like Canton in China or Nangasaki in Japan, no longer subsisted in the time of Herodotus. . . . At what precise time Naukratis first became licensed for Grecian trade, we cannot directly make out. But there seems reason to believe that it was the port to which the Greek merchants first went, so soon as the general liberty of trading with the country was conceded to them; and this would put the date of such grant at least as far back as the foundation of Kyrene, . . . about 630 B. C., during the reign of Psammetichus. . . . [About a century later, Amasis] sanctioned the constitution of a formal and organised emporium or factory, invested with commercial privileges, and armed with authority exercised by presiding officers regularly chosen. This factory was connected with, and probably grew out of, a large religious edifice and precinct, built at the joint cost of nine Grecian cities: four of them Ionic,—Chios, Teos, Phokæa and Klazomenæ; four Doric,—Rhodes, Knidus, Halikarnassus, and Phaselis; and one Æolic,—Mitylene. By these nine cities the joint temple and factory was kept up and its presiding magistrates chosen; but its destination, for the convenience of Grecian commerce generally, seems revealed by the imposing title of The Hellênion."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 20.—The site of Naukratis has been determined lately by the excavations of Mr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, begun in 1885, the results of which are appearing in the publications of the "Egypt Exploration Fund." The ruins of the ancient city are found buried under a mound called Nebireh. Its situation was west of the Canobic branch of the Nile, on a canal which connected it with that stream. See EGYPT: B. C. 670–525.

NAULOCHUS, Battle of.—A naval battle fought near Naulochus, on the coast of Sicily, in which Agrippa, commanding for the triumvir Octavius, defeated and destroyed the fleet of Sextus Pompeius, B. C. 36.—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans, ch.* 27.

NAUMACHIÆ.—The naumachiæ of the Romans were structures resembling excavated amphitheatres, but having the large central space filled with water, for the representation of naval combats. "The great Naumachia of Augustus was 1,800 feet long and 1,200 feet broad."—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna, introd.*

NAUPACTUS. See MESSENIAN WAR, THE THIRD; and GREECE: B. C. 357–336.

NAUPACTUS, Battle of (B. C. 429). See GREECE: B. C. 429–427.

NAUPACTUS, Treaty of.—A treaty, concluded B C. 217, which terminated what was called the Social War, between the Achæan League, joined with Philip of Macedonia, and the Ætolian League, in alliance with Sparta.—C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch.* 68

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *Hist. of Federal Govt., ch.* 8, *sect.* 1.

NAUPLIA. See ARGOS.

NAURAGHI. See SARDINIA, THE ISLAND: NAME AND EARLY HISTORY.

NAUSETS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ALGONQUIAN FAMILY.

NAUVOO, The Mormon city of. See MORMONISM: A. D. 1830–1846, and 1846–1848.

NAVAJOS, The. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: ATHAPASCAN FAMILY, and APACHE GROUP.

NAVAL ACADEMY, U. S. See EDUCATION, MODERN: AMERICA: A. D. 1845.

NAVARETTE, OR NAJARA, Battle of.—Won, April 3, 1367, by the English Black Prince. See SPAIN: A. D. 1366–1369, and FRANCE: A. D. 1360–1380.

NAVARINO: B. C. 425.—An ancient episode in the harbor. See GREECE: B. C. 425.

A. D. 1686.—Taken by the Venetians. See TURKS: A. D. 1684–1696.

A. D. 1827.—Battle and destruction of the Turkish fleet. See GREECE: A. D. 1821–1829.

NAVARRE: Aboriginal inhabitants. See BASQUES.

Origin of the kingdom.—"No historical subject is wrapt in greater obscurity than the origin and early history of the kingdom of Navarre. Whether, during a great portion of the eighth and ninth centuries, the country was independent or tributary; and, if dependent, whether it obeyed the Franks, the Asturians, or the Arabs, or successively all three, are speculations which have long exercised the pens of the peninsular writers. . . . It seems undoubted that, in just dread of the Mohammedan domination, the inhabitants of these regions, as well as those of Catalonia, applied for aid to the renowned emperor of the Franks [Charlemagne]; and that he, in consequence, in 778, poured his legions into Navarre, and seized Pamplona. It seems no less certain that, from this period, he considered the country as a fief of his crown; and that his pretensions, whether founded in violence or in the voluntary submission of the natives, gave the highest umbrage to the Asturian kings: the feudal supremacy thenceforth became an apple of discord between the two courts, each striving to gain the homage of the local governors. . . . Thus things remained until the time of Alfonso II., who . . . endeavoured to secure peace both with Navarre and France by marrying a princess related to both Sancho Iñigo, count of Bigorre, and to the Frank sovereign, and by consenting that the province should be held as an immovable fief by that count. This Sancho Iñigo, besides his lordship of Bigorre, for which he was the vassal of the French king, had domains in Navarre, and is believed, on apparently good foundation, to have been of Spanish descent. He is said, however, not to have been the first count of Navarre; that his brother Aznar held the fief before him, nominally dependent on king Pepin, but successfully laying the foundation of Navarrese independence. If the chronology which makes Sancho succeed Aznar in 836, and the event itself, be correct, Alfonso only confirmed the count in the lordship. In this case, the only remaining difficulty is to determine whether the fief was held from Charles or Alfonso. . . . But whichever of the princes was acknowledged for the time the lord paramount of the province, there can be little doubt that both governor and people were averse to the sway of either; both had long aspired to independence, and that independence was at hand. The son of this Sancho Iñigo was Garcia, father of Sancho Garces, and the first king of Navarre [assuming the crown about 885–891]; the first, at least, whom . . . historic criticism can admit."—S. A. Dunham, *Hist. of Spain and Portugal, bk.* 3, *sect.* 2, *ch.* 2.—See, also, SPAIN: A. D. 718–910.

A. D. 1026.—Acquisition of the crown of Castile by King Sancho el Mayor. See SPAIN: A. D. 1026–1230.

A. D. 1234.—Succession of Thibalt, Count of Champagne, to the throne. See SPAIN: A. D. 1212–1238.

A. D. 1284-1328.—Union with France, and separation.—In 1284, the marriage of Jeanne, heiress of the kingdom of Navarre and of the counties of Champagne and Brie, to Philip IV. of France, united the crown of Navarre to that of France. They were separated in 1328, on the death of her last surviving son, Charles IV., without male issue. Philip of Valois secured the French crown, under the so called Salic law, but that of Navarre passed to Jeanne's granddaughter, of her own name.

A. D. 1442-1521.—Usurpation of John II. of Aragon.—The House of Foix and the D'Albrets.—Conquest by Ferdinand.—Incorporation in the kingdom of Castile.—Blanche, daughter of Charles III. of Navarre and heiress of the kingdom, married John II. of Aragon, to whom she gave three children, namely, Don Carlos, or Charles, "who, as heir apparent, bore the title of Prince of Viana, and two daughters, Blanche and Eleanor. Don Carlos is known by his virtues and misfortunes. At the death of his mother Blanche [1442], he should have succeeded to the throne of Navarre; but John II. was by no means disposed to relinquish the title which he had acquired by marriage, and Carlos consented to be his father's viceroy. But even this dignity he was not permitted to enjoy unmolested." Persecuted through life, sometimes imprisoned, sometimes in exile, he died at the age of forty, in 1461 (see SPAIN: A. D. 1368–1479). "By the death of Don Carlos, the succession to the crown of Navarre devolved to his sister Blanche, the divorced wife of Henry IV. of Castile; and that amiable princess now became an object of jealousy not only to her father but also to her younger sister, Eleanor, married to the Count of Foix, to whom John II. had promised the reversion of Navarre after his own

death. Gaston de Foix, the offspring of this union, had married a sister of Louis XI.; and it had been provided in a treaty between that monarch and John II., that in order to secure the succession of the House of Foix to Navarre, Blanche should be delivered into the custody of her sister. John executed this stipulation without remorse. Blanche was conducted to the Castle of Orthès in Bearn (April 1462), where, after a confinement of nearly two years, she was poisoned by order of her sister Eleanor." After committing this crime, the latter waited nearly fifteen years for the crown which it was expected to win, and then enjoyed it but three weeks. Her father reigned until the 20th of January, 1479, when he died; the guilty daughter soon followed him. "After Eleanor's brief reign . . . the blood-stained sceptre of Navarre passed to her grandson Phœbus, 1479, who, however, lived only four years, and was succeeded by his sister Catherine. Ferdinand and Isabella [now occupying the thrones of Aragon and Castile] endeavoured to effect a marriage between Catherine and their own heir; but this scheme was frustrated by Magdalen, the queen-mother, a sister of Louis XI. of France, who brought about a match between her daughter and John d'Albret, a French nobleman who had large possessions on the borders of Navarre (1485). Nevertheless the Kings of Spain supported Catherine and her husband against her uncle, John de Foix, viscount of Narbonne, who pretended to the Navarese crown on the ground that it was limited to male heirs; and after the death of John, the alliance with Spain was drawn still closer by the avowed purpose of Louis XII. to support his nephew, Gaston de Foix, in the claims of his father. After the fall of that young hero at Ravenna [see ITALY: A. D. 1510–1513], his pretensions to the throne of Navarre devolved to his sister, Germaine de Foix, the second wife of King Ferdinand [see SPAIN: A. D. 1496–1517], an event which entirely altered the relations between the courts of Spain and Navarre. Ferdinand had now an interest in supporting the claims of the house of Foix-Narbonne; and Catherine, who distrusted him, despatched in May 1512, plenipotentiaries to the French court to negotiate a treaty of alliance." But it was too late. Ferdinand had already succeeded in diverting to Navarre an expedition which his son-in-law, Henry VIII. of England, acting in the Holy League against Louis XII., which Ferdinand now joined (see ITALY: A. D. 1510–1513), had sent against Guienne. With this aid he took possession of Upper Navarre. "In the following year, he effected at Orthès a year's truce with Louis XII. (April 1st 1513), by which Louis sacrificed his ally, the King of Navarre, and afterwards, by renewing the truce, allowed Ferdinand permanently to settle himself in his new conquest. The States of Navarre had previously taken the oath of allegiance to Ferdinand as their King, and on the 15th of June 1515, Navarre was incorporated into the kingdom of Castile by the solemn act of the Cortès. The dominions of John d'Albret and Catherine were now reduced to the little territory of Bearn, but they still retained the title of sovereigns of Navarre." Six years later, in 1521, the French invaded Navarre and overran the whole kingdom. "Pampeluna alone, animated by the courage of Ignatius Loyola, made a short resistance. To this siege, the world owes the Order of the Jesuits. Loyola, whose leg had been shattered by a cannon ball, found consolation and amusement during his convalescence in reading the lives of the saints, and was thus thrown into that state of fanatical exaltation which led him to devote his future life to the service of the Papacy." Attempting to extend their invasion beyond Navarre, the French were defeated at Esquiros and driven back, losing the whole of their conquests.—T. H. Dyer, *Hist. of Modern Europe, bk.* 1, *ch.* 4 *and* 7, *and bk.* 2, *ch.* 8 (*v.* 1).

ALSO IN: W. H. Prescott, *Hist. of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, ch.* 2 *and* 23 (*v.* 1 *and* 3).

A. D. 1528-1563.—The kingdom remaining on the French side of the Pyrenees.—Jeanne d'Albret's Bourbon marriage and the issue of it.—Establishment of Protestantism in Béarn.—Besides the Spanish province which Ferdinand the Catholic appropriated and joined to Castile, and which gave its name to the kingdom of Navarre, "that kingdom embraced a large tract of country lying on the French side of the Pyrenees, including the principality of Béarn and the counties of Foix, Armagnac, Albret, Bigorre, and Comminges. Catherine de Foix, the heiress of this kingdom, had in 1491 carried it by marriage into the house of D'Albret. Henry, the second king of Navarre belonging to this house, was in 1528 united to Marguerite d'Angoulême, the favourite and devoted sister of Francis I. of France. Pampeluna, the ancient capital of their kingdom, being in the hands of the King of Spain, Henry and Marguerite held their Court at Nérac, the chief town of the duchy belonging to the family of D'Albret. It was at Nérac that Marguerite, herself more than half a Huguenot, opened an asylum to her persecuted fellow-countrymen [see PAPACY: A. D. 1521–1535]. Farel, Calvin, Beza sought temporary refuge and found glad welcome there, while to Lefèvre, Clément Marot, and Gérard Roussel it became a second home. Marguerite died in 1549, leaving only one child, a daughter, who, in the event of her father having no issue by any second marriage, became heiress to the crown of Navarre. Born in 1528, Jeanne d'Albret had early and bitter experience of what heirship to such a crown involved. The Emperor Charles V. was believed to have early fixed his eye on her as a fit consort for Philip, his son and successor." To prevent this marriage, she was shut up for years, by her uncle, the French king, Francis I., in the gloomy castle of Plessis-les-Tours. When she was twelve years old he affianced her to the Duke of Cleves, notwithstanding her vigorous protests; but the alliance was subsequently broken off. "The next hand offered to Jeanne, and which she accepted, was that of Antoine, elder brother of the Prince of Condé, and head of the Bourbon family. They were married in 1548, a year after the death of Francis I., and a year before that of his sister Marguerite, Jeanne's mother. The marriage was an unfortunate one. Ambitious, yet weak and vain; frivolous and vacillating, yet headstrong and impetuous, faithless to his wife, faithless to his principles, faithless to his party, Antoine became the butt and victim of the policy of the Court. But though unfortunate in so many respects, this marriage gave to France, if not the greatest, the most fortunate, the most popular, the most beloved of all her

monarchs"—namely, Henry IV.—Henry of Navarre—the first of the Bourbon dynasty of French kings. "Antoine of Navarre died at the siege of Rouen in 1562. The first use that the Queen made of the increased measure of freedom she thus acquired was to publish an edict establishing the Protestant and interdicting the exercise of the Roman Catholic worship in Béarn. So bold an act by so weak a sovereign—by one whose political position was so perilous and insecure—drew down upon her the instant and severe displeasure of the Pope," who issued against her a Bull of excommunication, in October, 1563, and assumed the right to dispose of her kingdom. This assumption was more than the French Court could permit. "The Pope had to give way, and the Bull was expunged from the ecclesiastical ordinances of the Pontificate."—W. Hanna, *The Wars of the Huguenots, ch.* 4.

A. D. 1568-1569.—The queen joins the Huguenots in France, with Prince Henry.—Invasion by the French. See FRANCE: A. D. 1563–1570.

A. D. 1620-1622.—Protestant intolerance.—Enforcement of Catholic rights.—The kingdom incorporated and absorbed in France. See FRANCE: A. D. 1620–1622.

A. D. 1876.—Disappearance of the last municipal and provincial privileges of the old kingdom. See SPAIN: A. D. 1873–1885.

NAVE.—NAVIO. See CARAVELS.

NAVIGATION LAWS: A. D. 1651.—The first English Act.—"After the triumph of the parliamentary cause [in the English Civil War], great numbers of the royalists had sought refuge in Virginia, Barbadoes, and the other West India settlements; so that the white population of these dependencies was in general fiercely opposed to the new government, and they might be said to be in a state of rebellion after all the rest of the empire had been reduced to submission and quiet. Barbadoes, indeed, had actually received Lord Willoughby as governor under a commission from Charles II., then in Holland, and had proclaimed Charles as king. It was in these circumstances that the English parliament in 1651, with the view of punishing at once the people of the colonies and the Dutch, who had hitherto enjoyed the greater part of the carrying-trade between the West Indies and Europe, passed their famous Navigation Act, declaring that no merchandise either of Asia, Africa, or America, except only such as should be imported directly from the place of its growth or manufacture in Europe, should be imported into England, Ireland, or any of the plantations, in any but English-built ships, belonging either to English or English-plantation subjects, navigated by English commanders, and having at least three-fourths of the sailors Englishmen. It was also further enacted that no goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of any country in Europe should be imported into Great Britain except in British ships, or in such ships as were the real property of the people of the country or place in which the goods were produced, or from which they could only be, or most usually were, exported. Upon this law, which was re-enacted after the Restoration, and which down to our own day has been generally regarded and upheld as the palladium of our commerce, and the maritime Magna Charta of England, we shall only at present observe that one of its first consequences was undoubtedly the war with Holland which broke out the year after it was passed."—G. L. Craik, *Hist. of British Commerce, ch.* 7 (v. 2).

ALSO IN: Adam Smith, *Wealth of Nations, bk.* 4, *ch.* 2.—J. A. Blanqui, *Hist. of Pol. Economy, ch.* 29.

A. D. 1660-1672.—Effect upon the American colonies, and their relation to Great Britain. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1651–1672.

A. D. 1849—Complete repeal of the British restrictive Acts.—"The question of the navigation laws was . . . brought forward [in the British Parliament, at the commencement of the session of 1849] . . . with a fair prospect of being settled." The stringency of the original act of 1651 had been "slightly mitigated by another act passed in the reign of Charles II.; but the modifications thus introduced were of slight importance. A farther relaxation, made at the conclusion of the war of independence, allowed the produce of the United States to be imported in ships belonging to citizens of those states. The last amendment of the original law was obtained in the year 1825 by Mr. Huskisson, who made some important changes in it. The law, then, which the legislature had to reconsider in the year 1849 stood thus: the produce of Asia, Africa, and America might be imported from places out of Europe into the United Kingdom, if to be used therein, in foreign as well as in British ships, provided that such ships were the ships of the country of which the goods were the produce, and from which they were imported. Goods which were the produce of Europe, and which were not enumerated in the act, might be brought thence in the ships of any country. Goods sent to or from the United Kingdom to any of its possessions, or from one colony to another, must be carried in British ships, or in ships of the country in which they were produced and from which they were imported. Then followed some stringent definitions of the conditions which constituted a vessel a British ship in the sense of the act. These restrictions were not without their defenders. Even the great founder of economic science, Adam Smith, while admitting that the navigation laws were inconsistent with that perfect freedom of trade which he contended for, sanctioned their continuance on the ground that defence is much more important than opulence. But as it was more and more strongly felt that these laws were part and parcel of that baneful system of monopoly which, under the name of protection, had so long been maintained and was now so completely exploded, it began also to be seriously doubted whether they were necessary to the defence of the nation. . . . Therefore, on the 14th of February in this year, Mr. Labouchere, as president of the board of trade, proposed a resolution on the subject couched in the following terms: 'That it is expedient to remove the restrictions which prevent the free carriage of goods by sea to and from the United Kingdom and the British possessions abroad, and to amend the laws regulating the coasting trade of the United Kingdom, subject nevertheless to such control by her Majesty in council as may be necessary; and also to amend the laws for the registration of ships and seamen.' A long debate took place on the

question of the second reading of the government measure. . . . 314 members followed Mr. Disraeli into the lobby, while 275 voted with the government, which therefore had a majority of 61. In the upper house Lord Brougham astonished friend and foe by coming forward as the strenuous and uncompromising opponent of the ministerial measure, . . . The second reading was carried by a majority of 10. The smallness of this majority caused some anxiety to the supporters of the measure with regard to its ultimate fate; but this anxiety was relieved by the withdrawal of the most conspicuous opponents of the bill."—W. N. Molesworth, *Hist. of Eng.*, 1830–1874, *v.* 2, *ch.* 5.

NAVIGATOR ISLANDS. See POLYNESIA; and SAMOA.

NAVY, AMERICAN, Beginnings of the. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1775–1776.

NAWAB-VIZIER, OR NEWAB-WUZEER, of Oude. See OUDE; also NABOB.

NAXOS: B. C. 490.—Destruction by the Persians. See GREECE: B. C. 490.

B. C. 466.—Revolt from the Delian Confederacy.—Subjugation by Athens. See ATHENS: B. C. 470–466.

B. C. 376.—Battle between the Spartans and Athenians.—A battle was fought in September, B. C. 376, off Naxos, between a Lacedæmonian fleet of 60 triremes and an Athenian fleet of 80. Forty-nine of the former were disabled or captured. "This was the first great victory . . . which the Athenians had gained at sea since the Peloponnesian war."—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece*, *pt.* 2, *ch.* 77.

A. D. 1204-1567.—The mediæval dukedom.—"In the partition of the [Byzantine] empire [after the conquest of Constantinople, in 1204, by the Crusaders and the Venetians], the twelve islands of the Archipelago, which had formed the theme of the Egean sea in the provincial division of the Byzantine empire, fell to the share of the crusading barons; but Mark Sanudo, one of the most influential of the Venetian nobles in the expedition, obtained possession of the principal part of the ancient theme—though whether by purchase from the Frank barons to whom it had been allotted, or by grant to himself from the emperor, is not known. Sanudo, however, made his appearance at the parliament of Ravenika as one of the great feudatories of the empire of Romania, and was invested by the emperor Henry with the title of Duke of the Archipelago, or Naxos. It is difficult to say on what precise footing Sanudo placed his relations with the republic. His conduct in the war of Crete shows that he ventured to act as a baron of Romania, or an independent prince, when he thought his personal interests at variance with his born allegiance to Venice. . . . The new duke and his successors were compelled by their position to acknowledge themselves, in some degree, vassals both of the empire of Romania and of the republic of Venice; yet they acted as sovereign princes." Nearly at the close of the fourteenth century the dukedom passed from the Sanudo family to the Crispo family, who reigned under the protection of Venice until 1587, when the Duke of Naxos was reduced to vassalage by the Turkish sultan Suleiman. Thirty years later, his title and authority were extinguished by the sultan, on the petition of the Greek inhabitants, who could not endure his oppressive and disgraceful government.—G. Finlay, *Hist. of Greece from its Conquest by the Crusaders*, *ch.* 10, *sect.* 1–3.

ALSO IN: Sir J. E. Tennent, *Hist. of Modern Greece*, *ch.* 8.—H. F. Tozer, *The Islands of the Aegean*, *ch.* 4.

NAZARETH, Battle of (1799). See FRANCE: A. D. 1798–1799 (AUGUST—AUGUST).

NEANDERTHAL MAN.—The race represented by a remarkable human skull and imperfect skeleton found in 1857, in a limestone cave in the Neanderthal, Rhenish Prussia, and thought to be the most primitive race of which any knowledge has yet been obtained.—J. Geikie, *Prehistoric Europe*, *p.* 22.

ALSO IN: W. B. Dawkins, *Cave Hunting*, *p.* 240.

NEAPOLIS, Schools of.—In the first century of the Roman empire, "Neapolis [modern Naples] had its schools and colleges, as well as Athens; its society abounded in artists and men of letters, and it enjoyed among the Romans the title of the learned, which comprehended in their view the praise of elegance as well as knowledge."—C. Merivale, *Hist. of the Romans*, *ch.* 40.

NEAPOLIS AND PALÆPOLIS.—"Palaepolis is mentioned only by Livy: it was an ancient Cumaean colony, the Cumaeans having taken refuge there across the sea. Neapolis derives its name from being a much later settlement of different Greek tribes, and was perhaps not founded till Olymp. 91, about the time of the Athenian expedition to Sicily, and as a fortress of the Greeks against the Sabellians. It is not impossible that the Athenians also may have had a share in it. Both towns, however, were of Chalcidian origin and formed one united state, which at that time may have been in possession of Ischia. Many absurdities have been written about the site of Palaepolis, and most of all by Italian antiquaries. We have no data to go upon except the two statements in Livy, that Palaepolis was situated by the side of Neapolis, and that the Romans [in the second Samnite war] had pitched their camp between the two towns. The ancient Neapolis was undoubtedly situated in the centre of the modern city of Naples above the church of Sta. Rosa; the coast is now considerably advanced. People have sought for Palaepolis likewise within the compass of the modern city. . . . I alone should never have discovered its true site, but my friend, the Count de Serre, a French statesman, who in his early life had been in the army and had thus acquired a quick and certain military eye, discovered it in a walk which I took with him. The town was situated on the outer side of Mount Posilipo, where the quarantine now is."—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lects. on the Hist. of Rome*, *lect.* 40 (*v.* 1).—"Parthenopé was an ancient Greek colony founded by the Chalcidians of Cuma on the northern part of the Bay of Naples. In after years another city sprung up a little to the south, whence the original Parthenopé was called Palæpolis or Old-town, while the new town took the name of Neapolis. The latter preserves its name in the modern Naples." Palæpolis was taken by the Romans, B. C. 327, at the beginning of the second Samnite War, and is heard of no more. Neapolis made peace with them and

lived.—H. G. Liddell, *Hist. of Rome, bk.* 3, *ch.* 21 (*v.* 1).

NEAPOLIS (Syracuse). See TEMENITES.

NEARDA. See JEWS: B. C. 536—A. D. 50.

NEBRASKA: The aboriginal inhabitants. See AMERICAN ABORIGINES: PAWNEE (CADDOAN) FAMILY.

A. D. 1803.—Embraced in the Louisiana Purchase. See LOUISIANA: A. D. 1798–1803.

A. D. 1854.—Territorial organization.—The Kansas-Nebraska Bill. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1854.

A. D. 1867.—Admission to the Union.—Nebraska was admitted to the Union in 1867.

NECESSITY, Fort. See OHIO (VALLEY): A. D. 1754.

NECKER, Ministry of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1774–1788, to 1789 (JUNE).

NECTANSMERE, Battle of (A. D. 685). See SCOTLAND: 7TH CENTURY.

NEERWINDEN, OR LANDEN, Battle of (1693). See FRANCE: A. D. 1693 (JULY). .. **Battle of (1793).** See FRANCE: A. D. 1793 (FEBRUARY—APRIL).

NEGRITO.—"The term Negrito, i. e. 'Little Negro,' [was] long applied by the Spaniards to the dark dwarfish tribes in the interior of Luzon, and some others of the Philippine Islands. Here it will be extended to the dwarfish negroid tribes in the Andaman Islands and interior of Malacca, but to no others."—A. H. Keane, *Philology and Ethnology of the Interoceanic Races* (*app. to Wallace's Hellwald's Australasia*), *sect.* 4.

NEGRO, The. See AFRICA: THE INHABITING RACES.

NEGRO PLOT, Imagined in New York. See NEW YORK: A. D. 1741.

NEGRO SLAVERY. See SLAVERY: NEGRO.

NEGRO SUFFRAGE. See UNITED STATES OF AM.. A. D. 1867 (JANUARY), and (MARCH); and 1868–1870.

NEGRO TROOPS, in the American Civil War. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (MAY: SOUTH CAROLINA).

NEGROPONT: The Name.—In the middle ages, Eubœa was called Egripo, a corruption of Euripus, the name of the town built upon the ruins of Chalcis. The Venetians called it Negropont, probably a corruption of Egripo, and 'ponte,' a bridge

A. D. 1470.—Capture and massacre by the Turks. See GREECE: A. D. 1454–1479.

NEGUS, OR NEGOOS, The. See ABYSSINIA: 15–19TH CENTURIES.

NEHAVEND, Battle of. See MAHOMETAN CONQUEST: A. D. 632–651.

NELSON, Lord: Victory in the Battle of the Nile. See FRANCE: A. D. 1798 (MAY—AUG.)..... **Bombardment of Copenhagen.** See FRANCE: A. D. 1801–1802..... **Death at Trafalgar.** See FRANCE: A. D. 1805 (MAR.—DEC.).

NELSON'S FARM, OR GLENDALE, Battle of. See UNITED STATES OF AM.: A. D. 1862 (JUNE—JULY: VIRGINIA).

NEMEDIANS, The.—It is among the legends of the Irish that their island was settled, about the time of the patriarch Jacob, by a colony of descendants from Japhet, led by one Nemedius, from whom they and their posterity took the name of Nemedians. The Nemedians were afterwards subjugated by a host of African sea-rovers, known as Fomorians, but were delivered from these in time by a fresh colony of their kindred from the East called the Fir Bolgs. —T. Wright, *Hist. of Ireland, bk.* 1, *ch.* 2.

NEMEAN AND ISTHMIAN GAMES.—"The Nemean and Isthmian [games in ancient Greece] were celebrated each twice in every Olympiad, at different seasons of the year: the former in the plain of Nemea, in Argolis, under the presidency of Argos; the latter in the Corinthian isthmus, under the presidency of Corinth. These, like the Pythian and Olympic games, claimed a very high antiquity, though the form in which they were finally established was of late institution; and it is highly probable that they were really suggested by the tradition of ancient festivals, which had served to cement an Amphictyonic confederacy."—C. Thirlwall, *Hist. of Greece, ch* 10.

NEMETACUM.—Modern Arras. See BELGÆ.

NEMETES, The. See VANGIONES.

NEMI, Priest of. See ARICIAN GROVE.

NEMOURS, Treaty and Edict of. See FRANCE: A. D. 1584–1589.

NEODAMODES.—Enfranchised helots, in ancient Sparta.—G. Grote, *Hist. of Greece, pt.* 2, *ch.* 73.

NEOLITHIC PERIOD. See STONE AGE.

NEOPLATONICS, The.—"There now [in the third century after Christ] arose another school, which from its first beginnings announced itself as a reform and support of the ancient faith, and, consequently, as an enemy of the new religion. This was the Neoplatonic school of Alexandria, founded by Ammonius Saccas and Plotinus, and which was afterwards represented by Porphyrius, Amelius, and Iamblicus. The doctrine of this school was the last, and in many respects the best production of paganism, now in its final struggle; the effort of a society, which acknowledged its own defects, to regenerate and to purify itself. Philosophy, and the religion of the vulgar, hitherto separated and irreconcilable, joined in harmony together for mutual support, and for a new existence. The Neoplatonics endeavoured, therefore, to unite the different systems of philosophy, especially the Pythagorean, Platonic, and Aristotelean, in one body with the principles of oriental learning, and thus to raise an edifice of universal, absolute truth. In the same manner they represented the varied forms of eastern and western religious worship as one entire whole, which had manifested itself indeed in different ways, but at the foundation of which there lay the same true faith. They taught that 'every kind of homage and adoration, which men offer to superior beings, is referred to heroes, demons, or Gods, but, finally, to the one most-high God, the author of all: that these demons are the chiefs and genii of the different parts, elements, and powers of the world, of people, countries, and cities, to obtain whose favour and protection, it behoved men to honour them according to the rites and customs of the ancients.' It is, therefore, manifest that these philosophers were essentially hostile to the Christian religion,—the exclusive character of which, and tendency to destroy all other religions, stood in direct contrast with their

doctrines: and as their school was in its vigour at the very time in which Christianity made its most rapid advances, and had struck Paganism with a mortal wound, they employed themselves especially, and more earnestly, than other philosophers, to maintain their own tenets, and to destroy Christianity. They in nowise, however, desired to defend heathenism, or its worship, in their then degenerate and degrading state: their ideal was a more pure, more noble, spiritualized, polytheism, to establish which was the object which they had proposed to themselves. Whilst, therefore, on the one hand, they preserved the ancient and genuine truths which had sprung from primitive tradition, and purified them from recent errors and deformations; on the other, they adopted many of the doctrines of the hated Christianity, and sought to reform paganism by the aid of light which had streamed upon them from the sanctuary of the Church. This admission and employment of Christian truths are easily explained, if it be true, that two of their chiefs, Ammonius and Porphyrius, had been Christians. It is well known that they received instructions from Christian masters. . . . This uniformity, or imitation, consists not only in the use of terms, but in essential dogmas. The Neoplatonic idea of three hypostases in one Godhead would not have been heard of, if the Christian doctrine of the Trinity had not preceded it. . . . Their doctrines respecting the minor Gods, their influence and connexion with the supreme Being, approached near to the Christian dogma of the angels. Nor is the influence of Christianity less evident in the pure and grave morality of the Neoplatonics: in their lessons which teach the purifying of fallen souls, the detachment from the senses, the crucifying . . . of the affections and passions, it is easy to distinguish the Christian, from the commingled pagan, elements. The Neoplatonics endeavoured to reform polytheism by giving to men a doctrine more pure concerning the Gods, by attributing an allegorical sense to the fables, and a moral signification to the forms and ceremonies of religion: they sought to raise the souls of men to piety, and rejected from their mythology many of the degrading narrations with which it had before abounded. It was their desire also to abolish the sacrifices, for the Gods could only abhor the slaughter, the dismemberment and the burning of animals. But at the same time they reduced to a theory the apparitions of the Gods; they declared magic to be the most divine of sciences; they taught and defended theurgy, or the art of invoking the Gods (those of an inferior order, who were united to matter), and of compelling them to comply with the desires of men."—J. J. I. Döllinger, *Hist. of the Church*, *v.* 1, *pp.* 70–73.

Also in: F. Ueberweg, *Hist. of Philosophy*, *sect.* 66–70 (*v.* 1).—C. Kingsley, *Alexandria and Her Schools*.

NEPAUL, OR NIPAL.—A country south of Tibet, on the southern slope of the Himalayas. Its former Buddhist inhabitants, the Newars, were conquered in the 18th century by the Ghorkas, a Rajput tribe from Cashmere, who were subjugated in turn by the British in India. See India: A. D. 1805–1816.

NEPHTHALITES, The. See Huns, The White.

NEPOTISM, Papal. See Papacy: A. D. 1644–1667.

NERAC, Treaty of. See France: A. D. 1578–1580.

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

NERI AND BIANCHI (Blacks and Whites), The. See Florence: A. D. 1296–1300; and 1301–1318.

NERO, Roman Emperor, A. D. 54–68.

NERONIA.—Games instituted by Nero.

NERVA, Roman Emperor, A. D. 96–98.

NERVII, The.—A tribe in Belgic Gaul, at the time of Cæsar's conquest, which occupied the country "between the Sambre and the Scheldt (French and Belgic Hainaut, provinces of Southern Brabant, of Antwerp, and part of Eastern Flanders)."—Napoleon III., *Hist. of Cæsar*, *bk.* 3, *ch.* 2, *foot-note* (*v.* 2).—The tribe was destroyed by Cæsar. See Belgæ.

NESSA: Destruction by the Mongols (1220). See Khorassan: A. D. 1220–1221.

NESTORIAN AND MONOPHYSITE CONTROVERSY.—The great religious controversy of the Christian world in the fourth century, relating to the mystery of the Trinity, having been settled by the triumph of the doctrine of Athanasius over the doctrine of Arius, it was succeeded in the fifth century by a still more violent disputation, which concerned the yet profounder mystery of the Incarnation. To the dogmatists of one party it was wickedness to distinguish the divine nature and the human nature which they believed to be united in Christ; to the dogmatists of the other side it was sin to confound them. Cyril of Alexandria became the implacable leader of the first party. Nestorius, Patriarch of Constantinople, was forced to the front of the battle on the other side and became its martyr. The opponents of Nestorius gained advantages in the contest from the then rapidly growing tendency in the Christian world to pay divine honors to the Virgin Mary as the Mother of God. To Nestorius and those who believed with him, this was abhorrent. "Like can but bear like," said Nestorius in one of his sermons; "a human mother can only bear a human being. God was not born—he dwelt in that which was born." But the mob was too easily charmed with Mariolatry to be moved by reasoning on the subject, and Cyril led the mob, not only in Alexandria, where it murdered Hypatia and massacred Jews at his bidding, but generally throughout the Christian world. A Council called at Ephesus in 431 and recognized as the third Œcumenical Council, condemned Nestorius and degraded him from his episcopal throne; but a minority disputed its procedure and organized a rival Council, which retorted anathemas and excommunications against Cyril and his friends. The emperor at last interfered and dissolved both; but Nestorius, four years later, was exiled to the Libyan desert and persecuted remorselessly until he died. Meantime the doctrine of Cyril had been carried to another stage of development by one of his most ardent supporters, the Egyptian monk Eutyches, who maintained that the human nature of Christ was absorbed in the divine nature. Both forms of the doctrine of one nature in the Son of God seem to have acquired somewhat confusedly the name of Monophysite, though the latter tenet is more often called Eutychian, from the name of its chief promulgator. It kindled new fires in the controversy. In 449, a second Council at